

**‘Influencing Upwards’: A Phenomenological Study of
“Effective Followership” in the UK HE Sector**

Darren Paul Cunningham

**Submitted for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

July 2019

Lancaster University Management School

Acknowledgements

Thanks must go to Lancaster University's Management School. In particular, I would like to express my personal gratitude to Professor David Collinson, Dr David Simm, and Dr Dermot O'Reilly who have afforded me their extensive experience, knowledge and patience. In the build-up to submitting this thesis, their contributions were invaluable. Sincere thanks extend to Jean Blanquet, in the University's Library. Her assistance was instrumental, especially where some of the more rarely available or hard to find reading materials contributed significantly to the completeness of the literature review. Similarly, a debt of gratitude is afforded to Joan Paterson, whose skills in touch-typing helped tremendously. She so expertly transformed data from many digitally recorded interviews into written transcripts ready for analysis. Also, thanks are owed to my dear friend and fellow part-time PhD student Paul Robbins, who as I recall we met in the University's car park on day one and stayed friends ever since. Paul was a great support throughout this incredible journey, and his wonderful sense of humour and the Indian meals we shared in the Bombay Balti in Lancaster will forever be fondly remembered.

Thanks are also due to my family who have been there to support me. Firstly, my late father who has been an inspiration to me all of my life, so I dedicate my many years of academic endeavour to him. I can only hope that he would be as proud of my work as I am of him and his achievements. To my mother, who is a great source of strength during the most personally difficult and challenging times, her resilience is inspirational. To my children, Darcey and Harvey, without whom my life would not be fulfilled. It is important that my family know that without them I would not have had the motivation

or inspiration to make the journey from YTS to PhD, culminating in the writing of this thesis. I would also like to thank my friend Jean Greaves for offering me a base whilst undertaking the fieldwork for this study and to Sean Smith and Barry Lovatt for their kind words of encouragement and morale support.

It is also appropriate to thank several employers who provided financial assistance and the time required to undertake this research; the University of Stirling, University of Edinburgh, and Heriot-Watt University. Without their support it would not have been possible for me to undertake this research.

Finally, my sincere thanks to the many Academic Leaders and Administration Managers who agreed to talk to me so candidly about their experiences of followership. I was fortunate enough to meet and interview some very insightful people, and I hope this doctoral thesis does justice to their experiences.

Abstract

This thesis examines the possible meanings of ‘effective’ and ‘ineffective’ followership, drawing on the growing interest and literature on this topic. The approach is to explore how ‘upward influence’ can be a possible determinant of ‘effective followership’ by focusing on the workings of such influence within leadership dynamics. The study presents a phenomenological inquiry into the lived experiences of upward influence amongst 18 Academic Leaders and 17 Administration Managers from 16 institutions in the UK higher education sector. The study seeks to develop a critical approach to analysing followership and the research findings. In so doing, it reveals the significance of meaning that is attached to the key themes of control, identity and influencing tactics in cases where upward influence appears to be effective or ineffective. What the findings show is that followers influence upwards to generate and cultivate social power. They learn to be tactical and frequently refine their capacity to influence upwards that emerges in one’s consciousness as a followership style. The leader becomes more encouraging and receptive to certain followership styles and established hard-edged dichotomies between leadership and followership begin to blur. The consequence is more autonomy to practice followership to achieve desired outcomes with a reduced risk of failure or punishment. Subsequently, effectiveness is managing the flow of upward influence, monitoring the effects, and learning how to have more impact, which all inform the adoption and switching of identities. This is reciprocally viewed as an obligation of leaders and followers to reposition themselves to sustain their mutual effectiveness within contextual parameters. Consequently, the experience of effective followership reveals a normative/moral essence that is inescapable.

Contents

Acknowledgements	1
Abstract.....	3
Contents	4
Summary of Figures	8
List of Tables	9
Glossary of Terms	10
Chapter 1: Introduction	13
1.1 Scene Setting.....	13
1.2 Research Background	14
1.3 Gap in the Research	17
1.4 Purpose of this Study	19
1.5 Author's Interest in the Topic	20
1.6 Outline of this Thesis	24
Chapter 2: Mainstream Followership Studies	29
2.1 Prescriptive perspectives of followership	31
2.2 Descriptive perspectives of followership	47
2.3 Conclusion	62
Chapter 3: Critical Approaches to Followership Studies	65
3.1 Critical perspectives of followership	66
3.1.1 Critically critiquing followership.....	67
3.1.2 Follower agency, knowledgeability and proactivity	77
3.1.3 Power dynamics and relations.....	84
3.1.4 Upward communication.....	91
3.2 Conclusion	99
Chapter 4: Upward Influencing Studies	101
4.1 Upward influencing tactics and practices	101
4.1.1 Identifying, categorising, and measuring influence	102
4.1.2 Follower-centric influence	110
4.1.3 Moderating contextual factors.....	120
4.2 Conclusion	130
Chapter 5: Research Methodology	132
5.1 Philosophy.....	132
5.1.1 Ontology	137

5.1.2 Epistemology	140
5.2 Theoretical perspective	145
5.2.1 Phenomenology.....	146
5.2.2 Phenomenological and existential inquiry into leadership.....	151
5.3 Methodology	155
5.3.1 Qualitative research.....	155
5.3.2 Quality criteria	156
5.3.3 Sampling strategy, permissions, and consent.....	161
5.3.4 Capturing the Research Data.....	164
5.3.5 Data collection	169
5.3.6 Data analysis	170
5.4 Ethical considerations	172
5.4.1 Researcher responsibilities.....	173
5.4.2 Participants' rights	176
5.5 Summary	178
Chapter 6: Research Background	180
6.1 The Administration Manager Role	180
6.2 The UK Higher Education Environment.....	187
6.3 Higher Education Administration Managers as Followers	193
6.4 Conclusion	198
Chapter 7: Research Findings (Successful Upward Influence)	201
7.1 Analysing the Research Data	201
7.2 Key Theme - Control	204
7.2.1 Sub-theme – Authority.....	205
7.2.2 Sub-theme Partnership	209
7.3 Key Theme - Identity	216
7.3.1 Sub-theme – Legitimacy	216
7.3.2 Sub-theme – Support.....	220
7.4 Key Theme – Influencing Tactics.....	224
7.4.1 Sub-theme – Challenging.....	225
7.4.2 Sub-theme – Positioning	231
7.5 Conclusion	237
Chapter 8: Research Findings (Barriers, Dilemmas, and Challenges)	239
8.1 Key Theme - Control	239
8.1.1 Sub-theme – Authority.....	239

8.1.2 Sub-theme – Partnership	247
8.2 Key Theme - Identity	251
8.2.1 Sub-theme – Legitimacy	252
8.2.2 Sub-theme – Support.....	257
8.3 Key Theme – Influencing Tactics.....	261
8.3.1 Sub-theme – Challenging.....	262
8.3.2 Sub-theme – Positioning	266
8.4 Conclusion	274
Chapter 9: Discussion of Findings.....	276
9.1 Research Question 1.....	276
9.2 Research Question 2.....	278
9.3 Research Question 3.....	283
9.4 Main discussion	287
9.4.1 Follower agency, knowledgeability and proactivity	288
9.4.1.1 Follower Control (Authority & Partnership).....	288
9.4.1.2 Follower Identity (Legitimacy & Support)	291
9.4.1.3 Follower Influencing Tactics (Challenging & Positioning).....	294
9.4.2 Power dynamics and relations.....	301
9.4.2.1 Dyadic Control (Authority & Partnership)	301
9.4.2.2 Dyadic Identity (Legitimacy & Support)	307
9.4.2.3 Dyadic Influencing Tactics (Challenging & Positioning).....	316
9.5 Summary	327
9.6 Implications of the Findings	330
9.6 Methodological Limitations.....	333
9.7 Future Research	335
Chapter 10: Conclusion.....	338
10.1 The Experience of Upward Influence as Effective Followership	338
10.2 The Experience of Upward Influence as Ineffective Followership.....	344
10.3 Implications of this Study	350
10.4 Personal Reflections.....	353
References	355
Appendices.....	387
Appendices 1: Followers’ Merits and Demerits.....	387
Appendices 2: The Leader-Follower Relationship	388
Appendices 3: Summary of Influence Tactics	389

Appendices 4: University Permission E-mail	390
Appendices 5: Research Subject E-mail	391
Appendices 6: Research Project Description	393
Appendices 7: Research Subject Informed Consent Form	395
Appendices 8: Interview preamble and questions (Academic Leader).....	396
Appendices 9: Interview preamble and questions (Administration Manager).....	397
Appendices 10: Check Interview Transcript E-mail	398

Summary of Figures

Figure 1: Second order factor model of implicit followership theories	37
Figure 2: Relational leader-follower schemas	39
Figure 3: The conceptual framework for authentic leader and follower development	43
Figure 4: The 4-D Followership Model	47
Figure 5: Kelley’s original followership typology model (1988)	49
Figure 6: Zaleznik’s dynamics of subordinacy typology model (1965)	52
Figure 7: Follower styles matrix	54
Figure 8: Integrated model of follower types and leader styles	58
Figure 9: Structuration theory – system and structure	81
Figure 10: Integrated framework of upward influence processes	123
Figure 11: The 4 Metaphors of Organisational Politics	129
Figure 12: Administration Manager Organisational Structures	181
Figure 13: Key Themes and Sub-Themes	203

List of Tables

Table 1: Implicit Leadership Theories Prototypes.....	34
Table 2: Highly ranked prescriptive followership competencies.....	36
Table 3: Self-identity based relational typology.....	44
Table 4: Traditional followership institutions.....	45
Table 5: Kelley’s followership styles (1992).....	50
Table 6: Descriptive followership typologies	50
Table 7: Self-enhancement and self-protection typology model (1982).....	53
Table 8: Descriptive categorisations of effectiveness.....	54
Table 9: Descriptive follower typology of positive and negative behaviours	56
Table 10: Leader-follower preference relational typology	57
Table 11: Contextual fit of followership.....	61
Table 12: Courageous followership model	86
Table 13: Chaleff’s courageous follower categories.....	87
Table 14: A post-structuralist analysis of follower identities	89
Table 15: The key techniques of coercive persuasion - Schein et al. 1961	96
Table 16: Eight dimensions of influence	104
Table 17: Manager categorisation of influence types	105
Table 18: Grouping of influence types	106
Table 19: Acceptability of upward influencing tactics	108
Table 20: Determinants of influence tactic selection.....	112
Table 21: Power tactics subordinates use toward their superiors	113
Table 22: Personality and leadership	115
Table 23: Outcome/effective relationship with influencing tactics	117
Table 24: Organisations and modes of political rule	126
Table 25: Political influence factors	127
Table 26: Sampling Frame.....	163

Glossary of Terms

Term	Definition
Academic Leader	<i>A senior academic in a position of having formal hierarchical responsibility for leading a defined academic organisational unit within a University.</i>
Administration Manager	<i>A manager in a position of having formal hierarchical responsibility for leading the support services in a defined academic department etc. in a University.</i>
Agency	<i>The capacity of an actor (i.e. Leader or Follower) to act in a given environment (i.e. University) with a degree of discretion.</i>
Authority	<i>The right to exercise political or administrative power to influence or command thought, opinion, or behaviour.</i>
Challenging	<i>The act of questioning someone's right or authority or decision.</i>
Control	<i>The power to influence or direct people's behaviour or the course of events.</i>
Critical Perspective	<i>Critical approaches make explicit and transparent the issues of power asymmetries, control strategies and diversities/inequalities that exist in leader-follower relations.</i>
Descriptive Perspective	<i>Taking a descriptive perspective involves attempting to explain things as they actually are, not as we wish them to be, in this case describing the follower, following, and followership.</i>
Follower	<i>One who accepts the guidance, command, authority or leadership of another.</i>
Followership	<i>The ability or willingness to follow a leader.</i>
Formal Leader	<i>A member of the organisation who has given authority by virtue of their hierarchical position to influence other members of the organisation to achieve organisational goals.</i>
Identity	<i>An essential aspect of who we believe we are, consisting of our sense of self and how we subjectively locate ourselves in the social world, combined with how others view and define us, affecting everything we do, feel, say, and think.</i>

Influence	<i>The capacity to affect the character, development, or behaviour of someone or something, or the effect itself (i.e. the effect either the Leader or Follower have on each other).</i>
Leader	<i>A leader is the one in charge, the person who convinces other people to follow.</i>
Leadership	<i>The process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts in a given situation.</i>
Leadership Dynamic	<i>The interactive social process of influence that plays out in the leader-follower relationship in specific contexts.</i>
Mainstream Literature	<i>A term that refers to a major or prevailing trend in literature that has popularity.</i>
Phenomenon	<i>An appearance or immediate object of awareness in experience.</i>
Phenomenological	<i>Denoting or relating to an approach that concentrates on the study of consciousness and the objects of direct lived experience.</i>
Positioning	<i>An act designed to portray oneself or regard someone as a particular type of person or a social location.</i>
Post-structuralist	<i>A variation of structuralism, often seen as a critique, emphasising the plurality of meaning and instability of concepts that structuralism uses to define society, language, etc.</i>
Power (Social)	<i>The degree of influence that an individual has among their peers and within their society. Social power can typically be credited to the level of the skill, knowledge, information or prominence in a desirable area of expertise.</i>
Prescriptive Perspective	<i>Conceiving of something as it should or should not be, based on a particular viewpoint, in this case taking account of following and followership from a leader-centric vantage point.</i>
Support	<i>Providing assistance in respect to something or someone or the state of being in a position of receiving assistance.</i>
Tactics	<i>An action or strategy carefully planned to achieve a specific end.</i>

Upward
Influence

A subordinate's attempt to intentionally or unintentionally affect their hierarchical superior is a process or flow of influence in a bottom-up direction.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Scene Setting

This thesis examines leader-follower relations, follower dynamics and upward influencing practices, to explore how the experience of upward influence can hold meaning in terms of effective followership. It draws on original empirical research in the UK HE sector, focusing in particular on relations between academic leaders and academic administration managers in various universities. The significance of this research is that it contributes to a growing interest and literature on followership in leadership and organisational studies. It is also a timely contribution, given that in recent years there has been growing interest in the area of followership. The compulsion to research followership and interest in the topic is a response to the persistent concern for the characteristics and behaviours of the leader, and subsequent neglect of the follower and the act of following. Consequently, there is a heavy reliance on leader-centric thinking in leadership studies, and this paradigm traditionally informs how organisations practice leadership and prepare their formal leaders for leadership roles.

Concerns about the validity of leadership theorising, which fails to acknowledge the importance of the follower and context, has generated a thought-provoking body of knowledge. It is this knowledge that appears to bring us closer to understanding leadership as a process. Accordingly, this process incorporates a feature of a relational dynamic between the leader and follower, yet the typical research approach has been to theorise the concepts of leadership and followership in isolation. Accordingly, scholars tend to adopt either a leader-centric or a follower-centric perspective. However, by viewing leader-follower relations through a critical lens, it is possible to move beyond

merely attempting to describe narrow conceptions of leading or following. This approach also negates the need to unquestionably accept leader oriented notions of effective followership as unproblematic. Hence, this study adopts a critical phenomenological perspective that considers followership as integral to the leadership dynamic, as experienced by both leaders and followers uniquely. This study draws on the experience of ‘influence’ to explore the ‘followership phenomenon’ to determine what constitutes the experience of ‘followership effectiveness’ for both leaders and followers. It is worth making the point at this stage that the study is concerned with the essence of the phenomenon, as opposed to variances in experiences more commonly associated with phenomenography (Larsson and Holmström, 2007, Hasselgren and Beach, 1997). Hence, the researcher’s intention is to capture the essence of the followership experience as a narrative, so taking account of the dynamics that exist in the space in-between leaders and followers but within that which cannot be denied about the phenomenon.

1.2 Research Background

What becomes very evident, when working through the followership literature and what this infers in terms of its association with leadership, is that the term ‘followership’ is not a hard clear, tangible and objective ‘thing’. In many ways, it is an ambiguous, shifting, and contested term. So, for example, the followers in this study are employed in managerial roles as academic administration managers. In this sense, they occupy the roles of both leaders and followers. Therefore, the existing body of research contains many varied ways of seeing the role of a follower and conceiving of followership. This situation can be used to question the validity of following and followership in the context of leadership, or it can be used to ask if there are other dimensions to leadership

that need to be considered in greater detail for us to comprehend the scope and capacity of leadership fully.

Several studies have investigated followership, but there are still relatively few in comparison to leadership (Baker, 2007, Bjugstad et al., 2006). However, the concept is gradually gaining popularity and features more prominently in the contemporary critical analysis of leadership (Harding, 2015). In terms of the evolving nature of followership thinking and theorising in the literature, much of what is evident as early works have empirically weak foundations. Subsequently, there can be some criticism of their validity and reliability in furthering our knowledge of followership. However, this era delivered the seminal works of Kelley (1992) and Chaleff (1995), that are still popular ways of conceiving of followership in contemporary leadership practices. A more recent relevant example is the concept of ‘intelligent disobedience’ (Chaleff, 2015). Hence, these works feature prominently in the findings of this study. Other studies present strong empirical foundations in this field of inquiry, penned by prominent scholars such as Zaleznik (1965), Agho (2009), Carsten et al. (2010), Hurwitz and Hurwitz (2009b), Tanoff and Barlow (2002), and Sy (2010) although many studies tend to be grounded in a psychological approach to understanding followership.

Several sources of highly relevant established empirical studies have informed the development of this thesis, specifically by drawing on the study of leadership and followership in the context of educational and public sector institutions. In educational contexts, there is a growing body of research that has drawn on US Schools e.g. Gabbard (2013) or UK Further Education e.g. Collinson and Collinson (2009) and Thody (2003). There are also studies in the higher education sector internationally that explore

relationships between leadership and followership, but these are primarily confined to relationships within the academic community e.g. Billot et al. (2013) and Osborne (2011). This study departs from this approach by encompassing relational dynamics beyond what occurs within one segment of a community within UK HE. There are also many useful dissertations from doctoral students internationally on closely related aspects of the topic or in relevant contexts e.g. Vondey (2012), Dagg-Heston (2007), Francis (2015) and Cameron (1981). There are also highly relevant publications penned by professionals in the field e.g. Ball and Carter (2001) and Birnbaum (1989). However, what is remarkably useful are critical evaluations undertaken in UK public sector organisations such as Grint and Holt's (2011) study of followership in the NHS, and Evans's (2010) inquiry into the relational dynamics between leaders and followers in a local government setting. All of the insights obtained from this rich and diverse range of literary sources have helped to inform the design of this study and helped to add value to its findings.

The review of followership literature undertaken by Crossman and Crossman (2011) is instrumental because it is the starting point for this study for two reasons. Firstly, it provides the foundation for questioning the extent to which 'influence' may have an association with 'effective followership'. Secondly, the reviewers identify multiple perspectives in the mainstream followership literature, making distinctions in how our understanding of followership is academically evolving. Accordingly, descriptive perspectives appear to encompass the interpretations of many observers to provoke a general understanding of the phenomenon. Prescriptive perspectives tend to adopt either a leader-centric or a follower-centric viewpoint, suggesting that there could be a strong association with organisational politics central to tactical influence that contribute to

shaping dyadic relations. As such, it is possible to argue that the follower's viewpoint begins to show signs of having incrementally greater significance when moving from descriptive to prescriptive perspectives. The value that the mainstream studies of followership offer is to expose the range of factors that could inform influencing tactics, especially in terms of what constrains the follower in adopting influencing behaviours beyond those that are merely favoured by the leader. In this sense, prescriptive perspectives suggest that only certain behaviours are upwardly influencing. Subsequently, these initial socio-perspectives of followership have laid the foundation to move towards more critical approaches that offer the potential for new ways of analysing followers and their (possible) influence on leadership dynamics.

1.3 Gap in the Research

Despite this growing interest and emergent literature on the topic, few attempts have been made to explore the possible meanings of 'effective followership' in any meaningful empirical way. This study interprets 'effectiveness' in relation to successfully producing a desired or intended result, as recognised and defined by the leader and follower. It also acknowledges that, just like the terms 'follower' and 'followership', 'upward influence' is a potentially ambiguous term requiring more in-depth analysis and interrogation. This thesis will attempt to explore the various possible meanings of 'effective upward influence' in the context of UK HE.

At present, the notion that 'upward influence' is an aspect of being an effective follower is an assumption (Crossman and Crossman, 2011). Accordingly, it is critically important to ascertain how a subordinate will attempt to affect their hierarchical superior through a process or flow of influence in a bottom-up direction, and any

resultant evaluation of their effectiveness. The emphasis here is to attain the desired outcome without alienating the higher authority. Existing studies have not yet addressed the issue of how and why upward influence is significant, as well as how and why followers experience a lack of effectiveness in their dyadic relationship with leaders. Subsequently, the negative consequences for the follower, whereby they lose credibility because of what is deemed to represent ‘ineffective followership’, have received little attention. In response, this study can expose not only the approaches that deliver mutually positive experiences of followership but also negative ones (as opposed to those that can be contested as only positive from a leader or follower vantage point). Accordingly, the value of this research is to learn more about why followers are not always compelled to follow, and why leaders are not always receptive to followers’ attempts to be influential in the leadership process. This focus of attention then makes way for greater consideration of the politics and sociology of the leadership dynamic, which can be often neglected and insufficiently understood in the existing body of knowledge.

The contribution this study offers is a triangulated view drawing on the experience of effective followership amongst leaders and followers (with the latter group being situated in managerial roles). The approach this study takes is informed by the existence of a common relational bond evident in many sectors, to be exact a highly qualified professional working with the support of an administrative/business support role. This kind of relationship is commonplace in the areas of medicine, the law, and the civil service. Certainly, there has been some work undertaken by focusing on how a clash of cultures exists between managers and professionals (Raelin, 1991). However, this work did not extend to what this means in terms of leadership and followership. Nonetheless,

there are other sources that present some acknowledgement of a need to evaluate what followers bring to the leadership process (Antelo et al., 2010) and determine the skills that in practice those in administrative support roles need to demonstrate to be seen to be effective in the context of leadership (Seliman and Orio, 2018).

Ultimately, this study is concerned with exploring followership, as opposed to the more popular leadership, and more specifically upward influence in the leadership dynamic. The contribution this study makes is further elaborated on by drawing on phenomenology, a perspective that is seldom applied in the area of leadership studies, with the notable exception of Ladkin (2010). This approach also responds to Ford and Harding's (2015) critique of followership's place in leadership theorising, by producing a critical account they claim is generally absent in the field of leadership studies.

1.4 Purpose of this Study

This thesis aims to ascertain the significance of the association between upward influence and effective followership. Accordingly, the thesis presents findings originating from the lived experiences of leaders and followers, who directly experience followership and upward influence within an organisational setting. Therefore, this research seeks to address the following research questions:

Do followers experience exercising upward influence?

If so, what are the felt consequences?

What are the possible meanings of effectiveness?

The theoretical importance of these research questions arises from moving beyond descriptive notions of followers, as statically positioned in typology models, or

prescriptive leader-centred interpretations, which indicate what behaviours are useful to leaders as complementary to leadership. Accordingly, by contemplating more critical conceptions of followership, the reliability and validity of the traditional view of effective followers and following are brought in to question. Hence, it is deemed vitally important to consider to what extent is an effective follower a good supporter of the leader by merely following. Alternatively, is follower effectiveness better understood in terms of challenging and influencing the leader to lead better? Accordingly, experiences of leaders and followers motivations and tactics provide an intriguing and distinctive dimension for this inquiry.

This research attempts to develop a greater understanding of followership from both a leader and follower perspective, by drawing on and contributing to more critical perspectives of followership. The critical approach is distinct because it rejects functional and interpretive assumptions that have informed much of the existing knowledge about leadership. Consequently, there is a more significant concern here for power relations and identity constructions in leadership dynamics, which challenge the assumption that leaders are dominant and followers are merely subservient. Therefore, the objective of this study is to firstly, consider how followers view themselves and followership, in the context of their relationship with the leader and the political nature of the workplace. Then secondly, to consider how leaders come to appreciate the significance of followership in the leadership process.

1.5 Author's Interest in the Topic

The author's interest in these research questions is inspired by the author's own experiences in various organisational roles. Watershed moments that remain vivid in

one's own experience led to the realisation of personally desired outcomes. The relevance being that personal predetermined objectives act here as the underpinning motive to inform my interactions with leaders. Such experiences evolve into predetermined tactical acts of followership. The initial experience of this occurred in an apprentice position, whereby my then manager expressed an observation in my annual appraisal. He explained that, of his three apprentices, to him I stood out as the one that had a greater sense of responsibility, citing several examples that rationalised why he came to this conclusion. At that time, the concept of followership was not a personal consideration. However, on reflection, this now appears to be an early experience of effective followership, albeit an unconscious one from a somewhat naive youthful perspective. Several years later, I became academically intrigued by the concept of followership, as a consequence of attending a Chartered Management Institute talk by Professor Keith Grint entitled 'Wheelwrights and White Elephants'. Amidst Professor Grint's novel narrative and analysis of leadership was a salient and highly thought-provoking point; 'if we knew more about followers we would inevitably know more about leadership'.

Finally, the last experience drew together what I had come to know about followership in the workplace and an increasingly personal interest in learning more about the topic. As an Administration Manager at an Australian University, I decided to reject a student's mitigating circumstances, adhering strictly to the University policy. The student appealed, and the Faculty General Manager decided to overrule my initial decision. When she informed me of her decision, her approach indicated that she had predetermined that I was going to react badly. Subsequently, my reaction was more favourable by expressing acceptance of her decision. Unbeknown to my then manager,

I had applied for another position at a larger University to progress my career. After a successful interview, I accepted an offer for this position some weeks later. On the first day in my new role, my new manager alluded to the fact that my previous manager had given me a glowing reference. She went on to elaborate, citing my previous manager's recollection of a recent incident whereby she made a decision to overrule me and how impressed she was with how well I reacted. Accordingly, it appeared that my behaviour as a follower had been upwardly influential in a different manner than intended.

In addition to my previous experiences outlined above, more recently, two research subjects in this study epitomise why the research questions have such relevance. Their respective exposures to the concept of followership stand out as being very insightful in two ways. Firstly, in how context informs our expectations of how we follow and lead, in this case within the higher education sector. Secondly, the value placed on followers and following used to understand leadership better. Specifically, an Academic Leader while responding to my request for an interview alluded to her first reading of the word 'followership'. She vividly recalls a Laurie Taylor spoof known as the 'Poppleton' column in the Times Higher, advertising courses for those who had "failed leadership" (19 August 2010, p.29). Subsequently, she did not know that 'followership' was now an accepted category! I found this excerpt, which defines followership in higher education as "designed for academics who failed last term's leadership course" (19 August 2010, p.29). The piece goes on to underpin its stereotypical sentiment by declaring that "attendees will be introduced to the concept of being a positive follower and receive training in basic dependence, leaving decisions to others, escaping responsibility, passing the buck and general servility" (19 August 2010, p.29). Little wonder then that Academic Leaders shy away from being associated with excelling as

a follower or even considering the role that followership plays in academic leadership. Ironically, five years later Roger Lindsay (2015) reiterates that followership capabilities amongst the academic community are so underdeveloped that Vice-Chancellors and Deans suffer a lack of support from follower constituencies, so are constrained from demonstrating their full capabilities.

The next research subject is an Administration Manager with a previous career as an Army Officer. After I had interviewed him, he alluded to why he embraces followership as a pivotal concept in his civilian and professional life. He recalls being in a war zone and the importance of communicating between his superiors and his troops via a switch box attached to his chest. When he switches up to listen to his Commanding Officer, he is literally a follower, and when he switches down to speak to his troops, he is literally a leader. This experience renders him acutely aware of the time he spends in 'follower mode', taking orders from his superiors. The time he spends following far outweighs the limited time he spends leading the main effort of his troop. It also occurs to him that his followers implicitly rely heavily on his followership ability, to accurately understand, and clearly communicate and respond appropriately to his superiors' direction. In a sense, he is compelled to excel in both leader-follower identities simultaneously irrespective of his rank. He is at ease with being a follower, but more than that, he is accepting of it as necessary in support of leadership and the organisation necessary to achieve a desired outcome.

Having held several positions in numerous Universities what intrigues me is that I have experienced very different relationships with all of my respective Academic Leaders. These relationships range from what I would describe as 'very poor' to 'extremely

good'. So is it conceivable that others experience the same variability in leader-follower relationships within similar work settings. Is this just inevitable, or is this a result of how followership, and in particular upward influence, plays out in their leadership dynamic? Certainly, it is possible to draw out what experiences are positive and what constitutes a negative experience for both leaders and followers. Both favourable and unfavourable experiences offer an opportunity to learn more to enhance followership and leadership in the higher education sector or any other given context.

1.6 Outline of this Thesis

Chapter 2 presents a review of the mainstream literature and established theoretical concepts, which sets out the academic foundations of this thesis. The focus of this chapter is the existing body of knowledge, which has traditionally come to be relied upon to explain followership. The narrative captures how an understanding of followership has traditionally transpired from its earliest prescriptive and descriptive theoretical foundations. This conventional approach presents various attempts to conceptualise followership in the context of organisational effectiveness. Subsequently, there is accepted wisdom associated with this literature that has usefully drawn much-needed attention toward the follower (person), following (act), and followership (intentional interaction with leadership), and its association with the leader (person), leading (act), and leadership (intentional interaction with followership).

Chapter 3 presents critical approaches that reveal the complexity of leader-follower relational dynamics, acknowledging the significance of identity, power, and context. These critical approaches demonstrate how these issues are often neglected or concealed in the mainstream literature. This approach is materially significant to the narrative,

because they offer a different understanding of followership, in terms of the emphasis they place on follower agency and the socialisation process between leadership and followership.

Chapter 4 identifies unresolved questions concerning followership and upward influence. This chapter builds on these more critical approaches to followership by also considering the upward influencing literature. The association between these two bodies of knowledge has frequently been neglected. Yet, I argue here that the work on upward influence has the potential to reveal much more about follower agency, knowledgeability and proactivity, and power dynamics and relations.

Chapter 5 documents the philosophical assumptions that inform this study, the research methodology and how the empirical work is undertaken. This chapter outlines the researcher's belief in a relativist ontology, which defines the philosophy of reality. It also outlines the association with a constructionist epistemology, which reveals how the researcher comes to know how that reality is understood. The phenomenological method applied to this study conceives of followership as a phenomenon and validates the findings. An inductive methodology is applied to elicit in-depth accounts of the research subjects' narratives and identities via the subjective meanings they ascribe to their lived experiences. Accordingly, the overarching questions guiding this study represent a search for meaning for the researcher (i.e. do I conceive of followership to be effective based on capacity or ability to be influential in the leader-follower relationship?). This chapter also explains how the researcher ensures that the results are rigorous and reliable, to give heightened confidence in the trustworthiness and validity of the findings.

Chapter 6 provides details of the research subject and the environment. This chapter outlines the formal role and responsibilities of the research subjects, the significance of these roles relative to one another, and the context both in operational and political terms. Finally, this section of the thesis presents a rationalisation for conceiving of the Administration Manager as a follower. The narrative in this chapter emphasises the relationship between the Academic Leader and Administration Manager as significant to the leadership process. It is this relationship that holds implications for the overall functionality and success of the business unit. There is a contextualisation of the need for influence to elicit support in the dyadic relationship, impacted upon by how power is distributed and wielded. Concerns regarding the sharing and appropriate use of power have prominence via the perceived threat of ‘new managerialism’ to the academic domain of conventional university governance. New managerialism is thought to be emblematic of an era of neoliberalism. It is this context, in which the Administration Manager is to lead and follow where appropriate within the parameters determined by the organisation’s culture, but also to be adaptable enough to be seen to support the leader and to complement leadership.

Chapter 7 illustrates the significance of the three key-themes and six sub-themes that emerged from the research data. The chapter goes on to begin to cover the empirical findings of the study, by firstly focusing on ‘successful’ experiences of upward influence as described by Administration Managers and Academic Leaders. The purpose here is to present the research subjects’ experiences in their own words to reveal the essence of the phenomenon and what this essence means in terms of effective followership.

Chapter 8 covers the research data that is associated with ‘unsuccessful’ experiences of upward influence as described by Administration Managers and Academic Leaders. Presented here are the research subjects’ experiences in their own words, which indicate the extent to which their unfavourable experiences are shared between leaders and followers to reveal an understanding of ineffective followership.

Chapter 9 presents a detailed discussion of the findings of this study. This chapter offers an interpretation and explanation of the study’s results. A response to each of the three research questions are in this chapter, informed directly by the key findings. These themes are sub-divided to firstly identify key findings based on favourable and unfavourable experiences that relate to followers’ discretion; agency, knowledgeability, and proactivity. Then, more key findings cover the dyadic relationship, which is concerned with power dynamics and relations. The discussion takes each of the three key themes that emerged from the research data to review the findings in more detail, in the context of the literature and the existing knowledge about the subject. The resultant discussion usefully draws attention to what ‘meaning’ these findings hold for the researcher, and identifies new or different knowledge to inform more research in this area. This chapter ends with a justification for the approach taken, and a critical evaluation of the study. Consequently, the researcher presents their understanding of the limitations of this research, and the implications of the findings for policy and practice.

Chapter 10 is the final chapter and concludes the study. Consistent with the final stage of analysis when drawing on a phenomenological approach, a composite summary

presents the followers' (i.e. Administration Manager) experience of being effective or ineffective in the context of upward influence. This summary is instrumental in providing a richer understanding of followership as a phenomenon. The narrative takes the reader into the 'lifeworld' of an Administration Manager as either an effective or an ineffective follower by their upward influence. This chapter also considers the importance of the study more generally. Finally, the chapter includes a short reflection on the researcher's own learning experience in undertaking this research, and how this links to my own experiences of followership processes in my role as a HE Administration Manager.

Chapter 2: Mainstream Followership Studies

This chapter reviews the conventional followership literature, which throughout this dissertation is termed ‘the mainstream literature’. A notable review of followership literature by Bjugstad et al. (2006) draws on established notions of followership in the mainstream and even makes reference to what this means for making a distinction between effective and ineffective followers. However, Crossman and Crossman’s (2011) review of the followership literature divides the mainstream literature into prescriptive and descriptive perspectives. Accordingly, this review of the mainstream literature is informed by their observation of how followership thinking and theorising has evolved. As such, the researcher appreciates the value in segmenting the literature in this way. However, the researcher would also argue that it is important to build on this foundation with a contemporary view of followership. Therefore, the inclusion of critical approaches is evident in this review of the literature, which is absent in Crossman and Crossman’s work. So in that sense, the researcher attempts to offer an acknowledgement of a third aspect to progress thinking around organisational followership. This third aspect explores the ‘in-between space’, whereby issues of ‘power’ and ‘identity’ are emphasised, moving beyond merely relying on an understanding of followership as the leader or follower perspective in isolation.

There is an acknowledgement that some of the models and theories in the mainstream literature can be interpreted as transcending any hard-line distinction between these perspectives. Subsequently, there is an ambiguity and overlap. Certainly, prescriptive studies can be seen to prescribe and describe followership. Nevertheless, the distinction is made to categorise the mainstream’s theorising in this chapter relies on subtle differences. Such differences reinforce the predominance of how mainstream empirical

and theoretical approaches have come to permeate our core understanding of followership, which is what underpins Crossman and Crossman's followership review. Where this approach to dividing theories and ideas in to movements within the literature differs in this study is in how the researcher chooses to locate particular studies and authors under these headings (i.e. orientated toward one's own interpretation of prescriptive or descriptive). Subsequently, the mainstream literature for the researcher merely represents the foundations of how followership has been traditionally conceptualised. As such, the researcher recognises and accepts the overlaps between these segments whereby the work of specific authors, it could be argued, have contributed to more than one approach (e.g. Chaleff as prescriptive and critical). Therefore, these distinctions are presented as 'organising mechanisms', to assist the reader in distinguishing the principal thought process by which the notion of followership can be conceived and informed.

Prescriptive perspectives are concerned with 'identifying' and 'evaluating' how followers 'should' behave focusing on predominantly positive attributes, typically underpinned by a functionalist paradigm that assumes a heightened level of stability in the social structure that accounts for the necessity to distinguish between leadership and followership in a particular way. This approach emanates from a leader-centric viewpoint that comprehends effective followership as mirroring leader-orientated qualities and complementing leadership. Accordingly, prescriptive notions do not readily account for influence, discretion, and context. The direct relevance of the prescriptive perspectives literature in the formulation of the research questions is that many of these theories and ideas represent the established ways of evaluating the effectiveness or otherwise of the phenomenon. Consequently, there is insufficient

consideration of how personal values motivate follower behaviour beyond narrow leader-centric perspectives of idealised followership.

Descriptive perspectives are concerned with ‘identifying’ and ‘categorising’ how followers ‘actually’ behave focusing more on describing types of behaviour. Descriptive perspectives tend to assume that followers take up static positions, which attract imaginative labels. Unlike prescriptive perspectives, descriptive perspectives present perceptions of positive or negative behaviours based on their alignment with leader-centred constructions. Subsequently, followers appear less able to exercise their own authority. They are often conceived of as an undifferentiated mass, and not necessarily integral to the leadership process. Such portrayals of followers and following sustain the privileging of leadership over followership. The direct relevance of the descriptive perspectives literature in the formulation of the research questions is that these theories and ideas represent the earliest attempts to account for and understand the phenomenon. The descriptive approach appears insufficient in progressing followership theorising in terms of crediting followers with being dynamic, but these approaches often fail to adequately consider the complex social environment that impacts on their behaviour. Accordingly, their value appears to be orientated toward an analytical and processual appreciation of follower behaviour.

2.1 Prescriptive perspectives of followership

The prescriptive literature presents a theoretical underpinning of followership which describes the behaviours that followers should possess and display, as opposed to those they exhibit (Crossman and Crossman, 2011). This shapes expectations for effective followership by focusing on only positive attributes (Alcorn, 1992, Avolio and

Reichard, 2008, Dixon and Westbrook, 2003). Accordingly, prescriptive perspectives contrast with descriptive taxonomic approaches that capture positive and negative attributes. However, prescriptive perspectives reveal more about the relational dynamic. They do this by paying close attention to the leader's perspective of follower behaviours/characteristics and the follower's perspective of leader behaviours/characteristics.

In the prescriptive literature, 'implicit theories' feature prominently, focusing on the perceptions that leaders and followers have of each other's attributes. Meindl (1995) and Weick (1995) suggest that sense-making is the basis for implicit theorising. By doing so, they emphasise how individuals implicitly construct a simplistic understanding of events, whereby human factors are more noteworthy than the complex effects of organisational systems. It is this way of thinking that reveals how constructions of effectiveness occur via the social influence process central to leadership (i.e. the dynamic nature of leadership and followership schemas) (Foti et al., 2017). Accordingly, preconceived notions are used to interpret the world (i.e. a subjective reality) informing expectations and assumptions about personal characteristics, qualities, and traits, based on a generalisation of past and new experiences (Forsyth, 2009, Schyns and Meindl, 2005). Implicit theories are used to evaluate a fit between observed behaviour and what is deemed 'prototypical' to categorise people as leaders or followers (Hogg, 2001, Schermerhorn et al., 2011). This process of evaluation also shapes how leaders and followers interact with each other (Epitropaki et al., 2013). Relevant prototypes are activated, and then the observed person is compared to that prototype (Schermerhorn et al., 2011). This method of

evaluation may not only determine effectiveness but might also assist in categorising people as a leader or a follower.

Implicit theorising explains how followers evaluate leaders, termed ‘Implicit Leadership Theories’ (ILTs) (Eden and Leviatan, 1975, Chiu et al., 1997, Lord and Maher, 1991). Followers draw on their pre-existing assumptions concerning behaviours, traits and abilities that determine for them the ‘prototypical leader’ (Kenney et al., 1996, Lord and Maher, 1993, Kedharnath, 2011, Lord et al., 1982, Lord et al., 1984). Notably, Foti and Lord (1987) reveal how such perceptions can be biased, given that such evaluations are more confidently made when considering the leader’s behaviour in contrast to others. Hence the cognitive association with multiple leadership attributes, irrespective of the leader’s actual characteristics (Kedharnath, 2011, Kenney et al., 1996, Epitropaki and Martin, 2005), produces inferences about the leader’s workplace power and discretion (Maurer and Lord, 1991). The empirical work of Offerman et al. (1994) present underlying dimensions of ILTs, as ‘prototypic’ (i.e. positively associated with leadership) and ‘anti-prototypic’ (i.e. negatively associated with leadership):

Table 1: Implicit Leadership Theories Prototypes

Prototype	Categorisation	Description
Sensitivity	Prototypic	Sympathetic, sensitive, compassionate, understanding
Dedication	Prototypic	Dedicated, disciplined, prepared, hard-working
Charisma	Prototypic	Charismatic, inspiring, involved, dynamic
Attractiveness	Prototypic	Attractive, classy, well-dressed, tall
Intelligence	Prototypic	Intelligent, clever, knowledgeable, wise
Strength	Prototypic	Strong, forceful, bold, powerful
Tyranny	Antiprototypic	Domineering, power-hungry, pushy, manipulative
Masculinity	Antiprototypic	Male, masculine

Source: Adapted from Offermann, Kennedy, and Wirtz, 1994, p.49

Implicit leadership theories reveal a link between how followers evaluate the leader via a cognitive effort to seek an alignment with their own standards. However, because these standards of leadership stem from leaders (and not followers' ideas of leadership) and are used by the same leaders to evaluate their followers, in that sense I categorise this body of knowledge as prescriptive. These theories expose the capacity of leaders to use their power negatively to dominate, control, and manipulate people (Schermerhorn et al., 2011). Subsequently, ILTs feature in how followers categorise leaders and affect how they set about or avoid engaging in upward influence. ILTs underpin a simplified understanding of leadership as a social construction, evident when followers bestow a socially amplified heroic status on to their leaders, rendering leadership as the causal factor for an organisation's success or failure (i.e. Romance of Leadership) (Meindl et al., 1985, Meindl, 1995). However, what remains insufficiently considered in the literature is the impact this effect has on constraining or facilitating upward influence in the dyadic relationship.

Implicit theorising extends beyond ILTs to recognise leaders' pre-existing beliefs about followers' personal attributes and characteristics (i.e. Implicit Followership Theories (IFTs)) (Sy, 2010, Kenney et al., 1996, Eden, 1990, Lord and Maher, 1993). However, there is much argument and debate concerning leaders' differing assumptions about the attributes of followers, linking these to performance expectations, and acting on differing schemas concerning followers (Burke, 2006, Eden, 1990, Goodwin et al., 2000, Wofford and Goodwin, 1994). Nevertheless, IFTs shape how leaders make judgements and respond to followers (Sy, 2010), incorporating how leaders and followers perceive, decide, behave, and take action (Avolio et al., 2009). Rost (2008) suggests that we define followers by considering their innate qualities, or by asking the question 'how do we want those who are not leaders to act'? Consequently, this is determined by leaders' implicit notions of the qualities that constitute effective followership, often referred to as 'idealised' in the followership literature (Crossman, 2012). Therefore, it would seem timely to consider if upward influence is a characteristic of a prototypical follower, and the significance of this factor when considering what constitutes 'effectiveness' when leaders evaluate followers.

Several prominent empirical studies adopt a prescriptive approach to followership. These studies arrive at the competencies required of desirable followers focusing on their positive aspects (Tanoff and Barlow, 2002). These studies also identify highly ranked attributes based on follower characteristics (Agho, 2009), highly rated effective follower attributes within a group (Antelo et al., 2010), and key skills for dynamic followership (Alcorn, 1992):

Table 2: Highly ranked prescriptive followership competencies

Follower Attributes (Agho 2009)	Follower Group Attributes (Antelo 2010)	Dynamic Followership Key Skills (Alcorn 1992)
Honesty*	Support	Cooperation
Competence*	Contribution	Flexibility
Dependability	Reliability	Integrity
Loyalty		Initiative
Cooperation		Problem-solving
<i>*In Agho's study - shared by Leadership and Followership</i>		

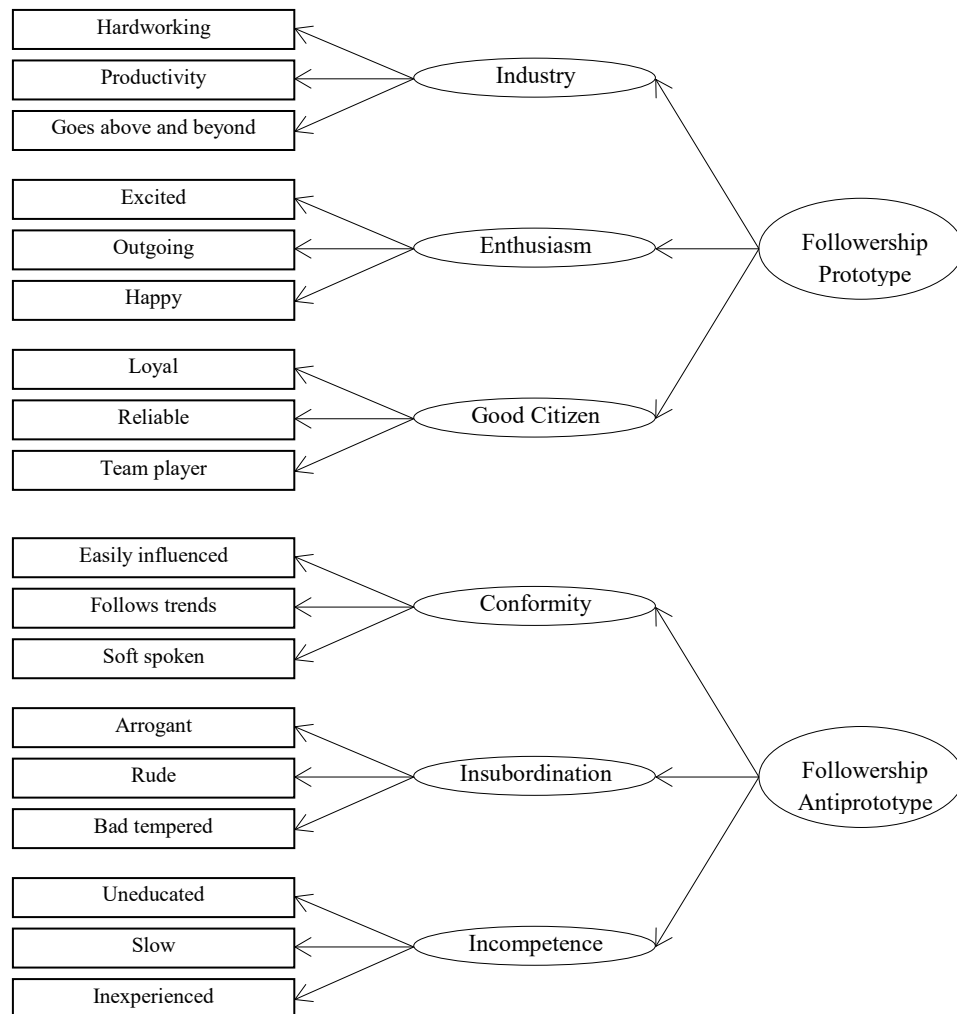
Source: Compiled for this study

What such studies demonstrate is that desired follower characteristics relate to individual values (i.e. honesty, dependability, reliability, integrity), a capacity to show consideration for others (i.e. loyalty, cooperation, support, flexibility), and an ability to add value (i.e. competence, contribution, initiative, problem-solving). These findings allude to there being several factors that in the right combination, and at the right moment in time, could be significant in terms of generating and augmenting an upward influence effect.

Prescriptive perspectives tend to acknowledge desirable characteristics in isolation without identifying which combinations are determinants of effectiveness. Sy (2010) redresses this somewhat by measuring IFTs in a pilot study drawing on leader perceptions of; a 'follower', an 'effective follower', an 'ineffective follower', and 'subordinates'. His findings present common themes that were further analysed to reveal follower prototypes as having several distinct dimensions. The results of this study present a combination of a first-order six-factor structure (Industry, Enthusiasm, Good Citizen, Conformity, Insubordination and Incompetence), validated by overlaying

a second-order two-factor structure. The resultant outcome is to identify a ‘Followership Prototype’ (i.e. factors associated with good followers) and a ‘Followership Anti-prototype’ (i.e. behaviours associated with ineffective followership). The significance of this work is in demonstrating that combinations of experienced or/and observable factors are used to evaluate follower effectiveness. Subsequently, as figure 1 illustrates, it is conceivable that there could be an association with how knowledge of these factors can assist followers in being tactically upwardly influential with leaders:

Figure 1: Second order factor model of implicit followership theories



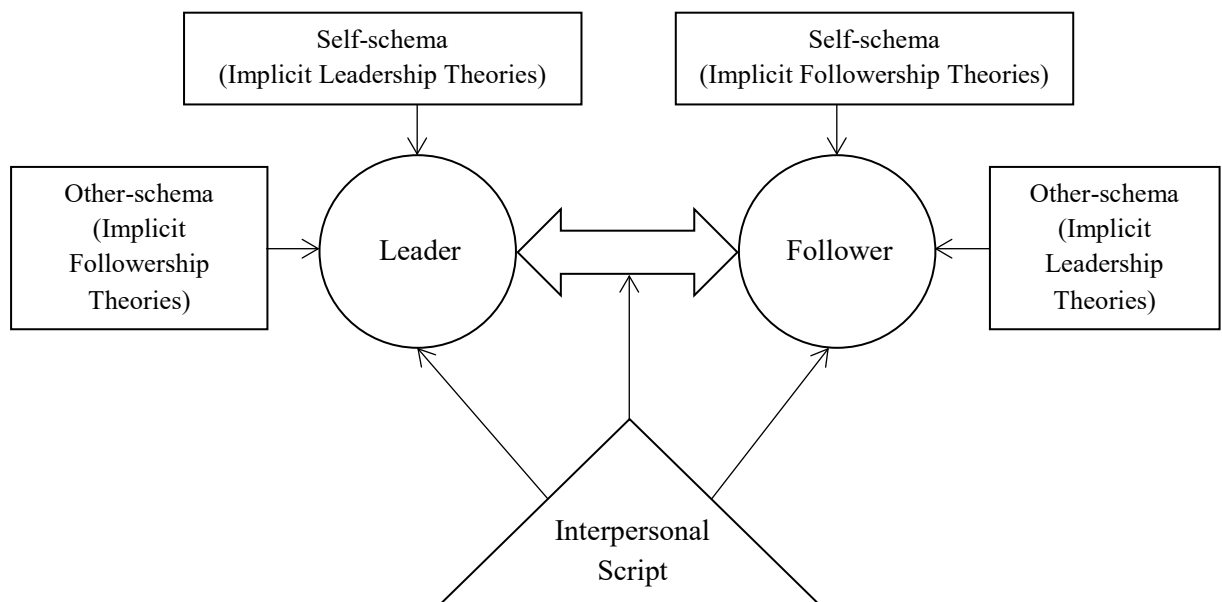
Source: Sy, 2010, p.78

The value of this prescriptive work is that it demonstrates how a common taxonomy can be developed to determine prototypes drawing on central tendency prototypes (i.e. how followers are), or goal-derived ideal prototypes (i.e. how followers should be) (Barsalou, 1985, Schyns and Meindl, 2005), to form a view of what constitutes followership effectiveness. Schermerhorn et al. (2011) point out the usefulness of these results in considering how follower prototypes shape leaders' judgements and reactions to their followers. They also emphasise the spontaneous and automatic cognitive categorisation processes that take place, which indicates a need to explore the evaluation process embedded in the leadership dynamic. Here it is conceivable that leaders and followers relate to one another via a complex twofold evaluation process informed by bi-directional flows of influence. Certainly, the ILT dimensions expose how the alignment of leader perceptions can inform the follower's behaviour, determining the quality of the leader-follower relationship (Epitropaki and Martin, 2005, Kedharnath, 2011, van Gils et al., 2009). Underpinning this is the follower's desire to positively resonate with their leader and sustain an influential impression (Burke, 2006, Goffman, 1959). Followers set about achieving this by acquiring knowledge of their leader's view of effective followership, and considering the extent to which they then seek alignment with this view. Accordingly, there is greater scope here to consider overlapping qualities embedded in leadership and followership, in the context of propelling organisational effectiveness. The same observation is alluded to several times in the literature as the means of optimising both roles as mutually complementary (Rosenbach and Taylor, 1998, Russell, 2003, Latour and Rast, 2004, Lundin and Lancaster, 1990).

Despite this interplay between ILTs and IFTs, this relationship is not extensively researched, although work concerning matching respective prototypes exposes more

about dyadic relations (Epitropaki et al., 2013). Certainly, implicit theories are viewed as central to the social construction of leadership and followership (Shondrick and Lord, 2010), rationalising asymmetries and exposing disagreements over leader-follower relationship quality (van Gils et al., 2009). As such ‘relational schemas’ are highly relevant (Baldwin, 1992), operating on three levels; an interpersonal script, a self-schema, and schema concerning the other person:

Figure 2: Relational leader-follower schemas



Source: Epitropaki et al., 2013, p.874

Several studies focus on differing implicit aspects of the relational dynamic that could have an association with the capacity to be upwardly influential. A study of interpersonal congruence between leaders’ and followers’ ILTs and IFTs, combining both perspectives of the leader-follower relationship, revealed that the strength of the relationship tended to increase as self-views aligned more with implicit theories (Coyle,

2015). Research into ‘ideal partner’ congruence (i.e. alignment between one’s ideal and a partner) found an alignment of the ideal standard matching the perception of a partner as having a positive impact on an evaluation of the relationship (Fletcher et al., 2000). Underpinning such studies are implicit theories ‘Implicit Relationship Theories’ (IRTs) that suggest employees hold expectations about developing and maintaining relationships as either ‘entity’ (i.e. personal traits and perceived similarity), or ‘incremental’ (i.e. effort required to develop the relationship over time) (Uhl-Bien, 2005). In either case, it is conceivable that influence would feature strongly.

Three other implicit theories could be highly relevant when considering followers and influence. ‘Implicit Voice Theories’ (IVTs) are concerned with the belief individuals have about the appropriateness of speaking up to authorities in hierarchical organisations (Detert and Edmonson, 2011). Underpinning these theories is a need for followers to ‘self-protect’ to reduce risk or ‘intervene’ to improve the situation in which they can find themselves. ‘Implicit Performance Theories’ (IPTs) are concerned with attributes that define performance expectations (Engle and Lord, 1997, Wernimont, 1971). Here a leader associates the follower’s performance (effectiveness) with their beliefs about the follower’s personal attributes. ‘Implicit Person Theory’ (IPT) refers to the leader considering the follower’s nature as an entity, perceiving their personal attributes to be either fixed or incremental rendering their attributes as malleable (Dweck and Leggett, 1988, Chiu et al., 1997). Accordingly, implicit theories allude to fears, motivations, and beliefs that could affect upward influence. Such factors can underpin why followers are constrained in their attempts to acquire or develop certain attributes by their leader’s approach or context or both (van Gils et al., 2009, Foti et al., 2008).

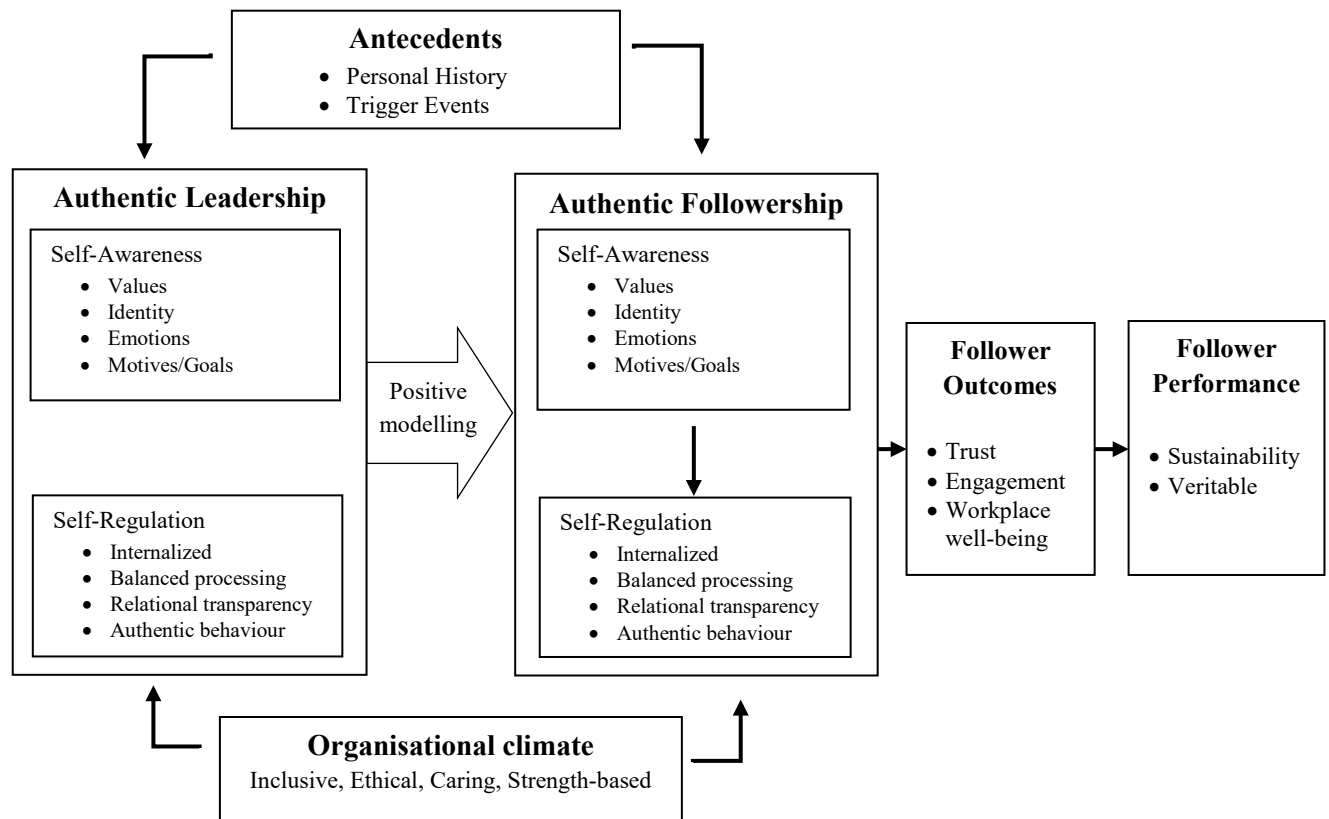
Some studies argue the relationship quality between leaders and followers is central to leadership effectiveness, focusing on dyadic reciprocal exchanges termed ‘Leader-Member Exchange’ (LMX) (Dansereau et al., 1975, Dulebohn et al., 2012). Accordingly, ILTs and IFTs hold implications in establishing good relationships that deliver effective outcomes for both parties (Engle and Lord, 1997, Epitropaki and Martin, 2005, Schyns, 2006). Tsai et al. (2017) highlight two relational schemas, ‘Expressive Relational Schemas’ (ERS), associated with social support, and ‘Instrumental Relational Schemas’ (IRS), which emphasise short-term economic exchanges, and their respective effects on leader-follower relationships. Their findings show that ERS congruence has an association with positive follower rated LMX, while IRS whether congruent or otherwise had a negative impact on LMX. This suggests that leaders or followers who conceive of relationships as short term economic exchanges are less likely to invest time and effort in cultivating high-quality interaction. This emphasises the influence ‘interpersonal congruence’ can have on perceptions of relationship quality (Epitropaki et al., 2013). There is an association here with Lord and Maher’s (1991) theoretical framework used to interpret the effects of followers’ and leaders’ implicit theories on their dyadic relationship. Accordingly, it can be seen that the relationship between leadership and followership is affected by the implicit theories of both interacting parties.

Riggs and Porter (2017) studied the congruence between leader and follower ILTs and its impact on LMX. They reveal that holding similar mental models of leaders results in each party viewing the other as ‘leader-like’, differentiating leaders from non-leaders. Therefore, the level of congruence or otherwise is central to the mutual influence

process (Coyle and Foti, 2015, Engle and Lord, 1997). Accordingly, what becomes significant, albeit contentious, is the absence of what Eagly (2005) refers to as ‘relational authenticity’ in implicit theorising, questioning the sincerity of the alignment between leaders and followers (Schyns et al., 2008). Authenticity in leadership can extend to followership, characterised as a ‘need’ in the context of belonging, recognition, being challenged, and the experiencing of excitement (Goffee and Jones, 2006b). However, the literature insufficiently considers barriers that restrict genuine, authentic self-expression (Patterson, 2007). The resultant gap in our knowledge suggests that there is more to reveal about followers displays of authenticity through reactions, cooperation and identification with leaders (Eagly, 2005).

A better insight could demonstrate the efficiency of developing a capacity to negotiate to reach relational authenticity (Patterson, 2007). So while the authentic development model devised by Gardner et al. (2005) presents a top-down understanding of the development effect (Figure 3), there is no acknowledgement that the development of dyadic authenticity could be a bi-directional effect beyond hierarchical role distinctions. Instead, attention could shift towards specific qualities such as awareness, unbiased processing, action and relational helping (Kernis, 2003). All of which places a greater emphasis on tactical switching between self-awareness and self-regulation as a reciprocated influencing effect that brings about mutual authenticity. Certainly, where trust and credibility feature as significant when considering levels of influence it would seem appropriate to also consider implicit notions of authenticity having an impact on receptivity to upward influence.

Figure 3: The conceptual framework for authentic leader and follower development



Source: Gardner et al., 2005, p.346

When considering the relevance of implicit theories, how followers construct organisational followership is prominent. The work of Carsten et al. (2010) is significant in revealing follower self-grouping based on self-identity. This work presents three categories of followers' perception of themselves as (1) accepting and taking orders, (2) offering opinions, or (3) and willingly to challenge:

Table 3: Self-identity based relational typology

Follower Category	Description
Passive Followers	Loyal, supportive, and obeying the leader's directives
Active Followers	Provide opinions if required but still remain loyal and obedient to the leader despite any disagreements
Proactive Followers	Willing to constructively challenge superiors as necessary

Source: Adapted from Carsten et al., 2010, p.551-556

These categorisations present followers as contemplating their own followership in terms of engaging with their leaders (Uhl-Bien and Pillai, 2007b). Follower-centric notions of followership rely on the follower's self-identity to inform how they construct their role (Carsten et al., 2010). Accordingly, followers can act based on their own cognitive schema, not necessarily the leaders' constructed view of followership (Harris, 2010). The follower's capacity in this regard challenges top-down prescriptive orientated evaluations, emphasising constructions not only of individual roles but the process of leadership and the context in which it occurs (Schermerhorn et al., 2011). Hence, followers act according to their beliefs and interpretation of the context. So passive beliefs of following (i.e. obedient to authority) or proactive beliefs (i.e. expressing opinions, taking the initiative, constructively questioning, and challenging leaders) become more significant (Carsten et al., 2010). Therefore, it is conceivable that followers' beliefs and interpretations affect their upward influence.

The 'context' aspect is salient given that some followers are prevented from acting on their beliefs by their working environment (Schermerhorn et al., 2011). This is despite well-rehearsed claims that followers or acts of followership are fundamental to organisational success (Kelley, 1992). It is argued here that prescriptive studies tend to

neglect ‘context’. They fail to fully explain how and why followers are compelled to behave in certain ways, including aspects of context impacting on the influencing process (Gardner et al., 2005). Some contextual factors worthy of consideration are; systems of shared leadership (Horsfall, 2001), the information age empowering followers (Bjugstad et al., 2006), and formal mechanisms used to challenge leadership (Brown, 2003). Lord et al. (1984) acknowledge ILTs differing across organisational contexts shaping follower expectations of leaders, and made more distinct by department or hierarchies inside an organisation (Alabdulhadi et al., 2017). Such differences in ILTs highlight a dilemma in seeking to apply the exact same evaluation criteria to determine effective followership across many different settings. Blackshear (2004) illustrates how ‘context’ informs the foundation of followership alluding to how context influences the evaluation of followership. It is evident here that there are expected behavioural characteristics unique to specific contexts that help to depict the followership precepts upon which organised systems are designed to operate:

Table 4: Traditional followership institutions

Institutions	<i>Followership Foundation</i>	<i>Consequences of a Void in Followership</i>
RELIGION	Discipleship and stewardship, service to others	The religious beliefs would not spread and the institution would collapse.
MILITARY	Adherence to Chain of Command and following orders	Authority would not prevail, orders could be questioned and discipline would dissipate.
POLITICS	Party Loyalty	Political ideologies and strongholds would be eroded and crumble.
SPORTS	The team above self	Teams would not excel only individualism would exist.

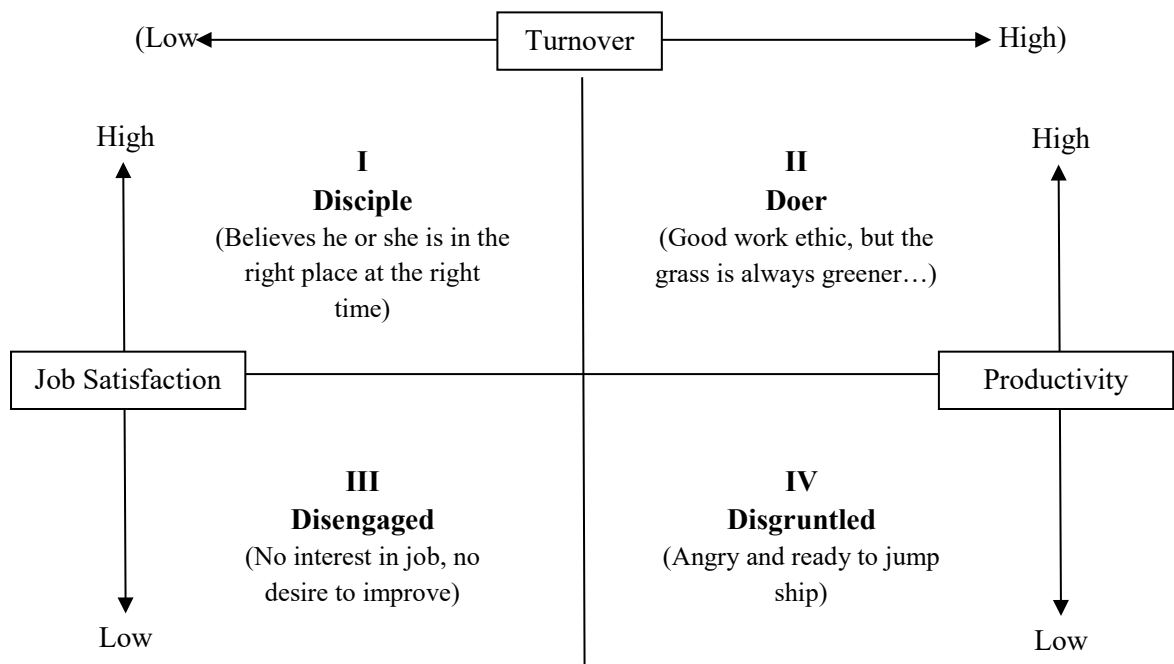
Source: Blackshear, 2004, p.4

Followership traditions in the operating environment emphasise expectations, whereby followers adopt set characteristics and integrate them seamlessly into the workplace

(Blackshear, 2004). The adoption of corporate followership characteristics can legitimise the very existence of conformity from a managerial viewpoint (Chemers, 2003, Shamir et al., 1993, Gordon et al., 2009, Lord and Brown, 2001, 2004). Such conformity is especially evident when followers internalise dominant cultural norms as their own (Alvesson and Willmott, 2002). There is an emphasis here on the appropriateness of followership as being servile and leadership being exploitative. This concern is underpinned by how such follower behaviour influences the leadership style, subsequently validating the acceptance of authority (Ad-Manum-Consultants, 2004, Brown, 1995, Litzinger and Schaefer, 1982, Ba Banutu-Gomez, 2004). Therefore, it is likely that such acceptance of top-down authority is likely to affect the follower capacity and corporate acceptability of upward influence.

Interestingly, Adair (2008) draws on the working environment to present how context influences follower behaviour. This work is significant in drawing attention to how the follower feels, which can affect follower behaviour. The resultant 4-D followership model illustrates how context has implications for the categorisation and evaluation of follower behaviour, and how such groupings infer differing states of followership as part of the leadership dynamic in organisations.

Figure 4: The 4-D Followership Model



Source: Adair, 2008, p.144

Finally, the work of Howell and Costley (2001) appears to typify the classic prescriptive view of followership. They present a series of desirable follower traits (i.e. enthusiasm, cooperation, effort, active participation, task competence, and critical thinking) that an individual is expected to exhibit in support of the group or organisational objectives. However, what remains absent is any consideration of context, relational quality, and follower intent. There is also a limited appreciation of the follower acting to enhance the organisation or leaders' view, beyond expectations of followers being merely passive recipients of their leader's influence (Rost, 1995).

2.2 Descriptive perspectives of followership

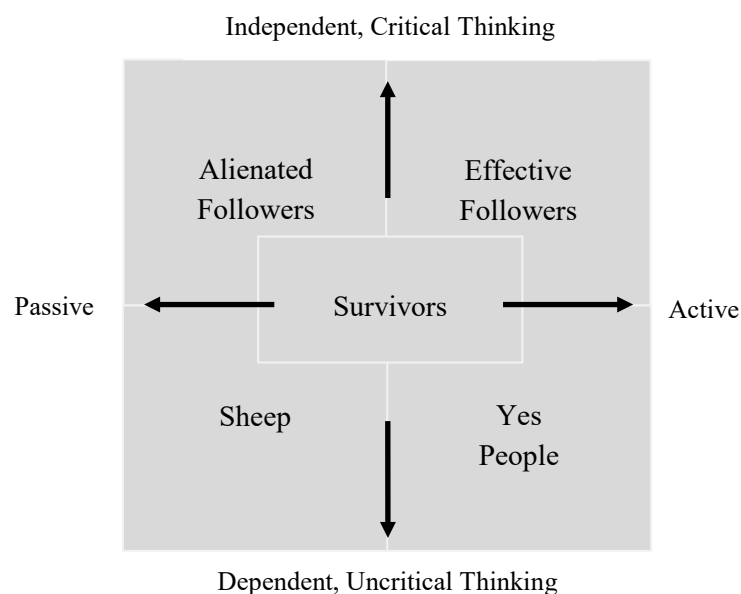
The descriptive literature concerning followership addresses the actual behaviours exhibited by followers (Kelley, 1992, Potter and Rosenbach, 2006, Steger et al., 1982, Zaleznik, 1965, Crossman and Crossman, 2011). This body of work is credited with

discovering, defining, and conceptualising organisational followership from its inception as a new concept; creating a foundation for followership theorising (Bligh, 2011, Reichers and Schneider, 1990). Therefore, many literature reviews have a tendency to be descriptively orientated, portraying following in specific contexts, and often drawing on the term ‘follower’ and ‘subordinate’ interchangeably (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, Northouse, 2007). Consequently, research in this field tends to comprehend followership in relation to leadership (Heller and Van Til, 1982), or to distinguish leadership from followership (Kelley, 1988), with some reference to context (Townsend and Gebhart, 1997, Wortman, 1982). The effect is an evident proliferation of attempts to categorise followers; focusing on their characteristics or behaviours. Although there is some contention attached to how followership is defined, based upon either a leader-centred or follower-centred perspective (Hollander and Webb, 1955).

The descriptive characteristics of follower behaviour inform the most well-known and popular form of typology modelling (Crossman and Crossman, 2011). Such works draw attention and sustain research interest in followers and following in organisations. Kelley’s (1988) classic followership typology model emerges as the prominent descriptive approach (Figure 5), which he latterly reworks in 1992 using different terminology for follower typologies (Table 5). He deciphers follower categorisations by focusing on causal variables (the correlation between variables), precisely the active or passive nature of the follower, their contribution to organisational objectives, and dependency on the leader. Accordingly, dependent and uncritical is deemed ‘passive’ (or ‘sheep’) alluding to notions of a follower with low levels of influence. Then ‘conformists’ (or ‘yes people’) avoid conflict and are active but non-threatening, signifying a confined flow of influence. The ideal follower is termed ‘exemplary’ (or

‘star’) followers, possessing lots of initiative, appropriately responding to the leader’s needs, while having the courage to disagree. Accordingly, this indicates an abundance of follower influence. A capacity to think critically is least preferred when associated with passive contributors, termed ‘alienated’ followers. Such followers are presented as cynical and troublesome, emanating from negative interactions with the leader. Finally, the ‘pragmatist’ (or ‘survivors’) are at the model’s core. These followers find a balance between task and performance while operating within cultural and micro-political organisational rules. Pragmatists can question the leader but are less likely to display initiative. What this suggests is that upward influence for pragmatist followers is likely to be subtle and infrequently applied to control the risk of consequences more than to enhance their agency. If this were about enhancing agency then initiative would be more prominently associated with the followership style of Pragmatist followers.

Figure 5: Kelley’s original followership typology model (1988)



Source: Kelley 1988, p.145

Table 5: Kelley's followership styles (1992)

Typology Model 1988	Followership Style 1992	Independent Thinking Score	Active Engagement Score
Effective Followers	Exemplary	High	High
Alienated Followers	Alienated	High	Low
Yes People	Conformist	Low	High
Survivors	Pragmatist	Middling	Middling
Sheep	Passive	Low	Low

Source: Adapted from Kelley 1992, p. 97

Kelley's (1988) follower categorisations deriving from causal variables make distinct the characteristics deemed to espouse effectiveness such as 'enthusiasm', 'intelligence', and 'self-reliant participation'. However, there is insufficient consideration of each perspective (i.e. leader and follower) used to evaluate whether such qualities are deemed effective in all situations. Nevertheless, Kelley's work informs other typology-based models throughout the literature, which utilise descriptive or metaphorical references to identify a range of follower behaviours:

Table 6: Descriptive followership typologies

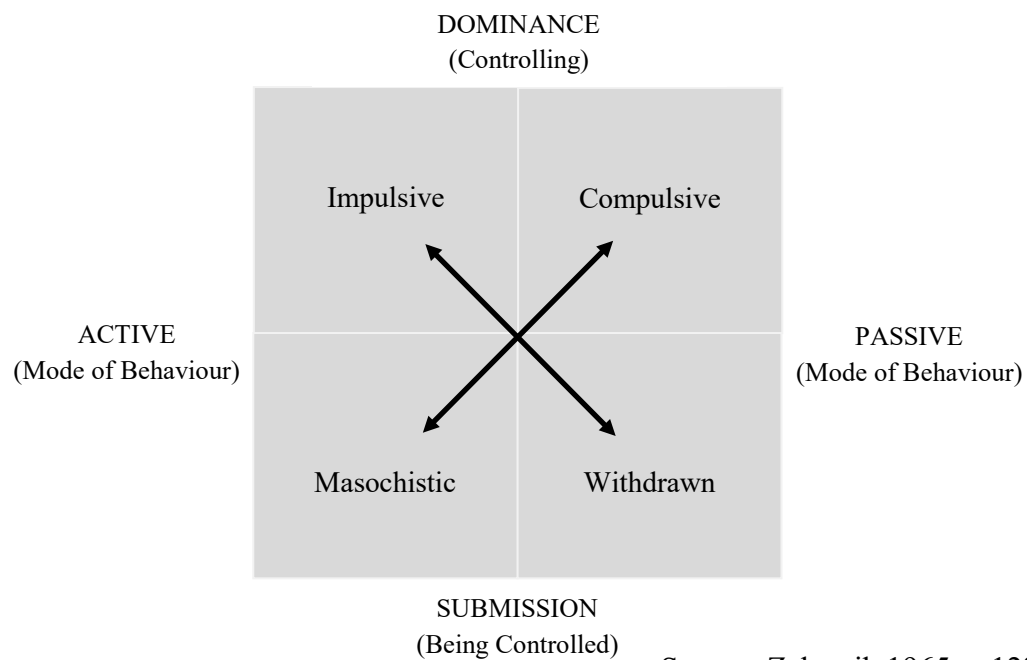
Zaleznik 1965	Kelly 1992	Steger, Manners, and Zimmerer 1982	Potter and Rosenbach 2006
Withdrawn	Alienated	Apathetic	Subordinate
Masochistic	Passive	Bureaucrat	Politician
Compulsive	Conformists	Game player	Contributor
Impulsive	Pragmatists	Donkey	Partner
	Exemplary	Kamikaze	
		Deviant	
		Artist	
		Achiever	
		Superfollower	

Source: Adapted from Crossman and Crossman, 2011, p.488

Various criteria were applied to produce follower categorisations demonstrating that descriptive typologies stem from personal constructions of follower behaviours. Only Zaleznik's (1965) study has an empirical foundation, generating an early subordinate typology model focusing on vertical follower interactions, which concern power and conflict within dominating or submissive relationships. This early work exposes two trends; the need for 'dominance and submission', and then 'activity and passivity' in the subordinate's behaviour. Various combinations of these describe four patterns of subordinacy to illustrate types of inner conflict. These findings reveal that leaders ostensibly hold power over submissive followers (i.e. 'Masochistic' and 'Withdrawn'), but anti-authoritarian followers can seek to dominate the relationship (i.e. 'Impulsive' and 'Compulsive'). The implications are the extent to which followers actively or passively support or undermine the leader but without any reference to the tactical use of upward influence.

Interestingly Zaleznik's typology model reveals that a lack of trust, interest, and involvement renders the subordinate as unsusceptible to their superior's influence. Subsequently, the evaluation of followers focuses on their inner-personality, with limited appreciation of unpredictable reactions to contextual factors. Hence, this suggests that interpersonal aspects of the dyadic relationship are likely to be very prominent, rendering inter-personal influence as extremely significant when appraising effectiveness.

Figure 6: Zalesnik's dynamics of subordination typology model (1965)



Source: Zalesnik 1965, p.122

Steger et al. (1982) offer a typology consisting of nine followership styles based on followers' associations with their self-interested motives by balancing recognition (self-enhancement) with protection from failure (self-protection). The basis of this model is the premise that basic dimensions of followership are a desire for reward and reduction of risk. This approach assumes leaders, who have a heightened awareness of what followers want and fear, can lead the majority of followers. Moreover, the leader strategically adapts their level of transparency, support, or direct power dependent on the follower's appetite for risk and desire for achievement. There is some recognition here that behavioural adaptation is necessary to sustain influence in the dyadic relationship. However, the possibility of leaders and followers corresponding adaptations as a means of facilitating upward influence remains absent. Table 7 presents the extent to which each category of follower desires enhancement or protection.

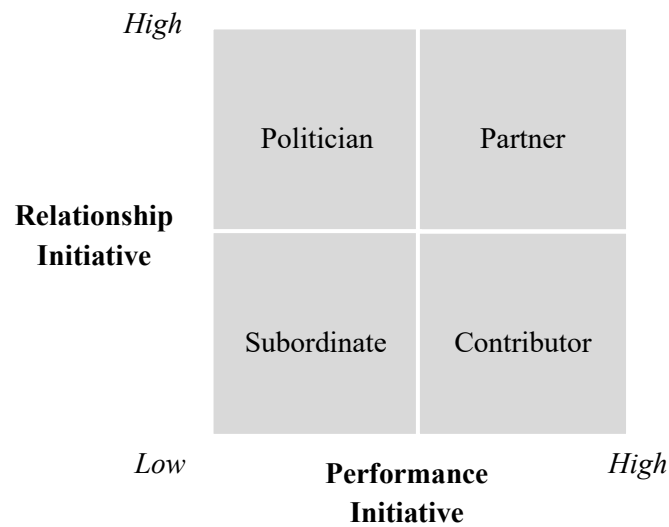
Table 7: Self-enhancement and self-protection typology model (1982)

		Protection of Self		
		High	Medium	Low
Enhancement of Self	High	Game Player	Achiever	Kamikaze
	Medium	Bureaucrat	Super Follower	Artist
	Low	Apathetic	Donkey	Deviant

Source: Adapted from Steger et al., 1982, p.50

Potter and Rosenbach's (2006) descriptive typology model adopts a similar understanding of followership to Kelley (i.e. thinking and activity based aspects of follower behaviour). The 'relationship initiative' (leader interaction) axis indicates how the follower actively seeks to improve relations with the leader through trust, communication, and negotiation. The 'performance initiative' (task competence) axis indicates how the follower works with others and copes with change. The optimal follower position is termed 'partner', demonstrating an equally high commitment to both task performance and relationship with their leader. These contrasting styles are determined by the follower's focus of attention (i.e. 'politicians' focus on relationships and 'contributors' are more task orientated). Subsequently, this leaves 'subordinate' followers as neither relational nor task orientated. What this model alludes to is a basis for tactical follower positioning, whereby followers draw on interpersonal skills and task knowledge to create a power base that could enhance their upward influence.

Figure 7: Follower styles matrix



Source: Rosenbach and Taylor 1998, p. 113

An overview of descriptive typologies presents commonalities, which when subdivided into categories (Table 8) reveals their favourability to the leader, based on evaluating the level of follower commitment and effectiveness (Crossman, 2012). High-level follower types instil a positive perception within the leader of preferred forms of followership. Such follower types accentuate the leader's association between effective followership and a dynamic leader-follower relationship.

Table 8: Descriptive categorisations of effectiveness

Low-Level Follower Types	Neutral Follower Types	High-Level Follower Types
Alienated	Conformists	Exemplary
Passive	Pragmatists	Achiever
Apathetic	Bureaucrat	Superfollower
Deviant	Donkey	Partner
Subordinates	Game player	
Isolates	Dramaturgical	
	Politicians	
	Contributors	
	Participants	

Source: Adapted from Crossman, 2012, p.33

Thody's (2003) study of followership, in the education sector, demonstrates how the descriptive perspective is applied to sub-divide the favourability of follower behaviours. She then aligns identifiable behavioural types with roles (Table 9). Thody's approach is to offer leaders a 'followership lexicon' whereby they select appropriate words, which describe their ineffective and effective followers, while adding some words of their own. This exercise reveals perceptions of follower status and the associated language used to portray their status, irrespective of the concept's legitimacy in the workplace. The findings suggest that positive follower types are supportive, loyal, independent, enterprising, contributing, energetic, willing, self-starters, competent, and attuned to the importance of peer relationships. These positive behaviours align with roles that position followers as central to organisational activity. Accordingly, it is conceivable that followers deemed by leaders to epitomise such roles could possess greater upward influence, albeit with no consideration of the authenticity within the follower's behaviour, or any bias within the leader's evaluation process.

In contrast, the characterisation of negative follower types is as 'distant' and 'critical' of the leader as well as 'disinterested' and 'under-performing'. Such followers actively augment problems as opposed to offering solutions. Accordingly, this assumes that their capacity to influence upwards constructively is limited by their own actions and behaviours, as opposed to being constrained. That said, Thody's findings are ultimately reliant on leader-centred evaluations of follower characteristics and tendencies. Therefore, in this sense follower types are presented as static evaluations of follower behaviour and void of any bias.

Table 9: Descriptive follower typology of positive and negative behaviours

Negatively Effective Followers		Positively Effective Followers	
Behaviours	Roles played	Behaviours	Roles played
Alienated	Communication	Independent	Coordinator
Isolated	Distorter	Active-passive	Mentee/apprentice
Passive	Saboteur	Entrepreneurial	Disciple
Dependents	Toxic creator	Loyalist	Gatekeeper-filter
Observers		Exemplary/exceptional	Partner/comrade
Reluctant-resistant		Interdependent	Toxic handler
Sheep		Transactional	Second in command
Machiavellian			Rescuer
Plateaued			Muse
Survivor			
Yes-people, Sycophants			

Source: Thody, 2003, p.147-8 cited in Crossman and Crossman 2011, p.489

Connectivity between leadership and following is the basis of Burns's (1978) attempt to descriptively define followers. He distinguishes follower types by their requirement for leader attention. Overtime relational typology models became more sophisticated presenting followers as more dynamic than was first portrayed. Howell and Mendez (2008) define followership in three distinct states; as an interactive role, an independent role, and a shifting role. Each orientation suggests that followers are dynamic; influencing the effectiveness of the leader-follower relationship. Followers do this by complementing the leader, substituting for the leader, and engaging in dynamic exchanges with the leader (Bligh, 2011). Such bottom-up interventions move us beyond considering followers in terms of static descriptive characteristics, comprehending more the active dynamics associated with followers and following. Such dynamics account for followers' preferences for certain leaders and the integration of styles. Lord's (2008) relational typology model (Table 10) descriptively characterises follower types but also aligns them with a preference for a type of leader. His findings reveal which

combinations are likely to be more productive, which suggests that certain combinations of types and styles could be more conducive to bi-directional flows of influence.

Table 10: Leader-follower preference relational typology

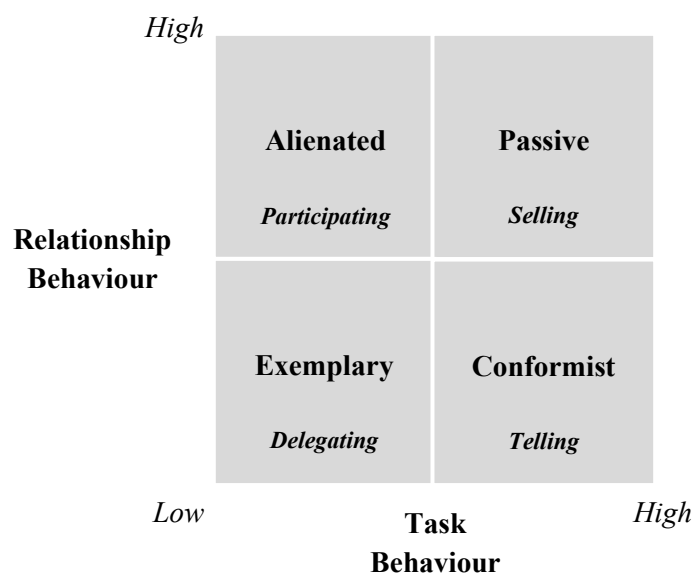
Leader Category	Follower Type
Charismatic Leader	Valued by followers who are achievement orientated and risk takers, who would typically like to be involved in decision-making. Such leaders can satisfy the needs of active followers.
Relational Leader	Favoured by followers who value inter-personal relations. Such leaders have the ability to satisfy the followers' interpersonal needs.
Task Leader	Favoured by followers who value achievement and structure. Such leaders provide stability and security.

Source: Adapted from Lord, 2008, p.255-266

Relational typology modelling forms the basis of a noteworthy attempt to integrate situational leadership theory (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982) and followership styles (Kelley, 1992). This work is designed to ascertain the productivity levels of certain leader-follower combinations (Figure 8). Accordingly, Bjugstad et al. (2006) draw on four leadership styles identified in situational leadership theory, as those chosen by the leader with a preference for task and relationship orientated behaviour, and then integrate them with Kelley's followership styles. Their conclusion alludes to how certain combinations of styles and roles could be responsible for facilitating or constraining the flow of influence in the dyadic relationship. The resultant matrix presents a situation whereby leaders engender greater ownership or participation and engagement amongst certain types of follower. A high performing followership style is given greater responsibility for implementation and decision making to increase

follower responsibility. What this suggests is that ‘Passive’ and ‘Conformist’ followership styles are least effective at upward influence. Conversely, ‘Alienated’ and ‘Exemplary’ followers appear to possess a greater scope to influence, despite the obvious variance in relationship behaviour. Consequently, viewing followers this way alludes to the significance of ‘leader receptivity’ to upward influence being positioned on a continuum, determined by either heightened confidence in their follower or a need to enhance their follower’s performance. Certainly, this can be seen in Figure 8 below whereby leaders form relationships with their followers based on the most appropriate leadership style they need to adopt to optimise follower productivity or influence a change in followership style.

Figure 8: Integrated model of follower types and leader styles



Source: Adapted from Bjugstad et al, 2006, p.313

Efforts to descriptively define and conceptualise followership in the literature reveals several problematic issues. Indeed, Colangelo (2000) observes that this approach has had a relatively limited impact in preventing misinterpretation or eliminating negative

stereotyping of followers and following. The significance of this is evident when considering that the original meaning ascribes positive connotations onto followers and aligns with horizontal notions of following (Grint, 2005a), presenting the concept as an equivalent to leadership. Despite this, relatively few definitions of followership exist compared to leadership, and few authors define followership with any certainty (Crossman and Crossman, 2011). While the term ‘followership’ can be conceived of as the opposite of ‘leadership’, in terms of ‘influence’ it can be defined as a direct or indirect influencing activity, or to label a role or group noun for those influenced by a leader (Atchison, 2004, Briggs, 2004, Gronn, 1996, Russell, 2003, Seteroff, 2003). Accordingly, Alvesson (1996) argues that the use of language can be limiting in fixing goals and purposes, evident in the use of such definitions. Moreover, descriptive perspectives of followership are largely leader-centric, so followers can still be stigmatised by characterising them as passive, weak and conforming. Consequently, such portrayals systematically devalue their contribution, sustaining a stereotypical image that discourages people from embracing the concept of followership (Bjugstad et al., 2006, Alcorn, 1992).

Weick (2007) observes that the use of the word ‘follower’ fails to differentiate forms of following and follower ideologies. Some present stronger stakes and emotions, whilst others reinstate a leader-centric view that inhibits one’s grasp of the structures of experience and consciousness of followers (phenomenological view of followership). Subsequently, the descriptive view of followership can represent followers as only capable of dynamism where there is a common purpose between the leader and follower (Baker, 2007). The resultant suggestion then is that effectiveness is about conformity, and being non-threatening to the leader, which holds implications for upward influence.

Descriptive perspectives insufficiently consider the conditions and factors that encourage followers to exercise their own authority (Bligh, 2011). Such a heavy reliance on statically positioning followers in relation to the leader (Bjugstad et al., 2006), renders the dynamic interaction between leaders and followers as inconsequential. Such an assertion underpins Rost's (2008) call for the abandonment of the word 'follower', as emphasising the 'bygone industrial age', which tends to misrepresent 'following' as merely subordination, submission, passivity and lack of control. It is also indicative of the extent to which the descriptive perspective can constrain our potential to appreciate the complexity and power of followership influence fully. Indeed, the quotation below embodies the fallibility and fragility of descriptive attempts to understand followership. Here the assumption is that at the core of effective followership is a follower that can only be effective if they allow themselves to be controlled by the leader and channelled by organisational objectives:

"...followership is the process of attaining one's individual goals by being influenced by a leader into participating in individual or group efforts toward organizational goals in a given situation".

(Wortman, 1982, p.373)

The extent to which context influences descriptive perspectives remains relatively unexplored. However, Hanson (2011) does attempt to consider how followership is defined in various contexts, alluding to followers establishing an appropriate contextual fit to be deemed effective:

Table 11: Contextual fit of followership

Context	Defining Followership
Twitter	The term ‘followers’ is one measurement of content value indicating leading sources of intelligence because they have earned millions of followers.
Academia	‘Followership’ is the mastery of scholarly research and processes with graduates’ excelling because they have proven themselves as the very best scholarly followers. The best academic followers usually become the very best academic leaders.
Athletics	‘Followership’ is the ability to be coached, trained, disciplined and physically challenged under pressure. Players do not earn positions on excellent athletic rosters without proving to Coaches they are excellent followers.
Military	‘Followership’ is taught deliberately by actively teaching phases of followership to cadets, proving that equal opportunities for leadership do exist for everyone via the mutual hard work of followership.
Politics	‘Followership’ is proof of loyalty, durability and experience. Roles in politics today are excruciating and divisive. Political and religious leaders risk a great deal, including their lives. Akin to business, disloyal, flaky and inexperienced staffers can ruin years of political capital overnight. This is why steadfast political followers often make the best political leaders.
Life	Those who ‘follow’ rules, guidelines and laws ultimately succeed. Those who engage in uncivil behaviour ultimately fail.
Workforce	‘Followership’ is essential to efficient operations and administration. There is zero time (or extra capital) for backstabbing, drama or dishonest agendas. True teamwork and innovation require transparent, unbiased, on-point followership via every desk in the organization.

Source: Adapted from Hanson, 2011

Drawing on various contexts to situate followership draws attention to the question of there being multiple possible meanings of followership. It is this possibility that alludes to the probability that people can act differently in a multitude of roles; reliant on an association between specific meanings and their behavioural patterns, and the adoption of certain ideologies that can inform such behaviours. Therefore, it is conceivable that the descriptive interpretations of followers and following are dependent upon a combination of behaviours that align with the context in which they operate.

2.3 Conclusion

The mainstream followership literature orientated towards prescriptive perspectives assumes followers should merely conform and are a homogenous mass, so gravitate toward enhancing the usefulness of followership from a leader vantage point (Harris, 2010). Follower-centric expressions of what constitutes effective followership appear suppressed in favour of prevailing leader-centred corporate views of the leader-follower dynamic (Dixon and Westbrook, 2003). Interestingly, this understanding of dyadic relations questions how leaders create change and make it work through followers. It also casts doubt upon the leaders' receptivity to upward influencing tactics, or potential to realise any benefits associated with being appreciative of what motivates followers. These dilemmas present a distinction between how followers should behave in their self-interest (Bjugstad et al., 2006) to benefit the organisation (Robbins, 2005), and to align with leader expectations. It could be argued that Hurwitz and Hurwitz's (2009a, 2009b, 2009c) capture the ensuing milieu by claiming that the corporate usefulness of followership is not well understood by the same leaders that prescriptively evaluate followership. Hence, the research questions in this study are designed to seek an understanding of followership that questions the adequacy of prescriptive perspectives. Nevertheless, this approach has contributed to our understanding of followers and following by drawing attention to the effect relational dynamics have on the functioning of followership. Although, what is evident is that it downplays the role of power and control that is prominent in the critical perspective of followership covered in the next chapter of this thesis.

Descriptive perspectives in the mainstream literature paradoxically give followers the attention they deserve, eliciting more interest in an understudied topic, yet weakens the

contribution of followership to leadership studies. This paradox occurs because descriptive perspectives present notions of followers and following as overshadowed or informed by leader-centred viewpoints (Brown, 2003, Bjugstad et al., 2006, Goffee and Jones, 2006a, Lord and Brown, 2004, Conger and Kanungo, 1998). Seldom do descriptive perspectives present the follower's impact on leadership, limiting our understanding of what constitutes good followership in organisations (Gilbert and Matviuk, 2008, Gilbert, 1985). Accordingly, neat descriptive taxonomies insufficiently comprehend the complexity of the social worlds of leadership. They are inadequate at capturing the changing nature of the follower role and significant complexities embedded in how followership is integral to the leadership process. Relevant here is the claim that descriptive perspectives were not that well informed and criticised for being empirically weak (Baker, 2007, Blanchard et al., 2009, Thompson and Vecchio, 2009). Accordingly, the approach taken by this research is to empirically explore the phenomenon and expose an alternative conception of the phenomenon than that offered by this body of knowledge. Despite the criticism directed towards descriptive perspectives, they still underpin the most celebrated seminal works in followership theorising (Bligh, 2011) that are frequently cited today.

Notwithstanding the popularity of descriptive perspectives, it is difficult to substantiate the claims of descriptive theorists to enlighten corporate and scholarly communities. The rationale underpinning this assertion is that such perspectives haven't rigorously captured the complexity of followership (role, relationship, and process aspects), to enlighten us with knowledge of the full capacity, capabilities, and value of effective followership (Bennis, 2008, Frye et al., 2007, Rusher, 2005). Given this, it could be argued that the basis for descriptive interpretations of followership is 'opinion' and

‘anecdote’ (Thody, 2000). Indeed, there appears to be an absence of any consideration of how followers can reposition themselves via upward influence beyond narrow leader-centric descriptions. Therefore, perspectives in the mainstream literature appear to neglect upward influence, identity, and power as legitimate aspects of the leadership-followership dynamic. However, these early attempts to better understand followers and following do point toward there being a value attached to follower agency, knowledge, and proactivity. Such factors receive more attention in the critical literature that will now be discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 3: Critical Approaches to Followership Studies

This chapter considers studies that contribute to more critical approaches to followership research. In doing so, it presents a contemporary deconstruction of the followership phenomenon to identify unresolved questions concerned with upward influence. In contrast to the mainstream followership perspectives, the critical perspective is a radical and reflective approach used to interpret the complexity in leader-follower relational dynamics. The critical lens is useful in focusing attention on how an evaluation of followers' contributions has traditionally transpired overtime (Appendices 1). Moreover, Wilson (2017) argues that critical perspectives help to reveal the importance of 'power' as it is embedded in the leader-follower relationship (Appendices 2). Therefore, critical perspectives concerning followership highlight how the preceding prescriptive and descriptive perspectives tend to neglect and underestimate the significance of followers in various ways; agency, knowledgeability, proactivity, and power dynamics and relations.

Critical perspectives challenge the prescriptive notion that followers should be conformist. This alternative to mainstream thinking elicits greater questioning of the traditional portrayal of leaders as more powerful in orthodox leadership studies by revealing followers as influential. Accordingly, how the critical perspective literature is directly relevant to the formulation of the research questions is in considering more the space in between leaders and followers, and in rethinking the possibilities of the phenomenon of followership in the process of leadership. The critical lens is more adept at recognising that power is bi-directional based on mutual reliance, and that dynamically changing identities render the dichotomies that sought to make leaders and followers distinct as more difficult to capture with certainty. Thus, critical scholars

embrace a conceptualisation of followers as integral to the leadership process, evidenced via their interchangeable roles within contemporary leadership practices. Subsequently, critical approaches illustrate how identity, power and resistance are at the core of follower agency.

There is an acknowledgement that influence tactics permeate organisational functioning in terms of pursuing personal and organisational goals (Ansari and Kapoor, 1987). However, no clear association exists between influence literature and followership theorising (Alshenaifi and Clarke, 2014). This situation exists despite associations that could be made between the effect of follower influence and any impact this has on levels of motivation and personal values. Such factors tend to inform tactical behaviours when managing interactions with superiors or to conceal dissent. However, despite this, it remains unclear as to how followers legitimately exert their influence as a means of being effective. The value of exploring this aspect of leadership dynamics is especially significant, given the number of moderating factors presented in influence literature that can affect the follower's organisational voice. Therefore, it is argued here that critical perspectives make a vitally important contribution to understanding the value of upward influence.

3.1 Critical perspectives of followership

In general terms, critical perspectives adopt “a more radical, reflective and marginal stance, in contrast to taking a more mainstream, positivistic or rationalistic perspective” (Western, 2008, p.8). The approach holds value by critically and reflexively re-examining conceptual frameworks, and challenging social explanation to offer new insights (Calhoun, 1995). The application of this approach to followership is evident in

‘critical followership studies’ (CFS), offering new insights by distinctly examining asymmetric power relations. Accordingly, critical literature is concerned with power relations and identity constructions that exist in leadership dynamics (Collinson, 2011). The process of leadership as social interaction is emphasised, enhancing interest in the relationship between leadership and followership (Grint, 2005a, Collinson, 2006). Critical perspectives consider the dialectics embedded in the leader-follower dyadic relationship (Collinson, 2011) and interplay with external dynamics (ambiguity, environment, resources, symbiosis, politics etc.) that influence the relational dynamic (Evans, 2010, Evans and Hyde, 2011). This approach emanates from criticism of the mainstream leadership literature, and the dominant experimental scientific methodology that underpins the functionalist research paradigm, which has informed conventional normative theorising (Alvesson and Deetz, 2006a, Western, 2008, Lakomski, 2005, Rost, 1993). Critical perspectives develop a more intricate and richer understanding of the concept (Collinson, 2011) representative of the complex and multi-directional influencing relationship that occurs between the leader and follower.

3.1.1 Critically critiquing followership

The term ‘followership’ is both ambiguous and increasingly contested. Consequently, there is a lively academic debate as to the relevance and validity of the term, prompting further consideration of the concept’s value in the field of leadership studies. The intention here is to discuss critically the view that the term ‘followership’ should not be in use. This term is not only controversial but also highly relevant given that the central argument for this thesis is that relatively senior managers can be viewed as followers. Subsequently, several critical and prominent viewpoints warrant careful scrutiny in order to understand the differing perspectives and agendas that inform how and why

critics reject the notion of followership per se. Several recent notable attempts to contest followership and its significance in various ways can be broadly categorised by their approach; the mainstream, leadership in practice, Marxist, and post-structuralist perspectives.

The critical questioning of the concept and practice of followership begins with Rost's (2008) observation that followership is discordant with the dominant culture of the modern world. He defends this claim by arguing that the concept presents a tricky language problem in finding its fit with traditional and dominant leadership models, representative of mainstream theorising and associated literature. In making a distinction between the follower as a person and followership as a process used to follow, Rost advocates a better understanding of leadership and followership as interactive processes. Accordingly, he argues that to fail to recognise the collaborative nature of leadership, as an influence relationship, is to sustain an industrialised bygone understanding of leadership and associated dichotomy.

While Rost's sentiment may be well intended; he assumes that the relationship is equally as influential for both parties, that they share mutual interests, and that they have similar drivers to make significant changes in the same way. His claims also assume that they receive equal support in doing so by the broader organisation, irrespective of their hierarchical position or formal authority. Subsequently, this appears as a means of concealing followership in the guise of a different way to conceptualise leadership. Indeed, there is a core assumption here that 'followers' are 'collaborators', and that they 'will act collaboratively' as a process of followership. This view of followership effectively dismisses any need for resistance or the possibility and impact

of the misuse of power, limiting our scope to learn more about how identity features in dyadic relations. Consequently, Rost's work illustrates a tendency to revert to mainstream thinking, whereby leaders and leading typically overshadow followers and following. The unease the researcher has with Rost's approach is that it also downplays how followers generate and exert their own influence in a variety of ways via leadership and followership. Therefore, to remedy the researcher's unease requires a more rigorous contemplation of followership as centring on followers as both active agents in the leadership process and as recipients of the leader's influence.

A move to focus more on the process of leadership, as opposed to leaders, is evident in Raelin's (2003) work on 'leadership-in-practice' and latterly 'leaderful practice'. However, this approach tends to disregard any value in understanding what makes leadership and followership distinct. It is also heavily reliant on conceiving of leadership as a purely 'collaborative process' enacted via 'collective ownership'. Subsequently, the dynamics of asymmetrical leader-follower relations and appropriate use of power are not prominent considerations. Accordingly it is possible to question the validity of the 'operating principles' that underpin Raelin's thinking by challenging whether dyadic relations actually function on shared decision-making, non-judgemental dialogue, embracing critical scrutiny, and reconstructing views of reality.

The concurrent perspective advocated by Raelin is dependent upon a sharing of power, irrespective of the design of the organisational structure or the roles therein. Raelin's view assumes that leaders will never impose their formal authority, react to complex organisational situations differently to followers, or take lead responsibility for developing followers, not least to be 'leaderful' in the workplace. Nonetheless, there

are some laudable sentiments in adopting Raelin's view, specifically better decision making through wider involvement and eliciting a more engaged and motivated workforce. What appears absent from Raelin's field of view is the dynamics of how leaders use their authority and how followers respond, which are not necessarily predictable or collaborative. In this sense, leadership is never really co-created; identity and discourse still hold significant meaning by often distinguishing between leader and follower perspectives. The implications of this are evident in how one's construction of identity tends to be informed by the role that is undertaken. Indeed, how forms of authority can incrementally transfer to followers suggests that followership could be progressively more powerful in its own right. Accordingly, subtle switching between leadership and followership alludes to a distinction in how effectiveness is achievable in each role. What this suggests is that our traditional leadership and followership identities could be at odds or only in leaderful managers would be complementary. Consequently, the leaderful paradigm appears not so compelling as to completely disregard the possibility of followers and followership making a distinctive contribution, signifying something about the need for upward influence.

Learmonth and Morrell (2017) forthrightly denounce the criticality of critical leadership studies (CLS), fuelled by their condescension for the use of the 'language of leadership' in critical studies. This criticism has implications for critically researching the relationship between leaders and followers. They argue that being orientated towards the critical analysis of the leader-follower relationship merely sustains the same leaderism evident in the mainstream. Underpinning this claim is their conception of followers as innately unquestioning of the leaders' authority, and being compelled to do nothing other than follow. Moreover, they argue that the leader-follower dualism, as

the foundation for analysis in CLS studies, channels how we attach meaning to asymmetrical social relations. They harbour a concern that in rising-up the leader as being elite, this infers that leadership is threatening to workers, categorising the same workers as constrained and dominated. These contentions can be questioned based on the assumption that organisational actors are channelled toward and take-up pre-determined self-identities, and that all leaders are willingly representative of the elite that symbolise a capitalist doctrine. One further assumption is that corporate leadership is designed merely to downplay the voice of workers.

Learmonth and Morrell's critique advocates a reframing of the criticality of critical studies using a more credible alternative, that of the 'manager and worker' as a unit of critical analysis. They argue that 'workers' are better placed to resist power than 'followers' who merely unproblematically consent on the basis that it is contradictory to remain a follower and display dissenting and resisting behaviours. This claim appears to expose a Marxist undertone, whereby they downplay any struggle against oppression in leader-follower relations, privileging the validity of 'workers' as radical resisters that are activated by their class solidarity. Furthermore, they acknowledge the authenticity of leadership only where it is freely chosen or collaborative between people and not imposed or institutionalised. Collinson's (2017) retort reinstates the value of a dialectical approach to CLS. Moreover, he counteracts Learmonth and Morrell's approach to criticising CLS by asserting that Marxist structuralism and mainstream voluntarism should not detract from the debate and critical analysis of leadership.

Collinson's reaction emphasises that there is a plurality of perspectives of workplace power and identity dynamics exercised through various relationships within

organisations not adequately accounted for by Learmonth and Morrell. What this suggests is that the scope and influence of leadership can be empowering as well as oppressive, and it can be difficult to make a clear distinction in terms of where power resides. Therefore, a one-dimension Marxist view neglects to account for similarities, overlaps and interrelations. Accordingly, to heavily rely on a structural economic conflict in such relationships is overly simplistic, and this approach then fails to capture the more complex social working of the dyadic relationship. A critical point Collinson makes is that a conception of leadership inferring followership is voluntarily succumbing to the mainstream view. There is no acknowledgement in Learmonth and Morrell's prose that free choices are available to followers, and that followership can be a strategic pathway. Accordingly, a central argument for continuing with the critical approach to leadership studies is the value attached to revealing the multitude of ways there are to be a follower and to practice followership. Collinson captures this by distinguishing between subordinates with limited capacity to influence organisational direction but who retain the capacity to resist in various ways. Therefore, it appears unwise to preclude focusing attention on situated agency and subjectivity to understand power relations and hierarchical structures better.

Ford and Harding (2015) argue that while only recently followers have been considered in leadership studies, spawning followership studies, there remains an absence of critical attention given to an unexamined core of leadership theory. To illustrate this point they draw on implicit notions of followership that inform three dominant paradigms of leadership (i.e. leader-centric, multiple leadership and leader-centred). Subsequently, their criticism is of conventional wisdom built upon an analysis of leaders as leadership, followers' views of leaders as leadership, dynamics of leaders and

followers practising leadership, and followership itself. For them, this exposes that pervading leadership theory is a desire for power and control over followers as the potentially dangerous masses. It is this perspective of the belittlement of followers that they claim undermines leadership theory. Consequently, they advocate the abandonment of followers and followership leaving them unexplored. Underpinning this call is what they observe as the ‘steady state of followers’, that renders followership theorising as a distraction to the critical work that is still to occur and much needed, especially in respect to the effect of the leadership industry on managers in organisations.

It is possible to counter Harding and Ford’s thinking by acknowledging that recent interest in followers and followership offer an alternative viewpoint, which challenges some basic assumptions of leadership theory. Accordingly, there remains a need to critique the power relations and identity construction that bring leadership and followership into being, drawing on both leader and follower perspectives. Certainly, Harding and Ford rely on the notion that only characteristics deemed favourable from a leader perspective are complementary to leadership. They denounce the performative effect of followership studies for there being no critical account of followership. The supposition here is that participants are channelled into seeing themselves as ‘followers’, associating with limitations via identity categorisation. What is absent here is the notion of how followership can be ‘freely chosen’, and how it is possible to be a follower through a variety of identities. Therefore, the follower perspective of how followers respond to leaders and compliment leadership is multifaceted rendering this dynamic as worthy of further research attention.

Follower perspectives of what constitutes acting with integrity and levels of authenticity in their interactions rationalise why followership is of immense value to understanding more about leadership. Sustaining this interest in followers and followership could progress beyond the problem with the performativity of language, to question if follower and leader as positional identities can always be relied upon to inform the binary proposition of leadership. Discarding any scholarly interest with followers and followership, as advocated by Harding and Ford, prematurely squanders any possibilities of revealing new insights into leader-follower dynamics in acrimonious situations and the effects on leadership when follower agency transcends structure.

To summarise, it is risky to assume that research subjects are unduly influenced by sources of socialisation that would constrain their agency and channel their responses. To argue that the level of reflexivity merely is problematic is to display a heavy reliance on the environment being stable and having a sustainable impact on the research subject. This claim disregards the possibility that the same individual is just as likely to be impacted by their own and others personal characteristics and beliefs. The interpretations that Rost, Raelin, Learmonth and Morrell, and Ford and Harding have used to place followers and followership in amongst theories of leadership or social structures to make a case for a heightened sense of inferiority or oppression, appear overly simplistic, discursively selective, and literal in orientation. Positioning followers this way limits any capacity to see followers and followership beyond a narrow field of view; neglecting how authority emerges in social relations, subjectivity intervenes, and actions can be contextually interdependent.

The only certainty here is that the hierarchical roles of the leader and follower exist by design in formal organisations, but this cannot account for how experiences in either role can vary. It is this likelihood of variance and the meaning that research subjects tend to attach to such experiences that could say more about leadership. Moreover, it is increasingly difficult to continually make clear distinctions between the leader and follower, which suggests that the follower is no more an empty vessel than the leader. If this were not the case, it would be possible to conceive of leadership as formulaic and always capable of producing a definitive and consistent answer. Consequently, there appears to be a paradox in that by arguing against followership as one stream of critical studies, these scholars' critical voices are ironically contributing to critical followership literature.

Despite several perspectives outlined here arguing for the abandonment or rejection of followers and followership research, there appears to be a strong enough case to continue research in this field. A key motivation for this is an opportunity to understand more about the effects and implications for leadership. Subsequently, it is appropriate to consider why we should treat managers as followers, and conceive of their behaviours as constituting a form or forms of followership. The dynamics involved in dyadic relations between managers at different levels of seniority do not detract from an ability and willingness to follow a designated leader. The hierarchical position is only relevant in determining formal accountability and responsibility. Subsequently, this cannot override any anticipation that at one time or another all employees irrespective of their organisational rank will take up follower roles (Maccoby, 2007). The reason this is likely to occur is that they can contribute to the dynamic of leadership in different ways, and be subject to the effects of leadership. In that sense, it is possible to conceive of

managers as endeavouring to be effective by adapting their behaviour to lead and follow equally as well (Heller and Van Til, 1982). Accordingly, this alludes to a requirement to dynamically switch between the two roles, and refine distinctive leadership and followership knowledge and skills as the context demands.

Given that followership can occur in a variety of ways, evident in the exercise of different followership styles (Steger et al., 1982), it would make sense for managers to self-identify with both leading and following as being complementary and not competitive (Kelley, 1991). A reluctance to embrace following and followership could jeopardise how managers seek to excel as good corporate citizens. This scenario alludes to there being more than one way to exercise influence in the leadership process and enhance personal credibility. Indeed, seeking alternative directions of influence appears necessary when considering the amount of time managers will spend following in comparison to leading (Latour and Rast, 2004) especially illustrative of how leaders are expected to operate in contemporary work environments. It is such considerations that give way to a lessening of any reliance on the notion that organisational objectives are only achievable via formal authority. It also acknowledges that formal leaders require enough influence with their subordinates that they freely follow, which is what renders the leader 'a leader' (Kellerman, 2008). In this case, the Academic Leader seeks to have influence with their Administration Manager, subsequently, by positively responding to this influence the Manager is freely following. Therefore, in that sense, the Manager is a follower and engages with the process of followership. The realisation of such a scenario aligns well with DeRue's (2010) assertion that the granting of leader identity is to claim a follower identity for oneself.

3.1.2 Follower agency, knowledgeable and proactivity

Traditional orthodoxies depict leaders as dominant and followers as influenced by leaders (Jackson and Parry, 2008), advocating that heroic leaders determine what is best for followers, whom to privilege, and categorising follower performance (Collinson, 2011). Western (2008) observes that characteristically followers are portrayed as passive and susceptible to being moulded, coerced, and influenced by the leader. Such portrayals of leaders and followers highlight traditional power and status differentials being accepted as natural and unproblematic (Gordon, 2002, 2011). Accordingly, there is a tendency to disregard followers as knowledgeable and intelligent people, capable of more than mere obedience. Subsequently, critical studies argue that the mainstream approaches downplay the follower's role, presenting them as 'an undifferentiated mass or collective' (Collinson, 2006). Goffee and Jones (2001) disparagingly convey their condemnation of this sorry depiction of a follower:

‘...an empty vessel waiting to be led, or even transformed, by the leader.’

(Goffee and Jones, 2001, p.148)

Critical perspectives, unlike the mainstream perspectives, challenge the assumption that followers are or should be fundamentally conformist, advocating the ‘emancipation of followers’ (Thomas, 1993). Subsequently, by considering the normative position of followers, the critical approach exposes what is neglected, absent or deficient to understand followership better (Collinson, 2011). In critical theorising, followers and followership are studied as a social influence process, acknowledging followers as having the capacity to act under their own agency to realise their aspirations (Evans, 2010). Thus, followers are viewed not as ‘powerless masses’ (Burns, 1979, Berg, 1998)

but as proactive corporate contributors (Gronn, 2002). The espoused interpretation of hierarchy, formal power, and assigned authority to lead, prominent in the mainstream literature, is criticised in critical literature as overly exaggerated and built on ill-founded propositions. As such, critical studies reject ‘essentialism’, repositioning followers by rethinking leadership as ‘socially’ and ‘discursively’ constructed (incorporating multiple discourses and meaning) (Western, 2008, Collinson, 2011, Grint, 1997, Fairhurst and Grant, 2010). The critical lens refocuses researchers’ attention on the innate relational qualities and contextually dependent nature of leadership (Ospina and Sorenson, 2007). The resultant effect is to reveal the importance of followers and followership skills as significantly more meaningful and integral to leadership (Alvesson and Willmott, 2001, Collinson, 2006). Rosenau (2004) reaffirms this critical view by acknowledging “the dynamics of leadership are intimately and inextricably tied up with followership” (p.16).

Critical perspectives acknowledge the significance of followers as tactically participating, actively opposing, or actively supporting leaders (Kellerman, 2004, Padilla et al., 2007), alluding to the scope of their agency and proactivity. Certainly, there are references made in critical studies to followers being motivated to act by ethical considerations. Accordingly, such concerns provide a basis to resist claims of the outmodedness of followership in contemporary organisations or calls to reconfigure or disregard the search for a better understanding of followership (Rost, 2008, Raelin, 2003, 2005, Ford and Harding, 2015). Subsequently, the critical lens exposes one possible value of effective followership; as an ‘ethical barometer’, in the face of the leader’s right to power and dominance deeply embedded in organisational structures (Gordon, 2002, 2011, Baker, 2007). Here follower resistance is deemed necessary (Kets

de Vries and Balazs, 2011, Kellerman, 2004, Collinson, 2011, Caza and Jackson, 2011, Lipman-Blumen, 2005), underpinned by an ethical dimension to followership. It is this dimension that obliges the follower to disobey leader judgements; what they believe to be ill-informed, accepting an inherent risk in speaking truth to power (Chaleff, 2009, 2015, Bligh, 2011). To not act in this way is to risk being perceived as ‘silently colluding’ (Bluman, 2008). The significance of this, in terms of the effectiveness of followership, is captured in Chaleff’s (2015) current thinking on disobedience as a form of intelligence, opposed to outright obstructive disobedience. The connotation being that followers are proactive and knowledgeable enough to counteract narcissistic leaders and their unsavoury leadership practices. Chaleff advances the notion of followers being required to tactically determine how and when to disobey, to reduce risk and find better ways to achieve legitimate goals. It remains unclear though to what extent upward influence should feature in expectations of follower power, and the full range of inhibiting factors that can hamper followers from adopting this approach (Uhl-Bien and Carsten, 2007).

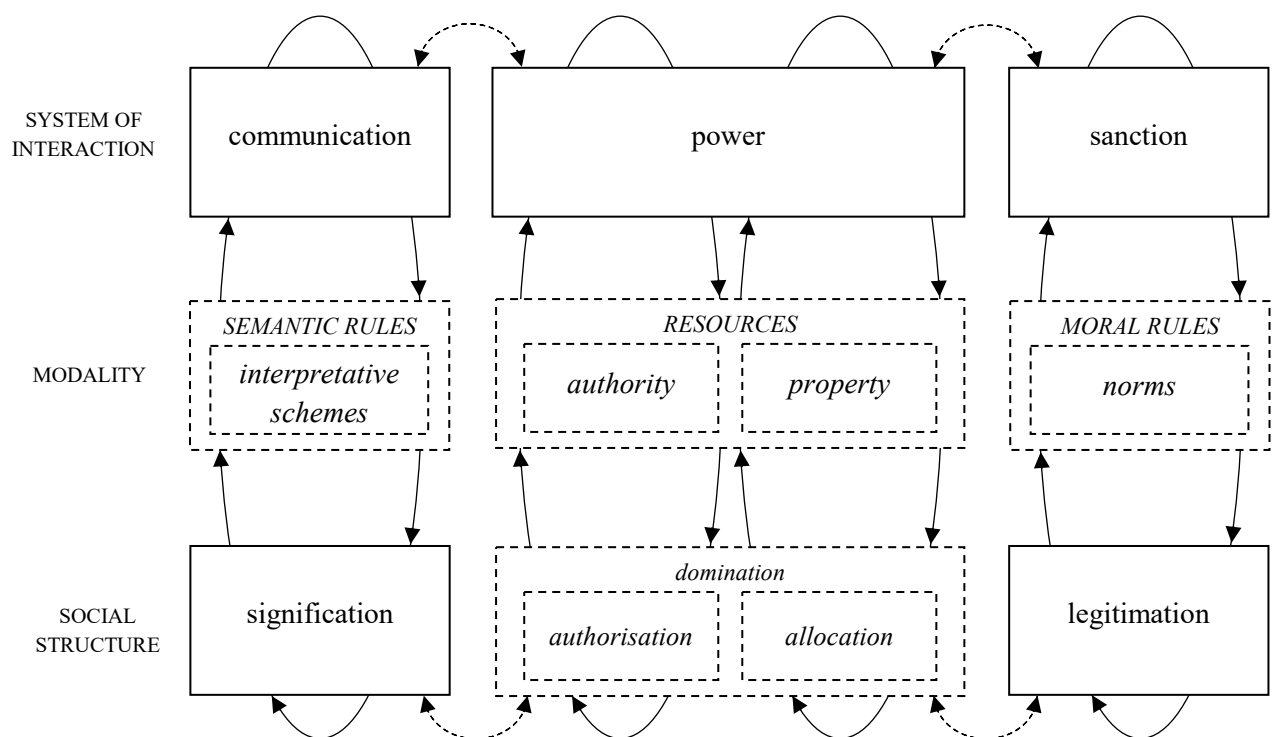
Dialectical approaches feature in critical literature and are drawn upon to analyse the dynamic tension and interplay between what appear to be oppositional binaries (Fairhurst, 2001). This approach facilitates a targeted analysis of specific factors of leader-follower relations, such as transactional/transformational and participative/autocratic aspects (Collinson, 2005b, Grint, 2005a). Some critical approaches to followership (and leadership) are informed by Giddens ‘structuration theory’ (Giddens, 1984, 1987). Central to this perspective is a dialectical theory of power relations and human agency, which offers a foundation to challenge what is presented in the mainstream leadership literature. This sociological theory prompts a

reconsideration of the dialectics of power relations in terms of agency and power in social relations (Collinson, 2011). Giddens's (1979) view of balancing the relationship between agency and structure (i.e. duality of structure) reveals that social structures make social action possible and that social action creates those very structures. This view emphasises how interaction creates meaning and understanding. Guiding interaction is structural properties (i.e. signification, legitimation, and domination) which refer specifically to the production of meaning, degrees of power, and societal norms that dictate how social structure is organised from the outset (Reus, 2009). These are drawn upon by knowledgeable agents to transform situations beyond being channelled by institutional arrangements, utilising their interpretive schemes (modalities of structuration) (Lock, 2015) (Figure 9). Giddens's theory alludes to the fact that followers in their own right can translate their knowledge into power within their operating environment.

Structuration theory asserts that all competent individuals in society are vastly skilled in the practical accomplishments of social activities, with the knowledge they have being integral to the persistent patterning of social life. The implication is an association between agency and power as a feature of social systems, whereby seemingly 'powerless' individuals (subordinates) can mobilise available allocative and authoritative resources, and in doing so influence the activities of their superiors (Giddens, 1982, Nandan, 1998). This notion stimulates greater scrutiny of the complex issues of power and its relational nature, contradictions, and conflict in organisational life (Emirbayer, 1997). Accordingly, the notion of how power is subtly generated and utilised is highly relevant to how followers proactively draw on their knowledge to obtain agency. It is this agency that they can then utilise in the interaction processes

between themselves and their leader, incorporating levels of influence, and the institutionalisation of what is dominant (Nasser, 2010). Therefore, it is conceivable to view followers as possessing the potential to manipulate control mechanisms to their advantage, subverting the upper echelons in organisations from having total power and control.

Figure 9: Structuration theory – system and structure



Source: Adapted from The Dictionary of Human Geography , 2009

The concept of the ‘dialectic of control’ provides an explanatory framework for deliberate and self-serving subordinate behaviours in the face of controls in organisations. The term ‘dialectic’ refers to the first dynamic alteration or shift in the balance of power over time and space, due to changing circumstances. This shift in power occurs as a result of attempts by knowledgeable subordinate agents to use the

(sometimes meagre) resources at their disposal. In this sense, followers can never really be powerless and can influence their superiors. Accordingly, control is viewed as less functionalist (i.e. prescribing organisational order) (Otley and Berry, 1980), and more pluralistic (i.e. complex social processes of interaction) through which controls emerge, re-emerge and are transformed in organisations (Giddens, 1984). The ‘dialectic of control’ is always in operation and implicit in the nature of human agency. Subsequently, this renders mechanisms of control inherently problematic, given the capacity subordinates have to deploy a range of causal powers (Giddens, 1979). It is with these powers that they influence others to make a difference to the course of events. What this alludes to is a greater follower agency than portrayed in the mainstream literature. An underpinning factor here is that power is never unidirectional in social processes, given that all social relations involve both autonomy and dependence (Giddens, 1984, Macintosh, 1995). For that reason there appears to be an inevitable integration then of top-down and bottom-up positions (Cohen, 1989).

A balance of power is realised when subordinates have access to resources and know how to use them to achieve outcomes. Subsequently, followers do not lose all possibility of responding in a manner other than the ones tacitly or explicitly preferred by their superior (Giddens, 1979). Conversely, any leader who attempts to achieve outcomes through the efforts of followers is never genuinely autonomous. They achieve these outcomes by depending upon followers to respond in one way rather than another. This interdependency is the essence of the ‘dialectic of control’ in social systems, rejecting presumptions that power in organisations is regularised between superior and subordinates. In a dialectical sense, structural principles operate in terms of one another but yet also contravene each other (Scapens and Macintosh, 1996, Giddens, 1984).

From a leadership and followership perspective, a central implication of structuration theory is the acknowledgement of follower agency, knowledgeability and proactivity.

The insufficient consideration of ‘dissent’ in the mainstream literature (Banks, 2008) draws critical attention to acknowledging that followers are frequently ‘knowledgeable’ and ‘oppositional’ (Jermier et al., 1994). The follower’s own perceptions determine the extent to which upward influence is abandoned and replaced by resistance. Such follower agency is evident in Kellerman’s (2007, 2008) work concerning relational motivations via level of engagement as played out in a dominance/deference relationship. The significance in terms of upward influence is framed by the social and relational aspects of post-heroic leadership. Here followers and followership have more prominence in informal leadership practices in contemporary settings (Collinson, 2011, Crossman and Crossman, 2011). Subsequently, followers are elevated, influencing as moderators, substitutes, and constructors of leadership (Western, 2008, Jackson and Parry, 2008). What this suggests is that followership has to be dynamically attuned and appropriately reactive to situational variables to render it effective. There appears to be a correlation here with how Grint and Holt (2011) explore contextual fit and followership in the NHS. They draw on the ‘typology of problems’ work of Rittel and Webber (1973) to reveal that the kind of followership employed is situationally dependent. Such occurrences can amplify the effects of followership by blurring distinctions between the qualities evident in good leaders and effective followers (Hurwitz and Hurwitz, 2009a, Williams, 2008).

A critical reconceptualisation of followership reveals more about leaders’ adaptations to followers to augment their top-down influence (Evans, 2010, Bryman, 1992).

Underpinning this is the acknowledgement that follower characteristics or role orientations can substitute or neutralise the leader's influence (Kerr and Jermier, 1978, Howell and Mendez, 2008). Followers envisaging themselves as integral in the leadership process alongside leaders (Rost, 1993) can erode traditional leader-follower distinctions (Bligh, 2011) and enhance follower agency (Jackson and Parry, 2008). Subsequently, this exposes the vulnerability of a leader's range of skills and attributes, in comparison to many small leadership actions of followers that engender organisational success (Grint, 2010). Despite this, Collinson (2011) points out that leadership as 'influence' is defined positively while 'power' is presented negatively, in ways that fail to recognise that influence is one aspect of power. The resultant dilemma appears crucial in considering how followers employ upward influence, relative to how their superiors utilise either supportive or manipulative power (Baker, 2007). What appears highly significant here are considerations of follower agency (i.e. identity, power, and resistance) embedded in leadership dynamics (i.e. shifting asymmetrical and interdependent relational characteristics) (Collinson, 2005b). The assertion being that asymmetrical power relations are always bidirectional.

3.1.3 Power dynamics and relations

To fully understand followership from a critical perspective is to appreciate the interrelated importance of the follower's agency and power dynamics and relations. The significance of this becomes apparent when acknowledging that questions of power and control are underestimated in mainstream leader-centred approaches (Ray et al., 2004). Accordingly, it is vital to question embedded assumptions such as leaders and followers are bound by shared interests, organisational authority as unproblematic, and resistance as abnormal or irrational (Collinson, 2011). This holds implications for

viewing follower behaviours differently, illustrated by the notion of ‘courageous followership’ (Chaleff, 1995). Chaleff draws attention to the extent the leader is supported and/or challenged as an effective form of followership behaviour (Table 12). The notion that followers can upwardly challenge their leaders and still be deemed effective in doing so offers an early critical insight into reframing the follower’s role in the leadership dynamic. Having said that, Chaleff’s work downplays ‘power’ that features more prominently in contemporary critical works focusing on leader-follower relational dynamics.

Table 12: Courageous followership model

Courage to...	Prescriptive followership behaviour
Assume responsibility	Followers are responsible for themselves and the organisation with no expectation that the leader or organisation will provide for their security or growth, or grant permission to act to initiate improvement.
Serve a leader	Followers assume new or additional responsibilities to unburden their leader and serve the organisation.
Challenge	Followers speak out to voice the discomfort they feel when the behaviours or policies of the leader or group conflict with their sense of what is right.
Participate in transformation	Followers become full participants in the change process.
Leave	Followers are prepared to actively withdraw support from, even to reject or oppose destructive leaders, despite high personal risk.

Source: Adapted from Chaleff, 1995, p6-8

Chaleff (2008) subsequently refined his earlier work, latterly advocating that followers need to have ‘the courage to support’ and ‘the courage to challenge’ the leader’s behaviour or policies (p.73-74). By focusing attention on perceptions of what is deemed appropriate (i.e. support or challenge) and the significance of aligning perceptions in the dyadic relationship, this suggests that effective followership relies on some form of attuning influencing behaviours to leaders and contexts:

Table 13: Chaleff's courageous follower categories

Style	Level of Support	Degree of Challenge	Characteristic
Partner	High	High	Assume responsibility for their own and leader's behaviour
Implementer	High	Low	Gets work done but won't challenge
Individualist	Low	High	Withhold support, use contrarian, often challenging views
Resource/ Subordinates	Low	Low	Will do enough to retain position, but no more

Source: Adapted from Chaleff, 2008, p.75

The dilemma faced by the follower is to have the desired impact without disenfranchising their leader. In practice, it is conceivable that the leader should want the followers' support, which occasionally can mean resorting to challenging the leaders' reasoning. The inherent risk in such acts is to provoke a sense within the leader of 'insubordinate followership', which if sustained renders the follower as 'incompetent'. Interestingly, both these leader-centred evaluations of follower behaviour are viewed as anti-prototypical measures of effective followership in Sy's (2010) empirical work. However, Chaleff's (2015) current thinking on 'intelligent disobedience' alludes more to followers having greater consideration of the risks involved, and also controlling the risk by premediating their approach using their insights and awareness to inform interactions with their leader.

Chaleff's work resonates with the view that the complexity of leadership dynamics is defined critically as "the shifting, asymmetrical interrelations between leaders, followers, and context" (Collinson, 2011, p.181). In the mainstream literature, context

and the interplay of power and the subjective nature of meaning, embedded in the dynamics of the relationship are neglected. Similarly, overlooked are followers' perceptions of leaders as dominant (Stech, 2008), and follower-centred influencing effects on the leader-follower dyad (Howell and Shamir, 2005). All of which signifies a failure to question the need to have formal authority invested in leaders to make followership meaningful. What underpins this point is the infamous misgivings of a leader-centred understanding of leadership (Bennis, 1999).

Through a critical lens, leader-follower relations are viewed as shifting interdependencies and power asymmetries. This view is supported by recognising that power relations are two-way, with leaders being dependent on those being led, and followers having some autonomy and discretion (Collinson, 2011). Moreover reconsidering leadership and followership in terms of shifting identities suggests that dichotomies, used to make distinctions between leaders and followers, are impossible to capture with certainty (Bligh, 2011). Subsequently, followers respond to leaders as knowledgeable agents, being proactive and self-aware, and they dynamically draw on a repertoire of possible workplace agencies (Collinson, 2011). Collinson (2006, 2008) argues that followership can be better understood by considering asymmetrical power relations and insecurities in the context of leader-led dynamics. Critical writers comprehend power and resistance as mutually implicated, co-constructed and interdependent processes that have multiple, ambiguous and contradictory conditions, meanings and consequences (Mumby, 2005). Therefore, control and resistance are deemed discursive and dialectical practices with power being both disciplinary and enabling, while control and resistance are mutually reinforcing in contradictory ways (Collinson, 2003).

Collinson's (2006, 2008) post-structuralist view of the leader-follower power asymmetry reveals the extent to which followers are dynamically active in the leader-follower relationship. Collinson rejects the notion that follower identities are singular, unitary, stable, and coherent; exposing multiple coexisting follower identities. He identifies recurring selves (i.e. conformist, resistant, and dramaturgical selves) (Table 14) drawn upon by followers in response to dominant leadership discourses that influence on their self-perceptions as followers. Hence, leader and follower identities can be mutually 'influencing' and shifting. This interplay of identities underpins why followers are not always conformist and often resistant, oppositional and knowledgeable. Accordingly, this aligns with Collinson's (2008) assertion that followers' and leaders' identities are frequently a condition and consequence of one another, "they are inextricably linked, mutually reinforcing and shifting within specific contexts" (p. 232). Therefore, followers' acts are informed by context and language rendering followership as 'mutually influencing' (Zoogah, 2014, Carroll et al., 2015).

Table 14: A post-structuralist analysis of follower identities

Conformist self	Workplace surveillance systems producing disciplined selves.
Resistant self	Power invariably produces resistance, making some anti-leader sentiments and behaviours inevitable.
Dramaturgical self	Manipulation of workplace constraints (e.g. reviews, audits, and targets) by an individual to their own end as a coping strategy.

Adapted from Collinson, 2006, p.183-4

The utilisation of various selves by followers exposes a mechanism of tactical adaptation, which could be informed by factors that are unique to the individual

follower too. Stech (2008) focuses on states of being, which challenges dominant paradigms on leadership-followership power relations, emphasising the follower's expertise, self-motivation, and self-direction (Schedlitzki and Edwards, 2014b). Rost (2008) argues that leaders and followers equally engage in the process of leadership, focusing on collaborative leadership as an 'influence relationship'. What this suggests is that followers have a higher capacity to upwardly influence than first portrayed in conventional research. Iedema et al. (2006) argue that contemporary workplace dynamics render the simplicity of obeying or rejecting organisationally defined conduct as a false assumption. They refer to workers enacting a social-organisational form of reflection, embracing the notion that compliance and resistance can coexist. As such, ideational control can be subtle, manipulating identity by recasting professionalism within organisations (Hodgson, 2005). This situation calls for greater consideration of motives to dissent to fully appreciate the context of resistance, and why followers navigate anticipated disciplinary sanctions to sustain their dissenting agency (Zoller and Fairhurst, 2007, Collinson, 2011, Heifetz and Laurie, 1997).

The overt defiance or concealed practices followers employ in the contested organisational workplace (Edwards, 1979, Edwards et al., 1995) appear to be tactical approaches. These acts hold implications for intensifying leader distance (Scott, 1985), which can be mutually reinforcing perpetuating oppositional practices, fuelled by mistrust and cynicism (Collinson, 2005a, 1992, 2002). What this would suggest is that follower-leader interconnectedness is assumed, and overlooks potential conflicts of interest. Indeed, dramaturgical follower practices encompass elements of conformity and resistance, suggesting that dissent and consent may be intimately linked within the same practices (Collinson, 2011, Kondo, 1990). The implications of this are that the use

of power and resistance to control can be enacted subtly and subjectively interpreted in the dyadic relationship. Therefore, critical perspectives pose an important question; ‘is followership about reducing dissent to aim for organisational goals via consensus?’ If not ‘is upward influence vitally important in defining effective followership?’

3.1.4 Upward communication

One important means by which followers express power, agency and identity is through upward communication. Critical perspectives espouse the virtues of followers having a voice, but they also expose what hampers or prevents their capacity to influence. Tourish and Robson (2006) criticise corporate systems that mute ‘critical upward influence’ and suppress informal communication, as techniques designed to ensure follower conformity. Certainly, Tourish and Pinnington (2002) make an earlier highly relevant observation regarding the unfavourable characteristics of transformational leadership. They associate such leadership with engendering corporate culture; being detrimental to internal dissent vital to effective decision making. They expose leader-centred approaches used to shape the leader-follower relationship, which transforms follower goals, subtly controls opposition, and deviously promotes the leader’s self-interests (Burns, 1978, Ciulla, 1995). Subsequently, it is possible to see how such leaders have the power to restrain dissidents by acting in a way not available to their followers. The implication is that followers can be more influential by being overly conformist (Brown, 2000), which helps them avoid punishment by those with higher authority and power. The resultant effect can be a combination of toxic dependency with destructive leader-centred actions (Jones, 1964). This questions how a compulsion to follow impacts on the follower’s capacity to upwardly influence. It also highlights how the contribution of a full range of organisational actors is diminished, rationalising

why disagreement and dissent isn't typically held in the same regard as the achievement of cohesion and agreement (Tourish, 2014).

Especially concerning are narcissistic leaders who can impose their vision on followers who are then discouraged from criticising or feeding into decision making (Maccoby, 2000, Tourish and Hargie, 2000). Tourish and Wohlforth's (2000) work draws attention to the routine exaggeration of such leader behaviour, that assumes followership is mainly passive and uncritical. This view negates an imperative to empower people, effectively precluding any corrective feedback (Tourish and Pinnington, 2002, De Vries et al., 1999). In these circumstances, there can only be a top-down flow of influence, underpinned by the leader's divine insight into reality (Yukl, 1999a, Tourish and Pinnington, 2002). Followers then sacrifice their own best interests and become less able to make their own views distinct in their organisational setting. Consequently, this further internalises the dominant belief system, while socially controlling what is deemed to be committed, loyal, and efficient (Tourish and Pinnington, 2002, Cialdini, 2001, Hope and Hendry, 1995). Accordingly, it is possible to envisage how corporate communications can account for a control of the crucial flow of agency that is vested in non-leaders, however what remains absent is captured by Tourish's (2014) observation that it is a different view of agency that "sees leadership and followership as co-constructed phenomenon embedded in fluid social structures that we have barely begun to understand" (p.94). It is this observation that reaffirms the importance of upward communication as a key contributor to how followership can help organisations to flourish.

Elaborating on the work of Schein et al. (1961), to reveal how conformity is manufactured in contemporary organisational settings, Tourish et al. (2009) present nine techniques of coercive persuasion (Table 15). This framework is intended to assist in obtaining a better understanding of the exercise of power via corporate culturalism (in the case of HE institutions this refers to professional bureaucracy), and how powerful leaders exert their compelling ideologies. What this illustrates is the possibility that followers in the grip of such a compelling force would struggle to be upwardly influential. Why this is important is because there needs to be adequate consideration of what hampers upward influence to understand more about why followers could be deemed ineffective when evaluating them on their upward influence. The effect of ensuring conformity by design and subsuming followers who embrace this ideology is for them to be instruments of their own subjugation (Tracy et al., 2006, Tourish and Pinnington, 2002). Situating followers in this way focuses attention on the desirability of follower conformity as taken for granted, and questions the established legitimisation of leaders influencing followers' identity (Chemers, 2003). It also challenges the rationality of management and the view that organisational and managerial interests are analogous (Gordon et al., 2009). Therefore, we begin to see beyond notions of leaders changing and activating appropriate follower identities (Lord and Brown, 2001, 2004) to a critical view of organisational power as embedded, structural, and pervasive (Barker, 1993, Zoller and Fairhurst, 2007).

There is a questioning of the separation between power and influence in critical studies. Influence is viewed as a form of leader power, exposing the dynamics of control strategies that engender forms of resistance to reaffirm employee identity (Hardy and Clegg, 1999, Delbridge and Ezzamel, 2005). Subsequently, it is possible to consider

employee compliance, including self-protection, as embedded in the same practices (Blass, 2008, Fromm, 2001). There is an important distinction in how corporate leaders construct a social environment, to channel employees towards conformity via either coercive persuasion or coercive power (Alvesson and Willmott, 2002, Tompkins and Cheney, 1985). There appears to be a limited appreciation here of how upward influence emerges amidst navigating a designated belief system, an elite leader's right to govern, and higher sanctioning of an ideology via hierarchical and bureaucratic practices (Courpasson, 2000). Tourish et al. (2009) expose the effects of frequent conversion to a new mind-set to lessen external surveillance. The impact of this is the claim that subordinates are being compelled to act against their own will, which appears as being undertaken freely without command. What this alludes to is that followers' upward influencing attempts can be channelled or re-engineered incrementally over time, somewhat controlling their agency, constraining their proactivity, and reducing the value of their knowledge.

Techniques of coercive persuasion affect upon followers by shaping and rewarding their new organisational identity (Barker, 1993, Tajfel and Turner, 1986, Jost and Elsbach, 2001, Tompkins and Cheney, 1985). The resultant effect is a sanctioning of the leader's power to define behavioural norms and enforce them via interaction, exclusion, or marginalisation (Foucault, 1977, 1982, Sewell and Barker, 2006, Lacombe, 1996). As such, the disciplinary effects of power and identity are exposed irrespective of emancipatory rhetoric (Barker, 1993, McKinlay and Taylor, 1996, Townley, 1994, Kunda, 1992). Hence there is an alignment here with Collinson's (2011) assertion that the exercise and experience of power and control can occur in subtle ways within everyday leadership practices. The suggestion then is that some influence tactics may

be more subtly coercive, or experienced as coercive. It also illustrates how there are multiple ways in which power exists, with one form being as either influence toward an intended outcome or to tactically counter influence attempts. Indeed, such techniques can be applied to punish any resistance (Hargie and Dickson, 2004, Kassing, 2001), and increase ingratiating behaviours amongst followers to survive and acquire any influence with superiors (Tourish and Robson, 2006). In these circumstances, the follower suffers a diminishment in their capacity to access sources of valuable information. Subsequently, this situation suppresses their influence in the social environment, impacting on identity construction (Cheney and Christensen, 2001). Tourish et al. (2009) argue that nine identifiable techniques can be used to evaluate the force of coercive persuasion in contemporary organisations, given their propensity to elicit conformity:

Table 15: The key techniques of coercive persuasion - Schein et al. 1961

Technique	Modern Organisational Translation of Technique
1. Reference Group Affiliation	Environmental changes, new entrants, and turnover create organisational anxiety. Elicits seeking alignment with reference groups to reduce anxiety and increase conformance.
2. Role Modelling	Organisations develop systems of role modelling and mentoring so members learn appropriate behaviour. Elicits learning from and coming to emulate those in positions of power and seeking to meet their expectations, increasing conformity.
3. Peer Pressures	Focus on team working, shared rewards, and shared consequences intensify peer pressure to conform.
4. Alignment of Identity	Modern workers embrace the firm's strategic vision and shape their behaviours accordingly. Conformity to the vision and values become part of their identity.
5. Performance Assessment	Employees are assessed based on conformity with strategy and practice, including mechanisms such as 360-degree feedback. Individuals are expected to conform and the system is assumed correct.
6. Reward Systems	Conformists are rewarded. Dissent, e.g. whistleblowing or resistance is strongly sanctioned.
7. Communication Systems	Management and control of communication become central to the organisation. Companies exert increased control of stakeholder information and manage stakeholder engagement.
8. Physical Pressure and Work-Life Balance	Members are expected to work longer hours and expend greater effort to demonstrate conformity and commitment. Individuals are expected to demonstrate fortitude to overcome the physical demands of labour.
9. Psychological Safety	Psychological contracts become invested in expectations of conformity. Mutual support of leaders creates psychological safety and conformance.

Source: Adapted from Tourish et al., 2009, p.365-366

The pervasive nature of our organisational world extends to personal and professional relations. Its effects can be a means of progressing one's career and impacting more generally on one's self, evident via the construct of self-management (Burrell, 1988, Grey, 1994). The leader's retention of decision-making power to define the strategic direction, and to reward or punish, and withdraw empowerment initiatives aligns with Heller's (1998) assertion that organisational influence sharing has insufficiently progressed. What this suggests is that coercion appears as an endemic feature of the leader-follower relationship (Kunde and Cunningham, 2000), acknowledging power as innately relational (Fairhurst, 2007) and typically top-down (Sewell and Barker, 2006). Contemplating the use of power in this way draws attention to the actual scope for upward influence, based on the pull towards compliance unless resistance is more fully understood in organisational settings (Zoller and Fairhurst, 2007). What constitutes 'effective followership' appears narrowly channelled toward the corporate doctrine, subjugating the follower's personal interest, identity, and values. Consequently, this raises a question; is organisational followership always 'freely-chosen?'

The critical perspective draws attention to the dangers of a susceptibility to obey authority (Blass, 2008), as the powerful effect of hypnotic (Popper, 2001), toxic (Lipman-Blumen, 2005), and bad (Kellerman, 2004) leaders who allure followers and expose them to extreme leadership power and control (Collinson, 2011). The impact is to embed followers in a position of weakness, subsuming their identity in a 'fatal embrace' (Wayne, 2002), acknowledging the intensity of bonds and irrationality of their commitment, interpreted as 'crimes of obedience' (Hinrichs, 2007). Such situations can influence whether the follower enters into a relationship of dependency, counter-dependency or interdependence (Stech, 2004). Subsequently, the nature of the follower-

leader relational dynamic informs the leader's receptivity to upward constructive criticism (Lipman-Blumen, 2005, Gabriel, 1999, Maccoby, 2000). The effect of this is a shift in emphasis from the individual to the relational approach (i.e. the 'in-between' leader and follower space). Accordingly, this view allows for a more holistic account of the leader, follower, and context (Hosking, 2011). It also reveals the social, cognitive, and political nature of the relationship, which relies on sensemaking, and decisions relating to dominance or support of particular constructions. Hence, it becomes more evident that individual selves and context have a bearing upon the co-construction of the leadership process. This approach offers an insight into what is mutually accepted as 'effective', that then impacts on expectations and informs what sort of relationship is to be formed (Cunliffe and Eriksen, 2011).

Tourish and Robson (2006) warn against eliminating critical upward influence (CUI), presenting several factors that impact on upward feedback by those without power. Morrison and Milliken (2003) observe that often subordinates will not speak up and remain silent, recognising speaking up as futile or dangerous. Notwithstanding this apprehension, the assumed importance of leaders over followers is challenged by what Kellerman (2013) argues is a fundamental shift in the patterns of dominance and deference. She observes the transference of power and influence from leaders to followers who gain more power and influence. This situation is propelled by leader vulnerability beyond their control, and followers as being better positioned to benefit. Contextual occurrences such as socioeconomic and political trends are causal factors too in reframing the leader-follower relationship. If this constitutes an accurate reflection of the changing nature of leadership, it questions the validity of the traditional dualistic view, because conventional positions of authority are incrementally and

progressively under threat. It is this changing nature of the leader-follower relationship that urges Kellerman (2013) to stress the irrationality of focusing on leaders and excluding followers. She advocates equal consideration of the leader, follower, and context or risk the historical mistake of assuming influence flows top down. Kellerman's observation legitimises the increasing recognition of bottom-up influence as traditionally underplayed, and heightens its contemporary and future significance.

3.2 Conclusion

This chapter has addressed the literature that critically questions what is conventionally portrayed as 'natural' in the leadership dynamic, namely the passive role of followers (broadly defined). This diversion from the mainstream considers more the interplay between the complexities of social environments and notions of power and control. In this more critical approach, issues of identity, power, and resistance come to the fore to produce new insights into how follower agency and followership are integral to the leadership process. As such, followers are deemed to have a greater capacity to influence leaders and subsequently organisational leadership. This is critically important in informing this research because it exposes a need to understand more about the influence that emanates from followers in an upwardly direction, and how this holds meaning for followership in terms of its relationship with leadership.

One important point made prominent via critical perspectives is that followers are often more knowledgeable and proactive than has often been acknowledged in the mainstream literature on leadership. What this suggests is that there is more to reveal about how followers tactically adapt their behaviour and identity to influence the leadership process, and the effects of this activity on leaders. Informed by Western

(2008) a critical analysis of power relations acknowledges that leadership and followership are dynamic roles with influence being bidirectional. A meaningful way that followers' agency can be expressed is in terms of their capacity to influence upwards. Issues of 'identity' and 'power' seen in critical studies offer a potential bridge to 'influence' and the body of existing knowledge that emerges from studies of organisational influence. Therefore, the next chapter considers the research on upward influence.

Chapter 4: Upward Influencing Studies

Studies concerned with ‘influence’ present an intriguing and relevant body of knowledge. This literature offers significant potential to contribute to our understanding and evaluation of effective follower behaviour. Why this is relevant is because there is an emphasis on follower influence as an emerging key factor in enhancing corporate leadership. Consequently, influencing literature is directly relevant to the formulation of the research questions because it is not yet clear how the use of tactics and desire for upward influence evident in this body of knowledge is experienced via the phenomenon of followership. Followers appear to dynamically enhance their personal effectiveness in the dyadic relationship, by tactically constructing their identity, and enhancing their agency relative to contextual factors. Accordingly, it makes sense to consider upward influence as an important mechanism for followers to operate effectively beyond expectations of conformity. A subordinate’s capacity to influence seniority is viewed as a key reason for their success or failure (Cohen and Bradford, 1989, Castro et al., 2003). Engaging in the act of tactically influencing another requires a behavioural change (Yukl et al., 2008, Yukl et al., 2005). What this indicates is that followers are cognisant of their approach when interacting. Such acts are evident in the literature as having a specific objective intent, underpinned by a motive that could be personal or organisational (Krishnan, 2004).

4.1 Upward influencing tactics and practices

Despite the significance of these studies on influence tactics and practices, organisational influence processes remain under-researched (Yukl et al., 2005, Kipnis et al., 1980). Downward influence has typically received more attention (Porter et al., 1981, Schermerhorn Jr and Bond, 1991). This narrow focus of research attention

exposes an increasing need to consider upward influence (Cohen and Bradford, 1989, Terpstra-Tong and Ralston, 2002, Schilit and Locke, 1982). The emerging prominence of upward influence is propelled by subordinates having increased power to influence decisions, given their greater knowledge-based authority and involvement in decision-making (Kellerman, 2008, 2013, Alshenaifi and Clarke, 2014). Moreover, there has been a shift in management studies from leadership to followership, underpinned by an interest in relational leadership theories (Pfeffer, 1997, Steizel and Rimbau-Gilabert, 2013, Farmer et al., 1997). Therefore, studying influence tactics is considered valuable to organisations; evaluating the effectiveness of individuals and working relationships (Porter et al., 1981, Yukl and Tracey, 1992, Thacker and Wayne, 1995, Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988). What is intriguing about upward influence is evident in how an organisation's culture is shaped by how subordinates set about influencing upwards, via either pressure and persistence or rational persuasion and fact-based logic (Cable and Judge, 2003).

4.1.1 Identifying, categorising, and measuring influence

To my knowledge, there is only one notable review of the literature concerned with 'influence', which includes 'tactics' by Yukl and Seifert (2002). The earliest studies by Mowday (1978) and Kipnis et al. (1980) emphasise the significance of researching 'informal power', followed later by interest in interpersonal influence theory (Higgins et al., 2003). Mowday's (1978) study focuses on managers' upward influence in organisational decision making, categorising tactics as a 'threat', 'appeals to legitimate authority', 'persuasive arguments', 'rewards or exchange of favours', and 'manipulation'. This study reveals highly rated influencers as characterised by high instrumental, intrinsic motivation and self-perceptions of power. As such, this study

surprisingly makes an association between high-level effectiveness with the use of manipulation as an influencing tactic. As research interest in influence and measurements of influence has grown, lists of tactics have developed (see Appendix 3) informing typologies (i.e. POIS, IBQ, and SUI). However, these are often thought of as highly contentious and generate much debate, prompting scholars to create, modify, or develop them (Alshenaifi and Clarke, 2014).

Kipnis et al. (1980) produce an early taxonomy of influence tactics by analysing the effectiveness of influence attempts at critical moments. They took 370 influence tactics and classified them into 14 categories to devise a self-report questionnaire, which is then used to test how frequently each tactic was applied. Their analysis produces eight dimensions of influence, which inform the Profile of Organizational Influence Strategies (POIS) questionnaire:

Table 16: Eight dimensions of influence

Dimension of Influence	Description
Assertiveness	Expressing anger verbally, reminding repeatedly, demanding and bugging
Ingratiation	Showing a need for help, acting very humbly/friendly, praising and making others feel good/important
Sanctions	Threatening loss of promotion or unsatisfactory performance evaluation or giving no salary increase
Rationality	Writing a detailed plan as justification or using logic/reasons/full information to convince others
Exchange of Benefit	Offering an exchange/help, reminders of past favours
Upward Appeal	Obtaining the formal/informal support of superiors
Blocking	Threatening to notify an outside agency, stop working, or ignore them
Coalition	Obtaining the support of co-workers and/or subordinates

Source: Adapted from Alshenaifi and Clarke, 2004, p.6-7

This POIS scale is most commonly applied to upward influence. Its popularity is credited to its originality and capacity to simultaneously measure three directions of influence (Kipnis et al., 1980, Kipnis and Schmidt, 1982, Alshenaifi and Clarke, 2014). Limitations of this instrument are its reliance on the use of self-perception of influence tactics and objectives, and bias towards expressions of socially desirable influence tactics (Alshenaifi and Clarke, 2014). Whilst several significant studies draw on POIS measures to capture organisational influence behaviours considering upward influence, only a handful focus on the perspective of the agent and target (Schilit and Locke, 1982, Erez et al., 1986, Yukl and Falbe, 1990, Tepper et al., 1993, Dockery and Steiner, 1990). What this suggests is that little is known about the correlation of perspectives of effectiveness in the context of influence in dyadic relationships. Schilit and Locke (1982) slightly adapt the original scale by including ‘adherence to rules’ and ‘manipulation’ while excluding ‘ingratiation’ and ‘blocking’. Around the same time,

Kipnis and Schmidt (1982) devise an alternative POIS for commercial use, condensing it into six upward influencing tactics (i.e. reasoning/rational persuasion, bargaining/exchange, assertiveness, higher authority, coalition and friendliness/ingratiation). Interestingly ‘sanctions’ and ‘blocking’ were omitted as infrequent and conceptually problematic (Kipnis et al., 1984).

This revised POIS scale informed future studies by Kipnis focusing on categorising managers by use of tactics (Kipnis et al., 1984), upward influence and categorisation of the goals behind exerting influence (Schmidt and Kipnis, 1984). Subsequently, Kipnis and Schmidt (1988) focus on upward influence styles, and cluster managers into four influence types based on their tactical use of a range of approaches:

Table 17: Manager categorisation of influence types

Category	Description
Shotgun	Those who always use all six tactics
Tacticians	Use rational persuasion more than other tactics
Ingratiators	Use more ingratiation in comparison to other tactics
Bystanders	Score low in the use of all tactics

Source: Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988b, p530

Influence tactics can be categorised in various ways and into larger entities, termed ‘influence strategies’, emphasising the significance of influencer type or types of influence. Farmer et al. (1997) and Kipnis and Schmidt (1988) group tactics into three categories; hard tactics (i.e. assertiveness, upward appeal and coalition), soft tactics (i.e. friendliness or ingratiation and exchange or only ingratiation), or rational strategy (i.e.

rationality, bargaining and some forms of exchange or only rationality). Porter et al. (1981) classify tactics as ‘positive’ and ‘negative sanctions’ and ‘informational’ comprising ‘persuasion’, ‘manipulation’ and ‘manipulative persuasion’. Jones and Pittman (1982) categorise tactics concerned with self-presentation distinguishing the tactic of ‘self-promotion’ (i.e. creating an appearance of competence) from ‘ingratiation’ (i.e. becoming more likeable) (Higgins et al., 2003). Krone (1991) presents three clusters based on previously identified influence methods (i.e. open persuasion, strategic persuasion, and manipulation). Finally, Fu et al. (2004) clusters influence into types of approach:

Table 18: Grouping of influence types

Category	
Persuasive	Making use of rational persuasion, inspirational appeal and consultation
Assertive	Using persistence, pressure and upward appeal
Relationship Based	Those who give gifts, have informal engagement, personal appeal, socialise and exchange

Source: Fu et al. (2004) p.286

Yukl and Falbe (1990) and latterly Yukl and Tracey (1992) devise the first Influence Behaviour Questionnaire (IBQ). This instrument is used to elicit a rating of influence tactics in use by agents aimed at a target (Yukl and Falbe, 1990, Yukl and Tracey, 1992). Their first attempt builds on Kipnis et al. (1980) findings with a different methodology, measuring the six POIS tactics and adding two further types of influence behaviour and objectives (i.e. inspirational appeal and consultation tactics). They measured the frequency of influence tactics and objectives based on the views of agents and targets. Then Yukl and Tracey (1992) using the IBQ focused on targets only but excluded ‘upward appeal’. Such evolutionary phases in measuring influence suggest that there is

some value in attempting to understand and evaluate the flow of influence from multiple perspectives (i.e. the source and target of influence).

Literature concerning leadership and power stimulated Yukl and Tracey (1992) to include four new tactics (i.e. inspirational appeal, consultation tactics, personal appeal, and legitimising tactics). This later study validated their earlier work, affirming nine of the ten tactics, which inform further IBQ studies. It took a further ten years before Yukl and Seifert (2002) revised and extended the IBQ scale to include two more tactics (i.e. collaboration and apprising), later validated as distinct from the other nine influence tactics (Yukl et al., 2005). The most commonly utilised IBQ instrument consists of eleven influence tactics and four items for each (Yukl et al., 2008). The IBQ's reliance on participants responding about others influence behaviours helps to overcome self-reporting criticisms (Yukl et al., 2005, Ralston et al., 2005). Critically, the dilemma of relying on 'subjective views' of self and others, and how such 'evaluations' inform categorisations of influence tactics by their use are deemed inescapable.

A distinctive focus on upward influence emanates from Schriesheim and Hinkin's (1990) criticism of the work of Kipnis et al. (1980). Subsequently, their criticism prompts them to produce what they argue is a more reliable, valid, and distinct 18 item instrument to measure only upward influence. Moreover, Ralston et al. (1993) developed the Strategies of Upward Influence (SUI) instrument to measure cross-cultural upward influence tactics, in response to the limitations of the POIS or IBQ instruments. From this work, a set of influence typologies is produced that differs from the POIS taxonomy, with the only common dimensions being 'ingratiation' and 'rational persuasion'. The other tactics were unique (i.e. good soldier, image

management, personal networking, information control, and strong-arm coercion). Subsequently, their adaptations to power classifications draw on previous research in that field to add three dimensions (i.e. organisationally sanctioned behaviour, destructive legal behaviour, and destructive illegal behaviour). Additional work on the relative acceptability of four types of upward influencing tactics by Egri et al. (2000) further develops the SUI instrument:

Table 19: Acceptability of upward influencing tactics

Upward Influencing Tactic	Description
Organisationally sanctioned behaviour	Behaviours directly beneficial to the organisation such as self-enhancement and ingratiation, volunteering for high-profile projects, helping subordinates, and maintaining good working relationships with rational persuasion, showing expertise and the exchange of benefits.
Non-destructive/legal behaviours	The ‘me first’ approach, sees self-interest above the interests of others, but are behaviours still not harmful such as impression management, ingratiation, upward appeal, personalised help, showing dependency, and diplomacy.
Destructive/legal behaviours	The ‘get out of my way or get trampled’ approach as behaviours which are legal but often hurt others consisting of tactics such as information control, blocking and manipulative tactics (e.g. withholding information) and putting false information on a formal document.
Destructive/illegal behaviours	Illegal and harmful to others encompassing coercive tactics such as corruption, theft of corporate documents, and harassment.

Source: Egri et al., 2000, p.159

It is these three notable instruments of measurement of influence that provide a foundation to acknowledge the existence of various types of influencer, and an array of influencing approaches/tools. These empirically based works contribute significantly to

a movement away from the assumption that influence invariably flows top down. Here we begin to see progress towards a greater acknowledgement and appreciation of the upward flow of influence in an organisational context.

4.1.2 Follower-centric influence

The foundations in influencing literature pay inadequate consideration to the position of the follower. Accordingly, this thesis highlights an opportunity to gain a richer understanding of the significance of upward influence in the context of leadership dynamics. Motivating factors associated with influence can be divided into organisational goals (e.g. new ideas or more responsibility etc.) and individual goals (e.g. performance appraisal or career advancement) (Ansari and Kapoor, 1987, Schmidt and Kipnis, 1984). Studies by Kipnis et al. (1980) and Yukl and Falbe (1990) identify several objectives for using influence tactics broadly focused on assigning work, enhancing performance, instigating change in circumstances or behaviour, eliciting support, acquiring resources or information, and realising some personal benefit. The first two objectives could be more readily associated with top-down influence, while the remaining four identifiable objectives could be more readily associated with the underlying motivations that drive followers to want to be upwardly influencing.

What this study shows is that the approach taken differs dependent upon the objective. Accordingly, ‘ingratiation’ is useful when seeking personal assistance, ‘assertiveness’ is useful in assigning work, and ‘rationality’ is applicable when convincing people of new ideas (Kipnis et al., 1980). Olufowote et al. (2005) reveal that employees approach self-serving attributions (to help them make sense of the world and to confirm patterns) using ‘rationality’ when pursuing personal/organisational benefit, and ‘coalitions’ when pursuing organisational goals. Accordingly, there is a need to consider emotive, powerful, and personal factors that inform how employees determine their choice of influence strategies (Kipnis et al., 1980, Schriesheim and Hinkin, 1990, Gardner and Martinko, 1988, Liden and Mitchell, 1988). An additional factor would include

evaluating the effect of upward influence behaviours on target reactions (Schilit and Locke, 1982, Yukl and Tracey, 1992). There is an association here with followers' motivations exposing a misalignment with the established notion of followers being passive, given their compelling desire to meaningfully alter their work environments (Lowin and Craig, 1968, Hollander and Offermann, 1990a, Wortman and Linsenmeier, 1977).

The challenge for the follower can be the struggle to make their organisational voice heard (Putnam et al., 1996, Murphy, 2002, Clifford, 1986, Mumby, 1988). This struggle is evident via some upward dissenting strategies: 'direct-factual appeal' (provide evidence), 'repetition' (drawing attention to the problem), 'solution presentation' (providing solution), 'circumvention' (going higher in command chain), and 'threatening resignation' (leverage for a positive response) (Kassing, 2002). Such acts may be perceived by the leader as either constructive or adversarial (Kassing, 1997, 1998, Gorden, 1988), and conceived as either relational or contextual in orientation (Waldron, 1991). Consequently, the use of such tactics can involve camouflaging both influence attempts and desired outcomes (Hirschman, 1970, Krone, 1992, Kassing, 2009). A further consideration for the follower is also avoiding more aggressive tactics which can put their desired outcomes at risk (Kassing, 2001, 2007). The avoidance of risking a desired outcome highlights why tactics are sequenced or rotated in the leader-follower relationship and how the follower gauges risk (Fairhurst, 1993, Kassing, 1997).

'Game playing' representative of the exchange of power between roles, and situational appropriateness when wielding power by creating tensions (Mintzberg, 1985, Ammeter

et al., 2002) is thought difficult to capture with certainty. Moreover, it is also a tactic not readily associated with followers or effective followership, despite claims of political manoeuvring as necessary in the functioning of organisations, and critical to the establishment of leadership (Ferris et al., 2007, Ammeter et al., 2002). Accordingly, focusing on the political aspect of influence tactics exposes the capacity leaders and followers have to draw on impression management to realise self-serving purposes (Ashforth and Lee, 1990). Here those that employ such tactics, whether leaders or followers, can exploit ambiguity to augment their power or protect their sources of power (Yukl, 2002), and strategically enhance their agency (Eisenberg, 2007, Giroux, 2006). Relevant here is the work of Rao et al. (1995) focusing on upward impression management, whereby they identify three groups of factors affecting how influence tactics are chosen:

Table 20: Determinants of influence tactic selection

Factors	Examples
Individual factors	The need for power, attribution process, the goals and relative power of the influencer, and the level of expertise
Situational factors	The role of the organisation, management style, task ambiguity, resource scarcity
Subordinates audience	Subordinate's immediate supervisor

Source: Adapted from Alshenaifi and Clarke, 2004, p.9

The political aspect of influencing places a greater emphasis on an individual's knowledge of previous influencing attempts, social influencing factors, and willingness to engage in upward political influence (Porter et al., 1981). These factors imply that followers have opportunities to tactically use their own sources of power in the leader-follower relationship (Porter et al., 1981, Bacherach and Lawler, 1986, Mechanic,

2012). It also emphasises the potent power tactics of followers (Pfeffer, 1992), which rely less on force and authority (Fairholm, 1993):

Table 21: Power tactics subordinates use toward their superiors

Proactivity	Unilateral action to secure desired results.
Using Outside Experts	Involving congenial experts in organisational decisions, thus allowing a subordinate effect on results without personally deciding.
Displaying Charisma	Using the respect that others have for subordinate character traits, presence, or method of operation to affect another's behaviour in desired ways.
Rationalisation	Conscious engineering of reality to secure desired decision results.
Using Ambiguity	Keeping communications unclear and subject to multiple meanings.
Building A Favourable Image	Creating a persona of skills, capacities, values, or attitudes to which others defer.

Source: adapted from Fairholm, 1993, p.41

The influencing literature presents subordinates as tactically drawing on one or several upward influencing tactics. These tactics can be broadly divided into ingratiation focused on the superior (i.e. favour rendering) or ingratiation focused on self (i.e. self-promotion) (Wayne et al., 1997, Wayne and Liden, 1995). What this does is accentuate the value of upward influencing as instilling in the leader a positive perception of the follower as a skilful, competent and appealing individual, with whom they can characteristically identify (Judge and Ferris, 1993, Wayne and Ferris, 1990, Wayne and Liden, 1995). There is an association here with what Alshenaifi and Clarke (2014) claim are three established theoretical perspectives that underpin the literature which shapes upward influence tactics. Firstly 'Power Theory', emphasising how power is exercised in the context of organisational politics, which classifies power tactics as central to

workplace influence attempts (Terpstra-Tong and Ralston, 2002, Kipnis et al., 1980, Elias, 2008). Then ‘Impression Management Theory’, emphasising individual motivations associated with being viewed positively and influencing specific others perceptions by reaffirming a positive and constructive self-presentation (Goffman, 1959). Finally, ‘Ingratiation Theory’, denoting strategic behaviours designed to influence a specific person concerning the attractiveness of the influencer’s personal qualities (Jones, 1964).

The basis of upward influencing to elicit a positive perception of the characteristics of the follower could be associated with the Five-Factor Model (Goldberg, 1993). While this model presents common language descriptors of the primary factors of personality (Table 22), impression management could be used to present the more favourable aspects of the follower’s personality to the leader. While it is somewhat controversial to correlate success in the workplace with the big five personality traits (Judge et al., 1999, Barrick and Mount, 1991), it is feasible that followers may cunningly enact a role to give an impression of these favourable traits to enhance their standing with their leader. How these are used within organisational communications and how they inform individual behaviour is a consideration in leader-follower relations. Certainly, there is research interest in personality and its effects on leadership (Özbağ, 2016, Lebowitz, 2016, Schretlen et al., 2010). Similarly, Cable and Judge (2003) focus on personal factors featuring in the use of influencing tactics, correlating influencing with personality type. While Shim and Lee (2001) draw attention to how a need for personal achievement and self-monitoring informs the selection of influencing style. The relevance of personality research here is that followers can consider employing

influence tactics that accentuate aspects of their personality, which then positively resonate with their leader, by carefully controlling their behaviour or verbalisations:

Table 22: Personality and leadership

Personality Descriptor	Characterises	Traits		Association with Leadership
Openness to experience	inventive/ curious vs. consistent/ cautious	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Imaginative • Insightful • Wide variety of interests • Original • Daring • Preference for variety 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clever • Creative • Curious • Perceptive • Intellectual • Complex/Deep 	Being original and having imagination.
Conscientiousness	efficient/ organised vs. easy-going/ careless	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persistent • Ambitious • Thorough • Self-disciplined • Consistent • Predictable • Controlled 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reliable • Resourceful • Hard working • Energetic • Persevering • Planner 	Being goal oriented with a willingness to achieve.
Extroversion	outgoing/ energetic vs. solitary/ reserved	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sociable • Assertive • Merry • Outgoing • Energetic • Talkative 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Articulate • Fun-loving • Affectionate • Friendly • Socially confident 	Being sociable and being an emotionally positive person.
Agreeableness	friendly/ compassionate vs. challenging/ detached	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Altruistic • Trusting • Modest • Humble • Patient • Moderate • Tactful • Polite 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kind • Loyal • Unselfish • Helpful • Sensitive • Amiable • Cheerful • Considerate 	Being able to adapt and as a leader make necessary accommodations.
Neuroticism	sensitive/ nervous vs. secure/ confident	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Awkward • Pessimistic • Moody • Jealous • Testy • Fearful • Nervous • Anxious 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Timid • Wary • Self-critical • Unconfident • Insecure • Unstable • Oversensitive 	Usually when a leader tends to be negative emotionally and having a need for stability.

Source: Adapted from Ackerman, 2017

How far the follower is prepared to go to secure greater upward influence focuses attention on upward communication distortion, perceptions of role and involvement in

decision making, and sense-making in a self-serving way. Such factors can feed into soft ('rational' as opposed to 'aggressive') influence tactics that are utilised to exaggerate consensus and conceal disagreement and contention (Tourish and Robson, 2006, Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988, Kassing, 2001). The notion of subtle approaches to influencing also resonates with 'tempered radicalism', which reveals how individuals informed by their own values temper their challenge to the dominant culture to avoid marginalisation (Meyerson and Scully, 1995, Meyerson, 2003b, Lau and Murnighan, 1998). What this suggests is that subtle tactical manoeuvring helps to retain credibility when preparing the way for enhancing upward influence, retaining the leader's trust (Lam et al., 2007). There is an association here with tactical identity adaption via carefully managing interactions and strategic use of information (Goffman, 1959). Hence, the follower can adopt a self-regulation strategy drawing on several sources of environmental feedback (Ashford and Tsui, 1991), which emphasises the follower's high self-awareness and clever use of interpersonal skills to control the expression of self, sustaining the advantages of upward influence (Cogliser et al., 2009, Snyder, 1987, Schyns and Day, 2010, Gangestad and Snyder, 2000).

The presentation of influence tactics in influencing literature are generally as affecting tangible (e.g. performance evaluation, promotability, interpersonal skills, and salary etc.) and intangible (e.g. LMX, and trust etc.) outcomes for employees. However, Alshenaifi and Clarke (2014) observe that many studies' results are variable, demonstrating positive and negative relationships between some upward influence tactics and specific outcomes/effects:

Table 23: Outcome/effective relationship with influencing tactics

Outcome/Effect	Positive Relationship	Negative Relationship	Mixed Relationship
Performance Evaluation	Ingratiation Rationality Exchange of Benefits Upward Appeal Coalition		Assertiveness
Promotability	Rationality	Assertiveness Ingratiation	
Interpersonal Skills	Rationality Assertiveness	Self-Promotion Exchange of Benefits	
Salary	Rationality		Exchange of Benefits
Trust	Rationality	Assertiveness	
LMX	Ingratiation Rationality Hard Tactics	Self-Promotion Upward Appeal Assertiveness Coalition Soft Tactics	

Source: Adapted from Alshenaifi and Clarke, 2014, p.26

The various studies of influence tactics, in this section of the thesis, demonstrate that ‘rationality’ has greater positive outcomes and ‘assertiveness’ has more negative outcomes especially in terms of evaluating performance and building trust with the leader (Su, 2010). Consequently, this suggests that followers should carefully consider their choice of influencing tactic to achieve their desired outcomes (Alshenaifi and Clarke, 2014, Schilit and Locke, 1982). Such choices are relative to how complimentary or threatening their actions may be to their leader’s position (Baker, 2007). What this further suggests is that followers who are not manifestly discordant with their leader will retain a greater capacity to be upwardly influence (Bradford and Cohen, 1998, Cohen and Bradford, 1989). Ringer and Boss (2000) tested the effect of the power of subordinates, revealing that individuals high in power tend to draw on a full range of influence tactics. They also discovered that high interpersonal trust discourages use of ‘assertiveness’ and ‘upward appeal’. All of which allude to the tactical enhancement of

follower agency with an associated effect on influence flows, and how this is manifest in leader-follower power relations.

Studies by Falbe and Yukl (1992), Yukl and Tracey (1992), and Yukl et al. (1996) focus less on successful or unsuccessful influence attempts. Instead, they evaluate influence effectiveness more precisely by distinguishing between three immediate outcomes of influence attempts (i.e. task commitments, task compliance, and task resistance). The two studies from 1992 produce results that present 'rational tactics' as being more effective than 'assertive tactics'. The third study, undertaken four years later, reveals that 'agent power' and 'content factors tactics' affect influence outcomes. Other similar studies expose the significance of the superior's perception revealing a positive view of promotability and interpersonal skills assessment with 'reasoning', while 'ingratiation', 'bargaining' and 'self-promotion' are not so well received (Thacker and Wayne, 1995, Wayne et al., 1997). The work of Rao et al. (1995) and latterly Castro et al. (2003) reveal greater success emanating from employees applying multiple influencing strategies and tactics when seeking favourable associations with higher performance. Therefore, these studies indicate that subtle and reasoned forms of influence may be more effective from a leader receptivity perspective.

There is a lack of attention within the preceding influencing studies on evaluations of effectiveness when followers tactically take leadership responsibility. Nor is it clear if a follower could be deemed effective if they legitimately cannot occupy a complementary position to their leader, or when being subjected to greater regulatory focus (Kark and Dina Van, 2007, Bluedorn and Jaussi, 2008). Although the claim that in higher quality leader-subordinate relationships dissent is more openly shared

(Kassing, 2000b) alludes to the possibility that dissent does not necessarily result in a loss of upward influence. Competent tacticians are observed as carefully drawing on tactics relative to one another (Kassing, 2002, Kassing, 2005) as an approach that can impact favourably on the superiors' perceptions of the followers' interpersonal skills, liking, and perceptions of similarity (Wayne et al., 1997). What this indicates is that followers can position themselves by intelligently and sensitively using 'reasoning', 'assertiveness', and 'favour rendering' to have a positive upward influencing effect (Wayne et al., 1997, Ferris and Judge, 1991, Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988, Dreher et al., 1989, Judge and Bretz, 1994, Thacker and Wayne, 1995, Ferris et al., 1994). Electing not to engage in upward influence means followers leave the realisation of their desired outcomes to chance! Subsequently, followers then increase their risk of failure, ultimately compelling them to act.

Relevant to upward influencing are managerial information filtering systems, the leader's perception of their downward influence, and reactions to feeling threatened. All these factors are cited as impinging on the follower's capacity to have upward influence (Premeaux and Bedeian, 2003, Wissema, 2002, Hargie and Tourish, 1997, Pratto and John, 1991, Staw et al., 1981, Tourish and Robson, 2006). The effect can be to self-legitimise the leader's view, compelling followers to share vested interests and avoid giving critical feedback, or risk being excluded from those with greater upward influence (Lewis, 1992, Tourish, 1998a, Pfeffer and Salancik, 2003, Tourish, 2000). What this suggests is that the influencing literature could benefit from considering how those without power communicate upwards, revealing what is useful in terms of decision making, and exposing how the political context affects influencing behaviour (Tourish and Robson, 2006, Simon, 1976, Mumby, 2001, Tagiuri, 1968). Certainly,

there is more to understand about how influencing behaviour impacts on levels of trust, openness, confidence, and credibility (Redding, 1972) affecting how opinions are given and received (Danserau and Markham, 1987).

4.1.3 Moderating contextual factors

Studies of influence expose a variety of moderators, with culture and leadership styles particularly relevant to this study. Culture informs how follower influence is tactically applied, including frequency and acceptability. While leadership style focuses on influence tactics being more or less effective relative to certain types of leader. There are several identifiable contextual factors evaluated as ‘minor moderators’ and ‘major moderators’ evident throughout the influencing literature, which impact upon the influence process:

- political tendencies and organisational socialisation (Su, 2010)
- work settings (Schilit and Locke, 1982)
- interactional justice (Ansari et al., 2007)
- patterns of influence (Yukl et al., 1993, Falbe and Yukl, 1992)
- social beliefs (Fu et al., 2004)
- organisational culture (Rao et al., 1995)
- age (Akhtar and Mahmood, 2009, Ralston et al., 2005)
- future interaction (Knippenberg and Steensma, 2003)

However, Alshenaifi and Clarke (2014) argue that inconsistencies and limitations to these studies question the reliability of the results. Subsequently, these series of studies present no specific theoretical model to explain influence tactics, only several different lines of argument. Therefore, Alshenaifi and Clarke (2014) draw on four established

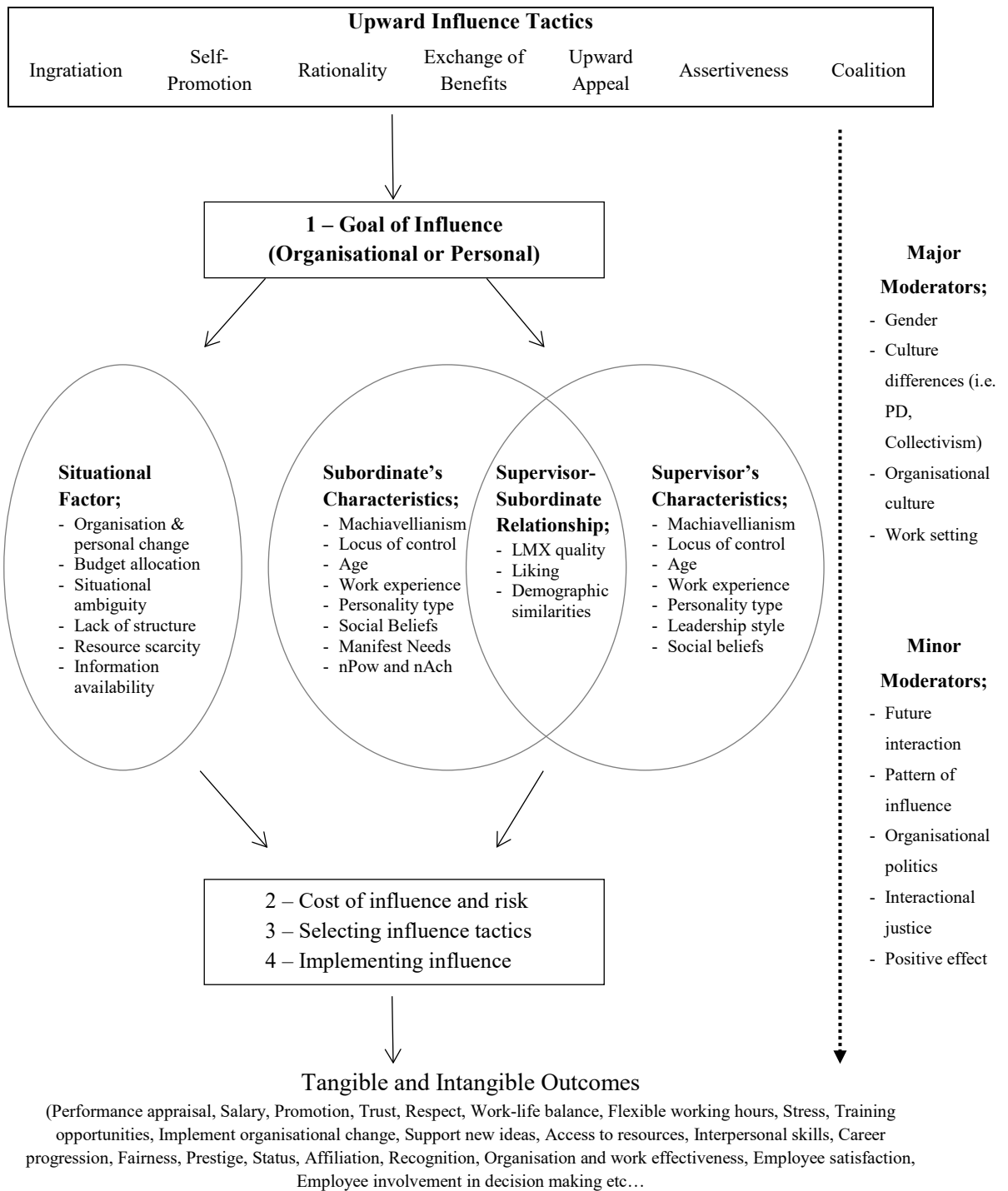
theories, which they assert can be used to understand influence tactics better. They view these four theories as a framework for predicting and understanding the selection of upward influence tactics:

- The ‘Theory of Reasoned Action’ - emphasises consideration of consequences and implications of actions determining whether to participate, exposing individual and specific situational factors (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975, Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). This theory alludes to beliefs about normative expectations of superiors, and impediments in the operating environment (Fu et al., 2004).
- ‘Cognitive Dissonance Theory’ - referring to a negative motivational state evident when an individual simultaneously holds two ideas, beliefs, or opinions that are inconsistent (Aronson, 1968, Jermias, 2001). This theory alludes to feelings of being compromised and a need to do something to lessen the internal distress this situation generates.
- The ‘Leader-Member Exchange Theory’ of leadership - referring to social workings of the influence process emphasising the agent-target relationship. This theory is especially significant in considering the maturity of leader-follower relationships with greater levels of influence (Steizel and Rimbaugilbert, 2013, Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995).
- Finally, ‘Expectancy Theory’ - concerning influencing toward specific workplace goals whereby exercising influence means cognitively evaluating the probability of success (i.e. cost-benefit). This theory alludes to alternative courses of action (Vroom, 1964, Steensma, 2007). The emphasis being the selection of a course of action that maximises the expected outcome and

probability of success while minimising potential setbacks (Steizel and Rimbau-Gilabert, 2013, Mowday, 1978, Ringer and Boss, 2000, Steensma, 2007).

An underpinning factor that can be associated with these theories is how followers assign meaning to leader behaviour via ‘symbolic interactionism’ to interpret their own thoughts and feelings (Blumer, 1969, Stryker and Statham, 1985, Meltzer and Petras, 1970, Paul, 1996). The significance of this is that followers may then introspectively adjust their actions. The resultant outcomes of these behavioural adjustments produce new understandings, which can integrate with their knowledge and experience (Eoyang, 1983). Importantly Alshenaifi and Clarke (2014) acknowledge that “upward influence and followership are not well integrated” (p.31). Subsequently, they formulate a useful model (Figure 10) based on their review of the upward influence tactics literature informed by foremost models of impression management:

Figure 10: Integrated framework of upward influence processes



Source: Adapted from Alshenaifi and Clarke (2014) p.32

Several studies of influence are concerned with LMX and make distinct the effectiveness of certain tactics over others (Dockery and Steiner, 1990, Farmer et al., 1997, Botero et al., 2012, Krishnan, 2004, Deluga and Perry, 1991, Olufowote et al.,

2005, Krone, 1991, Ansari et al., 2007). There are some inconsistencies in terms of the use of 'rational' and 'soft' strategies, but 'ingratiation', 'reasoning', 'friendliness', 'persuasion', and 'target enhancement' are presented as offering greater success. Alternatively, 'assertiveness', 'hard strategies', 'higher authority', 'coalition', 'upward appeal', and the 'self-enhancement tactic' are deemed less effective. Deluga and Perry (1991) specifically allude to upward influencing effectiveness as having a positive association with LMX, with the 'in-group' status of the influencer being a determining factor. Studies of influence informed by how British culture affects individuals choices of upward influence tactics reveals 'coalition' and 'ingratiation' as less well-favoured tactics (Ralston et al., 2005, Rao et al., 1995). Studies focusing on gender acknowledge that males and females may influence superiors differently (O'Neil, 2004, Akhtar and Mahmood, 2009, Terpstra-Tong and Ralston, 2002), with men using more tactics that are comparatively 'stronger' than women (Knippenberg and Steensma, 2003, Tepper et al., 1993). Ansari et al. (2007) discovered that employees use 'ingratiation' and 'upward appeal' more with female superiors and 'expertise', 'exchange', and showing 'dependency' with male superiors. Interestingly, gender-based studies suggest that hard influence tactics when employed by women are less effective (Alshenaifi and Clarke, 2014).

Studies concerning influence tactics and leadership style present subordinates with choices of influence tactic as determined by their superior's characteristics or professional approach (Ansari and Kapoor, 1987, Deluga, 1988, Cable and Judge, 2003, Krishnan, 2004, Ansari et al., 2007, Yagil, 2006). Authoritarian, transactional, autocratic, and abusive leadership corresponds with influence tactics that demonstrate 'resistance' or 'finding favour' and 'support' from within their superior's higher

authority. Subordinates experiencing an unfavourable relationship frequently employ 'blocking', 'upward appeal', 'ingratiation', and more forceful tactics. Laissez-faire leaders were subjected more to 'exchange', 'coalition', 'legitimisation', and 'pressure' tactics (Cable and Judge, 2003). Superiors deemed participative, transformational, and supportive of upward influence, elicit a tendency for subordinates to apply 'rational persuasion', 'consultation', 'inspirational appeal', 'reasoning', 'friendliness', and 'showing dependency'. Interestingly they also apply 'manipulation', yet still maintain a favourable relationship. Ansari et al. (2007) reveal an alignment with 'ingratiation' and 'upward appeal' with fair supervisors, and frequent use of 'expertise', 'exchange' and 'rational persuasion' with unfair supervisors. All of which suggests that followers can draw on an array of influence tactics more effectively by developing a detailed knowledge of their leader's leadership style to formulate an influencing response.

Contextual factors affecting the use of influence tactics are consideration of future interactions which reduce hard tactics (Knippenberg and Steensma, 2003), and structural differences in work settings determining the level of informal influence that can be applied (Schilit and Locke, 1982). Another consideration is patterns of influence (i.e. sequence, timing, and combinations) to inform tactic selection and predict effectiveness (Yukl et al., 1993, Falbe and Yukl, 1992). Bhatnagar's (1993) work in this area considers 'appropriateness', acknowledging 'reason' and 'friendliness' tactics as most effective, and 'bargaining' and 'upward appeal' as least preferred. The work of Rao et al. (1995) concerned with organisational culture reveals that employees in innovative organisations are less inclined to use 'reason'. Maslyn et al. (1996) reveal that upward influence actions following a failed influence attempt are predicated based on goal importance, influence agent characteristics, and agent-target relationships.

Vigoda and Cohen (2002) findings suggest the use of influence tactics generates a positive perception of organisational politics (i.e. satisfying employees' expectations indicating a fair work setting). What this emphasises is consideration of how the organisation's political system (i.e. political rule inherent within the system) (Morgan, 1997, Evans, 2010) can impact on the follower's ability to attain or retain power (i.e. political activity):

Table 24: Organisations and modes of political rule

Autocracy	Absolute power held by an individual/small group, supported by control of critical resources, ownership rights, tradition, charisma and other claims to personal privilege.
Bureaucracy	Rule exercised through the use of the written word, providing rational authority 'rule of law'.
Technocracy	Rule exercised through the use of knowledge, expert power and ability to solve relevant problems.
Co-determination	Rule by opposing parties who combine in the joint management of mutual interests, each party draws on a specific power base.
Representative democracy	Rule through the election of officers mandated to act on behalf of the electorate. Office held as long as support of electorate maintained.
Direct democracy	The system where everyone has an equal right to rule and is involved in decision-making. Encourages self-organisation as a key mode of organising.

Adapted from Morgan (1986), p.157

There is a correlation in some studies that expose organisational power and influence relying on political behaviour to pursue self-interest without breaching corporate policy or norms (House and Aditya, 1997, Evans, 2010), rendering its functionality or morality as neutral (Porter et al., 1981). What this makes prominent is that the acceptability of political behaviour is not so evident in influence literature in terms of determining the effectiveness of influence. Porter et al. (1981) in this sense is somewhat unique,

focusing on organisational politics and upward influence revealing specific organisational contexts that could influence political activity. Consequently, this work emphasises that political norms, structure and a capacity to learn those norms can be viewed as major contributors to being effective:

Table 25: Political influence factors

Organisational	Examples
Situational factors	Organisational change, personnel changes, budget allocation, ambiguity, and resource scarcity
Actor characteristics	Beliefs about the action-outcome relationship, manifest needs (nPow, nAch), and locus of control
Target selection	The importance of power, costs of approaching target, agent-target relationship
Methods of upward influence	Classification of methods and factors in the choice of method

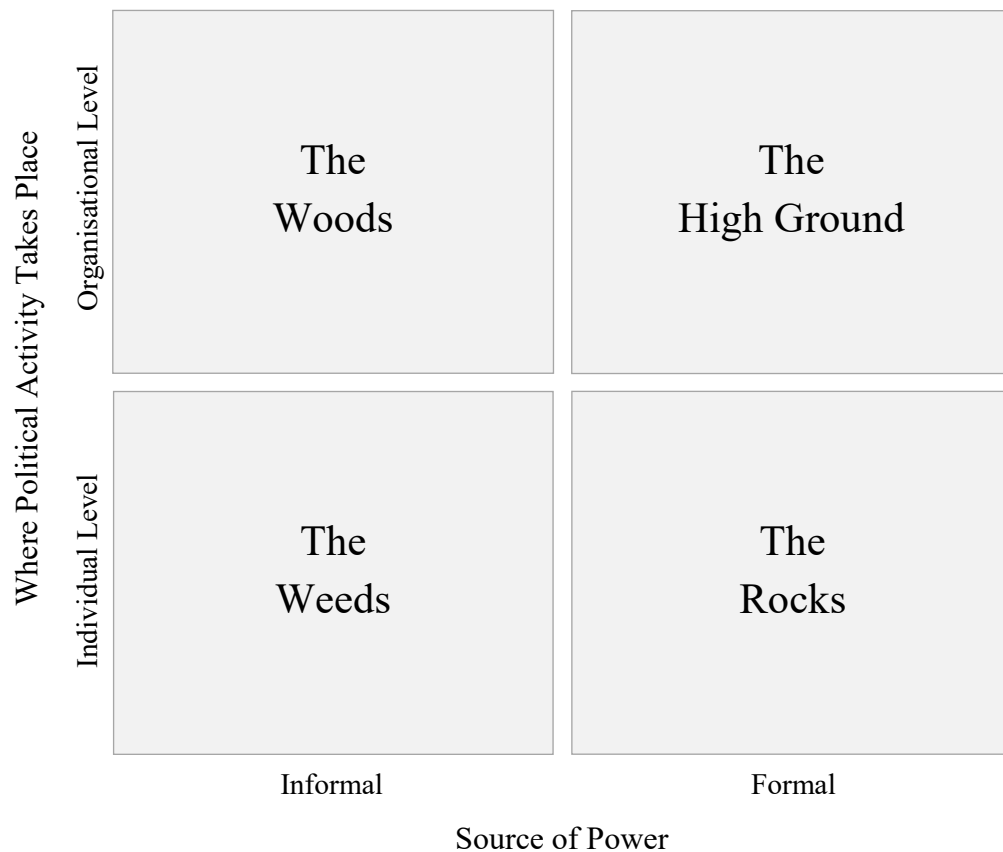
Source: Adapted from Alshenaifi and Clarke, 2004, p.7

Contextual barriers to upward influence may elicit negative perceptions of the risk of speaking up in a hostile organisational climate (Morrison and Milliken, 2000). Subsequently, operating in the face of such risks expose a need for greater consideration of how employees try to influence through leaders' information filtering systems (Hambrick and Mason, 1984, Winter, 2003, Frost, 1987). Jarrett (2017) makes reference to Mintzberg's view of politics as just another 'influencing process' along with norms, formal authority and expertise. What this alludes to is a need for greater consideration of politics as central to the act of influencing, so inevitable in leader-follower relations. Indeed, there is some acknowledgement that 'politics' has both positive and negative effects, mostly dependent on how a variety of influencing tactics are effectively used as 'political skills' to enhance personal and organisational interests (Jarrett, 2017). The root causes of political activity are scarce resources, social and structural inequality,

and individual motivations. Such factors indicate that there is every reason to believe that followers can act politically to enhance their influence. Despite the presence of these factors Jarrett (2017) acknowledges a sense of discomfort with organisational politics. Therefore, he maps the political terrain to help navigate and understand sources of political capital, and in doing so draws attention to the rationality of certain behaviours and the context in which they occur.

Jarret argues that four metaphoric domains capture political dynamics at the individual level and an organisational level (Figure 11). Each level is aligned with the use of hard (formal) and soft (informal) power. Soft power is making use of ‘influence’, ‘relationships’, and ‘norms’, while hard power draws on role ‘authority’, ‘expertise’, ‘directives’, and ‘reward/control mechanisms’. Subsequently, not too dissimilar to Porter’s conclusion, Jarrett’s (2017) assertion is that influence stems from an understanding of the terrain. In terms of followership, this suggests that followers could be more readily associated with quadrants representing informal power at individual and organisational levels (i.e. The Weeds and The Woods). What this highlights is the followers’ capacity to make use of informal networks, personal influence, and utilising aspects of the organisation’s culture. Followers to seek influence through what formal authority they have in terms of their knowledge and expertise (The Rocks) could rely on the use of hard power. The final metaphor (The High Ground) appears more remote for followers, given its heavy reliance on formal authority and control mechanisms, typically only within the domain of leaders.

Figure 11: The 4 Metaphors of Organisational Politics



Source: Jarrett, 2017

The selection and effectiveness of employee influence tactics over time focus on power, social compositions, roles in relation, appropriateness of directions of influence, and relative impact of tactics. Subsequently, agent and target characteristics, skills, and qualities and the effect these have on one another are prominent. What this alludes to is that influence tactics are central in determining and evaluating the effectiveness of manager-employee relations in organisations. There is an opportunity here to build on various empirical studies that have identified the possible type, frequency, and relationship between upward influence tactics, moderators and outcomes (Alshenaifi and Clarke, 2014). Drawing attention to these factors is designed to assist in understanding more about the relationship between leadership and followership. The dynamism of the influencing processes occurring in the leader-follower relationship

remains relatively under-explored (Avolio et al., 2004; Parry, 1998). Similarly, the scope followers have to apply their upward influence from within managerial roles is somewhat absent. The contention is that not all followers occupy a role at the lowest hierarchical level so possess some formal authority. It is possible to conceive of this factor as combining with heightened expectations of followership to rationalise a growing need to display independent or self-leadership in contemporary organisations, especially in professional roles (Lord, 2008, Howell and Mendez, 2008). Consequently, these factors question the extent to which ‘upward influence’ can be used to reject a key mainstream assumption; that effective organisational followership is merely about adhering to commands without question or thought (Lundin and Lancaster, 1990).

4.2 Conclusion

This chapter covers influencing literature drawing attention to what is known about how upward influence increasingly resonates with how organisations function, signifying an association with followership. Although it is noticeable that studies of influence can allude to power asymmetries and control strategies but in a rather uncritical way. What this provokes is a desire to consider in greater depth what meaning can be attached to upward influence. Indeed, there is an underpinning significance regarding the quality and frequency of interpersonal exchanges as predictors of an effective leader-follower relationship. There appear to be quality indicators that followers can draw on in developing their upward influence tactics to realise the desired outcome, acknowledging the significance of how the relational dimension and context inform follower behaviours. Accordingly, this chapter directs attention towards exploring effectiveness in terms of how followers simultaneously present an individual uniqueness, enhance dyadic relations, and maintain group memberships. Such factors

support the inclusion of this existing body of knowledge in informing the development of research questions that explore the lived experience of the followership phenomenon to understand how upward influence features in evaluations of effectiveness. The next chapter focuses on the research methodology and its application to exploring followership in the context of this study.

Chapter 5: Research Methodology

This chapter presents the researcher's philosophical convictions, how these are informed, and why they are deemed an appropriate way to address the research questions:

Do followers experience exercising upward influence?

If so, what are the felt consequences?

What are the possible meanings of effectiveness?

The chapter goes on to detail a rationale for the methodology, and draws on the chosen approach in the context of what efforts others have made to undertake research in a similar field of enquiry using the same research traditions. Consequently, the appropriateness of the researcher's approach is supported by the underpinning philosophy and also what is now known about the value of the corresponding methodology.

5.1 Philosophy

Questions of a method are secondary to those of paradigm (i.e. basic belief or worldview) (Guba and Lincoln, 1994), emphasising the significance my paradigm has on this research. The researcher does not adhere to a need to be absolutely aligned with a philosophical approach. Instead, the researcher advocates that philosophical approaches are by one's own reason determinants of what is best suited to support the validity of knowledge claims. Dependent upon the topic, the researcher can be persuaded to adopt a range of positions based on a realist-relativist continuum, underpinning the appeal of the criteria favoured by Lincoln and Guba (1985) or Henwood and Pidgeon (1992). The researcher's core belief rejects the notion that

followership should be subject to analysis in an objective scientific way when our understanding of the phenomenon can be better informed by understanding it through sense-making, influence, and direction. Hence this paradigm determines what is within the limits of legitimate inquiry (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

‘A paradigm may be viewed as a set of basic beliefs (or metaphysics) that deals with ultimates or first principles. It represents a worldview that defines, for its holder, the nature of the “world”. The individual’s place in it, and the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts...’

(Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p.107)

The virtues of social research are emphasised by what Schwandt (2003) refers to as ‘the lifeworld’, as the fine-grained details of daily life. Followership is invigorated by qualitatively exploring ‘meaning’ to transform reader perceptions through greater understanding and as public knowledge. The foundation for the researcher’s philosophical conviction is evident in the contention that human sciences are fundamentally different in nature and purpose from natural sciences (Schwandt, 2003). This critical distinction is succinctly captured by considering ‘explanation’ versus ‘understanding’. The researcher’s preference for understanding is propelled by the salience of how one understands how the everyday (intersubjective) world (the lifeworld) is constituted. This approach is influenced by the researcher’s experience of learning and contextualising experiences of followership, combining mind-centred and world-centred views to construct knowledge. Social relations and social practices (Gergen, 2003) are central to this process of understanding. The researcher’s knowledge claims stem from culturally and historically situated traditions which leaders and followers are exposed to through aspects of organisational life.

The researcher's philosophical outlook underpins the value of heterarchy over hierarchy, emphasising that authoritative discourses can be challenged through insight, not position, as an alternative voice in the dialogue (Gergen, 2001, 2003). The relevance of this to Administration Managers as followers is being in a conflicting position or offering an alternative perspective to Academic Leaders deemed organisationally superior and powerful. As a way of viewing organisations, this appears less constricting and means that many people may speak with conviction in what were once closed domains to achieve the most effective outcome (Gergen, 2003). Subsequently, this approach moves us beyond the repetition of standardised discourses to confront complex and ever-changing circumstances (Gergen, 2001), reflective of contemporary followership practices coexisting with leadership. What propels this approach is the value of opening up authoritative discourses to evaluation and alternative standpoints (Gergen, 2001). This is underpinned by both leaders and followers contributing to generative relationships, whereby the follower's role shifts from an 'object' of the leaders' influence to a 'subject' within the relationship via social interchanges (Brufee, 1999). Here there is an emphasis on followers as active in the leadership process, being recipients and moderators of influence (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014), reaffirming the need to further explore bi-directional influence reciprocity (Oc and Bashshur, 2013).

The judgement of truth claims acknowledges anti-foundationalism as an appropriate philosophical basis for social research (Seale, 1999). Anti-foundationalism asserts that the world is socially and discursively constructed and dependent from a particular time or culture (Marsh and Furlong, 2002). This way of conceiving of the world complements the researcher's belief in people as central and active in constructing

social reality and structures, which are in a state of constant flux with changes in people and society. Hence, there is no ‘real’ world to observe given that all activity obtains meaning via actors and not mere existence. Accordingly, ‘followership’ is a social phenomenon existing in the social world made up of social forces that hold influence, offering a means of better understanding the phenomenon’s effect. The variability of the dynamics involved renders a single truth impossible to capture, suggesting the effect of followership has a multitude of possibilities. There is no compulsion to offer a universal judgement that relies upon identifying the rational with the logical, as rationality does not necessarily require a formal logic to exist (Toulmin, 1953). This is evident in a general Kantian theory of human rationality that is orientated towards judgement, and underpinned by the claim that logic can only exist in the context of what occurs in judging activities and judging capacities of rational human animals (Hanna, 2018). What this reaffirms is the assertion that truth is a fragile conception (Savin-Baden and Fisher, 2002). Indeed, the very existence of truth is ‘fallibilistic’, given its temporary standing as a contradictory version will eventually extend beyond it, by virtue of gradual widespread support (Hammersley, 1992). Such an occurrence is evident in early conceptions of leadership as dominant (i.e. an unassailable truth) to acknowledging the follower as integral to the leadership process. Hence, the anti-foundationalist paradigm offers the most informed and sophisticated view based upon persuasiveness and utility (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

Objective interpretations can never be perceived as ‘value-free’ (Gitlin, 1990), emphasising the worth of social consciousness, incorporating multiple belief systems and perspectives (Gonzalez et al., 1994). Consequently, people have different realities that are socially constituted, which can vary across organisational cultures, time, and

contexts. This approach takes account of many alternative accounts, meanings, and descriptions that plausibly exist around the same phenomenon. Research subjects offer differing descriptions of followership behaviour that are socially constructed in specific contexts and variable, influenced by the relationships between leaders and followers (i.e. an ongoing process of construction and reconstruction over time). Accordingly, the concept of 'social constructionism' is highly significant to this study, acknowledging that multiple realities exist and emphasises the effects of social reality on the creation of meaning. The researcher's philosophical position aligns with the claim that our consciousness and how we relate to others is a product of our culture or society, and these are learned and taken for granted (Owen, 1992). Where this becomes evident is in how people socially construct reality via a shared and agreed meaning which they communicate (Berger and Luckmann, 1991).

Our beliefs are social inventions about the world, and as such, no 'real' external entities can accurately map what is occurring. This reasoning renders knowledge as what we conceive as fact via socially mediated discourse (Anderson and Goolishian, 1988). The implications are that organisations develop using these systems within communities of intelligibility, governed by normative rules being culturally and historically situated. In such environments knowledge evolves in the space between people (e.g. Academic Leader and Administration Manager), emphasising questions of dominance and conformity through such relationships, and within idealised notions of their roles (Owen, 1992). Indeed, this aligns with Ladkin's (2010) view that there is much to learn about the effects of leadership by exploring the space between people.

These philosophical deliberations align with social constructionism, rejecting any notion of an interlocking set of assumptions about meaning, knowledge, language, and

self (Taylor, 1987) deemed logical, structured, and evaluative to objectify the world (Smith, 1997). Instead, the mind has a powerful role in the construction of knowledge, evident when concepts, models, and schemes are used to make sense of an experience. Leaders and followers have a grasp of the world in how their knowledge reflects what is out there for them (Fay, 1996), illuminating how various truths are formed that are dynamically changeable, being either strengthened or weakened (Potter, 1996). It is this mental processing that holds implications for meaning and perceptions of power, which in some sense is ideological, political, and permeated with values (Rouse, 1996).

A collective construction is transmitted in terms of meaning, learning and knowledge, shaped by the historical conventions of culture and language (Jha, 2012). Underpinning this is recurring critical thinking that concerns all predictions of the mind (Hoffman, 1992). The resultant conclusions resonate externally into a world of intersubjectivity, shared as social constructions of meaning and knowledge (Schwandt, 2003). As humans, we are born into ‘discourse communities’ defined by systems of intelligibility which are culturally, historically, and linguistically specific, and such positionings explain how we engage with the world (Gee, 1989). Subsequently, complex social dynamics within organisational life offer a plethora of opportunities to move beyond conventional approaches to better understand leadership and followership, responding to questions with answers that are non-quantifiable (Ospina, 2004) but equally valid.

5.1.1 Ontology

The ontological question concerns deliberations over ‘what is the nature of reality’, and accordingly ‘what can be known about it’. Guba and Lincoln (1994) assert this is problematic because it assumes that only matters of real existence are legitimate. It

could be argued that reality is the product of someone's particular standpoint, described by relying on sensemaking (Gergen, 2009). Relationships with others are what fulfil the world with what we perceive to be real (Jha, 2012). An ontological position of 'relativism' captures the researcher's belief that realities are local and specific constructions. Consequently, realities can be comprehended as constructions in the mind, socially and experientially based, as well as local and specific in nature and that can be shared. It is not a question of these realities being more or less true, but rather more or less informed and/or sophisticated, accepting that realities are different.

This ontological position compels the researcher to explore how social constructions of followership happen, to expose how social phenomena are socially constructed (Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2009). Relational interactions are acknowledged as capable of representing leadership, rendering people as co-constructing leadership, followership, and associated outcomes (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Consequently, this allows followership to be viewed through a rich and multifaceted paradigm, exposing how our knowledge is associated with our social constructions of this phenomenon. Multifaceted refers to the variants of social constructionism that Barlebo Wenneberg (2001) suggests are indicative of the degrees of radicality embedded in the concept. Social constructionism has a critical perspective used to challenge what appears natural or self-evident, offering a sociological perspective (i.e. society is produced and reproduced on the basis of shared meanings and conventions rendering it as socially constructed), an epistemological perspective (i.e. knowledge is socially constructed), then an ontological perspective (i.e. reality itself is a social construction). Accordingly social constructionism acts as a social theory (Berger and Luckmann, 1991), critically challenging conventional thought sustained through societal interaction as to 'the

natural way of things', recognising that knowledge in society is created this way, and that the objective of that knowledge, reality itself, is a social construction (Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2009). Hence, new insights are produced by questioning what appears self-evident (Hacking, 1999), probing an assumed truth to challenge the integrity of our assumed knowledge of reality.

'The nature of being' central to ontology (Heidegger, 2000) emphasises the interaction between social structures and individuals, eliciting greater appreciation of the meaning people ascribe to social entities such as followership. Subsequently, the researcher's ontological position embraces multiple and dynamic realities that are context dependent (Klenke, 2008). What this does is attach greater value to research subjects' perceptions as individual, contextually rich, and not generalisable, affirming no single unitary reality other than our perceptions (Klenke, 2008, Searle, 1995), albeit we can express such perceptions often in a common language. This attachment of value acknowledges human thought, analysis and perception as being the fundamental nature of the world or our existence within the world (Oliver, 2004). Indeed, this is evident in how individuals construct meaning differently even concerning the same phenomenon (Crotty, 1998). Vondey (2012) acknowledges this in her study of followership, as the different ways people construct what it means to follow relative to others. Hence, to understand followership behaviour and effects, it makes sense to consider in more depth contextual relevance, meanings and purpose, emic viewpoints, unique to moments in time, and acknowledging the discovery dimension embedded in the insights of creative and divergent thinkers (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

To base an understanding of the world on an ‘observable fact’ or perceptions that fit neatly into a ‘theoretical framework’ to defend their validity avoids consideration of the values, which ultimately informed their very being. This irony dismisses the interconnectedness of the inquirer to the phenomenon to attempt to produce objective findings of how things ‘really are’ or ‘really work’ (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). What this provokes is a questioning of why social science should be compelled to adhere to empiricist traditions when attempting to understand social phenomena (Delanty, 1997). It is not the testability of the explanations of phenomena (Kerlinger and Lee, 2000) that can better address my research questions. It is a search for meaning. It is sense-making through our interactions with the world that produce explanations (Antonakis et al., 2004), encompassing mediating factors unaccounted for by positivists (Hollis and Smith, 1990). As a researcher, the primary task is to capture the unobservable complexity and ambiguous dimensions lost in much of existent literature (Alvesson, 1996, Knights and Wilmot, 1992, Morgan, 1997). The researcher does this without overly simplifying social phenomena by attempting to objectify it and risking distortion of social reality as a consequence of objectification (Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2005). Followership is deeply rooted in aspects of human behaviour such as influence, perception, and bias, the meaning of which is not easily observable but still constitutes the nature of things (Marsh and Furlong, 2002).

5.1.2 Epistemology

Epistemology is the theory of knowledge (Cope, 2002), explicitly understanding how knowledge is formed. To determine the researcher’s epistemological position, requires contemplation of ‘how do I know the world’, asking is there a relationship between the inquirer and the known (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000). These deliberations assist in

comprehending what is acceptable knowledge by questioning the limits and validity of the researcher's own knowledge (Cope, 2002, Patton, 2002). The researcher does this by reflecting upon "what we can know about the world and how we can know it" (Marsh and Furlong, 2002, p.18-19) . In simple terms, the researcher asks themselves 'how I know what I know' in respect to questions of knowledge, truth, and reality. The researcher's response is informed by their ontological position (Guba and Lincoln, 1994) whereby what is considered reality impacts on how knowledge can be formed. The realisation being that 'how what we know' provides a basis to think critically about the nature of things. What underpins this is how convention dictates that knowledge 'lives in the mind' and 'reality exists in the world' (Warmoth, 2000), challenging the mind's ability to capture knowledge of the world accurately. Therefore, there is no apparent defensible connection between an independent, objective world (noumena) and our experience (phenomena). We can only claim to have a set of interpretations of our perceptions and experiences that support our belief in the existence of a world, out there, which the researcher relies upon as their 'authority of knowledge' (Warmoth, 2000).

The researcher's claim to knowledge derives from a consensus about the truth amongst a 'knowledge community', rendering knowledge as an intrinsic common property of the group (Kuhn, 1970). Knowledge only temporarily claims a truth, merely as a statement that remains unchallenged by a viable and interesting alternative that instigates questioning its validity (Rorty, 1979). What this affirms is knowledge as the property of knowledge communities and cultures and subcultures. Kuhn (1970) and Berger and Luckmann (1991) are instrumental in recognising knowledge as grounded in conversations amongst members of knowledge communities termed the 'sociology

of knowledge'. Constructionism has been critically influenced by phenomenology to better understand the essence of knowledge and its application to living and the creation of new ideas (Warmoth, 2000). This association is propelled by contemporary cultural conditions about social reality being continuously reinvented and rediscovered. A new generation of discourse advances knowledge communities, acknowledging a political dimension to knowledge creation and its use in social sciences (Warmoth, 2000). Such factors impact upon our understanding of what knowledge is and how it is maintained and developed.

Knowledge cannot be absolute or separate from the knower by corresponding to a knowable external reality. It is part of the knower and relative to the individual's experiences within their environment, not representative of a 'real world' as truth (Gergen, 1997). Indeed, truth is dynamically changeable and bounded by time, space, and perspective, it is by nature active and adaptive (Wilson, 1997, Heylighen, 1993). Knowledge cannot take on a structure of what constitutes the 'real world' by assuming that objects hold an intrinsic meaning, or that knowledge is an objectivist reflection of how we correspond to reality (Jonassen, 1991, Gergen, 1997). The researcher seeks not an absolute truth but knowledge of the followership phenomenon based upon multiple realities underpinning the researcher's constructionist epistemological position. What this affirms is the researcher's belief that the world can be conceived via mental or social constructs whereby cultural specifications exert a real influence on people's lives (Jha, 2012). Thus, knowledge is constructed by an individual's interaction with his or her own world, presented as various experiences, and co-created via interaction with others in a given context. Cognitive and social processes combine to construct knowledge, enhanced by reflecting on and sharing experiences and ideas (Jha, 2012).

Accordingly, what all of this alludes to is that notions of knowledge, truth, and reality are all bound together by ‘meaning’.

Hoffman (1992) observes that all knowledge evolves in the space between people in the context of the common world, whereby individuals develop a sense of identity. What this suggests is that systems of knowledge development are inherently intertwined with communities of shared intelligibility, channelled by normative rules and historically and culturally situated (Anderson and Goolishian, 1988). Behaviours and events are circumscribed by culture, history, and social context to locate meaning and a greater understanding of how ideas and attitudes develop over time within a given context (Gergen, 1999). The effect is that knowledge and truth are created not discovered by the mind (Schwandt, 2003), acknowledging an individual’s interaction with the world generates knowledge as a personal construct (Kelly, 1955). This discrete capacity to create knowledge defends the existence of multiple realities relative to the same social phenomenon (i.e. followership), whereby it can be interpreted and understood differently (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Though the social process elicits a collective generation of meaning beyond the individual mind (Schwandt, 2003), encompassing communication, negotiation, conflict, and rhetoric as expressions of how individuals perspectives influence others (Garfinkel, 2003, Gergen, 1985, 2003). Subsequently, this implies that individuals influence each other’s capacity to obtain, retain, and adapt their knowledge rendering it as intersubjective within a variety of different communities. The ‘centrality of meaning’ contends that objectification and subjectification are social constructs, shifting the origins of knowledge dynamically between the external world and internal (Spink, 2004). It is this which makes constructionism an appropriate means

of examining and understanding socially situated conventions and their reconstruction, which are enabling or oppressive and permeate organisational life.

People are often seen as the builders of social relationships, and their discourse viewed and analysed as part of a network of social relationships. This not only encompasses values, reasoning, justifications, explanations, desirable and undesirable behaviour, but also interpretations and meanings constructed around myths, stories and other constructive elements of institutional reality and culture (Correa and Carrieri, 2004). As such reality is socially constructed by and between persons that experience it (Gergen, 1999), shaped by cultural, historical, political, and social norms unique to that context and time (Jha, 2012). Accordingly, while an individual's reality is based on a unique understanding of their experience, the researcher is sensitive to how these different perspectives offer some commonality that unites and identify groups (Ashworth, 2003). What this suggests is that the experiences of leaders and followers as distinct groups could present insights as commonly being understood, through the collective experience of each grouping and their relationship with each other. A constructionist epistemological position offers a sophisticated mechanism for revealing and analysing trends amongst these groups, underpinned by the legitimacy of viewing knowledge as collective meaningful propositions about the world through such relationships.

It makes sense to consider the development of knowledge as what we believe in, attained and retained through relationships that contain and transfer constructionist dialogues of knowledge, reason, emotion and morality (Jha, 2012). This transference process demonstrates how people socially construct reality by relying upon a shared and agreed meaning communicated through language (Berger and Luckmann, 1991).

Accordingly, this renders our beliefs about the world as social interventions (Jha, 2012). Indeed, leaders and followers can create, sustain, or abandon certain language through social interaction (Gergen and Gergen, 1991). This underpins the contextualisation of knowledge emphasised via the dispositions of people and culturally organised aspects of the setting. Therefore, 'reality' is a network of things and relationships relied upon to inform how we live, and upon which we reasonably believe that others rely (Von Glasersfeld, 1995). Hence, knowledge is an ordering of the world through our experience of it. The socialisation of knowledge provides knowledge of reality through consensus between disparate subjects, as an ultimate criterion to judge knowledge (Heylighen, 1993). There are local truths that hold claims to knowledge, but these are immersed in the human practice of which many prevailing assumptions have been historically challenged through everyday thought (Gergen, 1978, 1996, 2004). It is nonsensical to suppress research subjects' interests, values, and insights, which collectively inform their everyday thought. Instead, the researcher positions the reader as an interested observer, acknowledging their innate capacity to challenge without the need to disbelieve that which cannot be scientifically quantified (Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2009) to validate knowledge.

5.2 Theoretical perspective

The theoretical perspective is determined by a commitment to the dominant ontological and epistemological positions which the researcher has outlined, demonstrating consistency with the researcher's underlying beliefs of reality and their relationship with that reality (Easterby-Smith et al., 1991).

5.2.1 Phenomenology

Social constructionism has its roots in phenomenology (Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2009), placing concern for the everyday life world at the core of the concept. Social constructionism exposes subject and object as being inseparably related through the meaning each contains dependent upon the other (Giorgi, 1992). This is significant in phenomenological terms, given Husserl and Heidegger's respective work on the problems of separating subject and object. They conclude our relationship to reality is by virtue of our lived experience of the same reality, and our reality is mediated through our lived experience, in respect to the specific culture, historical time and language in which we are situated (Sandberg, 2001). What this acknowledges is that our descriptions of reality are not objective but socially produced (Danzinger, 1997). The phenomenological constructionist paradigm informs this research design and the way it is conducted, treating the subject and world as an inseparable relation (i.e. followership is a relational or intersubjective phenomenon). This relationship is evident in leadership theorising as the interactive wholeness between the leader and led (Hosking and Morley, 1991, Hosking et al., 1995, Sandberg and Targama, 1998) to socially construct and reconstruct leadership. Hence, research subjects' experiences in various settings can reveal aspects of followership that are produced and reproduced, in terms of the symbolic and material dimensions integral to the social phenomenological framework (Berger and Luckmann, 1991, Giddens, 1984, Bourdieu, 1990).

The foundation of phenomenology presents Husserl's attempt to distinguish it as a form of investigation based on how scientific inquiry disregards subjective knowledge (Gardiner, 2018). At the core of this view is the notion that we are influenced and limited by our temporal and spatial environment, and yet also always conscious of something

as an object of our attention (McCann, 1993). Accordingly, we come to access and understand phenomena by how it presents itself in human consciousness (Simms and Stawarska, 2013). This emphasises how we ‘describe’ the things in our consciousness and suspend our judgement to permit the phenomena to appear. Although, Heidegger (1962) argues that our unknown prejudices play a central unescapable role in our understanding of our world. Acknowledging prejudices helps to emphasise the significance of ‘interpretation’, which involves intuitively being able to grasp the phenomenon’s ‘meaning’ and its association with ontology. Building on Jean-Paul Sartre’s notion of existentialism, Merleau-Ponty (1962b) frames phenomenology as a philosophy of both essences and existence, informing how we acquire knowledge of the world. The critical aspect here is to recognise that knowledge is unique to the individual, emanating from our specific experiences but also embodied, suggesting that our embodied existence influences our understanding of a phenomenon.

Phenomenology is focused on understanding the phenomenon (i.e. followership) as opposed to merely explaining it (Crotty, 1998), emphasising its appearance through our consciousness, acknowledging phenomena as the basis for all knowledge (Moustakas, 1994). Its relevancy is evidenced by a need to know how leaders and followers conceive of the way followership appears in their experience and associate meanings with those experiences. Phenomenology reclaims what is significant about the everyday world by focusing on knowing; embracing the worth of meaning within human sense-making processes, drawing on the felt experience, and the cumulative effects of history on the human ability to know (Ladkin, 2010). This theoretical perspective brings us closer to the followership phenomena in its own environment, to make sense of it directly and immediately, holding the potential to redefine or reinterpret meanings already attributed

to the phenomenon (Crotty, 1998). This approach emphasises the ‘lived experience’ of leaders and followers as significant, being capable of offering emergent themes. Such themes are central to understanding the crafting and utilisation of influence attributable to followership (Boyett, 2013, Ciulla, 2008) to address the research questions.

‘...interest in phenomenology also stems from the recognition that not every kind of question can be approached either by means of experimental techniques or through the logical analysis of language.’

(Detmer, 2013, p.2)

The basis of the phenomenological approach to social constructionism is the notion of ‘life-world’. Specifically, this is the subject’s lived experience of the world that presents a reality which appears objective in their intersubjective world (Bengtsson, 1989). The persuasion of such reality is shared with others through our experience of it. It is constantly being negotiated based on our intersubjective sense-making of reality, with an agreed meaning constituting objective reality (Sandberg, 2001). Thus, an individual’s subjective and objective realities reflect each other without the need for them to completely correspond. Berger and Luckmann (1991) present a simultaneously acting dialectic between subjective and objective reality. They acknowledge ‘externalisation’ as producing our reality through activities, ‘objectivation’ as experiencing our activities as an objective existence independent of ourselves as individual subjects, and ‘internalisation’ as the social process whereby we become part of the reality we have produced. Consequently, research subjects’ experience of reality is meaningful owing to their own sense-making, and how they internalise their reality based on how others act and live to inform their sense-making (Sandberg, 2001).

Accordingly making sense of reality alludes to asymmetrical interactions between leaders and followers, focusing on knowledge and power (Foucault, 1972) which inform perceptions and acts of influence.

Phenomenology challenges the existence of purely rational and objective knowledge by considering knowledge arising from ideology, interests and power (Berger and Luckmann, 1991). What this does is draw attention to leaders and followers capacity to construct reality through everyday life experiences, informed by their own position or agenda. Subsequently, researching constructions of followership exposes the research subject's intentional consciousness and several realities that can exist for leaders and followers in their everyday world. Such distinct constructions encompass how their knowledge of the world is manifest in their routines for acting in various situations. In their inter-subjective world, such behavioural patterns can be variably experienced as pre-structured and objectified to then share this experience with other meanings (i.e. signs, symbols, and language) to give it material expression (Berger and Luckmann, 1991). Consequently, this can relate to how they see themselves in a social order, influencing their experience of 'self' in the form of meaningful interaction with others. Interestingly, there is an association here with notions of how followers and leaders can or have become institutionalised (Berger and Luckmann, 1991). Subsequently, there is scope to consider what impact the social order in organisations has on the followers' capacity to influence upwards.

There is a suggestion here that effective followership is about habitualisation, whereby repetitive acts transpire in familiar situations, rendering them safe and subsequently alluring. Berger and Luckmann (1991) suggest that behaviours spread between actors

and institutions facilitating fixed patterns of thought and action exist until the organisation adopts an externalisation and objectivation beyond the people who created it. This suggests that the political and environmental challenges that face leaders and followers in the HE sector could elicit an ‘institutional logic’ within their respective working environments that to some extent unifies them. Institutional logics are seen as legitimisations of institutions that develop bodies of knowledge that can represent an externalisation to individuals but over time are internalised (Berger and Luckmann, 1991). The relevance of this to a phenomenological inquiry is in how individuals seek to legitimise their societal knowledge or charge themselves with being influential concerning engendering or resisting the corporate stance. What underpins this is the utilisation of interrelating contextual epochs, for instance legitimising a university as having an educational function or an economic role in society.

Berger and Luckmann (1991) argue that individuals create different roles for themselves and others via ‘typifications’. Accordingly, human enactments in roles are relied upon to make organisations come to life. Subjective reality is significant when internalising the roles determined by the social world in an organisational setting. Individuals create their reality, the institutions and legitimisations, and this created reality creates the individuals via social influence through which they internalise social norms and knowledge. What this suggests is that identity is developed via role taking, affecting how leaders and followers see each other, evident through their experiences, determining who are significant others worthy of influence. This situation exposes the sustainability of a subjective reality as a product of conversations, based on what is being said and what is being implied, presented as a pervading phenomenology (Berger and Luckmann, 1991). The effect is to emphasise what experiences bring the influence

of followers directly into the centre of what constitutes leadership. Consequently, this affirms that phenomenology challenges how leadership has been traditionally identified and studied (Ladkin, 2010). Questioning how do those without formal leadership authority act in moments where their expertise, knowledge or perspective is precisely what is needed, in order for leadership to occur (Ladkin, 2010). Therefore, phenomenology can reveal what levels of consciousness exist concerning follower influence within the leadership moment.

5.2.2 Phenomenological and existential inquiry into leadership

The application of phenomenology in the study of leadership is evident in several studies, demonstrating that the richness of the ‘lived experience’ presents an intriguing approach to rethinking leadership (Algera and Lips-Wiersma, 2012, Heil, 2013, Küpers, 2013, Ladkin, 2010, 2013, Lawler, 2005, Lawler and Ashman, 2012, Ropo et al., 2013, Tomkins and Simpson, 2015). Gardiner (2018) suggests that one reason for leadership scholars drawing on existentialist phenomenology is to critique positivist approaches to leadership. As such, Lawler’s (2005) phenomenological inquiry reveals the benefits of seeing leadership in its entirety, moving beyond the established tendency to focus on individual leaders competencies and characteristics. This view embraces how leadership emerges through relationships, and the uniqueness of each relationship, diminishing the notion of an essence of leadership. Ladkin (2010) argues that phenomenology exposes what appears often ignored about leadership, advocating different ways of knowing and multiple ways to consider what it means to lead. Accordingly, such approaches enlighten us to how we are always situated and embodied subjects, that simultaneously are the perceivers and perceived (Küpers, 2013).

Phenomenology accentuates the significance of leadership as evident in the ‘relational spaces’ and ‘situational places’, which feature prominently in how leadership is constructed and performed (Ropo et al., 2013). What this alludes to is the value this research methodology places on ‘sensing’ and ‘experiencing’ leadership in a diverse range of organisational environments. Attending to embodied responses offers a greater understanding of how the environment informs privilege and marginalisation — subsequently changing how we consider the materiality of leadership (Pullen and Vachhani, 2013). Our understanding of leadership is enriched by paying attention to what is said and unsaid in equal measure. Accordingly, we expose and attempt to make sense of the inconsistencies in leader-centred leadership and dismantle governance structures. In doing so, we begin to see the value of diminishing the distinction between the leader and led, and embrace a relational orientation towards leadership (Arendt, 1958). There is a recognition here that established philosophical conceptions of leadership place limitations on human flourishing, restricting open dialogue and debate. Arendt (1958) advocates accounting for leadership as a ‘collective action’. Underpinning this call for a holistic view is the full realisation of the strength of committed individuals working together, presenting a robust sense of leadership. This approach offers a richer understanding of leadership by focusing on the narratives of individuals, derived from their experiential uniqueness, and enhanced by the significance of their web of relationships.

Taking what phenomenology offers in terms of rethinking leadership, it is feasible to contend that there are similar benefits here for research in the field of followership. Accordingly, the observations of Gardiner (2018), concerning feminist phenomenology, touch on several intriguing points of note, which could equally apply

to followers as a marginalised group. Specifically, the value placed on ‘following’ and ‘followers’, which infers an inequality that has informed our established thinking about leadership. The inhibitors that mean not everyone can transcend their circumstances, focusing on a sense of oppression created by social systems that affect individual agency (De Beauvoir, 1948). What this alludes to is how human existence is defined by its situation (Young, 1990). So while the circumstances in which followers exist present individual variation in their experiences, some of these unify to reveal that which holds a shared meaning. This shared meaning represents what it is to be a follower in the context of organisational leadership dynamics.

Phenomenology can expose contradictions between followers’ lived experiences and their ability to transcend their situation. Such contradictions can encompass the limitations that affect their comportment, motility and spatiality and associations with social conditioning. Accordingly, it is possible to glean a greater insight into how others and themselves objectify followers, and how their intentionality can be inhibited (Young, 1990). This approach has the potential to reveal more about why followers would doubt their abilities and lack confidence, recognised as a ‘status embodiment’ that influences their leadership potential. Certainly, Young (1990) draws attention to the impact upon the individual’s ability to transcend normative ways of thinking about their role. Therefore, it is comprehensible that to learn more about the ‘lived experience’ of those that ‘follow’, which can reveal why some fail to achieve their full potential, while others succeed. Thus, phenomenology has much to offer an inquiry into the upward influence of followers, underpinned by a need to consider more how social structural processes can enable and/or constrain.

The consideration of the impact of social structural processes exposes how dominant social norms present themselves as neutral but yet produce and reproduce inequality without the necessary corporate accountability (Gardiner, 2018, Ropo et al., 2013). Indeed, it could be argued that institutional norms appear this way because they account for what is deemed to represent localised reality. Accordingly, it makes sense for us to want to understand more about different modes of being in the world and structural limitations. The value for the researcher is to draw on phenomenology to gain access and explore how normative ways of thinking become imprinted on followers via institutional practices. Subsequently, the researcher begins to appreciate how such practices affect how these individuals orientate themselves to their surroundings. By adopting this methodology for this inquiry the researcher can account for how institutional discourses, and dominant societal and organisational norms, influence the effectiveness of followers, following, and followership.

Ladkin (2010) captures the material value of the researcher's chosen approach in a thought-provoking insight; as what occurs in one's mind is somewhat beyond the notion of leadership being as I observe it. Thus a phenomenological perspective is central to defining the difference between leaders and leadership, beyond the accepted leader-follower polarisation between leaders and followers (Ladkin, 2010). Underpinning this view is Merleau-Ponty's (1962a, 1968) phenomenological notion of flesh, as a novel rendering of the follower role through embodied perceptions in leader-follower relations, contemplating the 'between space' in which such relations are enacted. Consequently, this emphasises the latent potential that phenomenology has to study followership. The efficacy of this approach then is for leaders and leadership to be better

informed by the gaze of followers, and the necessity of interwoven perceptions as the very nature of leadership and followership (Ladkin, 2010).

“The felt experience of leadership is important because although often overlooked, it can be seen to be a critical aspect of leader-follower relations, the very ‘stuff’ which holds people together and aligned as they move towards common purposes”.

(Ladkin, 2013, p.321)

5.3 Methodology

The methodology demonstrates how the researcher intends to find out what the researcher believes can be known, informed by the researcher’s responses to questions of ontology and epistemology (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The researcher begins by asking “how should we study the world” (Klenke, 2008, p.18) which holds implications for the method used to collect, analyse, and interpret data (Creswell, 2009). A qualitative approach is preferred because it fundamentally aligns with the researcher’s constructionist worldview and enhances the quality of the inquiry and resultant findings.

5.3.1 Qualitative research

The phenomenological theoretical perspective supports a qualitative research methodology, whereby the ‘ultimate goal of qualitative research is to understand those being studied from their perspective’ (Gorman and Clayton, 1997, p.23) . Qualitative methods are gaining popularity in leadership studies emanating from the progression of the ‘New Leadership School’ (Conger, 1999, Hunt, 1999), upholding the view that leadership is a relational phenomenon (Fletcher, 2002). Additionally, contemporary

emergent approaches to leadership embrace the importance of followers (Ospina, 2004, Drath, 2001, Pearce and Conger, 2003b), suggesting that relational aspects of followership call for qualitative designs. This approach places the sense-making of leaders and followers at the centre of this study, recognising that people bring meanings to phenomena (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000).

The capacity to interact closely with the objects of this research in the confines of their natural setting helps build a complex holistic picture, paying close attention to their words and views (Klenke, 2008, Creswell, 1994). This methodology offers flexibility to explore unforeseen ideas, contextual sensitivity, and embrace any symbolic dimension and social meaning (Conger, 1998, Bryman et al., 1988, Alvesson, 1996). Qualitative research captures the richness and ambiguity of the lived experience, revealing the diversity and complexity of the social world. In doing so, the researcher can draw the reader into their discoveries, providing a new and deeper appreciation of the worlds of others (Finlay, 2003, 2006a). Despite scientific traditionalists critical views of the ‘validity’ and ‘reliability’ of the qualitative paradigm, qualitative researchers assure the quality of their work by either drawing on new substituted terms or inspiring new ideas (Seale, 1999). Subsequently, their innovative and insightful research outcomes assert the usefulness of the qualitative research methodology and affirm its legitimacy.

5.3.2 Quality criteria

The application of quality criteria to qualitative research underpins claims of rigour within the process and relevance in the findings (Finlay, 2006b). Seale (1999) asserts that the quality of qualitative research matters but that ‘validity’ and ‘reliability’ only

partially address a range of issues. What rationalises this assertion is the notion that ‘quality’ is an elusive phenomenon not readily prescribed to methodological rules. Instead, he advocates the significance of ‘intelligence’ and ‘knowledge’ of a particular research context, which assists in producing good quality qualitative work. What this emphasises is the importance of a self-critical research community, acting together to produce meaningful knowledge for others, drawing on their intellect and contextual knowledge. As a self-critical researcher, it is deemed important to structure and negotiate standards of judging quality by trusting in others judgments. ‘Others’ are the critical readership, who evaluate the researcher’s methodological decisions rendering this research study what it is (Swanborn, 1996).

The legitimisation of qualitative methods has been historically established through creativity, exploration, conceptual flexibility, and freedom of spirit (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). Despite these emerging points of reference, the issue of quality criteria in constructionism is not totally resolved, and attempts to generate widely accepted quality criteria are controversial (Seale, 1999). Nonetheless, there are key factors the researcher utilises to judge the quality and validity of this qualitative approach. The researcher’s primary concern is that historically contested quality criteria (i.e. reliability, validity, and generalisability), and contemporary aspects of quality (i.e. rigour, ethical integrity, and artistry), are compatible with and reflect the nature of the researcher’s research questions, including its methodology, aims, and assumptions (Finlay, 2006b). Drawing on these factors assures the researcher that this research is ‘trustworthy’ and ‘authentic’, to the extent that one cannot assume that interested parties will merely accept any knowledge claims as powerful and convincing findings in their own right (Kvale, 1996).

Lincoln and Guba (1985) set about establishing the ‘trustworthiness’ of qualitative research by questioning truth value, applicability, consistency, and neutrality. ‘Truth value’ (or internal validity) reveals the tension between the search for a single tangible reality and multiple constructed realities. They replaced this with ‘credibility’. ‘Applicability’ (or external validity) is the generalisation of the population, in stark contrast to a belief in the uniqueness of every local context and populations therein. They substituted this with ‘transferability’. ‘Consistency’ is dependent upon naive realist assumptions, prompting them to replace it with ‘dependability’. Finally, ‘neutrality’ depends on the artificial separation of values from inquiry, so it was replaced with ‘conformability’. These changes stem from auditing the research process as an exercise in reflexivity, whereby there is a methodological self-critical account of how the research was undertaken. This approach is especially important given Seale’s (1999) contention that trustworthiness in a qualitative inquiry is always negotiable and open-ended, or never considered to be the final truth. Consequently, this contrasts with a conventional inquiry that relies upon truth claims deemed unassailable once the relevant procedures are followed.

As a constructionist the researcher’s belief is in multiple realities, as opposed to a single tangible reality, rendering the search for truth as an impossibility. The trustworthiness of research subjects is pivotal when providing a valid account of their experience, impacting upon evaluations of the quality of the researcher’s research outcomes. This dilemma, a contradictory philosophical position, questions the logic of Lincoln and Guba’s (1985) attempts to settle on criteria for judging ‘trustworthiness’, given the contextually bound relativity of such accounts. Hence, Guba and Lincoln later devise a fifth criteria being ‘authenticity’, which is consistent with the relativist view, in

recognition that research accounts represent a sophisticated temporal consensus that constitutes truth (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). However, how individuals can draw on research to politicise their position or a situation has still not been given full consideration. Despite this, the application of an ‘authenticity’ criteria is instrumental in ensuring that the researcher represents a range of different realities (fairness), produce findings that develop a more sophisticated understanding of the followership phenomenon (ontological authenticity) and delve into how research subjects hold an appreciation of others viewpoints (educative authenticity). Also, how the consequences of their experiences have stimulated action (catalytic authenticity), and why they feel empowered to act (tactical authenticity).

Emanating from Lincoln and Guba’s (1985) work in devising criteria to evaluate the quality of naturalist research, are several techniques. These can be applied throughout the research process to optimise the quality of this study. ‘Credibility’ is assured by member checks, providing interviewees with oversight of interview transcripts to validate their views, replacing ‘internal validity’ that merely seeks truth in the findings. What this does is maintains the credibility of research subjects’ unique accounts, allowing their experiences to come through within the findings. ‘Transferability’ requires a detailed depiction of the setting (research environment) to allow readers to evaluate the applicability of the findings to other settings, substituting ‘external validity’. Here is the rationalisation for the inclusion of a chapter in this thesis that presents the research subject and the environment. ‘Dependability’ aligns with an audit trail whereby research data, methods and decisions can be externally scrutinised replacing ‘reliability’. What this does is emphasise the detail provided throughout this chapter and the importance of adherence to the researcher’s philosophical and

methodological convictions. Finally, ‘confirmability’ is presented via a self-critical reflexive analysis of the methodology, replacing ‘objectivity’. Accordingly, as a constructionist, the researcher draws on identifiable tools and techniques to underpin the quality of the findings. Doing this affirms that this approach is capable of the same possibilities as conventional scientific approaches.

Other quality considerations include the ‘plausibility’ of the findings, alluding to sufficient evidence to support the ‘credibility’ of the findings, and ‘relevance’ in making a unique contribution to existing knowledge (Hammersley, 1992). The reader’s evaluation of the researcher’s work is determined by their understanding and insight being enhanced via participants direct personal expressions, eliciting the reader’s interpretations (Madill et al., 2000). What this does is stress the importance of demonstrating throughout this study and in the findings a substantive contribution, reflexivity, impact, and expression of reality (Richardson, 1992). Especially relevant to a phenomenological study are issues of ethical, political, and personal sociology (Bochner, 2001). Such issues offer an opportunity to emotionally engage readers with the worth of followers in organisations and wider society.

The reader will judge the quality of this study based on how the researcher captures the research subjects’ rich tapestry of feelings and facts, complex narratives as they have been experienced, subjectivity and emotive credibility, and the moral dimension to their story as they see it. Hence, this work aims to satisfy the reader’s need for vividness, accuracy, richness, and elegance in order for them to recognise the phenomenon (i.e. followership) from their own experience, or their imagination by entering into the account (Polkinghorne, 1983). Accordingly, this study exhibits the quality of its

approach and findings by truly reflecting the lives of participants through their rich depth and breadth of experience.

“Qualitative researchers have a responsibility to make their epistemological position clear, conduct their research in a manner consistent with that position, and present their findings in a way that allows them to be evaluated properly”

(Madill *et al.*, 2000, p.17).

5.3.3 Sampling strategy, permissions, and consent

A sampling strategy is designed to capture a representative sample of the population, determining a sufficient number and type of participant as a subset of the entire population (Cavana *et al.*, 2001). In university settings, there are numerous academic leadership and non-academic managerial roles, which collectively constitute the population relevant to this study. The selection of participants is via a purposive sampling approach (i.e. a non-probability method), ideally suited to phenomenological studies, to identify informants who can speak about the phenomenon through their own experience (Klenke, 2008). Then a criterion is applied via judgement sampling, to identify participants with the necessary first-hand experience of the phenomenon in the research environment (Moustakas, 1994, Cavana *et al.*, 2001). A two-fold sampling approach is designed to enhance the trustworthiness of the responses to the research questions (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). This criterion is concerned with the participant's role in the leader-follower dyad, and the amount of experience over time in this position.

A key factor is 'sample size' in providing a foundation for what the researcher needs to know and to defend the academic validity of these findings (Aiiawi, 2013). Kvale

(1996) asserts the ‘what I need to know’ is more important than arriving at a fixed sample size. Subsequently, this indicates an irrelevance to prescribing exact numbers of research subjects when the quality of the data is of primary importance in a qualitative inquiry. A misconception is that a large sample size is a prerequisite to generalise the findings as representative of the population (Englander, 2012). Notwithstanding this claim, various texts offer sample size guidelines for phenomenology ranging from 2 participants to as many as 25 (Creswell, 1998, Morse, 1994, Klenke, 2008, Starks and Trinidad, 2007). Tesch (1990) reviewed a series of studies to arrive at 25 as a statistically average number of participants for a phenomenological study. What appears more relevant is the importance of in-depth knowledge of the content of the experience directed toward seeking the meaning of a phenomenon, not necessarily how many people have experienced the phenomena (Englander, 2012). Accordingly, there is no precise sample size for qualitative research of this kind, but there are factors to consider when determining a reasonable sample. Specifically, these are data quality, the scope of the study, the nature of the topic, and usefulness of participant information (Morse, 2000). Hence, the researcher’s sample size was around 30 participants split between leaders and followers, with the possibility of more being included as the research study develops.

The pilot study relies on convenience sampling to test the validity of the research questions and the quality of the interview technique. The pilot study focuses on a small group of available Academic Leaders and Administration Managers. This preliminary work gave validation to the use of a semi-structured interview format and also produced enough data to ascertain if participant responses would address the research questions. There was also an opportunity at this stage to gauge the usefulness of the preamble in

framing the fieldwork without biasing the responds views. Accordingly, the pilot went well and no amendments were deemed necessary before progressing on to the actual fieldwork. The study sample derives from a range of universities within a defined geographical location (i.e. Scotland and Northern England) (Table 26). Drawing on judgement and convenience sampling techniques assures the researcher that the sample selection can satisfy the purpose of the inquiry, offering credibility by capturing appropriate participants, and is achievable within the available timeframe (Patton, 2002).

Table 26: Sampling Frame

The following list of institutions presents this study's sampling frame:

- | | |
|----------------------|---------------------------|
| • Aberdeen | • Liverpool |
| • Abertay | • Liverpool John Moores |
| • Bradford | • Manchester |
| • Dundee | • Manchester Metropolitan |
| • Durham | • Newcastle |
| • Edinburgh | • Northumbria |
| • Glasgow | • Queen Margaret |
| • Glasgow Caledonian | • Robert Gordon |
| • Heriot-Watt | • Salford |
| • Huddersfield | • Sheffield |
| • Hull | • Sheffield Hallam |
| • Lancaster | • St Andrews |
| • Leeds | • Strathclyde |
| • Leeds Metropolitan | • Teeside |
| • Lincoln | • York |

The process for seeking the permission of each university and consent of individual research subjects begins with an email (Appendices 4) sent to a senior officer (i.e. gatekeeper) in each university. This message is requesting permission to approach either Academic Leaders or Administration Managers as research subjects. Once formal permission is received, research subjects are selected based on information provided on university web sites. Then each research subject is sent an e-mail (Appendices 6)

requesting their participation in the study. This e-mail includes an attachment document outlining the aims and objectives of the research (Appendices 6). Also attached is an informed consent form (Appendices 7) for completion before the interview. When undertaking interviews, each research subject is read a preamble reiterating the nature of the research, the researcher's responsibilities to them and permission is sought to use the information they provide in verbatim but anonymously for publication (Appendices 8 & 9). Research questions differ slightly between the Academic Leader (Appendices 8) and the Administration Manager (Appendices 9). Finally, each participant is sent an e-mail with an attached transcript of their audio-recorded interview (Appendices 10). They are each afforded approximately four weeks to review and approve their transcript for accuracy or amend any inaccuracies.

5.3.4 Capturing the Research Data

Having outlined the design of the approach (above) it seems appropriate to provide an insight in to how the approach went in practice. The researcher contacts each of the thirty universities in the sampling frame (Table 26). This task involves e-mailing the most senior non-academic post holder (i.e. typically the Academic Registrar, University Secretary, or Chief Operating Officer). Subsequently, the researcher obtains permission to undertake this research in sixteen universities, with no response from ten universities, and outright rejection from only three universities. Focusing on Academic Leaders and Administration Managers in sixteen institutions the researcher identifies appropriate candidates through each University's web site and contacts each candidate by e-mail (Appendices 5). Attached to each e-mail is an informed consent form (Appendices 7) detailing the requirements of participants in this study. Background information is provided briefly detailing the researcher's status as a PhD student at Lancaster

University, the project's foundational underpinnings, and the research objectives (Appendices 6).

The researcher receives forty-four rejections (either by return e-mail or as a non-response after several weeks). Despite this, the researcher obtains 35 acceptances (i.e. 18 Academic Leaders and 17 Administration Managers). This number proves adequate; given that towards the end of all 35 interviews, common themes are frequently emerging, indicating a saturation point. What this does is heighten the researcher's confidence in having enough data to make a valid and reliable conclusion based on the four interview questions (see below). From the thirty universities initially contacted thirteen of these universities feature in the actual sample that informs these findings. The sample contains interviews from five pairings of ALs and AMs who work together. However, the research data derived from these pairs was not distinct in any way when compared to the data generated when interviewing other research subjects. This is because both parties in the pairings would often express their lived experiences of the phenomenon beyond the time and space afforded to their current circumstances and immediate dyadic relations. Accordingly, while their respective experiences are somewhat unique to them, it would be unwise to encompass their thoughts and feelings in to the confines of the specifics of unique pairings, especially when such experiences derive from a considerable breadth and depth of exposure to the phenomenon.

Administration Manager Research questions:

RQ1: What does it mean to be effective in your role?

RQ2: Overall, how would you describe your relationship with your Academic Leader?

RQ3: What factors have impacted upon how influential you are with the Academic Leader?

RQ4: What sort of upward influencing approaches have you found work best and why?

Academic Leader Research questions:

RQ1: What does it mean to be effective in your role?

RQ2: Overall, how would you describe your relationship with the Administration Manager?

RQ3: What factors have impacted upon how receptive you are to the views of your Administration Manager?

RQ4: How best has an Administration Manager gone about influencing your opinions?

Eighteen Academic Leaders (i.e. 15 male and 3 female) agree to participate, ranging in experience from those with limited time in a single managerial role to others that possess experience in several managerial roles in many institutions. Roles in this category include 6 Heads of School, 1 Head of Department, 4 Deans of Faculty, 4 Deans of School, 1 Director of Institute, 1 Pro-Vice Chancellor, and 1 Vice Principal. These participants operate in the areas of business, human and health sciences, health and wellbeing, clinical sciences, arts and humanities, politics, dental education, life sciences, management, psychology, health and medicine, arts and social sciences, built

environment, environment, actuarial mathematics and statistics, computer science, physics and astronomy, and the classics.

Seventeen participating Administration Managers (i.e. 8 male and 9 female) range in seniority and experience, and possess a range of working titles. These comprise of 1 School Administration Manager, 1 Head of Administration, 1 Administrative Officer, 1 School Services Manager, 2 School Managers, 1 Head of Professional Services, 1 Head of Faculty Professional Services, 1 Director of Administration, 1 Department Manager, 1 Director of Professional Services, 1 School Administrator, 1 College Director of Operations, 1 Executive Administrator, 1 Faculty Manager, and 2 Directors of Administration and School Registrar. These Administration Managers operate in several academic disciplines comprising mathematics, humanities, law, human and health sciences, statistics and actuarial science, business, development and society, management, education, clinical sciences, science, arts and social sciences, medicine, engineering and physical sciences, and languages. Some of them are line managed by an Academic Leader, and others by a Senior Administrative Officer (e.g. University Secretary or Academic Registrar) in their University but outside their immediate area of responsibility.

Administration Managers are employed in formal leadership roles within the University hierarchy. However, their status as a leader is only legitimately acknowledged relative to their line management reports and staff accountability. The same configuration exists at a higher level between the Academic Leader and Administration Manager. Accordingly, this informs how the leader-follower relationship is designed to operate with the Academic Leader having either direct or indirect managerial responsibility for

the Administration Manager. The Academic Leader is ultimately responsible for the performance of the organisational unit, with the Administration Manager being accountable for contributing and supporting the Academic Leader. The Academic Leader is positioned to have the final say in decision-making, and evaluate and direct the Administration Manager. There is a clear leader-manager dichotomy whereby the leader is responsible, but the manager is accountable to the leader. In that sense, the manager, irrespective of their position amongst their group of staff, is still deemed to be a follower in relation to their leader, and it is that relationship that is the focus of this research project.

Interviews occur over eight months (i.e. July 2014 to February 2015). The eighteen Academic Leaders are sourced from eleven institutions. In six institutions more than one Academic Leader is interviewed, generating a total of 14 hours 52 minutes of recorded interview material. When transcribed this produces 175 pages of written material for analysis. The seventeen Administration Managers are sourced from eleven institutions, but not the same eleven as all of the Academic Leaders. In five institutions more than one Administration Manager is interviewed. The total amount of recorded material equates to 13 hours 40 minutes, which produces 174 pages of written material for analysis. All 35 transcripts are sent to research subjects to validate the accuracy of the content. Academic Leaders edit five transcripts while Administration Managers edit three transcripts. None of the edits made by research subjects detracts from the essence of their lived experiences and merely enhances the accuracy of discussion points made during the interviews.

5.3.5 Data collection

Participant data is collected via qualitative interviews (Cooper and Schindler, 1998), which are ideally suited in my endeavour to understand interviewees reasoning, decision making, attitudes, and opinions (Saunders et al., 2003). The interview process has several key strengths; an opportunity to personally assure the interviewee concerning the use of the resultant data, ability to direct questions in sensitive areas, capacity to clarify the meaning of a question to assure the accuracy of the response, and control over who will answer the questions without the interviewee making reference to others (Healey, 1991, Saunders et al., 2003). A semi-structured interview format is employed to elicit perceptions, assumptions, and beliefs unique to the individual interviewees (Bryman and Bell, 2003). This format also allows for complex, open-ended questions, and the capacity to vary the order or logic of the questioning based on participant responses (Healey, 1991, Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). The format is especially advantageous because the essence of the researcher's interview questions (Appendices 8 & 9) is informed by the critical approach to the analysis of followership, drawing on the themes of dominance, power, conflict, context, and identity.

The research subjects are essentially in managerial roles and hold a preference for being interviewed, especially where the interview topic is of professional relevance to their role (Saunders et al., 2003). The objective is to utilise a semi-structured interview format to present interviewees with an opportunity to reflect on key events. In so doing they can develop greater 'know-how' to enrich their professional practice in their role. Each interview lasts around 1 hour and is digitally audio-recorded and supported by field notes to help generate the interview transcripts. These are electronically stored and backed-up for safekeeping in readiness for data analysis.

5.3.6 Data analysis

To obtain an understanding of the followership phenomenon, in response to the research questions, extracted from the participant data are themes and trends. Generating such themes and trends relies upon identifying significant statements and the production of meaning units (Creswell, 2009). The application of a four-stage data analysis process is undertaken to do this, informed by the work of Johnson and Christensen (2008). Firstly, the researcher extracts significant statements (i.e. words, phrases, sentences etc.) that hold meaning for participants, or are highly relevant to the followership phenomenon. Next, the researcher lists their interpretations of the significant statements (these are referred to as the ‘meanings’). Then the researcher endeavours to reveal themes in the data (i.e. within the significant statements and meanings). Finally, the researcher constructs a statement based on the fundamental structure of the experience (i.e. what it is like to attempt to be effective in the context of followership via upward influence). The aim is to relay this experience indirectly on to the reader. Each stage is used to refine the data to a point where the meanings are prominent and capable of authentically illustrating the practitioner’s lived experience (Giorgi, 1997).

Moustakas (1994) presents four principles of phenomenological research applied to analyse interviewee reports of their lived experiences. These principles are highly relevant to aspects of data analysis that require the formation of a personal view as to what is a significant statement, what constitutes meanings, and what is a noteworthy theme in amongst the volume of data. ‘Epoche’ conceived to be freedom from suppositions, whereby the researcher set aside their prejudgements about followership (i.e. follower conformity, active participation, and superiority of leaders), allowing the phenomenon to be encountered with newness to describe it precisely (Giorgi, 1997).

Hence, the researcher comes to know the followership phenomenon or follower experience as it presents itself, engaging with interviewees with an unbiased, receptive presence (Moustakas, 1994).

The next stage is 'phenomenological reduction' in reference to bracketing out presuppositions (i.e. meanings, interpretations, and theoretical concepts) so as not to enter the informant's world (Creswell, 1998, Moustakas, 1994, Caelli, 2001, Kruger, 1988, Kvale, 1996). Here examples would include the assumed duties of followers tasked with following, the characteristics of the respective roles, and preconceived notions of effectiveness as a set of professional standards. What this does is ensure that the researcher's judgements are accurate conclusions that align with the data. Here the researcher reflects on the data to describe what they see to correct their expectation of the experience, and in doing so recognise something previously unseen (Vondey, 2012). This readjustment of expectations process (i.e. horizontalization) gives equal value to all descriptions and statements, revealing the phenomenon's distinctive characteristics. The non-overlapping constituents are clustered into themes and organised to describe the phenomenon, based on the distinctive characteristics that stand out as invariant qualities of the experience (Moustakas, 1994).

Latterly 'imaginative variation' concerns the recognition of underlying themes that account for the emergence of the phenomenon. This stage encompasses searching for exemplifications that illustrate those themes to facilitate a description of the phenomenon (Moustakas, 1994, Vondey, 2012). Specifically, a search for interviewees' personal examples of followership as being influential or otherwise, which reveal central themes of paramount importance (Hycner, 1999). These can be prototypical

behaviours and characteristics or key motivating factors. Here the researcher compares different interviewee experiences to understand better the meaning associated with the phenomenon. This phase is designed to summarise, validate, and modify each interview, with a view to reconstructing the inner world experience of the research subject, obtaining a sense of their inner world (Hycner, 1999).

Finally, a ‘synthesis of meanings and essences’ is designed to capture the very nature of the experience of a phenomenon, but at a particular time and place from the researcher’s vantage point (Moustakas, 1994). Accordingly, a conclusion is produced of the analysis as a composite summary, containing the contextual background which underpins the emerging themes (Klenke, 2008). The researcher’s aim here is to transform the participants’ verbalisations into terms that relate to the technical discourse representative of the research (Sadala and Adorno, 2002). As a result, the researcher illuminates ambiguities, discovers new insights, and reveals inconsistencies that say something about the phenomenon not previously considered. Underpinning all of this work is an audit trail of accuracy checking (Sandelowski and Barroso, 2003), based upon the rich description and direct quotation that makes interpretation possible (Patton, 2002). It is free of presuppositions (Creswell, 2009) ultimately authenticating the findings and producing trustworthy results (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

5.4 Ethical considerations

Ethical issues permeate every aspect of the research process, and the ethical dimension is a growing area of concern (Oliver, 2003). This prompts the consideration of ethics concerning ‘researcher responsibilities’ and ‘participants’ rights’. Here the researcher acknowledges their overarching moral justification for undertaking this research, being

the emancipation of followers and efficacy of followership. Hence, the acquisition of knowledge provides an ‘instrumental good’ (i.e. recognising the value of followers to corporate effectiveness), and an ‘intrinsic good’ (i.e. telling what I have learnt about followership) (Railton, 1998). Making this moral justification transparent provides a foundation to defend the validity of the researcher’s research process ethically. Subsequently, this includes the integrity of those involved (Antonakis et al., 2004), the integrity of the study, and offers a basis for the researcher’s knowledge claims (Glazier and Powell, 1992, Ramazanoglu and Holland, 2002, Gorman and Clayton, 1997).

Although the researcher is mindful of a temptation to ‘ethically transgress’, prompted by ‘situational ethics’. Underpinning these considerations is the suggestion that all research presents an ‘inescapable immorality’ when qualitatively exploring contentious social phenomena. Therefore the appropriateness of the researcher’s ethical practices is carefully deliberated based on the view of others (Oliver, 2003). What this implies is that the researcher accepts ethical issues are complex and multi-faceted having more than one comprehensible aspect.

5.4.1 Researcher responsibilities

The researcher is the primary instrument of data collection, acknowledging that the researcher is uniquely positioned to protect research participants and the integrity of this research (Creswell, 2009, Patton, 2002). The researcher’s responsibilities extend to fellow researchers, the public, and the academic community (Oliver, 2003). Such responsibilities compel the researcher to be open and honest about the successes and failures of this research, and to report results that are understandable and accurate. The researcher has taken account of ethics in the planning process by devising a system that

protects participants confidentiality, authentically communicates the research objectives, and ethically obtains informed consent (Appendices 7) (Oliver, 2003). Responsibility for working with senior officers within each respective university to determine acceptable research parameters ‘before’ contacting potential participants rests with the researcher.

The researcher ensured that all research subjects have sufficient information about the objectives of this study. What this does is clarify their role/input and rights, and provides assurances relating to their confidentiality and data management procedures (e.g. recording, storage, and disposal). An assurance of minimal disruption to the organisation is given by adhering to accepted protocols. The mutual benefits of this research are outlined for each participant and their respective organisation (Vondey, 2012), offering a copy of the study’s results (Van Kammen and Stouthamer-Loeber, 1998). The relationship between the researcher and the gatekeeper in each University is interdependent, given that such organisations value research on aspects of their work (Oliver, 2003), and universities rely on research as a core activity for their very existence. Subsequently, we share a mutual concern for producing valid and reliable research that does not seek to damage the organisation’s reputation and the integrity of the sector. Therefore, participants and their organisations can be assured of the integrity of this research, as it is scrutinised and ethically endorsed through a formal, rigorous University quality assurance procedure (Greig and Taylor, 1999).

At the interview stage the recording of data, confidentiality of sensitive material, and use of technology present ethical concerns (Oliver, 2003). Upon initiating the face-to-face interview, the researcher reiterates their key responsibilities. These include how

the researcher intends to capture data via audio recording, transcribe this data, and make it available to interviewees for their approval while assuring their anonymity (Appendices 8 & 9). Such action is vital in safeguarding interviewees, especially given that they are agreeing to their innermost experiences being recorded (Punch, 1998). Notwithstanding these good intentions to ethically safeguard interviewees, any psychological effects that interviewees may experience when reliving emotionally charged experiences of followership cannot be predicted (Oliver, 2003). Such experiences can relate to the current state of interviewees working relationships or organisational events.

There is an anticipation that sensitive issues will be inadvertently touched upon when delving into ‘meaning’ to produce highly relevant data. This factor compels the researcher to carefully monitor the appropriateness of probing and provide opportunities for interviewees to decline questions throughout the interview (Oliver, 2003). These ethical considerations are balanced against what is beneficial to the interviewee, specifically taking an opportunity to articulate their feelings about their position on sensitive and complex matters. Here they can benefit by reflecting and clarifying their feelings about the issues raised (Vondey, 2012, Ross, 1964).

Ethical concerns extend to reviews of interview transcripts, interpretation of data, reporting of research results, disposal of data, and the ongoing protection of participants psychological and social well-being (Oliver, 2003). While interviewees have ownership of their data to review; there is no obligation to present the researcher’s analysis for review (Kane, 1995). Consequently, the analysis relies on the researcher’s integrity to ensure that the base data is accurate and that the researcher does not knowingly

misrepresent the data. Additionally, the researcher is not to be improperly selective in its presentation and is accountable for expertly drawing on the phenomenological research methodology to produce valid findings. For this reason, interviewees are offered an opportunity to reflect on the data they have provided (Appendices 10). The purpose of this is to allow them to withdraw or rephrase what they deem sensitive (Moustakas, 1994). This measure safeguards the social ecology in the aftermath of the research, by not negatively affecting the relationship between leader and follower. It also does not damage the participant's professional network or compromise their continuing capacity to undertake their role in the organisation beyond the study (Oliver, 2003).

5.4.2 Participants' rights

Ethical considerations raise questions about how people who provide data should be treated, given their status as co-researchers in the context of qualitative research (Vondey, 2012). This necessitates respecting participants' views, protecting them from harm, keeping them fully informed, and providing sufficient time for potential research subjects to make an informed decision as to whether to participate in the study without obligation (Oliver, 2003, Creswell, 1998). Openly adhering to these ethical considerations cultivates a cooperative relationship with each participant from the outset. A concise summary statement outlining the research objectives and participant contribution is provided (Appendices 6). This statement outlines the participant's right to withdraw from the research process or reclaim supplied data within a given timeframe. Additionally, the value of each participant's input is frequently acknowledged and follow up activity occurs to assess the benefits for participants of reflecting on aspects of the followership phenomenon.

The participant has the right to expect that the researcher analyses their data on the basis of a solid grounding in the philosophical precepts of phenomenology devoid of presuppositions (Klenke, 2008). The researcher's trustworthiness and authenticity are under scrutiny when interacting with participants and during the process of interpreting their data (Patton, 2002). However, this is achieved without displaying heightened levels of empathy for their every followership experience as advocated by Knight (2002) who perceives this to be a participant expectation of the researcher. Accordingly, the researcher conceives of their role as crucial in understanding why some participants feel vulnerable, while others are empowered as key influencers in the leadership process (Alvesson and Willmott, 2002, Evans, 2010, Zuber-Skerritt, 1996). What underpins this are personal endeavours to stay true to the researcher's 'prima facie' duty, which is to improve the well-being of followers without harming others in the research environment (Hudson, 1970). Accordingly, this is of paramount importance, in an ethical sense, given that the consolidated findings are available to participants' organisations (Appendices 6).

5.5 Summary

This chapter outlines the cohesiveness of the researcher's belief in a relativist ontology, which defines the philosophy of reality, and a constructionist epistemology that reveals how the researcher comes to know that reality. It outlines the association between these philosophical positions and application of a qualitative methodology. The researcher justifies the use and value of semi-structured interviewing as the means by which the researcher shall collect data for analysis, drawing on the phenomenological theoretical perspective to attain knowledge of it. The researcher makes the point that their research philosophy, on the topic of followership influence, is much like skin and not a sweater that can be taken off or put on at will (Marsh and Furlong, 2002).

Additionally, the researcher recognises the contextual significance as helping determine the appropriateness of how research philosophy is applied in practice. Here the researcher argues that heightened consideration of context, in the selection of research methods, avoids misrepresenting trustworthiness and authenticity attached to knowledge claims on a range of topics (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Consequently, the researcher's research philosophy is informed by their persuasion that leadership is in whatever combination 'direction' and 'influence', relying on the suitability of the chosen methodological design to reliably delve more into this perspective. To change the method would presuppose a fundamental change in the researcher's beliefs on the topic of followership.

The phenomenological work of other researchers in the areas of leadership have drawn on the same philosophical convictions that have informed their methodological approach (Jankelson, 2005). What these works have done is expose new ways of

conceptualising through a greater focus on understanding. They have drawn on strong empirical foundations to support a move away from conceiving of knowledge and truth claims as static and unassailable by seeking meaning and accounting for social complexities that are absent in conventional thinking. There is no compulsion to construct what something is or is not based on embarking on a search for a definitive truth. Instead, this study looks to how people experience the space between leaders and followers to better understand the essence of what constitutes the phenomenon of followership. The next chapter focuses on the research subject and environment, presenting in detail the empirical base for this study.

Chapter 6: Research Background

This section of the thesis presents an overview of the role of an Administration Manager (research subject) in the context of a University setting (research environment), drawing on the researcher's acquired knowledge of the role and environment and combining this with what literature exists that has a particular relevance. The aim here is to familiarise the reader with what constitutes the empirical basis for this phenomenological inquiry into followership influence.

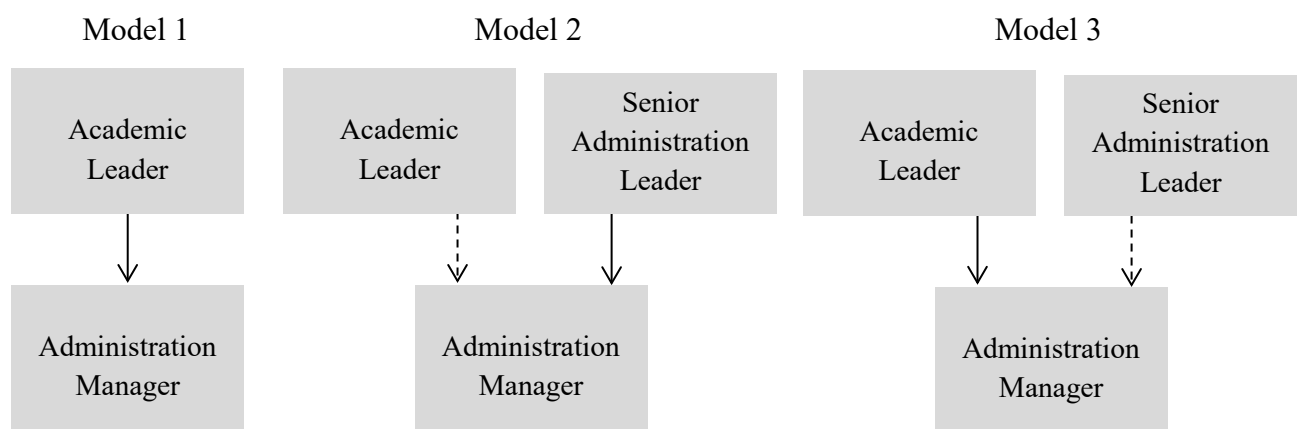
6.1 The Administration Manager Role

The Administration Manager's purpose is to carry out administrative leadership, which (Terry, 1995) argues is a neglected area of research, rendering the topic as more intellectually intriguing. The Administration Manager covers a wide variety of professional roles such as Director of Professional Services, Faculty Administration Manager, Administration Manager, Faculty Senior Administrator, School Manager, and Business Manager. However, irrespective of the nomenclature, they are commonly tasked with having responsibility for the non-academic operations of an academic unit (e.g. Department, School, Faculty, College). Accordingly, the Administration Manager is locally accountable for all of the business processes and non-academic functions (i.e. marketing, finance, student recruitment, student and programme administration, technical support and research support).

The role of the Administration Manager can be line managed fully or partially by an Academic Leader (e.g. Head of Department, Head of College, Head of School, or Dean of Faculty) responsible for the strategic leadership of the academic unit. Alternatively, line management responsibility of the Administration Manager can fall under the remit

of a Senior Administrative figure located centrally within a university (e.g. College Secretary, Deputy College Secretary, Academic Registrar, and College Registrar). Nevertheless, the relationship between the Academic Leader and Administration Manager is central to the leadership process and overall success of the business unit. Typical structural models:

Figure 12: Administration Manager Organisational Structures



Note – a dashed line indicates some authority over the Administration Manager but not formal line management.

Administration Managers are formally charged with improving the performance of the unit's operations, advancing business objectives while enhancing support for scholarly endeavours. This role inevitably involves instigating and implementing organisational change in the context of an academic domain. Accordingly, Administration Managers frequently transition between leading and following as the situation demands. They also manage the tension between an orientation toward being focused on the accomplishment of tasks and relations with a range of stakeholders. The Administration Manager's effectiveness is readily associated with what should be diligent but inconspicuous support of their more prominent Academic Leader. As such, the remit emphasises what form interdependency takes in the leader-follower relationship.

It is not expected or appropriate for the Administration Manager to always be passive in their relations with the Academic Leader. What this emphasises is the significance of being considered an active contributor combined with the appropriate use of positional authority to lead. The capacity to continually perform both aspects of the role well alludes to a need to demonstrate a degree of upward influence. This capacity can be evident in the variety of ways the Administration Manager works with their Academic Leader (i.e. coordinator, partner, gatekeeper, mentee). Indeed, this seems especially relevant because the Administration Manager can be critical of higher-level leadership but could risk alienating themselves. Accordingly, adopting a pragmatic position, having a high level of leader engagement and refined interactive communication skills assists when challenging and acting in the best interests of the dyadic relationship. Where this works well, this could indicate a harmonious alignment of leadership and followership styles, especially evident when observing some leader-follower partnerships operating more productively and in a less acrimonious way than others do.

The Academic Leader and Administration Manager relationship does not exist in a vacuum. It is impacted by a challenging political context (House and Aditya, 1997), which suggests that political behaviours are embedded in an evolving relational authenticity. Subsequently, political manoeuvring challenges what is implicit about being an effective Administration Manager tasked with supporting an Academic Leader. What is of interest here is the Academic Leader's pre-existing personal beliefs as to what constitutes ideal upward support (i.e. productivity, enthusiasm, and good citizenship) and the impact such factors have on the Administration Manager's behavioural responses. The distance between Academic Leaders and Administration Managers can be a measure of the quality of their relationship. This alludes to how the

Administration Manager's performance can be informally evaluated and signifies the level of trust within the relationship (Probert and Turnbull James, 2011). It also suggests that the impression Academic Leaders have of Administration Managers is a critical aspect of the relationship, which can be used to inform Administration Managers' attempts to develop or portray desired follower attributes associated with heightened effectiveness.

To optimise upward support for the Academic Leader the Administration Manager is tasked with readily adapting to a changing environment. What appears less readily evident is the need for Academic Leaders to engage with the Administration Managers' own cooperative and competitive behaviours as the situation demands, which Tjosvold et al. (1983) claims increases job satisfaction and builds morale. This oversight in the leadership process it could be argued affirms the established traditions of an imbalance in control and power, irrespective of any dependency followers may have on corporate top-down mechanisms of development and reward. There can also be the added complexity to such an imbalance when working for a multitude of leaders in a University setting who, as Mehra et al. (2006) points out, can hold contrasting as well as competing viewpoints. Hence, Administration Managers can be exposed to a variable array of leadership influence, emanating either from powerful individuals or clusters of alliances. Subsequently, the inevitable contrasting priorities compel Administration Managers (as followers) to make difficult choices that hold implications for sustaining their status as an effective employee.

Thus far the focus has been on the dilemmas faced by Administration Managers when working alongside a more organisationally powerful leader. However, there is another

aspect related to how the leader-follower relationship can operate. Dualistic comprehensions of the Academic Leader and Administration Manager (as a follower) do not readily account for episodes of complimentary participation in the leadership process, political fluidity of interrelations, and dual contribution to the University's performance. Typically both parties can and often share some leadership responsibility which suggests that reciprocal influence, interdependence, and coordination to some extent are embedded in the leader-follower dynamic. Some leader-follower relationships appear to transcend the University's hierarchy, bureaucracy, and academic dominance, with the effect of optimising the benefits of shared leadership. As such the multiple and complex nature of the shifts in the identity of Academic Leaders and Administration Managers can challenge established dichotomies. Administration Managers (as followers) are not merely carrying out the Academic Leader's orders. Instead, they are acting on what Townsend and Gebhart (1997) acknowledge as a heightened understanding of their Academic Leader's expectations.

An additional consideration is an extent to which Academic Leaders feel occasionally compelled through operational necessity to relinquish control and entrust the Administration Manager, even if they do not share the same world view (Galton, 1900). Indeed, what may help in this situation is that Academic Leaders and Administration Managers share some of the leadership challenges, such as dealing with differentiation between leader characteristics (Rajaram Baliga and Hunt, 1988), contextual complexity (Brunner, 1997), leading highly intelligent people resistant to being led (Goffee and Jones, 2007), and the escalating implications of pressures for reform (Van Wart, 2003). What appears to facilitate the exchange of power between the Academic Leader and Administration Manager is the latter's capacity to maintain affiliations with those that

represent both educational and business interests of the University. Drawing on outside connections helps to legitimise their position and while internally maintaining fluency in multiple languages (i.e. managerial and educationalist) helps to form strategically advantageous collations.

It is conceivable that some Academic Leaders will experience significant challenges when operating in a shared power environment where democracy is enhanced, but formal leadership becomes more difficult. As such, it is possible for tension to exist between being reliant upon followership capabilities when sharing leadership while resisting intrusions in the space reserved for those with the credentials to formally lead in an academic domain. What this highlights is a greater need to understand more about how such sensitivities feed into what constitutes a mutual sense of effectiveness. This is worthy of consideration given that Academic Leaders are well positioned to limit access to information or restrict participation in key events in order to modify their Administration Manager's behaviour as a follower. The empathy displayed and communicated between roles in the dyadic relationship also alludes to the possibility of changing the implications for challenging the Academic Leader. Consequently, this accentuates the question of an emotional identification between the two parties, emphasising the value of active followership and re-engineering the exchange of support, regardless of the corporate design of the leader-follower dichotomy.

Contextualising followership behaviours in University settings brings in to focus the extent Administration Managers (as followers) are willing or feel compelled to adhere to deeply embedded workplace practices and protocols. These are framed by what Krishnan (2004) refers to as the logic of Academic Leadership being accepted without

question. Consequently, it is unsurprising then that this resonates with Litzinger and Schaefer (1982) who suggest academic leadership is deemed necessary to maintain order and functionality. This portrayal of the dyadic relationship appears to be underpinned by the notion of the servility of followers and requirement for admirable leaders as the bastions of laudable leadership. So it would seem that a key challenge for Administration Managers is in redefining their role as a follower beyond Academic Leaders' notions of prototypical followership, while retaining their credibility and autonomy.

The Administration Manager is ideally positioned to draw on Academic Leader feedback as a self-regulatory strategy to monitor and adjust their performance and maintain a good working relationship. What this suggests is that upward influencing tactics may be significant considerations when attempting to secure the psychological safety that the Academic Leader can offer. However, it also alludes to the possibility of an upward tactical presentation of a predetermined self-identity to avoid detection. In terms of dyadic relations, this can inhibit the Academic Leader's attempts to better understand their Administration Manager's personality and genuine reactions to their leadership style. The risk here is that Academic Leaders are well positioned to apply sanctions as well as rewards, so can manage 'meaning' for Administration Managers. This situation draws attention to how tactics can be employed in close proximity, whereby power differentials appear less distinct. Accordingly, it could make sense to consider the use of subtle resistance or tempered approaches by followers to avoid marginalisation from the dominant culture as tactical. There appears to be an intriguing aspect to followership here, specifically concerning how followers can discreetly transcend expectations of self-leadership in professional roles as tactical followers.

Accordingly, this aligns well with what Zanzi and O'Neill (2001) refer to as politically inspired non-sanctionable actions.

There appears to be an obligation on the Administration Manager to elicit their Academic Leader's support in order to ensure their interests are best served. Hence, it would not benefit them to be overtly at odds with the romanticised view of the academic leadership that permeates the organisational culture of a University. Accordingly, it is important to understand more about how the inner tension between conformance and resistance could inform the selection of a follower identity. Equally, there appears to be an obligation on the Academic Leader to align with corporate orientations of how Administration Managers (as followers) are expected to be treated and utilised. Therefore, it is conceivable to envisage the leader's challenge as managing the inner tension in sharing some of their authority while avoiding the risk of unwarranted interference in academic leadership processes. Consequently, this emphasises a need to better understand to what extent the Academic Leader frames the follower's reality, and in response what measures the Administration Manager can reasonably take to reject or change whatever reality is defined for them. The effects of these dilemmas are central to this dissertation's research questions.

6.2 The UK Higher Education Environment

The Administration Manager role exists in the context of a dynamically changing UK Higher Education sector. Moreover, Administrative leadership is considered to be highly instrumental and guided by scientific management principles (Van Wart, 2003), suggesting that Administrative Managers typically rely on business orientated responses. However, Academic Leaders that operate in professional bureaucracies

(Mintzberg, 1979b) control the Administration Manager and ultimately administrative function. Certainly, Mintzberg (1979b) makes the point that the professional (e.g. Academic Leader) becomes dependent on the effective administrator (e.g. Administration Manager) but that a professional administrator's power is retained only as long as the professionals perceive the administrator as serving their interests effectively. Additionally, another relevant point about the operating environment is evident in Drucker's (2004) critique of public service institutions as so heavily bureaucratic that they stifle innovation that then only occurs via the imposition of external pressure or by catastrophe. He goes on to argue that a greater understanding of the interplay between leadership and followership, and what elements make this relationship effective, offers a paradigm change whereby leaders and followers can be in control of their destiny and work together to make an internal change.

The dilemma of being a less powerful being in a heavily bureaucratic organisation is being subjected or exposed to superior, powerful forces that can dilute or disregard the Administration Manager's capacity to respond to shifts in the sector. The design of the Administration Manager's role is informed by the established culture of a particular university setting, which is customarily shaped by senior academic figures. This point resonates with Nolan and Harty (2001) who assert that the contribution of non-academic employees, irrespective of seniority to university leadership, is not considered to be of equal importance. Such contextual circumstances imply that the exercise of authority by Administration Managers, in response to environmental change, is channelled by avoiding threatening what appears as the University's culture of powerful academic dominance. Certainly, Mintzberg (1979a) captures this as the structural and cultural design of an organisational 'professional bureaucracy' whereby highly qualified

professionals demand control of their own work. Consequently, Knowledge Workers have autonomy and considerable power in University settings, and how this is dispersed across a network of similar roles renders any perceived imposition of executive style change as difficult.

To some extent sustaining the dominance of academic leadership appears to dismiss the value of participatory leadership, and diminishes any benefits to Academic Leaders from an extended leadership experience. Nevertheless, certain tasks and responsibilities are only acceptable if undertaken by an Academic Leader in a university, irrespective of Frisina's (2005) assertion that the nature of the leader-follower relationship is reciprocal and interdependent. Indeed, individualist notions of dominant academic leadership in university settings rely upon an established and accepted tradition of hierarchical authority, accentuating referent power and heroic leadership. Academic Leaders are characteristically considered innately superior, in terms of intellect and rank, preserving their top-down influence, which holds implications for the Administration Manager's autonomy to think and act independently. This demarcation is apparent to Dearlove (2002) who denotes universities as communities of scholars, disregarding the contribution of non-academic roles that also constitute this organisational community. Accordingly, how Administration Managers attach meaning to what symbolises and reinforces a dichotomy appears to be significant in informing how leadership and followership can be experienced in a university setting.

Several scholars argue that government policy changes brought about a political mandate to change higher education to be more self-sufficient dynamically (Davies and Thomas, 2002, Henkel, 2000, Deem, 2006). This view is underpinned by Kok et al.

(2010) who assert that increasingly universities are exposed to a corporate business approach to realise greater quantifiable operational efficiencies. Accordingly, there is said to be an evident tension to manage amidst fierce competition with reduced public funding (Carpentier, 2006). Allied to this point Bleiklie (2003) argues that the effects of this 'New Public Management' (NPM) reform have differing impact on various universities informing their governance. Why this is highly relevant to this study is captured by Grove (2012) who cites the growth of non-academic managers in higher education (HE) as engendering the perception of a controversial symbolic shift in the sector toward coercive mechanisms of compliance. It seems unsurprising then that Chitty (2004) and Deem (2004) view such moves as impacting on the academic identity and rendering academic leadership as less scholarly and more middle management. This shift appears to resonate with the discourse of 'Leaderism' and its impact on public sector reform whereby the influence of consumerism shapes the response of leaders of service organisations blurring the boundaries between professionals and managers (O'Reilly and Reed, 2010). Nevertheless, the resultant tensions created by 'New Managerialism' (NM) are underpinned by what Ball (2012) views as an approach symptomatic of an era of neoliberalism. Additionally, Dearlove (1995) refers to the promulgation of this view via associated sector-wide discourse. The practical implications of this for Administration Managers is captured by Kok et al. (2010) who observe that sustaining non-income generating roles at a relatively high financial cost to the university when funding reductions are forcing the commercialisation of higher education, receives a mixed response.

Given that the Administration Manager is affected by societal expectations, a strong academic organisational culture, external competitive forces, and government policy

this suggests they need to find an acceptable way to navigate the political milieu. It is conceivable then that Administration Managers would benefit by developing their capacity by adhering to Stonequist's (1937) notion of accessing knowledge and acquiring insight as an insider with the scrutiny of a critical outsider. Certainly, Administration Managers do have access to almost everything that the Academic Leader can see, and they are typically well versed in using various IT systems to obtain and monitor University data. Accordingly, this presents an opportunity to compare and contrast their institutional characteristics through sector networks, and use the outcomes of these deliberations, which Maccoby (2008) views as valuable preparatory work when challenging the order of university leadership on certain topics. Thus Administration Managers can introduce an external perspective as an insider on the outside, challenging the position of Academic Leaders as a knowledgeable source of information about the university or sector, irrespective of their hierarchical supremacy. The challenge for Administration Managers appears to be in developing the skills required to speak up credibly and assertively while walking a fine line between affiliation and exclusion.

Generally, Administration Managers are selected to fit into the administration culture and to plug recognised gaps in established corporate systems, as opposed to seeking the best fit between leadership style and follower type. This approach, it could be argued, supports Froggatt's (2001) assertion that the importance of leadership's contribution to making a university more competitive is somewhat neglected. It also alludes to what can hamper the dynamism (i.e. innovation and creativity) that Administration Managers could contribute beyond their static hierarchical positioning (Jauss et al., 2008). What this does is render the function of administration as merely supporting academic freedom and scholarly autonomy (Ackroyd and Ackroyd, 1999, Dearlove, 2002). Any

diversion from this narrow remit can expose an unwarranted fervent pursuit of what Dopson and McNay (2000) refer to as the 3Es of efficiency, effectiveness and economy. Subsequently, all of these factors imply that ways of ascribing power, authority, and influence in a university setting can outweigh situational authority and closeness to the task.

It is conceivable that the controls placed on the Administration Managers' authority and autonomy are propelled by what Grove (2012) observes as societal expectations of the supremacy of Academic Leaders. Accordingly, this suppresses any shift toward an alternative leader-follower paradigm. What this alludes to is the channelling of 'productive' behaviour as non-threatening in order to reconcile the historical legacy of a university (i.e. an institution set up to educate people, undertake research, and cascade knowledge into the public domain) (Kok et al., 2010). The impact of this being that new business ideologies (i.e. breaking-even, efficiency, profits, cost-effectiveness) either receive less attention or need concealing. This very effect is referred to by Ackroyd and Ackroyd (1999), Bok (2003) and Davies and Thomas (2002) as an assimilation of business orientated factors into the organisational culture in a university setting.

While the dynamics of shifting power through managerialism from intellectuals/educationalists to professional managers according to Clarke et al. (2000) and Deem (2004) remains very contentious. So it would appear that Administration Managers are positioned at the nexus of what Kok et al. (2010), Bowden and Marton (1998) and Gibbons (2005) claim are 'welfarist ideals of education' and 'profitability, marketisation, and commercialisation'. Consequently, the Administration Manager role appears to require a refined capacity not to disenfranchise managerialists or

educationalists, drawing proportionally on bottom-line and welfarist rationales to promote change. Interestingly, Dearlove (1995) captures this dilemma by acknowledging that the destructive force of new managerialism requires someone to do the ‘dirty work’ to fervently pursue business interests. Hence, without formal authority, operating amid what can be a hostile culture (i.e. fierce resistance to the pursuit of business interests above educational interests), and against increasing environmental pressures for reform of UK higher education, such factors indicate that the effectiveness of Administration Managers would to some extent depend on upward influence.

6.3 Higher Education Administration Managers as Followers

The central assumption of this thesis is that it is appropriate to consider Administration Managers in Higher Education Institutions as followers. It is important to account for this view by explaining how the notion of an Administration Manager as a follower has an association with well-rehearsed leadership-followership debates.

The Administration Manager is tasked with operating as an effective manager, which accentuates the leadership aspect of the role. Additionally, the role encompasses responsibility for managing a team of professional, technical, and administrative staff. What appears less obvious is that the role also requires the incumbent to be a dynamic follower too in order to achieve organisational objectives. Why is this the case? Well, the incumbent is in a position between the Academic Leader and their team of subordinates. Accordingly, as far as the superior is concerned, there is an expectation that the Administration Manager will acknowledge them as the formal leader and display appropriate following behaviours. While this is implicit for the most part, inappropriate behaviour would feature in performance appraisals where the leader can

assert their formal authority. So in that sense, there is an imperative for the Administration Manager to operate in follower mode. Equally, any loss of credibility with the Academic Leader in this regard is likely to compromise the Administration Manager's authority with their subordinates. To lead them effectively the subordinates expect their Administration Manager to have influence with the Academic Leader. So ultimately, the Administration Manager's credibility is reliant upon what Heller and Van Til (1982) observes as an ability to lead and follow equally as well. Consequently, an evaluation of the incumbent's performance is likely to be informed by both aspects of their role.

Conceiving of the Administration Manager as a follower draws attention towards what they do operationally. Subsequently, one could ask what characteristics or behaviours the Administration Manager needs to have to operate effectively. In a descriptive sense, the response may well include words like dynamic, active, intelligent, responsive, influential and responsible when carrying out these tasks. So while Administration Managers may not readily conceive of themselves as submissive and lacking control, they will undoubtedly seek to align any view or evaluation of themselves and their performance with more favourable descriptions. Subsequently, while 'followership' can have different meanings, Administration Managers could benefit from a shared perception of effective followership being embedded in their role to help in nurturing a formal bi-directional influencing process. Although there are times when compliance is required, and on occasion, Administration Managers will not necessarily feel in control of events or situations, such instances are not typically representative of the Administration Manager's role. Such situations allude to how Administration Managers can seek to exhibit qualities (i.e. courageous, honest, credible, intelligent, and

surpassing self-interest) whereby their leaders could recognise this as what they are or make an association their followership capabilities and experience it as having a favourable influencing effect.

In the absence of formal authority over their superior, the Administration Manager is entirely reliant upon their level of influence, in order to have any impact and involvement in the leadership process. Accordingly, this situation aligns well with Maccoby's (2007) observation that employees will tend to take up follower roles. So why would the Administration Manager take up a role as a follower? Administration Managers will endeavour to understand more about their superior's expectations of them, and then determine whether or not to adapt their behaviours or viewpoints to align more with these expectations. In order to sustain their influence with their superior, they may also take up different roles and adopt what Steger et al. (1982) suggest are different followership styles. The dilemma here is that being too aggressive or dictatorial is often perceived as threatening the formal authority invested in Academic Leaders, while too subtle an approach may not deliver the desired outcome for the Administration Manager. This dilemma somewhat resonates with Kelley's (1991) claim that each role is complimentary and not competitive, which alludes to the need to find a balancing point between effective leadership and followership.

When obeying, or indeed challenging, the Academic Leader the Administration Manager is effectively claiming a follower identity. This scenario strongly aligns with the work of DeRue and Ashford (2010) who argue that the claiming of a follower identity is an effect of granting a leader identity. Where this effect becomes apparent is when Administration Managers express a preference for particular Academic Leaders

or when there is a misalignment of values. Therefore, while there is no need to assume a sharing of the same objectives, there are factors that either legitimise or delegitimise each respective role. Accordingly, this draws attention to theorising about how constructions of identity are produced and reproduced. Indeed, it is conceivable that Administration Managers will attempt to utilise a repertoire of possible agencies at work. Such acts expose how they respond to their leader in different ways that can involve controlling individual responses to sustain positive work-related outcomes, which accentuates how Administration Managers either consciously or unconsciously operate as a follower.

The *modus operandi* of the Administration Manager role is such that the majority of their time can be spent operationally supporting their superior and others. Typically, this can involve having tasks delegated to them or working in support of a colleague with situational expertise that is closer to the task at hand. The imbalance in the consumption of the Administration Manager's time in a supporting operational role alludes to how they function as a follower. It is in follower mode they can benefit by learning how best to self-regulate and adjust their performance to be highly proficient at providing high-level support. Subsequently, they are defined by whatever capacity they develop to adapt to satisfy Academic Leaders' expectations. This situation resonates with LaTour's (2004) observation that more time is spent following than leading irrespective of any formal leadership role.

There is also a more hard-line way of conceiving of the Administration Manager as a follower. Specifically, several distinctions differentiate the role of Academic Leader and Administration Manager. The Academic Leader is expected to give directives,

delegate work, reward or punish, support and motivate, and formally evaluate the performance of their subordinates. How the Administration Manager, as a subordinate, responds is symbolic of their position as a follower. Being engaged and influenced by the Academic Leader requires the Administration Manager to recognise that the leader is not only hierarchically superior but also has the necessary qualities to have followers. Otherwise they are more likely not to genuinely want to follow the Academic Leader, and elect not to follow at all. The underpinning notion here is what Kellerman (2008) and Grint (2010) both claim as a fundamental realisation that there can be no leader without followers. So while there is some compulsion to adhere to the formal authority of the Academic Leader, in practice the relationship can also function beyond mere authority based on mutual respect and support. Therefore, the Administration Manager's relationship with the Academic Leader is as a follower as distinct from mere subordination.

Given that, Administration Managers can be categorised as active or passive, supporting or in opposition to their leader, such evaluations render them as positive or negative follower influencers. Furthermore, such categorisations of follower status tend to assume a different emphasis when the follower is also a servant leader. Blanchard (2018) rationalises how this works by firstly arguing that to make in-ways with senior management, being an effective follower has more impact than complying, complaining, or confronting. What emerges from Blanchard's paradigm is that the only way to make progress is through nurturing relations to have influence without formal power. So an effective follower-as-servant-leader instils confidence in their leader to listen without being defensive and overtime by being an effective follower leads side by side. What this emphasises is the association between how followers make use of

personal power in a way that puts the good of the organisation ahead of any personal gain in the same way as a leader.

What can have a significant emphasis on the leader-follower dyadic relationship is personal identity. Hogg (2001) makes a useful distinction between social identity and personal identity concerning leadership, alluding to the Administration Manager's social status as a follower. The analysis he presents goes some way to rationalising why the social identity of the Administration Manager as a leader is very different from the personal identity (unique properties) the Administration Manager has which can be what the Academic Leader relates to when establishing a personal relationship. The notion of leaders views of their subordinates' identity aligns with Collinson's (2006) observation that followers should not be perceived as a powerless mass. Therefore, while the Administration Manager has a social identity that may align strongly to the leadership aspect of their role, to their superior and others that work closely with the Administration Manager their personal qualities as a follower can be more salient to forming and sustaining an effective working relationship.

6.4 Conclusion

The Administration Manager role is defined by the organisation and has a design that associates it with the formal leadership hierarchy of the organisation. Subsequently, this carries expectations of how the Administration Manager is to offer support and alludes to how their effectiveness is to be evaluated and by whom. What this means for the incumbent can vary through experiences of relations with the leader and contextual occurrences. In that sense, the expectations informed by the design of the role do not necessarily channel behaviour, so there is by no means a one-dimensional way of being

an Administration Manager. Some subjectivities pervade and surface at critical points and then resonate as being significant. An example could be how Administration Managers experience refining their ability and identifying times to broach sensitive topics (e.g. unsatisfactory academic or financial performance), in order to increase their chances of obtaining the desired outcome.

The Administration Manager is likely to be exposed to what it means to have or not have influence, and this highlights implications for what this means in terms of their authority and power. The inference being that leader-centred dominance and leadership discourse have connotations for Administration Managers, as distinct from Academic Leaders. Subsequently, the dominant culture that pervades in a university setting affects the Administration Managers' agency. Therefore, the identities they enact to either align or misalign themselves with the expectations of their role shapes perceptions. This questions the degree to which authenticity can exist in Academic Leader-Administration Manager relations, and what approaches Administration Managers (as followers) will adapt to either enhance their power base or contain the risk of negative consequences.

The Academic Leader's positional power tends to drive organisational change in a university setting. It is those that are in Academic Leadership positions that have their position of authority enshrined in the University ordinances and statutes, are on the University Executive as one of only a small number able to endorse or instigate executive decisions, and locally have the greatest level of autonomy as the budget holder and line manager ensuring that they have total control of the human, physical and financial resources. Subsequently, it appears imperative for the Administration

Manager, if they are to optimise their contribution in the leadership process, to nurture a positive relationship with their Academic Leader. It is unclear as to what extent these efforts produce enough of an upward flow of influence to produce an equally weighted dual contribution, or indeed if such a contribution is desired irrespective of partnerships being able to deliver better corporate outcomes. Nevertheless, what appears significant is how the relative agency of both parties positions them to be deemed effective in their respective roles. What this suggests is that Administration Managers could be subject to an evaluation of their effectiveness by their capacity to position themselves as dynamically active followers, subsequently becoming more powerful in the leadership process. At the same time, the Administration Manager's sense of their effectiveness may emanate from staying true to their ideological values system. This draws attention toward how an Administration Manager can attempt to create and sustain the status of being an effective follower, while enacting leader-centred change in a highly political operating environment.

Chapter 7: Research Findings (Successful Upward Influence)

This chapter and the next is concerned with highlighting the key themes that this empirical research uncovered. It provides empirical examples focusing on lived experiences of successful upward influence and associated meaning for participants. Aspects of the lived experience are categorised by the key themes, and the sub-themes are representative of meaning as the essences of the followership phenomenon for research subjects. The movements between experiences and meaning is the foundation upon which these findings emerge from the research data. For the purposes of this study the findings also present rationalisation and attitudinal data to help to contextualise the meaning of the experiences of research subjects.

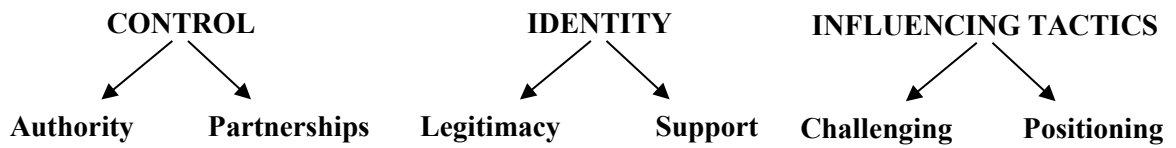
7.1 Analysing the Research Data

Structuring the volume of data renders it meaningful concerning the research questions, and manageable in terms of the research design. The main task is identifying the criticality of outcomes to address the research questions. In practical terms this means capturing the context by which specific experiences of followership occur. Here the researcher looks beyond solely human psychology to explain the dynamic between leaders and followers, enhancing our knowledge of the phenomenon in sociological terms (Berger and Luckmann, 1991). Underpinning this approach is the view that experiences are inextricably bound by context, evident in the way they exist and in how they are open to interpretation. Subsequently, experiences do not exist in and of themselves. Accordingly there is a heightened confidence in research subjects to tell the truth, including how they relate to their own experiences, revealing meaning in their actions, reactions, or thought processes. The data presents instances where participants lower their defences, beyond protecting their socially presented selves (Ashworth,

1993), to candidly reveal their experiences of followership. What this emphasises is the view that each participant has lived experience that is valid to them as their lived reality, independent of the views or experiences of others. These findings show that many of these experiences are shared by specific groupings, revealing how they have collectively made sense of their social world (Schutz, 1967).

The value of the phenomenological approach is revealing what meanings stem from research subjects' experiences of followership via phenomenological reduction. Moustakas (1994) explains this as "describing in textual language just what one sees, not only in terms of the external object but also the internal act of consciousness" (p.90). The underlying process involves six stages (i.e. bracketing, horizontalisation, clustering, imaginative variation, integrating fundamental and textual structure descriptions, and producing a unified statement of the phenomenon). The first stage is about maintaining the focus of the research by 'bracketing', which involves extracting from the transcripts only that which is relevant to the topic and research questions (Moustakas, 1994). The researcher disregards all other data to gain a clearer understanding of the meaning and to obtain sound knowledge. This stage produced 1132 extracts. The horizontalisation process helped develop the invariant constituents of the phenomenon. These are the core elements of the phenomenon as meaning units that are non-repetitive and clustered into themes. All expressions are given equal weighting to explore meanings. Subsequently, where horizontalisation takes place, these extracts are invariant constituents of upward influence associated with followership. Hence the findings section is divided into three sections covering the key themes of control, identity, and influence tactics as the method used to categorise units of meanings represented in this study as six sub-themes.

Figure 13: Key Themes and Sub-Themes



The key themes are prominent in critical literature as a contemporary means of better understanding the leader-follower dynamic. They are also discreetly embedded in early descriptive and prescriptive notions of being an effective follower in an organisational setting. The sub-themes emerged from data systematically obtained through this social research. The usefulness of these themes is in assisting with exploring integral social relationships and the contextual factors, which affect individual's lives to better understand the behaviour of groups (Crooks, 2001). Both Academic Leaders and Administration Managers are revealing how they act by the meaning they attach to things through social interaction, and which they modify through an interpretive process (Blumer, 1969). Having established these sub-themes, it was possible to reveal horizons in the clusters. What this does is emphasise statements that illustrate wider patterns and dynamics (i.e. experienced by all individuals) as core to the experience. Here there is an association with social phenomenology, specifically how the collective socially construct their reality (Schutz, 1967).

The nature of these experiences (i.e. personal, relational, behavioural, and contextual) informs how they are clustered. Subsequently, all associated meanings fall into topic headings within each sub-theme, revealing how participants come to know the phenomenon, and how this translates into meaning to develop a textural description of the phenomenon. Undertaking interviews with both the Academic Leader (AL) and the

Administration Manager (AM) assists in the imaginative variation process. Here the search for possible meanings is enhanced by considering varying frames of reference, accounting for different perspectives and vantage points (Moustakas, 1994). Rigour and trustworthiness are assured by presenting examples and quotations from the data, making transparent the evidence base for any analytical claims (Smith et al., 2009). Finally, a unified statement of the phenomenon is developed by integrating the essential textural and structural descriptions (Moustakas, 1994). This unified statement brings the reader into a closer relationship with the phenomenon (Halling, 2002). So documenting, describing and analysing the influence strategies of AMs for the reader. The reader can then evaluate the vividness, accuracy, richness, and elegance of phenomenological accounts (Polkinghorne, 1983). This evaluation process determines how the reader views and relates to the AM's world, but in a new and deeper way through their own sense of reality.

7.2 Key Theme - Control

The theme of 'control' refers to the use of social power in influencing behaviour or determining the course of events. The nuances of control are evident when considering its meaning as authority, or meaning when working in partnership. Extracting and clustering data into this theme elicited 419 extracts (i.e. 190 from Academic Leaders and 229 from Administration Managers), of which 249 extracts account for experiences of successful upward influence (i.e. 97 from Academic Leaders and 152 from Administration Managers). A detailed analysis of interviewee responses emerges once the data is categorised into topics of discussion under each sub-theme.

7.2.1 Sub-theme – Authority

‘Authority’ is the first sub-theme under the key theme of ‘control’, referring to the greater source of political and administrative power and control in the organisational setting. This sub-theme consists of 64 extracts (i.e. 20 from Academic Leaders (AL) and 44 from Administration Managers (AM)) as experiences of successful upward influence. Three significant findings in this sub-theme underpin why the experiences of participants were favourable. The follower (AM) engaging in the act of making a strategic contribution at the highest level locally. The follower (AM) indirectly influencing upwards. The leader’s (AL’s) reliance on the follower’s (AM’s) expert or situational knowledge.

Making a high-level strategic contribution that adds value was described as a structural expectation (i.e. followers are expected to demonstrate value to their leader by virtue of the organisation’s hierarchy) (AM5). This was described as demonstrating worth by not encroaching on matters without the required knowledge to do so, but also being proactive and using detailed evidence (AM16). Confidence is reportedly enhanced when taking care of how upward flows of information are managed and then observing how this information is used appropriately by the leader (AM5). Another experience is described as being seen to support the leader and focusing on the leader’s priorities by taking some ownership of these in everyday practice (AM9, AM12). Ultimately, the AM can then possess greater authority by having their voice heard at the highest level in their organisational unit as an equal:

“I think I am able to upwardly influence, and I think that’s the point, I’m able to engage in discussion and debate, I’m on the Faculty Executive Group and feel very much an equal member of that Faculty Executive Group. ... I feel my voice is equally heard as anybody else. It is not a case of ‘oh well that is only administration’.”

(Administration Manager No.8, September 2014)

“...we’ve got about 10 people on the senior management team and the Admin Manager I would say has been an important, an influential person within that.”

(Academic Leader No.5, September 2014)

The experience of making high-level strategic contributions is described as extending to tactical exchanges with the AL. AMs explain such experiences as seeding an idea (AM7), appealing to the leader’s preferences (AM15), optimising formal and informal opportunities to exchange views (AM15), and sharing responsibility for undertaking unfavourable tasks (AM4). Subsequently the AM, as a follower, relates to being positively evaluated by the AL eliciting a heightened level of leader support and ultimately obtaining more authority as a direct consequence (AL5, AL14). The AL’s backing is described as so significant that without it the job of AM is deemed to be almost impossible to perform effectively (AM17, AM7).

“...he works much better if you can kind of bring him round so it’s his idea or his view as opposed to telling him, you know, he needs to articulate it in his thinking, he needs to come to that position, so sometimes seeding an

idea ... you kind of talk about issues and challenges and then other people will talk about those, and then it will start to percolate up.”

(Administration Manager No.7, September 2014)

“I think the informal, making a cup of coffee conversations, so the fact that I tend to be an early person, the Dean tends to be an early person ... if there is anything on the Dean’s mind, any problems then that’s the time he will have a chat about it and it is also the time vice versa that if there’s things that I want to raise then I’d just mention it...”

(Administration Manager No.9, September 2014)

The data reveals that AMs describe a shared experience of drawing on enablers in the working environment to augment their upward influence and derive authority. Consequently, as followers, AMs can experience having an indirect influence by drawing on sources of what they understand as power outside their leader’s (AL) control. Such acts are described as manipulating organisational interventions or organisational culture (AM17) to enhance the standing of administration (AM10). Here AMs describe how this happens through tactical use of networks as a key source information (AM9) and discreetly putting downward pressure on the leader by utilising the greater formal authority of others (AM1, AM3). The overall effect is the AM’s greater autonomy to hold influence. Interestingly, ALs could only describe experiences of direct influence suggesting a heightened consciousness amongst followers when considering various types of upward influence as tactical manoeuvring.

“Sometimes it is a slightly more circuitous kind of, dare I say Machiavellian route whereby sometimes if I want to influence the Head of School I might actually work with College rather than me doing it directly ... so sometimes influence comes from say a quiet word from say people in College or a quiet word with people in University committees which then eventually reaches the Head of School through different means.”

(Administration Manager No.3, August 2014)

“I think it makes it sound a bit more calculating then maybe it is, or its maybe that I do it subconsciously, but you know I start to think well it’s this issue, who are the key players, who do I know who knows them more and has their ear and trust and can I go and drop a word in their ear and know that it will sort of filter through.”

(Administration Manager No.1, July 2014)

There are many examples in the data of ALs’ describing their experiences of a heavy reliance on the skills and knowledge of the incumbent in the AM role including their internal networks, such as central services departments and experts in other academic departments. Underpinning this is how AMs experience deriving authority from their professional expertise (AL3, AM5), institutional memory (AM14, AL15), knowledge of processes and systems (AL14), and capacity to hold the business together (AL14). The effect for the AM is pronounced as more opportunities to have their opinions acknowledged and enacted.

*“...although we’ve got a school Finance Manager I think *****’s finance background also enables us to plan very strategically...”*

(Academic Leader No.3, September 2014)

“...let’s say you get someone coming into my role and they’ve come in from another University, you know they will know their academic stuff well ... they won’t know the minutiae of the academic regulations in the University, they won’t know necessarily some of the QA procedures and that kind of thing, and just how we do things, and they need somebody to be able to...well take control of that....”

(Academic Leader No.14, December 2014)

“...it’s that again expert power of financial knowledge and expertise or the approach to things put forward to the Academic Leader at the right time, on the right subject with relevant objective information can be a powerful tool.”

(Administration Manager No.5, September 2014)

7.2.2 Sub-theme Partnership

The second sub-theme under the key theme of ‘control’ is ‘partnership’, referring to the very nature of the relationship between the leader and follower. The extent that the relationship is experienced as symbiotic defines how significant and material the level of control is between the two parties. This sub-theme consists of 185 extracts (i.e. 77 from Academic Leaders (AL) and 108 from Administration Managers (AM)). The data reveals that the experience and subsequent meaning of a partnership, between the AL

and AM, arises from closeness, having complementary strengths, and positive recognition of each other's ability.

Both the AL and AM describe a strong sense of closeness, frequently referred to as a 'bond' (AL15) or experienced as a 'friendship' (AL10, AM4). Such closeness derives from an acknowledgement of similarities in terms of professional experiences and personal values (AM7, AM5, AL11). Closeness becomes apparent when experiencing tactical huddling as a protection mechanism against perceived threats in the organisational environment (AM11, AM7, AM3). Subsequently, a benefit of closeness is a heightened level of support exchanged between the AL and AM (AM9, AM17, AM14). Where this support is deemed sufficiently high by either party, the experience is of disregarding relational asymmetry (AM14, AL3, AM6). The most common experiences are a feeling of mutual trust and respect that increase over time, becoming implicit in the AM-AL relationship (AM8, AL8, AL12, AL14, AM4). The effect on the relationship is described as an enhanced confidence and accepting of each other's advice (AL12, AM16, AM12, AL1). An enhanced trust and respect in the relationship underpins the degree of honesty and openness between the AM and AL, frequently experienced in their close relationship as sense checking the environment or critiquing each other's practices and perceptions (AM4, AL8, AL3, AL17). An enhanced closeness also means for them that they can share their innermost feelings and sensitive information confidentially, benefiting from being in a mutually influencing relationship (AL8, AL3, AL14, AL13, AM12, AM6, AM4, AM5, AM8, AM2, AM7).

The effect of closeness is described as enhancing the AM's capacity to influence upwards and occasionally challenge the leader (AM5, AM10). Underpinning this effect

is a shared sense of responsibility and purpose, and acknowledging the value of shared decision making, partnership working, and collective responsibility (AL1, AL13, AL11, AL18, AL12). These factors render the leader as more receptive by seeing less need for the AM to work harder to influence them, empowering the AM to act, and offering greater access to the leader on a personal level (AL15 AL11, AM7). One respondent even reported being too close and too influential with their AL, creating tensions on the periphery of their partnership (AM3).

“...we worked together very closely, we worked together too closely. ...as soon as we both took up post all of the folk who wanted stuff but couldn’t get it from the previous postholders would all of a sudden kind of mob you to try and get what they wanted ...this pushed to two of us into a kind of defensive huddle, where it really was just the two of us, which then kind of meant that we were much less open to listening to other people to consulting more broadly communicating more effectively with the school with all kinds of, you know, negative consequences thereafter.”

(Administration Manager No.3, August 2014)

“...it’s about a very very close professional working relationship that is akin to a friendship and I think that is the different thing about academia. ... it is something that is very special to higher education, that level of relationship begins with developing personal trust and a personal bond and then you move on to the next stage...”

(Administration Manager No.4, September 2014)

“...I would say that probably he’s the person who I talk to most and whose opinions I value about particularly around strategic direction and stuff like that, probably more even than say the Associate Dean for Research, so I see him as my, almost my kind of right-hand person...”

(Academic Leader No.3, September 2014)

*“...I kind of, provide a, a safe place really, because I’m not an academic, I don’t get pulled into the fights and power plays and those sorts of things, and, the way **** and I work, he’ll often sit and chat and talk through things and it’s all obviously confidential ...I think that’s quite a difficult line to tread at times because, you know, you have to kind of say OK I’ve got my own interests here but at the end of the day if I don’t provide balanced and sensible counsel then my credibility is undermined...”*

(Administration Manager No.7, September 2014)

“...there is a collective responsibility and it’s a very important element of it, and it’s an ever-important element in the relationship between me as Dean and the Faculty Manager, that there may be things that I have to defend because I know they are in the best interests of the Faculty but I know they are controversial and so on, and equally the other way round that my Faculty Manager has to implement decisions within the administration or wherever which may be unpopular but that’s part of the collective responsibility....”

(Academic Leader No.15, December 2014)

“... I would manage the external relationships to achieve what we’re trying to achieve, whereas the Faculty Manager would be managing the internal functioning to make sure we were going in the direction we wanted to go. So the issue there is... the most Senior Manager I would see as a colleague rather than somebody who had to upward influence me. It’s more a level relationship rather than an upward relationship.”

(Academic Leader No.11, November 2014)

The AL and AM work in partnership by complementing each other’s role. They describe the benefits of combining their different skill sets (AL10, AM10, AM1) and experience of relating to similar personalities, to create a mutually better outcome for their organisational unit, whereby they do not individually feel compromised (AL3, AM16, AM5, AM8). Both parties understand what it means working as a team by individually adapting and learning from each other (AL9, AM13, AL8, AM14), having the effect of being upwardly influential (AM11). This capacity to adapt is prominent in the AMs’ consciousness because they describe expectations of adapting to different ALs who routinely enter and leave the role of Academic Head (AM17). What carries significant meaning for each party is ways in which they complement each other as a good basis for effective communication (AL14, AL13), guarding against invading one another’s territory (AL12, AM8, AL8, AL15), and leading to a reciprocal sense of responsibility for optimising effectiveness in their respective roles (AL6, AL3, AL15). The effect of complementing each other is captured via experiences of the AL as more accepting of the AM’s role as integral to the decision-making process, beyond merely following them and adhering to the organisation’s hierarchy (AL12, AL8).

“...he would sometimes see it from a very hard business point of view, and I think that’s where we balance each other... I will still take the decision at the end of the day, and I think he respects that, I bring to it a sort of leadership view but also an academic view ... he would see making an appointment there’s an element of risk with it because this CV looks very good, looks very promising, his concern is but we haven’t got the budget yet. I would say ‘yeah but I think it is worth taking the risk because I think this person will start paying for themselves fairly quickly’.”

(Academic Leader No.3, September 2014)

“We very quickly gained respect for each other, and there was an understanding of what we could bring to the party, that I had skills that she didn’t have and that she had skills and knowledge that I didn’t have, and there was an understanding that we would work together...”

(Administration Manager No.10, September 2014)

The last findings associated with ‘partnership’ are experiences of ALs and AMs describing the feeling of recognising and admiring a heightened ability or status in each other (AM6, AL5). Where this enhances the AM’s standing in the AL’s view, there is a greater upward influencing effect (AM6). Subsequently, this holds meaning for some AMs as to what extent they feel empowered by their leader (AM7, AM17, AM16). What makes a significant difference is the AM having credibility associated with the qualities they possess, what they do and how they do it, which they bring to the followership role, eliciting the leader’s respect and admiration (AL3, AL10, AL1, AL12). The effect of recognising the AM’s ability as vitally important to the overall

effectiveness of the partnership is the felt experience of been seen as equally important to the leader (AL12, AM12). Subsequently, this translates into feeling assured of the leader's support (AM8), having strategic input (AM4), and being acknowledged as a leader in their own right (AL12). Ultimately, being respected and having credibility in the view of the leader (AL5, AM3, AM14) gives the AM greater confidence (AM8).

“...this is all kind of how he views a safe pair of hands ...one of the first things he did was he was very supportive of a unitary admin structure. ... I took that as a kind of a compliment. ...he very much subscribed to the idea that the Director of Administration will have to be that so I took that as a kind of personal confidence.”

(Administration Manager No.17, December 2014)

“I think the quality of the Administrator, has a major impact on how receptive I am. ... So they are as passionate about the research ratings as they are about the admin costs in a school or university or whatever. You know, do they get the big picture in the same way, you know so if they are a kindred spirit.”

(Academic Leader No.1, August 2014)

“...in terms of helping the Faculty run smoothly and attending to the day-to-day business and the administration and dealing with some of the issues and the problems, you know categorically I couldn't have done the job without her, and I felt very much that she was a co-equal ... I've said to

her on more than one occasion, you know, you could do the job as well as me, you could be the Dean...”

(Academic Leader No.12, November 2014)

7.3 Key Theme - Identity

The second key theme is ‘identity’, which refers to the qualities, beliefs and expressions that make a person (self-identity) or group (particular category or social group). A sociological approach to identity is used to understand the self and its parts (identities) better, and the society in which the self acts and other selves exist in a given context. Extracting and clustering data associated with identity produced 162 extracts focusing on participants’ experiences of successful upward influence (i.e. 71 from Academic Leaders and 91 from Administration Managers). A more detailed analysis of these extracts features under each sub-theme.

7.3.1 Sub-theme – Legitimacy

The first sub-theme under the key theme of ‘identity’ is ‘legitimacy’, which refers to the right to exercise authority and social power in an organisation by a person or group which requires obedience. Accordingly, this encompasses support for the exercise of authority and power of a person or group to do this. This sub-theme consists of 69 extracts (i.e. 28 from Academic Leaders (AL) and 41 from Administration Managers (AM)) relating to experiences of successful upward influence.

Many AL experiences relate to how they identify with what it means to be an effective leader, and the ethical dimension of leadership relative to their role, both factors defining their relationship with the AM (AL10, AL1, AL6, AL8, AL16, AL12). These

experiences allude to how ALs are influenced by an expectation that they should be receptive to the AM's viewpoint (AL14, AL9). ALs, see fairness as balancing their authority as the formal leader with a duty to ensure others have an influence too and are professionally respected (AL7, AL8). ALs' describe their receptiveness as eliciting the conscious act of listening to others opinions and the effect of empowering AMs (AL4, AL9). There is a respect for the AM's background and persona experienced directly or indirectly, which holds meaning for how ALs come to value the person in the role (AL3, AL12). ALs self-identify with closeness to their AMs informing how they value the AM's contribution, demonstrate concern for the AM, and increase their appreciation for the AM's different perspectives even if that means compromising (AL10, AL15, AL4, AL18, AL13). What this suggests is that ALs legitimise their leadership effectiveness by acknowledging the AM's right to have some upward influence.

"...I think it's really important that you listen to the voices from below because they often know what's going on more than you do. ...I think their role is really to maybe make you aware of things. I think in return you have to empower them to feel comfortable and confident that they can actually bring things to you and raise things in a way to help inform you, so I think that's really important."

(Academic Leader No.9, October 2014)

"...therefore my role is to kind of liberate them to be able to think a little bit about how to improve the process ... I want those people to use their own knowledge and skills to make that process better and then that all aggregates up to how the School is doing in the long term."

(Academic Leader No.6, September 2014)

Similar to ALs identifying with their effectiveness by displaying receptive and ethical leadership, AMs identify with effectiveness in their followership role by being an influencer. AMs legitimise their followership role via their academic credentials, background experience, professional skill set, corporate memory, and learned capacity to navigate the political terrain (AM4, AM6, AM1, AM15, AM9, AM5, AM17, AM3). These factors equip them with greater confidence to upwardly influence (AM15, AM12). The experiences of AMs in legitimising their upward influence attempts reveals that they formulate a followership identity around being; adaptive to change, solutions driven, having externality, dealing competently with complex and highly political matters, and ensuring the smooth running of all functions within their remit (AM9, AM17, AM14, AM11, AM7, AM16, AM5).

AMs describe monitoring the appropriateness of their followership identity through stored experiences of interactions with the AL, whereby their leader's reactions have a richness in term of meaning used to indicate what their role is designed to do (AM12, AM4, AM10, AM11, AM2, AM3, AM11, AM8). An ethical dimension is described as a motivating factor for AMs and legitimises how they undertake their role, which has an upward influencing effect. Specifically, a sense of duty to be fair, doing the right thing, making a difference, taking a broad view of effectiveness, accepting personal responsibility for their business unit's success, and a genuine concern for people informing everything they do (AM6, AM8, AM14, AM3). What this suggests is that AMs as followers and ALs as leaders need to feel legitimate in their role to be effective, building their identity on their respective beliefs informed by socially conditioned behaviours relative to each other, facilitating bi-directional flows of influence.

“... my academic credentials, my academic background stands one in great stead with the academic staff because when I am tackling them on learning and teaching issues or research issues they find it very difficult to dismiss my opinions... So in some senses that has probably given me more influence than a lot of my colleagues.”

(Administration Manager No.1, July 2014)

*“...I suppose in some ways you have got to understand the background I come from, as to why I feel comfortable doing that, and then also the other side of the coin is that *****’s a personality that can accept that as well. ... I’ve had jobs where I’ve had to provide both leadership and followership... I suspect others who would come to this job in a more junior capacity...”*

(Administration Manager No.12, October 2014)

“Every time a new manager comes, a new Head of School comes in or there’s a new initiative it’s ... and a structure ... it’s like building yourself a new job, I now look after this, I now have responsibility for that. ... I think that’s proof of my effectiveness when you’re asked by an Institution to take the lead on Institutional matters. ...so I think that’s extremely important to my ability to influence upwards...”

(Administration Manager No.17, December 2014)

7.3.2 Sub-theme – Support

The second sub-theme under the key theme of ‘identity’ is ‘support’, referring to the extent to which identity can define agreement and encouragement to succeed in the leader-follower relationship. This includes instances of emotional and/or practical support to provide the right conditions for either or both parties to prosper. This sub-theme consists of 93 extracts (i.e. 43 from Academic Leaders (AL) and 50 from Administration Managers (AM)) relating to experiences of successful upward influence.

Three significant findings in this sub-theme underpin why the experiences of participants were favourable. Many AL experiences relate to identifying with the support they offer AMs via an emotional connection, aligning with the AMs’ motives and shared values. Mutual recognition of professionalism elicits an enhanced level of support. ALs and AMs experience the benefits of support exchanges, fostering a greater mutual appreciation of bi-directional influence in the leader-follower relationship.

In terms of an emotional connection, AMs describe being motivated by the greater good as opposed to self-interest, particularly apparent where the AM identifies with academic values (AL14, AL17, AM8, AM13). ALs acknowledge this as an emotional bonding that enhances the AM’s upward influence (AL8, AL7, AM13, AL11). AMs adopt this approach to show they care beyond financial rewards by making a difference, knowing where their loyalty lies in the organisation, and demonstrating their commitment (AL5, AM15, AM11, AM17, AM14, AM1). Such experiences highlight the significance of shared values, honesty, and trust in the AL-AM relationship, whereby the AL is likely

to experience a compulsion to confidently support their AM even in challenging circumstances (AL11, AL7, AL8, AL13).

“I mean to be fair he’s a company man, so he’s very signed up to what the KPI’s, not in a blind obedience way ... he’s not somebody who tries to influence for his own benefit in any way, but he does seem to have at heart, he will try and influence things always within the context of the vision and strategy. So whilst us academics might be waffling about various things he will bring that side of things to say ‘how will it advance us’, ‘how will it bring in more research income’, ‘how will it improve student satisfaction’.”

(Academic Leader No.8, October 2014)

“We all have elements that we bat for ourselves, batting for myself would be him agreeing for me to go on a conference, that’s something for me but it shows me how much he trusts and values me. I don’t really have to ask him I just book it and I say I’ve done this. So, you know, I’m here for the good of the School ...I’m not going go on 7 conferences...”

(Administration Manager No.14, October 2014)

Support is enhanced where ALs describe recognising the AM’s professionalism as aligning with their sense of professionalism, so satisfying an expectation that their professional identities will closely align (AL13). ALs describe experiencing admiration for what the AM has achieved in meeting their expectations and contributing to the organisational unit (AL6, AL14, AL13, AM17, AL1, AL12). Such expectations are aligned with AMs experiencing a desire to have more autonomy and greater influence

as a matter of personal and professional pride (AL12, AM2, AM8, AM17). At its best the relationship operates on a common understanding; decisions are made without the leader's input, and the follower is motivated by having the leader's confidence without consistently having to seek approval (AL7, AM6). Accordingly, downward support carries meaning as an endorsement of the AM's professionalism, and upward influence is a matter of personal pride, holding significant meaning for the AM's effectiveness in their followership role (AM4, AM5). The manifestation of this effect is the experience of finding an acceptable fit via identity adaptation between the academic and administrative aspects of the followership role, and impartially representing both local and corporate interests (AM8, AM10, AM17).

"...I think there's a higher level of being which is really about people's loyalty to the organisation and their own professionalism ...it's the little bits of discretionary stuff that I think makes the difference and for people to think, to come in on a Monday and say 'I was thinking about that problem a bit over the weekend and I think if we did this'. Right, when that starts to happen, then you realise people have bought into the organisation a bit and they are taking pride in it, and they feel they are contributing to our overall mission of improving quality..."

(Academic Leader No.6, September 2014)

"... if I had fallen into the trap of doing exactly what the Senior Administrator had done before then I wouldn't have been able to do my job effectively, I wouldn't have been able to influence what happened and I would have just ended up doing what I'd been told to do which wasn't why I was here, and so I suppose in some respects that's why I was chosen

because my background and what I had done before and sort of the person I am and the support of the Head of Department because she knew what needed to be done...”.

(Administration Manager No.10, September 2014)

*“...if we were going to recruit someone, or someone had left, and we were renewing I would have to go and check, you know, run over the rationale for replacing someone with my Head of School. The first time I did that ***** looked at me like I was mad. Why are you asking me? Is it in the template? Yes. Do you need the job? Yeah. Well, off you go and do it. ... I’m working with a lot more autonomy, and I’m learning to look for that autonomy and learning to work out where I need to inform and consult with my Head of School and where I don’t...”*

(Administration Manager No.17, December 2014)

ALs and AMs alike describe experiencing the benefits of receiving downward support. Such experiences engender a greater awareness of why mutual support is salient in enhancing individual performance and offering some protection from unfavourable consequences (AL9, AL10, AM8, AM5, AL14, AL12, AM14, AM6, AM17, AM14). Hence, there is a recognised need to offer downward support to motivate AMs, acknowledging that for the AL this is equally about being appropriately receptive to upward influence and offering guidance/direction (AL9, AL13, AM11, AM13, AM5, AM7, AL11, AM12, AM17, AM2). The effect is a blurring of boundaries between the relative superiority of individuals in leader and follower roles.

“She’s certainly tried to make me a bit more proactive getting PDR’s done or seeing that they get done, including her own ...in a sense of watching my back and, making sure I got things done when I was supposed to be getting them done has been an important part of my...an important part of her job.”

(Academic Leader No.12, November 2014)

“...she did ask for a lot of advice at that stage which was good. It’s probably flipped now, we’ve probably worked together so long now it’s flipped, she’s been on a coaching course, when we are going into big meetings I do feel I’m coached ...so we’ve gone through that kind of switching of roles which has been good.”

(Academic Leader No.13, December 2014)

*“I’ve managed to secure additional staff members and so on. So I think most of what I’ve set out to do I’ve delivered and I think the case in point once again *****’s a very logical individual and by securing those additional resources, I think that’s buying into my vision of the support team.”*

(Administration Manager No.17, December 2014)

7.4 Key Theme – Influencing Tactics

The third key theme ‘influencing tactics’ refer to an action or strategy carefully planned to enhance an individual’s capacity to affect the character, development, or behaviour of someone or something. This key theme draws attention to how the AM can enhance

their capacity, as a follower, to influence their AL, as the leader, to achieve the AM's desired outcome. When extracting and clustering data relevant to this key theme, there were 267 extracts (i.e. 121 from Academic Leaders and 146 from Administration Managers) relating to experiences of successful upward influence. A more detailed analysis of this data appears under each sub-theme.

7.4.1 Sub-theme – Challenging

The first sub-theme under the key theme of 'influencing tactics' is 'challenging', which refers to the act of proving or justifying something, or disputing the truth or validity of something. Here challenging specifically refers to the meaning attached to experiences of the AM's approaches when challenging the AL's ideas, beliefs, actions, and views on a particular matter. Such acts can be associated with resistance, friction, and opposition. This sub-theme consists of 102 extracts (i.e. 57 from Academic Leaders (AL) and 45 from Administration Managers (AM)) relating to experiences of successful upward influence. This sub-theme presents four significant findings. The AL's receptivity to being challenged, the AL's tendency to encourage challenging of their ideas, beliefs, actions, and views by others, how the AM views the act of challenging the leader, and finally tactics which have proven to be effective.

The AL's receptivity to upward influence is a key finding, and a significant number of ALs have described preferences for what are appropriate ways to challenge them (AL6, AL1, AL4, AL10). Favourable experiences of being challenged in the right way resonate with ALs and inform their level of receptivity to their AM's approaches (AL6, AL16, AL13, AL5, AL12, AL9, AL17). Consequently, this heightened receptivity can be attributed to the type of followership the AM demonstrates or represents to be deemed

effective in their role. Specifically, bravery in approaching the AL, being tactical in pre-determining an approach, being evidence-based, and subtly engaging when interacting (AL17, AL10, AL11).

“If I don’t really know why something’s been done, particularly I intrinsically don’t like the idea then I’m not comfortable, so I think that model works well when people are just prepared to bat their corner and explain why things are done the way they are ... I guess that’s about not having too much blind followership and a willingness where necessary to stand up and tell people actually, you know we’re not doing this the best way, and if we did X, we would be functioning well.”

(Academic Leader No.6, September 2014)

“I always like people that can give examples, and this is where experience is important, so if somebody is proposing to make a change then it’s always good if there is some evidence to sort of back it up. ...a systematic rationale for why something is a sensible thing to do. I always like people to think of what the downside of doing something could be as well as what the upside...”

(Academic Leader No.16, February 2015)

Several ALs describe the experience of being open to their AM’s challenge and actively encouraging this sort of behaviour (AL14, AM14). ALs are motivated by instilling confidence in their AM to speak up (AL9). This openness carries meaning in terms of acknowledging the AM as significant in the management team (AL4) and respecting

the incumbent in the AM role (AL13). It also demonstrates that the AL is prepared to listen and keep an open mind (AL2, AL18, AL9). Here ALs can experience acting on what they see as good productive leader-follower dynamics, enhancing the leadership process to deliver better decision making (AL11, AL2). What this suggests is that these ALs are more likely to acknowledge leadership as a two-way influencing process, and want to facilitate this approach. They recognise that leaders are not always the driving forces and acknowledging people need to feel listened to and heard (AL12, AL14).

“I think you’ve got to try and instil the confidence in people that they have in you to come with almost anything. It’s not always easy and obviously some of our hierarchical structures that we tend to have sometimes work against that, but no I think it’s essential that you have a kind of very good two way relationship and not just having sheep following regardless and not being willing to voice their concerns, or their own ideas or whatever. I think it’s really important because they’re the ones that are down at that level doing the job and often know more than you do....”

(Academic Leader No.9, October 2014)

“...one factor is knowing, seeing, having seen that not being receptive, and not giving the impression of being receptive can be counter-productive. ...we had a clash between an Academic and a Secretarial colleague ...I think one of the things that she was so upset about in that case was a sense that she wasn’t being listened to.”

(Academic Leader No.18, February 2015)

AMs' experiences reveal that the AM's outlook is significant whereby they have a preparedness to speak out to authority (AM11, AM14) This encompasses viewing challenging as a legitimate function of their followership role (AM10, AM5), and knowing to time their challenges for maximum impact (AM4). This outlook is motivated by greater job satisfaction when AM views are accepted by ALs (AM10). This is described as determining how AMs interact with ALs, drawing on their notions of power to augment their capacity to upwardly challenge and hold influence with the AL (AM10, AM16, AM12, AM7). The AM's outlook reportedly derives from a positive learning experience, reflected upon to arrive at a view on the appropriateness of their actions when challenging the leader (AM1, AM2, AM8, AM3). What this suggests is that a central consideration underpins AMs' experiences of effective followership; the right balance between when and how to challenge and to reflect on favourable outcomes while coping appropriately with unfavourable outcomes by openly being accepting of formal authority.

"... 'your ability to influence is directly related to people's perceptions of your ability to help them achieve their goals', I do think that's absolutely true. I think therefore whatever and whoever you are seeking to influence you have to set it in a way that they can see it is helping them get where they want and to achieve things."

(Administration Manager No.7, September 2014)

"... 'you fight the battles that you can win', and always you can lose a battle but you can still win the war... when the Pro-Vice Chancellor says 'no', is it worth going back? Is that a battle worth fighting or actually do

you leave that and wait for the next one because the next one is more important. Similarly, do I feel strongly enough that perhaps I think he's wrong, in which case I will go back and re-challenge. But again in followership, you have to understand there comes a point when you have to say "I've said my piece, and I'm gonna stop there..."

(Administration Manager No.12, October 2014)

AMs' experiences reveal that they draw on a range of tactics when interacting with their AL to optimise their challenges. Such experiences are a conscious effort to think through the best approach (AM14, AM16, AM10, AM8, AM17), refining the approach by reflecting and adapting (AM7, AM14, AM3, AM15, AM4, AM1, AM8). This innermost personal evaluation process reportedly determines whether to opt for openness and transparency or more covert methods (AM8, AM13). AMs describe being mindful of timing and opportunities to access the leader (AM6, AM17, AM2), acknowledging that followership can be highly political (AL11). ALs' experiences expose how they can be oblivious of these tactical approaches, despite their frequent use by AMs. ALs tend to experience a heightened awareness of their AM's tactical approaches when other academic colleagues become involved (AL13, AM14, AM2, AM17) to intensify the AM's alternative viewpoint and subsequent challenge.

"... a certain member of Academic staff, he had thoughts to put them into a certain type of role, and I questioned the viability of that for a number of reasons. I talked to him about it, and I could see he was listening and he understood what I was saying, but I didn't feel that my message had been fully understood. So I went and talked to the Deputy Director ...I knew she

was on the same page as me on this particular issue, so I said I would really appreciate it if you could have a talk to him about it to see whether you can come from it may be at a different angle. ...being an Academic, there's a different relationship there, and she did, and we got the achieved result".

(Administration Manager No.14, October 2014)

"...if the Dean doesn't agree with the proposals or the ideas, its taking that on board and then having a discussion/debate/dialogue to see whether there's are particular reason for that, whether it's for this moment in time that he doesn't believe in that aspect or whether there's things that could be accommodated or could be delivered or we could make some changes as a compromise position, or is there alternative solutions or is it not the right time and to go back and present it in a different way ... different Academic Leaders respond to different things in different ways, for some, it's by conversation, others it's with data and reporting, some like the outside view and you've got all that information to how that could work, so it's trying different approaches..."

(Administration Manager No.2, July 2014)

"...people are probably most effective in influencing me when they use a variety of techniques ...if I relay those techniques to you what it is probably telling you more about is me and my personality as a Leader than it is about them, except that it is also telling you they're perceptive."

(Academic Leader No.11, November 2014)

7.4.2 Sub-theme – Positioning

The second sub-theme under the key theme of ‘influencing tactics’ is ‘positioning’, referring to the relative positioning of leaders and followers in a given context. This incorporates associated changes in position that impact on the level of influence one has on the other. Subsequently, of interest are AMs’ experiences of the augmentation of their upward influence, and how this impacts upon their relational position to the AL. This sub-theme consists of 165 extracts (i.e. 64 from Academic Leaders (AL) and 101 from Administration Managers (AM)) as experiences of successful upward influence. Three significant findings in this sub-theme underpin why the experiences of participants were favourable. Tactical changes in follower’s (AM’s) behaviour to increase AL receptivity to their upward influence. The acknowledgement of power bases relative to each role and drawing on these to influence upwards. Finally, contextual factors that assist the AM’s upward influence.

AMs describe the experience of drawing on a range of tactics to manoeuvre their leader into a position of greater receptivity to their upward influence (AL18, AM14, AM16, AM8, AM5, AM6, AM17). These tactics tend to be subtle, but prove to be effective (i.e. use of timing, seeding ideas, carefully selecting supporting evidence, eliciting wider support, using tactical foresight, playing down unfavourable outcomes, and delivering quick wins). Here some ALs experience acknowledging and being receptive to their AMs tactics making them more effective in their role (AL8, AL7, AL14, AL13, AM14, AM8). One respondent reports creating a perception of allowing themselves to be influenced as politically advantageous (AL15). Nevertheless, this suggests that positioning in the context of effective followership is having the awareness to draw on a range of tactics. The aim is to have a positive impact on the working relationship and

deliver a mutually acceptable outcome (AL16, AM11, AM4). AMs describe changing their patterns of behaviour and altering how they communicate based on their knowledge of their AL's preferences (AM10, AM3, AM4, AM6, AM11, AM13, AM17). Subsequently, AMs combine political mindedness with their personal qualities, to have greater upward influence with the AL and wider academic community (AM7, AM3, AM16, AM10, AM1, AM4, AM15, AM6, AM2, AM7, AM8). The effect is that AMs interact tactically with ALs to enhance their credibility and create a favourable impression that is then upwardly influential (AM15, AM11).

"...how you present arguments like a claim for additional resources that you have to understand how to make that bid when to make it more importantly. ... you play a longer game, and it's more subtle, and you'll drip feed an idea and to the extent you restructure, you kind of present a picture of where the problems are and what the School would look like unless we address this and what it would look like if we do address it and just keep, you keep advancing that narrative, and you consistently advance that narrative and eventually it permeates it and then you drip, drip, drip, drip and you present the evidence, you present a consistent story."

(Administration Manager No.17, December 2014)

"There are other ways of doing upward influence as well. ...the reality of life is that by its nature people are influenced not just by one individual, it's any number of people who will influence, and so you do sometimes have to understand that and ensure that you do stakeholder management very carefully because there is no point in turning up in Executive

presenting something that is required without having had the sense to understand where people may be in that particular issue ...so you do a little bit of understanding where people are coming from and what other arguments may be, what their positions are and then you would be picking that up and probably in advance... ”

(Administration Manager No.8, September 2014)

The AM's social power base is significant, given that ALs' experiences of AMs influencing with them stems from a source of unique individual power (i.e. interpersonal skills, systems knowledge, and managerial experience) and relational power (i.e. networks, contacts, and social standing). These factors position AMs as being influential in the AL-AM relationship (AL8, AL3, AL7, AL4, AL18, AL5, AL16, AL12, AL17, AL13). AMs describe their awareness of what gives them credibility (e.g. reliability, good advice, problem-solving), and it is this credibility which they experience as enhancing their position of influence (AM10, AM3, AM8). Some ALs even describe the experience of fear of losing a very effective AM, which suggests that substantial position power can emanate from effective followership (AL12, AL10, AL13). One respondent reports an alternative experience, viewing their power base as emanating from no pressure to be a careerist, meaning that there are no real consequences (AM13). However, this does not suggest that this respondent has heightened influence, only that low levels of influence are not a personal concern as a risk factor.

What the AMs' experiences generally shows is that social power bases facilitate their intervention outside their official remit, rationalising for them why they believe they are effective in their role (AM14, AM3, AM9, AM15, AM17). AMs' describe experiences

that show they effectively draw on their power bases to establish and cultivate their relationship with ALs (AL5, AL12, AL17, AM9). Here a distinction is made between the AM drawing on their power bases to self-position (AM14, AM16, AM10, AM3, AM4, AM5, AM6, AM9), as opposed to being positioned by the AL's sense of admiration for the AM's power base (AL12, AL15, AL9, AL13, AL10). The effect is that AMs' heightened credibility encourages ALs to have greater confidence, subsequently enhancing AMs' upward influence. Consequently, this association between confidence and upward influence intensifies if efforts are made to sustain this effect within the dyadic relationship (AL3, AM3, AM15, AM7, AM12).

*"I mean another thing that's happened here that maybe wouldn't have happened without *****'s influence, was building resilience in to the support structure... in the past we'd individuals who are very specific and good at what they did, but if they left there was no transfer of knowledge to other people, so setting up a kind of team structure where all our core support activities have more than one person who can do the job and understands what the job is has been a big benefit actually that I wouldn't have necessarily thought of on my own."*

(Academic Leader No.13, December 2014)

"...I think partly deriving from my control of the purse strings and from being the regulations expert and the person who has the links and contacts with other support staff, senior support staff in areas such as finance in the college office... and also through, through managing two of the four

support teams within the school, so I think influence flows directly from all of those aspects.

(Administration Manager No.3, August 2014)

“... I need to be in a situation when, whether he talks to another member of academic staff or the most junior modern apprentice out in departments, that they’re getting a good service or they are enjoying their jobs. ...people aren’t skipping down the corridors going ‘I love it’. But on the balance of things, that it’s more positive then it is negative. They’re things that build his confidence really, and if he doesn’t have confidence in me I’m doomed.”

(Administration Manager No.7, September 2014)

Some contextual factors are experienced as enhancing the upward influencing position of AMs. Both ALs and AMs describe experiencing similar challenges operating in a highly complex and political working environment (AL7, AL15, AM13, AM16). Accordingly, they acknowledge a need for skilled management and in-depth knowledge of administrative processes (AL1), enhanced by the longevity of the AM role in support of an often transient AL role (AL7). Key factors are reportedly the AM’s ability to sensitively navigate organisational politics, effectively access operational information, draw on an extensive network of internal contacts, exploit their systems expertise, and utilise their learned knowledge of how to appeal to certain academics by discipline (AL4, AL18, AL15, AM16, AM1). Contextual positioning is further enhanced where the AL observes that a shared understanding and an agreed approach is reliably brought in to practice by the AM (AL1, AM5, AM8).

The AM's position is enhanced where their knowledge of the wider context assists the AL in a better understanding of how this could negatively impact on their desired intent (AL15, AM4, AM2). ALs describe opportunities to compare administrative support across the organisation which can hold some meaning when trying to make sense of and evaluate the quality or appropriateness of local support services. These factors can directly impact on the AM's positioning and credibility (AL10). The AMs' capacity to engender a positive culture change to better support academic endeavours is informed by the design of the role, size of the support team, and the introduction of new support staff and admin systems. Such factors contribute to rationalising how the AM's position of influence can be contextually enhanced (AM6, AM13, AM17). The operating environment is alluded to as allowing the AM to take up various complementary roles as the situation demands (i.e. adjudicator, diplomat, sense maker), and if the AL observes these as flowing in a positive direction, the AM is better positioned to have greater upward influence (AM4, AM17, AL15).

"...the current main Secretary is very experienced. She has been here for I guess for 15 years at least, so she knows all the systems back to front and she knows when things need to be done, and she has a good grasp I think of the politics of some parts of the University actually and who to phone if you've got a problem in a particular area."

(Academic Leader No.18, February 2015)

"...the additional projects and initiatives that either I've brought in or fellow Faculty Managers have brought in for the good of the Faculty have kind of stood the test of time really, and I think it's that approach to work

that has really brought us in overtime and given us that more strategic influence with the Deans as a collective... I think you need that sponsorship whatever you do. I think you need sponsors whether that's by your staff, erm your actual members for advice, School Managers, endorsing me to Academic Leaders, or whether it's the boss, Academic Registrar, endorsing you, or other academics saying 'that person got that done... As you know, academic colleagues tend to listen to academic colleagues so if you can get there support and buy in your much more likely to succeed.'"

(Administration Manager No.2, July 2014)

7.5 Conclusion

This chapter presents the research subjects' favourable experiences of upward influence. The key themes and associated sub-themes, which have emanated from the data, have assisted in capturing the relevance of these experiences and the meaning that is associated with followership. Such experiences also reveal the impact that context has in terms of facilitating effective upward influence. The sub-themes of 'authority' and 'legitimacy' align more with what it means to be a follower. While the sub-themes of 'partnerships', 'support', and 'challenging' are associated more with experiences of what this means for the practice of followership. However, the sub-theme of 'positioning' interestingly alludes to the prominence of contextual factors that hold meaning for being a follower in the hierarchy and when engaging in acts of followership. Notably, followers have a greater conscious awareness of favourable experiences of upward influence in each sub-theme except 'challenging'. Conversely, leaders are more consciously aware of how receptive and openly encouraging they are

to being challenged. However, they are less aware of how the follower conceives of challenging and the tactics followers employ. In terms of ‘control’, these findings reveal that where the follower brings something different and valuable to the table the demarcation in authority is less pronounced between leadership and followership. Correspondingly favourable experiences of ‘partnerships’ render the distinction between leading and following as less significant to both parties.

The ‘legitimacy’ of ‘identity’ exposes the importance of acknowledging a duty in the context of a university to be influential for both leaders and followers. It also presents a duty to be receptive to others influence informed by the notion of the greater good and broader objectives of the University. Where ‘support’ is deemed effective both parties make concerted attempts to adapt their leadership and followership in order to compromise to sustain mutual support. In terms of positive experiences of ‘influencing tactics’, ‘challenging’ is not conceived of as threatening but more of a way of getting the best out of each other. Hence, challenging is encouraged, endorsing the acceptance of tactical exchanges between the leader and follower to optimise their collective effectiveness. Accordingly, the perception of follower effectiveness is instrumental in the application and perceptions associated with more directly aggressive influencing tactics. Finally, ‘positioning’ has many clear associations with cultural aspects of organisational life. Accordingly, the organisational culture facilitates how followers take up stronger positions; making greater use of their networks and expertise to amplify their organisational voice. This chapter is accompanied by the next, which presents unfavourable experiences of upward influence.

Chapter 8: Research Findings (Barriers, Dilemmas, and Challenges)

This chapter presents research subjects' experiences of the barriers, dilemmas, and challenges they have encountered, which adversely impact on upward influence between the Administration Manager (AM) and Academic Leader (AL). Presented here are AMs' experiences of the challenges of working cohesively with their Academic Leaders, dilemmas in how they feel and react to ensuing tensions, and what they recognise as contextual barriers that constrain their capacity to influence upwardly.

8.1 Key Theme - Control

The first key theme of 'control' refers to the power in influencing behaviour or determining the course of events. Extracting and clustering data from interview transcripts under this key theme produced 170 extracts concerned with participants' experiences of barriers, dilemmas, and challenges (i.e. 93 from Academic Leaders and 77 from Administration Managers). A more detailed analysis of the responses of interviewees is revealed under each sub-theme.

8.1.1 Sub-theme – Authority

The first sub-theme under the key theme of 'control' is 'authority', which refers to the greater source of political and administrative power and control in the organisational setting. This sub-theme consists of 89 extracts (i.e. 49 from Academic Leaders (AL) and 40 from Administration Managers (AM)) presenting their experiences of barriers, dilemmas, and challenges that adversely impact on upward influence. Four significant findings in this sub-theme underpin why the experiences of research subjects were unfavourable. The leader (AL) and follower (AM) experience disagreements on sensitive managerial issues with the AL frequently overruling the AM. The AL can and

does intervene in administrative matters. The AM can be circumvented and ignored by the AL. Finally, the design and evaluation of the AM role means that the AL has complete authority over the incumbent. These findings suggest that the AL possesses an authority which they can ultimately utilise to impose leader-centric control.

There is a significant challenge described by AMs as upward influencing amidst disagreements with the AL on sensitive matters (e.g. staffing, resource allocation, financial budgeting). ALs' experiences are of feeling being better positioned to have the final decision based on formal authority (AL3, AL8, AM16). Some respondents experience an awareness of an operational reliance on the AM, but this does not detract from what they see as the leader's right (i.e. formal responsibility and accountability) to make the final decision (AL8, AL3, AL17). ALs describe an awareness of the importance of adopting an appropriate leadership style, especially when implementing their decisions, demonstrating sensitivity to peoples' needs (AL4, AL7, AL18). However, AMs' experiences can contrast, owing to their feelings of tension when ALs draw on their formal authority to make decisions (AM4, AM15, AM16). Subsequently, in such instances this elicits a tendency to then question the leader's legitimacy to this level of authority with limited managerial experience and knowledge (AM2, AM4). One respondent draws on an experience of the asymmetry of authority whereby the AL was not that receptive to their upward influence (AM15). Subsequently, the only influence that this respondent felt they did have emanated from appealing to what the AL wanted to hear (AM15). Several AMs experience the need to challenge their leader, where they fundamentally disagree, to gauge their informal authority before conceding the matter is outside of their control (AM7, AM6, AM2). AMs experience the ALs as blocking their actions, which creates tension in their relationship (AM16, AM4). AMs

are left with shaping their followership approach on the basis of either accepting the leader's authority to make the final decision, going beyond the leader to a higher authority, or directly challenging the leader drawing on their any perceived authority within their role (AM7, AM4, AM6, AM2, AM12).

"...I am Head of School, the buck does stop with me, therefore on this case, I need your help, I need your support, but because ultimately the buck stops with me, I think I better be the one that has the final view...and clearly the two people or the teamwork together but the leader person...where the buck stops has to actually put their head above the parapet and say 'I take responsibility for that'."

(Academic Leader No.8, October 2014)

"...she has a tendency to be a bit abrupt with people, a bit short with people, especially Academic staff and there's a tension across the staff you either love her or you loathe her, there's nothing in-between ...The bottom line is we still need somebody to do the relationship bit with the team and rewarding someone for not being good at something, it should be the other way round... So he's chosen to do that, and I say 'that's ridiculous' or whatever. But I lost on that one. I don't think that's quite the way to go to reward someone for a deficiency in their character. It's a deficiency that should be correctable..."

(Administration Manager No.16, December 2014)

AMs describe experiencing the challenges of ALs using their formal leadership authority to intervene in administrative matters. Tensions occur when the AL is deemed to be invading the AM's territory (AL5, AL6, AM3, AL15). There is an association here with how the AL views administration when compared to academic endeavours, as either of lesser value or as difficult to detach from academia (AL6, AL18, AL5, AL4). Subsequently, the AL makes distinct their superior authority to interfere in admin matters, often based on a personal view of having enhanced expertise or knowledge or being better positioned in terms of seniority, augmenting their formal authority in relation to the AM (AL17, AL6, AL5). Both AL and AM experiences reveal that such interventions have a diminishing effect on the AM's capacity to upwardly influence (AL18, AL15, AM17). A common example is AL intervention in professionalising the administrative function to serve academic needs better (AL15). What this alludes to is the challenge for followers of striving to achieve the right balance between accountability and responsibility through their followership, but without the equivalent authority of their leader (AM9).

"I am quite happy to influence or try to influence the Head of School. I get a bit more shirty when I think he is trying to influence how I manage my teams, which is maybe a bit of a double standard. OK, that is an interesting one because we have talked about credibility, experience and skills and my view is that academics haven't got a clue when it comes to line management, when it comes to support staff, when it comes to operations ... so why the hell should they influence what I do."

(Administration Manager No.3, August 2014)

“...the marketing function reported into the Admin Manager. My background’s marketing, so given my background that didn’t make sense for the organisation, it’s more work for me but it didn’t make sense for the organisation for a non-professional to have an important function like that reporting through them, particularly as I didn’t think that the Head of that function was doing a very good job, so I’ve changed the reporting lines through to me for that part of the organisation.”

(Academic Leader No.5, September 2014)

A further challenge for AMs is described as ALs acting unilaterally, which can have the effect of either circumventing or ignoring the AM. Consequently, ALs take decisions without seeking input from the AM and/or without the AM’s knowledge (AL17, AL7). ALs draw on their formal leadership authority to directly interact with individuals in the admin team and to determine who will lead at certain points in time, circumventing the AM or controlling their level of input (AL17, AL7, AL8, AL2). Some ALs do not always appropriately communicate their decisions, so will often keep the AM out of the loop (AM4, AM9). Interestingly, one respondent experiences the same feeling of dismay and frustration when an AM acts independently without adequate upward consultation (AL14). However, in this instance, the AL draws on their formal authority as the leader to undo what the AM had done (AL14). This experience reveals the power to control embedded in the dichotomy which divides formal leaders from followers. The formal authority of the leader’s established organisational positioning and/or leadership style can reduce their level of receptivity to upward influence (AM15, AM9). The effects on followership experienced by followers as consequences; confusion as to how much authority AMs actually have, constraining their capacity to act independently, and

invoking a sense of not being fully involved in matters concerning the support function (AM15, AM6).

One respondent recalls experiences of their leader's use of leadership authority to circumvent wider involvement in decision making and described this as divisive (AM3). Another respondent expresses the negative emotions they felt when appearing unprofessional to colleagues when left in ignorance by their AL on matters relevant to their role (AM6). While another respondent attempts to normalise such practices by making associations with the organisational culture to account for how ALs will tend to circumvent AMs (AM11). Some AMs' experiences present the difficulties that indirectly impact on their followership when having to manage the fallout amongst their staff when the AL uses their authority to act without considering the wider impact. Here followers describe experiencing having to challenge their leader strongly; such is their frustration with being overruled by a higher authority and then having to manage the resultant situation (AM9, AM4, AM7, AM2).

"... I'm her line manager, and we do appraisals and things, and we've tried to sort of work on administration strategy and that didn't really get anywhere. ...I brought someone in as kind of Assistant School Manager; her administrative title has changed slightly over time, cause she's really someone who's got an ability to think through systems issues and think more strategically. But she finds it difficult to work with that person; I think because that person is actually, probably a more natural leader of such things."

(Academic Leader No.2, September 2014)

“...we had a review of a School, and it’s a subject area within a School, which I thought should be a Faculty review and that I should run it, but I was overruled by both the Dean and the Senior Deputy Vice-Chancellor. ...they didn’t manage it particularly well... I actually wrote probably in the strongest possible terms, after talking to the School Administration Manager, ‘we need to resolve this, this is the e-mail trail, and I’m really concerned, can we set this up, I suggest that you do this and that the School Administration Manager is the secretary and we have this implementation group, and we have an action plan’. And eventually, that got taken onboard now, but I literally had to use really strong language which I don’t normally do to show my force of feelings...”

(Administration Manager No.2, July 2014)

The ALs’ formal authority is used to design and make adjusts to the remit of the AM role, and to determine how to reprimand inadequate performance. The felt effects of this use of leadership authority is to change expectations of the follower and to shape their followership style. Accordingly, the organisational culture in a University setting can position the AL as being able to draw on constitutionally ordained authority to control the AM’s level of authority and facilitate leader-centred interventions (AL15, AL11, AL16, AL18). Although some ALs express the view that in their experience the environment does not always render them as supremely authoritative, impacting on their leadership capacity to be too authoritarian and/or to select whom they favour as their AM (AL11, AL12). Despite this, ALs have the authority to evaluate the effectiveness of the AM and their experiences of everyday interactions affirm this, which can carry

subtle consequences for the AM (AM13, AM10, AL15). Subsequently, the formal leader has the authority to formally evaluate the followers' actions and reactions, direct their attention, or discipline their followers in various ways (AL2, AL5, AM9). All these factors impact on the capacity of followers to have upward influence in a way that the follower finds fulfilling via their followership.

"...the individual didn't recognise the value of a Business Manager who actually made the business work. I think there was a concept that Academics can make it all work and the academic level and the ladies in the typing pool that that model was always going to be alright. ...which is funny because he was the one who recruited me and he'd written a job spec but then didn't seem particularly bothered about following it through..."

(Administration Manager No.13, October 2014)

"...I'd probably actually want someone to, at a kind of higher level than a School Manager, you know pre- 92s in particular then it's like the school's run by the admin in a much stronger way then it is here across the University. ... I think if I had someone of that calibre, I could imagine those kind of conversations, both that person asking me to do it and me agreeing to do it and indeed asking them to take on certain things."

(Academic Leader No.2, September 2014)

8.1.2 Sub-theme – Partnership

The second sub-theme under the key theme of ‘control’ is ‘partnership’, referring to the nature of the relationship between the leader and follower. The extent to which this relationship is viewed as symbiotic defines how salient or otherwise the level of control is between the two parties. This key theme also explores meaning associated with equality and inequality. This sub-theme consists of 81 extracts (i.e. 44 from Academic Leaders (AL) and 37 from Administration Managers (AM)) presenting experiences of barriers, dilemmas, and challenges that negatively impact on upward influence. Three significant findings relate to how ALs and AMs experience barriers, dilemmas, and challenges associated with attempts to work in partnership. Specifically, these are a lack of personal credibility, a difficult contextual setting, and poor communications.

The AL’s evaluation of the AM’s credibility distinguishes AM’s that can influence upwards and those that can not. These evaluations are informed by ALs’ experiences of observing and critiquing the AM’s behaviour or based on their view of the AM’s position in the Organisational context (AL1, AL5, AL10). ALs describe experiences of their level of confidence and trust in their AM as significant in diminishing the AM’s capacity to be upwardly influencing (AL15, AM7, AL11, AM4). The meaning that this holds is that in worst case scenarios the follower can be deemed incompetent by the leader; either because they cannot perform adequately in the role or because the followership approach is starkly at odds with their leader’s view (AL1, AM12, AL10). The effects are reportedly experiencing a feeling of needing to take action to compensate for the followers’ lack of credibility (AL10, AL11, AL2). The consequences are described by AMs as a greater awareness of being less significant in the dyadic relationship and acknowledging a need to work harder to be upwardly

influential (AM15, AM12, AM9, AM2, AM14, AM17). What this accentuates is an asymmetry in the relationship that informs the level of control each has and prevents the dyad from operating as a partnership.

“...the Admin Manager was involved with the Dean who came in 4 years ago and was partly involved, and it’s a bit difficult always to disentangle this as to exactly how much, partly involved with the restructuring that took place. And at times defends what I regard as being the indefensible which kind of undermines her, that person’s position, their credibility in terms of some of these areas, because it’s quite evidently not worked, and that’s not just my assessment it’s pretty much everyone’s assessment, and quite often there’s a tendency from the Admin Manager to blame the University centre for damaging the re-structure when it was being implemented...”

(Academic Leader No.5, September 2014)

“Funnily enough it’s felt more like a partnership with the previous Deans. Since he has come into the post, he has appointed Associate Deans, but he is using them as deputy, so whereas at the beginning of my time my role was Deputy. So that’s been a definite shift... in terms of the one to one relationship, it is not as much of a partnership as it has been in the past.”

(Administration Manager No.9, September 2014)

ALs and AMs describe their experiences of operating in a difficult context impacting on the type of relationship they can have with each other (AM4, AM6, AM2, AL11,

AL16, AM8, AL7). Specific organisational changes (e.g. changes of ALs) and culturally entrenched practices (e.g. dominance of academic or administrative cultures) are factors deemed problematic. Subsequently, such factors are experienced as barriers to forming a partnership and establishing an effective mutual understanding beneficial for both leadership and followership (AL7, AM1, AM5, AL4). Another contextual factor is how the follower is corporately positioned relative to the leader (i.e. as an equal, or in a mentor-mentee relationship, or as strategic-operational), and relative to others who are more influential as having a higher status from the leader's perspective (AL6, AL7, AL10, AL18). What this determines is the leader's receptivity to upward influence (AL11, AL3). What exemplifies this is one respondent's experience of viewing her role as a leadership role only when working with other academic colleagues, given their common professional commitment to achieving the same objectives as distinct from administrative roles (AL10). The effects of operating in a difficult context are described as physical and emotional distancing from the leader, heightened follower dissatisfaction, and an amplification of the asymmetry between the leader and follower roles (AL6, AL7, AM2, AL10, AL1, AM14, AM9).

"... it's down to individuals in the post, you can set up a whole train of things going along, and then if that person changes and they're succeeded that could stop those activities if that's down to those individual Heads of School... they have so much devolved responsibility they can set off the School in a completely different direction, if they are more challenging characters, it can be difficult to rein them back in ...so part of that I guess would be building up that relationship again takes time, takes a lot of effort and, with all the work and responsibilities that can get neglected..."

(Administration Manager No.2, July 2014)

“...there’s a bigger step between School Administrator in this job here and me and my previous job. ...The School Administrator job here is graded quite low. ... I wouldn’t say it’s absolutely an equal partnership. ...My previous job I think there was a lot more symmetry between the roles, I was direct line manager of the Academic Heads of all the constituent Schools, and my College Registrar was direct line manager of all the School Administrators, so there was a nice symmetry in that it was absolutely clear that I had an academic mission and he had the administrative mission...”

(Academic Leader No.10, October 2014)

The experience of poor communications between the AL and AM hamper their leadership and followership interactions and prevent them from operating as a partnership (AL7, AM16, AM15). There is a shared experience of poor downward and upward communication (AL7, AM16, AM17). This poor flow of communication affects both parties, resulting in both being guarded with each other, some ensuing friction, a lack of openness and honesty, and a lack of mutual effort to through the practices of leadership or followership to improve this situation (AM15, AM10, AL11, AL7).

“I’ve crossed the Head of the School once before in my time, if you lose that trust, both ways your job becomes less interesting, there’s less communication downwards, you can become isolate, you can find that your opinions are ignored, if not asked at all and again the other way if

your Head of School is doing something you think is intrinsically wrong then you're expected to run with that, it doesn't leave a very good taste in the mouth at the end of the week when you've done something that you think's really wrong, so I think there's consequences both with your position in the organisation and those are consequences on how well you sleep at night."

(Administration Manager No.16, December 2014)

"You work least effective with people who you've had not such good experiences with; you are more cautious, so, therefore, you maybe don't get the best out of the relationship because you are not open with each other and you can't have those sort of conversations if you are always on guard..."

(Administration Manager No.10, September 2014)

"... I feel very uncomfortable saying that, but I just think that is the nature of human relationships, that sometimes if you're completely open and honest, it actually can get in the way, can be more difficult."

(Academic Leader No.11, September 2014)

8.2 Key Theme - Identity

The second key theme is 'identity', which refers to the qualities, beliefs and expressions that make a person (self-identity) or group (particular category or social group). A sociological approach to identity is used to understand the self and its parts (identities) better. This approach encompasses consideration of the society in which the self acts and other selves exist in a given context. When extracting and clustering data

concerning this key theme, there were 128 extracts (i.e. 75 from Academic Leaders and 53 from Administration Managers) revealing experiences of barriers, dilemmas, and challenges. A more detailed analysis features under each sub-theme.

8.2.1 Sub-theme – Legitimacy

The first sub-theme under the key theme of ‘identity’ is ‘legitimacy’, which refers to the right to exercise authority and power in an organisation by a person or group which requires obedience. In this context ‘legitimacy’ encompasses support for the exercise of authority and power of a person or group, and explores meanings associated with roles. This sub-theme consists of 81 extracts (i.e. 48 from Academic Leaders (AL) and 33 from Administration Managers (AM)).

Both AMs and ALs experience ways of self-identifying with their position in the leader-follower relationship, which impacts on their capacity to influence each other (AL11, AL7, AL18, AL4, AM3, AM9, AL16, AL4). ALs experience a strong legitimisation of their downward influence while AMs acknowledge limitations in their upward influence (AL2, AL4, AM17, AM3, AL1). The effect is for ALs to adopt a self-identity which is less receptive, drawing on their administrative skills and knowledge they bring to the role. Consequently, this AL self-identity holds implications for how they assess the credibility of the AM, how they operationalise leadership, and how their beliefs impact on their leadership style (AL2, AL18, AL11, AL5, AL4, AL10, AL13, AL1). AMs can identify with limitations in terms of their confidence, abilities, career position, level of in-experience, and time constraints (AM17, AM3, AM8, AM6, AM1). Such factors are used to rationalise why AMs experience a lack of upward influence, and

inform why they can avoid engaging in upward influencing behaviour, ultimately legitimising their lack of influence (AM17, AM3, AM9, AM13).

ALs adopt an identity based on what they believe are corporate expectations of them, while AMs' experiences align more with navigating the corporate terrain to merely do what they believe is their job (AL9, AM3, AL1, AL14, AL18, AL4). Consequently, there is more emphasis on ALs to adopt a self-identity which sees them managing, measuring, controlling, planning, and implementing (AL1, AL14, AL18, AL5, AL16, AL15, AL10, AL4). In contrast, AMs focus on their self-identity as defined by boundaries and creating opportunities to work beyond corporately imposed limitations (AM9, AM10, AM3). To some extent, this situation renders these leaders' and followers' identities as at odds with each other.

*"...one thing that would influence is I don't think I'm bad at admin, I've done administrative things, I'm a ***** by professional background ... it may be that I'm too good at that sort of thing, so she thinks oh well, better be careful here because ***** will know, be able to assess and see things fairly quickly..."*

(Academic Leader No.2, September 2014)

"I suppose the reason why I envisage it as a team as I see myself as captain. And that's why I've got this team mentality in my head. I played a lot of team sport... fundamentally if you've got a team with no leader then probably in times of challenge or difficulty then it starts to fall apart a

little bit because you've got no-one actually pointing in the direction or suggesting a change or adjustment to respond to that new environment."

(Academic Leader No.5, September 2014)

"...it's just being honest about what you are there to do so they know that you know the boundaries, and what you're able to influence or have a decision...have a view on and whether you're able to act on those views or not, so I'm quite clear about those things..."

(Administration Manager No.10, September 2014)

There is a distinction between experiences of legitimising control through group identity. ALs associate with a prominent grouping whereby they acknowledge a distinct management approach, their enhanced status, and affiliations with other predominant management groups (AL17, AL10, AL11). All of these factors differentiate them from other groups including groups consisting of AMs. AMs legitimise the enhanced position of the AL group by acknowledging their lack of academic status, sense of being isolated in the 'out group', and heightened capacity of the ALs to evaluate them (AM12, AM5, AM9, AM14, AM11). There is a shared experience of a 'them and us' attitude that pervades the workplace, and this mutually accepted perception can impede the AMs upward influence (AL10, AL11, AM12, AM9, AM5, AM11). One AL describes their experience of being in both groups (AL1) (i.e. an academic and manager) but also affirms a demarcation between groups, which determines how ALs and AMs go about legitimatising their respective levels of control.

*“It’s the sort of cascade of management and hierarchy doesn’t work I don’t think in an academic school in the same way. I think it’s challenging ...you can’t influence decisions and directions. You may not get recognition for it sometimes, so when we have things like ***** school accreditations it is often the academic leads that are wheeled out, and that’s not fair actually, who front it and then get the plaudits for things that have gone well whereas it’s more the support side that perhaps has actually made that more effective.”*

(Administration Manager No.9, September 2014)

“... as Administration Managers you don’t always feel part of the club ...they are all academic and at times you feel like it’s that sort of club where they’ve got their academic freedom and academic perspective that you’re not quite included, even if your contribution is just as valuable... sometimes there seems to be that other world of academia [Laughter] that they have, and that’s their world...”

(Administration Manager No.5, September 2014)

“...I regard myself as an academic-manager...there’s a grey area there as to how people are perceived, as to whether they are perceived as managers or academics. ...there isn’t a simple divide where you’ve got the Admin Managers and the Academics because the academics are perceived by some to be administrators or managers and by others like Academic Leaders...”

(Academic Leader No.1, August 2014)

Many experiences are associated with cultural identity. ALs experience a strong academic cultural identity, where their dominance in this culture legitimises their control (AL12, AL15, AL4). This cultural identity determines the boundaries as to what AMs can, should, and cannot do in an academic environment, and how aggressively the academic domain should have protection from administrative intervention (AL4, AL5, AL15, AL10, AM4, AM12, AM3, AM5). The effect of a strong academic culture on AMs is a lack of status, limited influence over decision making, a questioning of their very existence, and overt criticism (AL15, AL10, AL1, AL2, AM12, AM6, AM10). What this suppresses is the upward influence of AMs; demeaning what the role represents, underpinned by a disregard for the incumbent's qualities, experience, or qualifications (AL5, AM4, AM12, AL15, AM15, AL10, AM1). One AM rationalises their experiences of disdain from academic staff as a culturally embedded characteristic, determined by the sort of University in which they operate (AM11) and in doing so normalises their apparent inferiority.

"...Academics, or at least the Heads of School, feel it's only their legitimate authority to take decisions about the future of the Faculty and that administration is there to serve it ...it can be very uncomfortable for Faculty Managers because there's still an old fashioned view in some universities about the separation between the two functions... I think it's connected to a view about what is legitimately within the Academic domain and a fairly conservative protectionist view of that ...it certainly sees Senior Administrators as simply functionaries as opposed to professionals who may have a legitimate role in taking decisions or at least advising on decisions."

(Academic Leader No.15, December 2014)

“...I have to accept that ultimately the policy decisions will be owned by the academics. When I was first appointed I had come from being an academic ...the person who appointed me when she phoned me up to offer me the job, said one of the things she needed to be satisfied at the interview was that I was someone who was making the transition “you were aware of fact that you are not coming here to write policy and to lead policy, that’s what academic managers do”. ...ultimately the really big academic decisions are still owned by the academic leaders, and it’s quite hard to get in and influence and change that.”

(Administration Manager No.4, September 2014)

“I’m the only one stupid enough to sit there and open my mouth. So I do find that quite a challenge. ...I sometimes think that it’s less about what’s being said and more about who’s saying it”.

(Administration Manager No.1, July 2014)

8.2.2 Sub-theme – Support

The second sub-theme under the key theme of ‘identity’ is ‘support’, referring to the extent to which identity can define agreement and encouragement to succeed in the leader-follower relationship. This includes instances of emotional and/or practical support to provide the right conditions for either or both parties to prosper. This sub-theme consists of 47 extracts (i.e. 27 from Academic Leaders (AL) and 20 from Administration Managers (AM)) presenting experiences of barriers, dilemmas, and challenges concerning support.

A significant finding is a lack of mutual understanding between the AL and AM (AL14). Several ALs experience a lack of knowledge of what motivates their AM or cannot relate to the AM's position, either because they disagree or can only relate to academic motives (AL2, AL16, AM11, AL15, AL18). Subsequently, there is a lack of AL receptivity to the AM's upward influence. Here ALs experience being reluctant to seek the AM's view or make assumptions about the AM's view (AL12). AMs experience the realisation that irrespective of a poor shared understanding the emphasis is on them to make the AL-AM dynamic work, or risk being exposed to limited options to progress their ideas or careers (AM13).

"...you could say that motive is irrelevant if somehow the change is likely to be beneficial and so I could imagine people might have very different motives for doing things... So yeah, yeah that's an interesting question. I guess I probably don't delve too deeply to try and find out exactly what people's motivations are for doing something."

(Academic Leader No.16, February 2015)

"If I'm unhappy with the leader-follower dynamic I've got to make the best I can of it... the only other job would be sort of an Academic Registrar, that's about it... there is not much room for the job in the Registry, is still roughly where I see myself. So there we are, I've got to make this work for another 3 or 4 years..."

(Administration Manager No.13, October 2014)

Some ALs' experiences are of evaluating their respective AM as lacking competence and associating this with the AM's identity (AL2, AL5, AL11, AL9). The experiences of ALs reveal that they assess the AM's competence based on historical performance, whereas the AM evaluates their competency on recent activity (AL5, AM6, AL11, AL2, AL15, AL9, AM10). ALs experience evaluating operational competency as upwardly influencing, whereas some AMs view their strategic level contributions as more valuable in upward influencing, taking what they do operationally for granted (AL2, AL1, AM3, AM6). Overall, the AL's support diminishes as they lose confidence in their AM, and subsequently, the AM experiences a drop in confidence negatively impacting upon attempts to upward influence (AL1, AL11, AL2, AL15, AL9, AL10, AM6). An amplification of this experience can occur when there is a spiralling decline in the AM's ability to upwardly influence the AL (AL6).

"...it's partly to do with the individual who'd been there a long time and was perhaps not of a calibre to sufficiently...who wasn't able to really operate at a really strategic level, they operated at an operational level. ...I did trust them around some staffing issues; I realised afterwards that was a big mistake. I felt they were just trying to protect and support their people rather than challenging them for the achievement of the common aims..."

(Academic Leader No.1, August 2014)

"If you do a good story one day you can be really praised for it, and you do a bad story the next day, and you're really knocked down. ...so you're

*only judged by what you've done in the last 7 days or the last few months
[Laughter]..."*

(Administration Manager No.10, September 2014)

"... somebody just didn't know and probably wasn't performing at an appropriate level and actually was quite actively concealing things in order to hide performance difficulties, and that took some time to come to light... ...one of the consequences there is a lack of future trust. I think that can really undermine a relationship to the point of it being totally non-sustainable."

(Academic Leader No.9, October 2014)

Conflict situations are experienced as either a lack of AL support for the AM or the AM feeling compromised and holding conflicting views to academic staff (AM11, AM2, AM15, AL11, AL13). Such conflicts arise when challenging the AMs' morals or when values clash between the AM and AL (AM2, AM3, AM1, AL11, AL13, AM4). This conflict is occasionally emerging as aggressive reactions to the chasm between academic and support staff values (AM3). These experiences lead to AMs feeling demotivated, and in extreme cases, they will openly and aggressively resist, which has the effect of diminishing their upward influence (AM15, AM3, AM1, AM7, AM5, AM4, AM6). Some AMs do not see the AM role as needing to be upward influencing (AM9, AM5), suggesting that subtle resistance is associated with the AM role and how ALs come to know the AM identity.

“I don’t care if people like me I’ve got a job to do so I have to do it and I have been outspoken in meetings and being in conflict with academics”.

(Administration Manager No.11, October 2014)

“...I am not going to be the man who continues the practice of his mainly female staff dealing tea, coffee to academics... the Head of School at the time was slightly unhappy, but in the face of my fierceness on the issue, I think he appreciated that he wasn’t going to be a winner... some might argue that they have elements in morality but it is more to do with cultural kind of understanding between different groups, different backgrounds and I think that that can only have a negative impact on influence...”

(Administration Manager No.3, August 2014)

8.3 Key Theme – Influencing Tactics

The third key theme ‘influencing tactics’ refers to an action or strategy carefully planned to enhance an individual’s capacity to affect the character, development, or behaviour of someone or something. Here the research focus is on how the AM can enhance their capacity to upwardly influence the AL to achieve the AM’s desired outcome. When extracting and clustering data concerned with experiences of barriers, dilemmas, and challenges associated with ‘influencing tactics,’ there were 156 extracts (i.e. 82 from Academic Leaders and 74 from Administration Managers). A more detailed analysis of the responses is presented under each sub-theme.

8.3.1 Sub-theme – Challenging

The first sub-theme under the key theme of ‘influencing tactics’ is ‘challenging’, which refers to the act of making a call to prove or justify something or to dispute the truth or validity of something. Here this refers explicitly to experiences of the approaches taken by the AM when challenging the AL’s ideas, beliefs, actions, and views on a particular matter. This sub-theme consists of 54 extracts (i.e. 33 from Academic Leaders (AL) and 21 from Administration Managers (AM)). This sub-theme presents three significant findings, the AM’s reluctance to accept the negative risks associated with engaging in conformance with the AL, ALs distancing themselves from what they see as challenging (i.e. problematic) AMs, and ALs counteracting/blocking AM upward challenges by drawing on their repertoire of tactics.

Initiating a challenge requires a conscious decision by the AM to confront the AL (AM10), and the AL will intuitively not respond well to an aggressive approach (AL11, AL4). Some AMs experience a lack of confidence in taking this step either because they cannot vindicate their challenge to make it acceptable (i.e. not having the formal authority or expert knowledge), or because they fear the AL’s reaction and subsequent consequences of a failed challenge (AM10, AM3, AM7). AMs’ experiences expose their appetite for risk and their mindfulness of the aftermath in sensitive situations. Emphasising a distinguishing factor between leading and following when attempting to sustain upward influence (AM7, AM8).

“...if somebody wants to fundamentally change my views then direct confrontation rarely works with me because I tend to get defensive.

Somebody who diffuses the situation earlier on says for example, ‘can I

talk to you about so and so because I'm struggling with it' or 'I don't think I understand' or 'I worry about this', and opens a dialogue in that way which is non-confrontational will get a long way with me. But that's telling you more about me and their need to be perceptive..."

(Academic Leader No.11, November 2014)

"...if you enter into a conversation and then find that you're not having objective responses then I would back away from that and think I am not going anywhere, so there is no point in ... even if I am not getting the answer I want, I'm not getting an objective discussion, I'm not getting a productive discussion here so there's no point in going there ...I may go find another way of resolving it and not discuss it with the Head of Department unless it was a decision that they needed to make".

(Administration Manager No.10, September 2014)

Several ALs experience is distancing themselves from their respective AM, viewing them as having limited credibility and questioning their motives (AL5, AL15, AL9, AL10, AM2, AL11). Underpinning such reactions is a perception of the AM as lacking essential managerial skills or acting unprofessionally in their role, by attempting to block or reject the AL's downward influence. It is this sustained perception that prompts ALs to circumvent problematic AMs (AM3, AL5, AL15, AL10, AL11). ALs want to feel consulted at the right time and not have a sense that their AM's will is an imposition upon them (AM7, AL18, AL16, AL11, AM2). Conversely, AM experiences reveal that some AMs will consciously keep ALs at a distance. Such distancing is achieved by only feeding up what AMs want ALs to know or by circumventing the AL to challenge

upwards indirectly (AM14, AM15). In extreme cases, AMs experience having to directly and aggressively challenge upwards on issues that they believe impinge upon their values (AM6, AM15, AM12, AM8). Such acts of overt resistance by AMs can be deemed inappropriate behaviour to an AL, evaluating this as a lack of respect. Here ALs will attempt to counter this behaviour by distancing themselves from their AMs (AL13, AL15). What this does is hamper any future attempts to challenge upwardly. Subsequently, the AM in these circumstances has to work harder to be influential and to have their opinions respected in continuing interactions with their leader (AM15, AM12, AL10, AM8, AM2, AL15).

“...There are times when I have experienced situations where I wasn’t too sure if my opinion was respected, and that’s very upsetting...”

(Administration Manager No.15, November 2014)

“...I expected the Admin Manager to come to me sooner to say things were really not working in terms of the admin structure. ...that person is responsible for this thing and if this thing’s not working it shouldn’t wait for me to say... you’re sitting over it; you’re driving it. You should know it’s running badly...”

(Academic Leader No.5, September 2014)

“I have worked in the past with somebody who was the Senior Administrator; it became apparent really quite quickly that they didn’t have the skills for the job and that made the relationship very difficult. That person didn’t have the administrative skills... just didn’t have

effective organisational skills, day to day organisation of people. The other one this particular individual didn't have very strong analytical skills so they couldn't take a complex thing and turn it into something..."

(Academic Leader No.11, November 2014)

Several ALs experience is rebuffing challenges (i.e. counter questioning or requesting clear evidence) from their respective AMs, based on what they experience as a flaw in the AM's approach or thought process when upwardly challenging (AL5, AL6, AL2, AL4, AL16, AL15). ALs also experience tactical blocking of AMs challenges, whereby they either purposely delay taking action or dismiss their AM's view in favour of their position as the formal leader (AL5, AL6, AL4, AL16, AL15, AL9). ALs experience is making telling decisions and prioritise what they see as of real importance (AL13, AL5, AL4, AL6). One AM's experience was to be openly confronted and have their challenge publically belittled, compelling the AM to question their own professional standing and fit within the organisation's management structure (AM17). One AL experiences a need for their AM to challenge themselves more often before the AL can buy into their ideas and have a shared commitment (AL6). Another AM experiences their AL tactically drawing on the corporate line to rebuff upward challenges, rendering their upward influencing attempts as ineffectual (AM1).

"...sometimes her ideas on particular issues I do feel that I have to challenge because I don't say no to them, but it's kind of 'think through the implications of that if you do that it's inconsistent with that' ... So I probably have to work through a bit more detail with her. But at least she does suggest those, comes forward with those things. So it suggests that the

overall relationship is OK, but who knows what else she would come forward with...”

(Academic Leader No.2, September 2014)

“...direct influencing upwards is very very difficult, it’s almost taboo in some senses, I’ll go talk to my line manager, and I’ll say I don’t agree with this and I don’t think this is right, and basically I get the same conversation with her which is basically that’s what the University has decided; get on with it... it’s very difficult to make your voice heard is one thing, it’s being heard over everybody else, it’s being able to get enough of a consensus to actually get your message across...”

(Administration Manager No.1, July 2014)

8.3.2 Sub-theme – Positioning

The second sub-theme under the key theme of ‘influencing tactics’ is ‘positioning’, referring to the relative positioning of leaders and followers in a given context. This sub-theme encompasses changes in positioning which alter the level of influence one has on the other. This sub-theme consists of 102 extracts (i.e. 49 from Academic Leaders (AL) and 53 from Administration Managers (AM)). There are four significant findings in this sub-theme which capture the experiences of barriers, dilemmas, and challenges associated with positioning. The status of each role relative to each other, the strength of the dominant academic culture, lack of control over governance and technical systems, and the state of relations between the AM and AL. Consequently, these findings expose how power bases can be utilised and influenced by contextual factors.

The status given to the role of AM in the operating environment is significant (AL12, AL5, AL7). Some ALs stereotypically categorise the AM as more operational as opposed to tactical (AL12, AL5, AL7). Similarly, some AMs experience not seeing themselves as operating at a tactical level (AM15, AM3, AM10). Consequently, some AMs' experience a lack of confidence when interacting with their AL, or just immerse themselves in the operational aspects of the role so much so that they become less tactically significant overtime (AM3, AM11, AM10). This status issue is reaffirmed when the AM role is bypassed rendering it as irrelevant in the operating environment which can elicit a conflict situation (AL7, AM11). Variations in pay grades between AMs can determine the AM role status; this carries meaning in terms of the structured and societal demeaning of the positioning of the role locally (AL14). One AM experience is of resorting to playing a political game as a tactic to counter the effects of being seen as too operational, so attempting to reposition themselves to have upward influence (AM14).

“Tactical, would I say tactical? I would probably use the word ‘operational’; I think more than tactical. ... she would have a strong sense of what needs doing, when and so she would certainly be advising me in a very kind of gentle way, ‘I think we need to be getting this paper prepared by such and such a date, and I’ll do this bit, maybe you could do this bit’...”

(Academic Leader No.12, November 2014)

“...I suppose the breadth of the remit and the volume that that entails quite often means that the Admin Manager ends up spending an awful lot of time

on operational aspects rather than getting the time to get their head above water and be a bit more strategic. I think the strategic capability is there but it only actually gets the opportunity to come out every so often... so I would say a volume, and a stretch element comes into minimising the ability to have an upward influence because it's the time to put into forming cases and making proposals, which would then have influence."

(Academic Leader No.5, September 2014)

There are shared experiences of what it means to operate in a strong academic organisational culture (AM16, AL8, AM10, AM8, AL6, AL18, AL16, AM9, AM11, AM6, AM5, AM9, AM3). AMs experience difficulty attempting to break through the prominence of powerful academic leadership, which determines what the AM role is designed to do for them, who are capable of undertaking such a role, and how and why decisions are made via academically ordained structures (AL14, AM10, AL6, AL18, AL16, AM9). All of these factors can have the effect of constraining the AM role. In such instances, there is a 'them and us' attitude often compelling the AM to position themselves via their allegiance to academic or administrative stakeholders (AM8, AM16, AM9, AM11, AM6, AM5, AM3). This decision holds implications for the distance between the AM and the AL. It is the academic culture that dominates; it can stifle the AM's capacity to be creative, confine the AM's career progression and earning potential, determine whose solutions are implemented, and deliver unfavourable compromises that awkwardly position the AM in the operating environment (AL14, AM16, AM10, AL18, AL16, AM5). What this suggests is that Universities are truly academic institutions, historically established, academically controlled, and directed by academically orientated futuristic visions with limited scope for non-academics to

intervene by influencing strategic decision making (AM10, AL6, AL18, AL16, AM16, AM9, AM11). Accordingly, this can frustrate many AMs, especially those that see universities as corporations, which again distance them from many academic leader viewpoints (AM16, AM5, AM10, AM3).

“... in this kind of a set-up there are probably three teams and constituencies, there is the administrative/clerical/secretarial staff grouping, and there’s the technical staff grouping, and there’s the academic staff grouping, and in a way, they’ve all sort of got leaders... the danger I guess is if that person isn’t sufficiently influential with me then their team will feel they are not so sufficiently influential and therefore their team may be harder for the person to manage or influence...”

(Academic Leader No.6, September 2014)

“When I worked in health some of the most successful relationships I saw was where you had got a clinician and a manager working alongside one another, and obviously the clinician knows their clinical area inside out, but they also recognise that there might not have the management skills to develop that, or to make it happen... I just think that’s a really powerful relationship, so in my experience in the health service in primary care, I saw it working really effectively. I have not seen that replicated in the same way in higher education in my experience...”

(Administration Manager No.9, September 2014)

“I sit firmly in the support staff camp in terms of where my views come from, and I think that will impact on my ability to influence. If the Head of School does not understand where I am coming from and if I don’t understand where he is coming from because of the differences then that impacts on both of our abilities to influence. ...he has been very successful as a researcher I get the impression he has quite a healthy view of the academic lifestyle and the righteousness of the academic cause... So when he was appointed one of my concerns was that the support teams would be asking him stupid things to make the life of our academic colleagues even cushier than it is at the moment arguably.”

(Administration Manager No.3, August 2014)

The influencing position of AMs is negatively affected by many factors outside their control. Such factors contribute to the AM experiencing a diminishing capacity to upwardly influence (AL5, AL12, AM8, AM14, AM6, AM9, AM16, AL16, AM4, AM7, AL13, AL18). Internally, inadequate computerised data management systems, problematic processes, challenging governance issues, financial constraints, high workloads, and complex staffing problems prove difficult for the AM to eliminate or change (AL5, AL12, AM8, AM14, AM16, AM4, AM3, AM7, AL13, AL18). Externally, the operating environment and pressure to comply with government policy, legislation, and the increasingly competitive market place and an emphasis on ranking systems all impact on the quality of service AMs provide ALs (AM6, AL16, AM4). One AL alludes to herself as a hampering factor too, given her lack of accessibility for the AM to influence by geographic location and temporary working arrangements in the School (AL10).

Experiencing a lack of control can have a personal impact on the AM, de-motivating the incumbent when not achieving a good outcome against some of the more significant issues that need resolving (AM8, AM14, AM6, AM9, AM16, AM4, AM3, AM7, AM2). Some ALs experience a similar lack of control but to a lesser degree than AMs where these experiences are felt more widely (AL12, AL5, AL16, AL18). One AL reports frustration with their AM who says “no” too frequently because of system problems (AL13), indicating that the AL’s frustration can transfer on to the AM irrespective of the AM’s formal capacity to correct the problem.

“...this does come down to some historical performance management within the School... it’s made the job of the Admin Manager more challenging and in that respect soaked up more resource so made it more difficult to have upward influence. ...I know that the Admin Manager has had quite a number of either people who are difficult to manage or where there has been long-term sickness issues and things like that, so an awful lot of time has therefore been spent on providing cover and very much sort of day-to-day, week-by-week operational things and so that’s probably damaged the ability of the person in that role to make more of a strategic impact...”

(Academic Leader No.5, September 2014)

“Poor info systems - It affects my upward influence, it effects my influence downwards as well, I have a lot of staff who spend an awful lot of time data cleansing and tidying and dealing with irate academic staff... I need to keep relationships and services good from an academic point of view.

Academic members of staff rightly don't differentiate between who I manage or who somebody else manages, or we do progression and Registry do this, and Exams do that, so I can't keep my bit clean and perfect, people see professional services as professional services, they don't differentiate, so then you get the issue that things bubble up... and again I can't always fix them..."

(Administration Manager No.7, September 2014)

The state of the AM's relationship with the AL impacts on the AM's positioning (AL2, AL7, AL4, AL18, AL15, AL9, AM14, AM11, AM6, AM17, AM15, AL16), primarily affecting how quickly and autonomously the AM can progress without their AL's intervention (AL7, AL2, AL18, AL15, AM14, AM11, AM17). Subsequently, it becomes starkly apparent through experiencing a poor quality relationship how much information is not being shared, low levels of respective confidence in the dyad, and overall effects on the evaluation of competency between the roles (AL2, AL7, AL15, AL9, AM11, AM6, AM15, AL16). Where the relationship proves to be ineffective by the AL or AM, the AM has less autonomy and upward influence to make an impact in the role (AL7, AL4, AL18, AM14). The consequence is that the AL becomes sporadically frustrated with the AM and then loses motivation (AL4, AL15, AL9, AM14, AL16).

Some ALs become consciously aware of the AM acting politically, while some AMs' experience is viewing their AL as lacking understanding due to their lack of receptivity (AL2, AL9, AM14, AM11, AL18). Consequently, ALs can hold perceptions of their AM being less strategically equipped and not being in touch with academic endeavours

(AL2, AL7, AL4, AL18, AL16). What this emphasises is a risk for the AM in attempting to draw on tactics viewed by the AL as political manoeuvring, whereby the consequence can be a sustained weakening of the AM's position of influence. The following research subjects' experiences poignantly illustrate how the loss of credibility negatively impacts on the AM's positioning as an influencer:

"...there are probably issues around values and around priorities. She's somebody who very much comes from a tradition, she wouldn't thank me for saying it, but comes from a traditional Department Administrator role which prior to that was a Department Secretary role. Now in some ways that equips you very well for the current environment because that's a role that's very sensitive to undergraduate students, very sensitive to nuts and bolts issues around timetabling, and around sort of logistics that we have to get right, but in other ways it doesn't equip you that well for thinking about prioritisation around resource allocation and some of the more strategic issues that Departments in a University like this one face."

(Academic Leader No.7, September 2014)

"I suppose credibility takes a long time to build up and you've got to be careful on your actions because that credibility...it takes a long time to build up and to reach a certain level. All it takes is a few inappropriate actions for that credibility to come tumbling down very very quickly and building that credibility back up again would take I think a long time and whether it actually could be rebuilt in that role, in that School I think that

*is very questionable, because you've lost that trust, for me, yes, credibility
and the ability to perform in role..."*

(Administration Manager No.14, October 2014)

8.4 Conclusion

This chapter presents the research subjects' unfavourable experiences of upward influence. The key and sub-themes that have emerged from the research data are useful in categorising these findings. As such this chapter presents experiences relevant to the individual and then dyadic relations. It is also possible to appreciate more how context can impinge upon the practices and value attached to upward influence. The sub-themes of 'authority' and 'legitimacy' have stronger associations with individual experiences. In stark contrast to successful experiences, 'challenging' is also more orientated toward the individual. The sub-themes of 'partnership' and 'support', similar to the previous chapter have a substantial alignment with experiences of dyadic relations. Then 'positioning' retains its connection with the significance of contextual factors. A key observation is that ALs have a greater conscious awareness of adverse experiences in the majority of sub-themes except 'positioning', which is mostly contextual. Underpinning this is the AMs greater awareness of having a lower status in a strong academic culture, and how this situation poorly positions them to instigate meaningful change and be effective in their role.

In terms of 'authority', the findings show that there is an emphasis on sustaining a sharp dichotomy, which constrains the level of upward influence. There is an intensification of this distinction in authority evident in the 'partnership' findings that reveal an increasing awareness of top-down control emanating from detrimental evaluations of

follower credibility. When reviewing ‘legitimacy’ findings, it is evident that the parties seek differentiation in their respective identities, which then restricts the flow of influence between them. Similarly, ‘support’ diminishes when both parties struggle to find an emotional connection, especially evident where their respective values are profoundly and uncompromisingly misaligned. In terms of ‘challenging’, the risk of consequences is more pronounced, heightening the need for acts of self-protection. Hence, both the leader and follower regress into retaining the power asymmetries that determine boundaries in their relations. Finally, ‘positioning’, similar to favourable experiences, correlates strongly with contextual factors. Accordingly, this augments and emphasises cultural implications which sustain multifaceted systems of status differentiation, whereby those that are in weaker positions have less capacity to employ influencing tactics by design. This chapter and the preceding chapter now come together to inform a discussion of the findings and their association with the relevant theoretical perspectives.

Chapter 9: Discussion of Findings

The aim of this final section of the findings chapter is to discuss the findings in response to the research questions, and then as they relate to existing knowledge presented in the ‘Theoretical Perspectives’ chapter. Firstly a generalised narrative is presented to directly respond to each research question before a more in-depth discussion of the findings.

9.1 Research Question 1

In response to the first research question (Do followers experience exercising upward influence?) the research data shows that followers do exercise upward influence. However, this is dependent on several factors. In terms of the follower, their expertise, situational knowledge, and personal characteristics are heavily relied upon and admired by the leader, rendering them as upward influencing. Moreover, the follower can further enhance this heightened level of upward influence by generating and cultivating power bases to improve their social standing and credibility. They achieve this by tactically drawing on a network of influential contacts, strengthening their capacity to have informal or indirect influence. Those that have the most considerable influence are frequently adept at tactically drawing on these power bases to positively affect their relations with the leader. Correspondingly, the leader can be encouraging and receptive to their follower’s upward influence. Underpinning factors that facilitate the leader’s openness is the recognition that the leader cannot always be the driving force, the motivating effect on the follower of feeling listened to and respected, and political advantages to the leader of allowing themselves on occasion to be influenced.

In terms of the leader-follower relations, both parties benefit from enhanced closeness whereby trust and respect facilitate greater honesty and openness. Consequently, this means the leader is inclined to speak freely to the follower, and the follower can critique and challenge some of the leader's decisions or thinking; facilitating a continual flow of bi-directional influence. Contextually, the follower, in this case, is expected to offer appropriate levels of counsel, based on their longevity and corporate memory to an often transient academic leader. The follower is well positioned to take up various roles as the situation demands in a familiar operating environment. This situation has the effect of diminishing any reliance on hard-edged dichotomies, blurring the traditional distinctions associated with the relative value of leading and following.

There are several factors taken from the research data that account for followers not exercising upward influence. Here followers are subjected to the negative effects of their leader's superior control and formal authority. The follower becomes increasingly aware of the leader circumventing or ignoring them and generally being unreceptive, or tactically blocking their attempts to be upwardly influencing. What this does is create some tension and conflict with disagreements rendering the follower as having less credibility, which can continue to diminish further over time. As such the follower feels isolated in the 'out group', constraining their capacity to be influential. The leader freely intervenes in administrative matters without considering the follower or the negative reputational impact this has on the follower's standing amongst their peers or/and subordinates. The leader's evaluation of the follower's lack of credibility enhances the leader's view of their expertise and knowledge as being superior, vindicating the tactical blocking of the follower's interventional upward challenges.

The leader loses trust in their follower and distances themselves, making it easier for the leader in making telling decisions and more difficult for the follower to challenge or influence these decisions. The relationship suffers because downward communication flows are tightly controlled and upward interactions are met with a lack of receptivity. This situation hampers any possibility of working in partnership. The resultant effect is a lack of mutual understanding. Accordingly, this situation dissuades the increasingly disillusioned follower from supporting or challenging the leader. So they gradually cease making attempts to influence upwards for fear of confrontation or condemnation. What this does is isolate the follower in a position of low status, exposing them more to the many detrimental aspects of operating in a hostile organisational culture which elevates leader-centred control. This situation merely accentuates the asymmetry in the leader-follower relationship.

9.2 Research Question 2

In response to the second research question (If so, what are the felt consequences?), and specifically 'how' followers exercise upward influence, they do this by carefully selecting points of intervention, and focusing on the matters that they wish to influence. They consider their approach and reflect on its effectiveness to inform future approaches, and to understand more about what approaches appeal to their leader. Hence they see the need to readily adapt and alter patterns of behaviour and the messages they communicate to enhance their effectiveness. Accordingly, this encompasses decisions on whether to act overtly or covertly. Consequently, it can be the follower that decides on the distance they want from their leader by having control over the flow of upward information, and by determining whom they wish to include

when sharing information from within their network. The effect of this approach places different forms of influence on the leader from different directions.

Formal and informal opportunities to exchange views and seed ideas are seen as equally important to optimise upward influence. Subsequently, followers formulate an identity as an influencer by drawing on their credentials and experience to legitimise their role. They also proactively share leadership responsibility and take personal accountability for their performance and that of their organisational unit. They show empathy for people and act in a fair way, appealing to their leader's sense of leadership ethics and values. It is crucial to such followers to be adaptive to change, solutions-driven, and frequently demonstrate an ability to deal competently with complex and often politically sensitive matters. They use their network and a range of tactics subtly to make a difference so as not to radically detract, undermine, or threaten their leader's formal authority. Here, they recognise the importance of not disenfranchising the leader. Their actions are predicated on ensuring they have an adequate amount of knowledge, underpinned by an evidence-based approach to heighten their chances of manoeuvring the leader into a position of greater receptivity while decreasing the risk of failure.

The follower's ability to sensitively navigate organisational politics and optimise access to exploit sources of information (i.e. an extensive network of contacts and IT systems rights), equips them with knowledge and an evidence base not entirely within their leader's grasp. Accordingly, followers with this level of upward influence are very aware of what gives them credibility and how to enhance their position tactically. Influencing the leader also is a sense of duty to use their leadership authority appropriately to elicit the subordinate's respect. They do this by professionally valuing

and respecting their follower by listening and empowering them. Although, being duty bound to demonstrate 'good' leadership at the core of the leader's identity is shaped by their personal preferences for appropriate ways of being upwardly challenged. Subsequently, at its best, the relationship benefits via closeness and a bond between the leader and follower. Their shared sense of responsibility feeds into a mutual understanding of their purpose for being. What this does is attach a higher value to shared decision making, as fundamental to the continued strength of their partnership. Accordingly, what stands out is the profoundly normative/moral basis upon which each party feels compelled by in their dealings with each other. Contextually the level of support offered by the follower is impacted by the design of their role and the effectiveness of systems they use within the operating environment.

Regarding 'why' followers exercise an upward influence which forms part of the second research question, they need to have a sense that they are effective in their role on a personal level. This suggests that there is a dialectic here between feeling or being perceived as effective or ineffective which is dynamic and can change over time. As such, followers' experiencing are of sense making to triangulate their inner feelings and what they observe that informs perceptions. Subsequently, this means being conscious of having their voice heard, which is motivational and enhances job satisfaction. They also want to be highly regarded by their leader on a professional level. Subsequently, this means experiencing being empowered and respected as having credibility via a positive leader-centred evaluation. When they experience this, they can be more assured of their leader's support, have more authority, act autonomously, and invest less effort trying to influence their leader. Additionally, the follower benefits by having greater access to the leader on a personal level. Consequently, they are seen as equally as

important as the leader in the leadership process and have their views respected giving them greater confidence in their abilities. What facilitates the follower's position of influence in this respect is the leader's expectation that they should be open to the follower's viewpoint.

A strong emotional connection means the leader will confidently offer support in challenging circumstances, as well as encouragement to their follower to challenge them. Closeness in their relationship assures a heightened exchange of support, optimising their complementary strengths. This exchange of support has the effect of enhancing individual performance and offering protection from unfavourable consequences. Contextually the degree to which the follower is expected to add value, in the organisational structure, can influence their determination to make significant high-level contributions. Where followers are hampered or feel their values are under attack they will directly and aggressively challenge the leader, distancing themselves from the leader. Moreover, the follower will try and reposition themselves in circumstances where they are seen as too operational, which can resort to political game playing as a tactic to acquire more considerable upward influence.

The last aspect of the second research question concerns the 'consequences' associated with exercising upward influence for the follower. The augmentation of the perception of the follower as performing effectively in their role is positive consequence, which is more difficult to do without the leader's support. However, being too close to the leader may optimise upward influencing effects, but it can create tensions for people on the periphery of the leader-follower relationship. The obvious key consequence of not being upwardly influencing is a lack of authority and control resulting in tensions,

disagreements, and conflicts between the leader and follower. The follower's appetite for risk can determine much of this activity. The leader draws more on their formal authority to intervene and makes decisions within the follower's domain. Simultaneously, the follower questions the leader's legitimacy based on a lack of sufficient knowledge or expertise and managerial inexperience. Often the follower feels compelled to directly challenge the leader where they fundamentally disagree before conceding to the limitations of their upward influence. The consequences are appearing unprofessional to colleagues and losing the confidence to continue to challenge the leader for fear of the leader's reaction.

The leader establishes closer links with influential peers, enhancing their allegiance to a group identity which is significantly more superior. Consequently, this differentiates and augments the leader's position of power, while protecting the process of leadership from lower order group identities. Moreover, the leader becomes reluctant to seek their follower's view evaluating them as lacking professional competence and associating this with their follower's identity, which helps sustain their dominance. The dyadic relationship is symbolised by poor quality interactions and weak flows of bi-directional communication. The chasm between the leader and follower constrains the level of mutual support, which subsequently exposes stark contrasts in values. In the worst-case scenario, the leader can use their authority to confront and belittle the follower openly. Contextually the leader is better positioned to contain the follower. They do this by optimising their constitutionally ordained authority via re-engineering job designs and subtle control mechanisms embedded in organisational process. They can draw on a strong leader-centric organisational culture to normalise the bypassing of the follower, or make associations between corporate frailties and the fallibilities of followers. A

rebut to this is for the follower to become disenfranchised and to refocus on contextual factors that offer some personal protection.

9.3 Research Question 3

In terms of the third research question (What are the possible meanings of effectiveness?), the research data presents several factors concerned with follower effectiveness. For the follower, effectiveness is managing the upward flow of information and ensuring it is used appropriately. It is taking ownership by adopting the identity of an 'influencer' and acting in support of their leader's priorities. These followers consciously monitor the appropriateness of their interactions with their leader to adapt their identity accordingly. They establish an emotional connection with their leader by being motivated to act beyond self-interest, and by embracing academic values, symbolic of their loyalty and commitment. Accordingly, this outlook means they are prepared to speak out, seeing challenging higher authority as a legitimate and critical feature of their role. Such challenges are informed by reference to personal notions of power and knowing when it is best to interact tactically. Correspondingly, the leader is receptive as a consequence of their resonating positive experiences of being appropriately upwardly challenged by the follower. The leader's respect for their follower's background and persona and for what they have achieved within the organisation enhances the follower's effectiveness. The follower reciprocates this. Hence the leader self-identifies with their follower's professionalism, assisted by the leader's shared experiences of similar challenges of working in a complex and highly political environment.

The mutual feeling of trust and respect become implicit overtime, and both parties adapt and learn from each other. They communicate well; being mindful of a need to avoid invading each other's territory. Moreover, they have a common understanding so they can act autonomously with confidence in one another. Such circumstances bring them closer together, and the leader values their follower's different perspectives. What this means is that there is more scope for compromise in the dyadic relationship, and enhancement of their mutual willingness and capacity to protect each other. The leader's sense of the follower's effectiveness elicits greater acknowledgement of being downwardly supportive. It also means that the leader is more prone to viewing the follower as integral to the leadership process so much so that the formal relational asymmetry is more often an irrelevance. Subsequently, this sustains the mutual sense of the dyad's effectiveness; augmenting the belief that this approach delivers better decision making by combining different skill sets without either party feeling compromised.

The leader becomes more aware of their follower's tactical approaches when other leaders report positive experiences. The follower's tactics tend to be subtle, whereby the leader can acknowledge their follower's tactics as non-threatening, making them both more effective. Ultimately the follower's effectiveness can be such that the leader has a fear of losing them and their contribution, which presents an implicit and informal follower power base. The leader's anxiety can increase over time by the follower's acquisition of knowledge of the broader context that can be used to position their leader. The leader can and will compare and contrast the quality of followers in a similar position across the organisation, and arrive at an evaluative position concerning the value and credibility of their follower.

Where the research data consists of unfavourable experiences of upward influence, this presents aspects of followership deemed ineffectual. While the leader has an operational reliance on their follower, however, this does not detract from the leader's right to make key decisions. This challenges the follower to achieve the right balance between accountability and responsibility without the equivalent authority of their leader. Certainly, there are several respondents who describe their experiences of being led by an Academic Leader that can and will filter out information rendering them as only receptive to what they agree with, accentuating the asymmetry of authority. Accordingly, the leader will freely intervene to professionalise support services, viewing this as contributing to their effectiveness. They will also view this as compensating for their follower's lack of credibility, without considering the follower's own sense of effectiveness. Here the follower is exposed to the power of their leader's authority to circumvent and ignore them and their role. This renders them as less effective over time. This can also be intensified where the leader feels not consulted and that the follower is imposing their view on them, or acting independently without adequate upward consultation. Subsequently, the leader will undo what the follower has done by drawing on their formal authority to take greater control.

The leader frequently counters upward challenges by pointing out flaws in their follower's thought processes, such as not accounting for all of the subjective variables or augmenting any knowledge gaps. Such downward challenging is propelled by the leader's perception of the follower as not strategic in thought, and not in touch with academic endeavours. The leader evaluates the follower on what they observe, influenced by their follower's position in the organisation. At worst, they can be deemed incompetent through performance (lacking skills or acting unprofessionally), or by

being in stark misalignment/disagreement with the leader (blocking or rejecting downward influence). Indeed, this is very evident in the experience of one respondent when consciously making an attempt to circumvent the input of a specific individual on an important matter at a critical point in a management meeting. The leader will tend to evaluate the follower based on historical performance, whereas the follower tends to focus on recent activity to validate their competence. Another distinction evident in the findings is that the leader evaluates operational competency as upwardly influencing, whereas the follower looks more to their strategic contributions, taking for granted what they do operationally.

Unfavourable evaluations negatively impact on information sharing and the level of confidence each party has in the other. In this situation, leaders are more sensitive to followers acting politically, and the follower is more sensitive to how the leader wields formal power, observing and critically assessing their superior's acts of control and authority. The self-evaluation of the leader's effectiveness is associated with what they believe are corporate expectations of them (managing, measuring, controlling, planning, and implementing). However, the self-evaluation of the follower's effectiveness is based on skilfully navigating the organisational terrain to merely do what they see as their job (creating opportunities to work beyond corporately imposed boundaries). This is particularly evident for one respondent who describes an experience of success being based on their ability to prevent the intervention of a superior in their area of responsibility over time. Nevertheless, a contextual dilemma for the follower is to have their effectiveness negatively impacted by associations with long-standing systems and process/procedural problems. Irrespective of their level of

control to eliminate or change these in the organisation, they are still expected to take ownership, which is another measure of their effectiveness.

9.4 Main discussion

This section of this chapter presents what the findings mean, and analyses these meanings against the relevant theoretical perspectives. Here the objective is to compare and contrast the findings and reveal entirely new knowledge on the topic captured by this study. Accordingly, two sub-headings are used to identify associations between effective followership and upward influence; firstly analysing the follower and then analysing relational dynamics. What can be seen in the following detailed discussion is that the findings have accentuated several factors of significance in responding to the research questions. A key factor here is that individual characteristics of a follower can only account for some of the reasoning behind why they are deemed effective or otherwise. Relational and contextual factors significantly contribute to how ‘effectiveness’ is often evaluated, characterising followership as a circumstantial phenomenon.

The leader’s receptivity to influence is equally as significant as the follower’s desire to engage in upward influencing behaviour. The motives of leaders and followers are not that well understood but are primarily associated with expectations linked to a role as opposed to a person. Closeness can have the effect of distancing the dyad from its community of stakeholders. Accordingly, this brings in to scope the evaluation of the effectiveness of the follower as more readily determined by onlookers who begin to evaluate the leader and follower in the same way. In such proximity, the follower is less sensitive to assessing the appropriateness of the leader’s actions and acting as an ethical

barometer. Accordingly, it is possible to delve more into how and why these factors are accentuated by reviewing and deconstructing this study's findings in more detail. These findings for discussion are categorised based on the key themes that emerged from the research data.

9.4.1 Follower agency, knowledgeability and proactivity

The findings that relate to follower agency, knowledgeability and proactivity expose what it is that distinguishes the effectiveness of followership within the same people.

9.4.1.1 Follower Control (Authority & Partnership)

Followers' favourable experiences are of being inherently powerful in their own right, which provides a power base that equips them with upward influence. What this alludes to is Giddens (1984) work on structuration theory, specifically the dynamic equilibrium between agency and structure. It is this balance which is at the core of what is innately powerful about these individuals expanding upon Collinson's (2011) claim that leader influence is one aspect of power. What this suggests is that followers who have influence must, therefore, wield a form of power too, albeit in an upward direction. Subsequently, this is a significant factor when considering how followers utilise their upward influence relative to how leaders use their supportive or manipulative power. Kelley's (1992) early assertion that followers are indeed powerful is substantiated by their capacity to be active independent thinkers. Accordingly, followers experience effectiveness when they enhance their innate power base by developing a tactical mastery of organisational followership. Assisted contextually by an emerging corporate need for enhancing organisational leadership, which creates opportunities, followers are motivated to adapt to optimise their corporate impact tactically. They take well-thought-

out steps to proactively amplify their agency, to realise their personal and organisational goals while minimising their risk of failure. Accordingly, followers in this mode of followership are less concerned with a lack of formal authority, being more focused on discovering and expertly utilising any means of generating upward influencing power to be deemed 'effective'.

Followers' favourable experiences centre on what it means to them to possess and appropriately utilise their knowledge, experience, competency, personal qualities, skills, and a network of prominent contacts. Here there is a desire to strengthen their favourable reputation, rendering them as influential. These factors crucially afford top-down credibility to followers with their leaders. Interestingly, this resonates with prescriptive perspectives of followership as displaying traits favourable to leaders, but not by merely being passive recipients of the leader's influence. Favourable experiences allude to what can underpin how followers seek to emancipate themselves, drawing on Giddens' (1979) notion of translating knowledge into power. Subsequently, it is typical for well-received followership to be tactically influential in decision making, illustrative of substantial knowledge-based authority. Certainly, the emancipation of followers via a greater acknowledgement of the value of followership does not just occur because there is a moral or ethical imperative for this shift in our thinking, prominent in critical literature. These findings reveal that followers can genuinely demonstrate their worth beyond being stereotyped as subservient beings (Baker, 2007). Hence their leaders can acknowledge them as 'kindred spirits', making a particular distinction in how they admire them for their professional and personal characteristics.

These follower-centred experiences present effective followership as an adeptness at finding an appropriate contextual fit in the operating environment evident when empathising, finding solutions, cleverly navigating the politics, and respecting the hierarchy. However, this factor emphasises a need to focus more on what can be deemed ‘authentic’ when considering how followers’ experiences are readily associated with self-presentation. When the follower’s legitimacy as an influencer is more assured, they are more able to mobilise available authoritative resources to influence their leader. The leader is less likely to intervene, having the effect of greater subordinate empowerment. However, the core of working effectively in partnership is manifest in followers’ recollections of experiencing bi-directional flows of influence, whereby one direction of flow is not always greater than another.

Turning to unfavourable experiences and the lack of upward influence, the leader’s authority is more prominent than the follower’s power to influence. This finding strongly aligns with the mainstream attempt to make prominent the leader’s supremacy, and the follower’s role as being subservient to the leader’s formal authority. Hence, it reasserts the essentialist traditions associated with heroic leaders (in the sense that their hierarchal position and academic status renders them superordinate in the operating environment). What underpins this view is respondent describing their experiences of not having a voice on certain issues, only Academic Leaders being allowed to do certain tasks in a University, and references to the messenger being more important than the message. Subsequently, the experience of agency, knowledgeability and proactivity amongst followers are less significant when compared to their leaders’ authority. Subsequently the practice of followership is frequently experienced as an exposure to the leaders’ formal authority being used to exert a level of hierarchical power required

to constrain, hamper, and undermine followers. The effect of this is to sustain the position of a relative lack of influence, resonating with Goffee and Jones (2001) critical condemnation of treating followers as an empty vessel waiting to be led or transformed by the leader. It also disregards the prominence of informal leadership practices that increasingly rely upon effective followers and followership in contemporary organisational settings. As such, the experience of suppression carries meaning in term of preventing followers from establishing a bond with their leader and working in partnership. Consequently, such experiences accentuate the traditional dichotomy, which has bestowed greater value on to the attributes possessed by leaders over those of their followers.

9.4.1.2 Follower Identity (Legitimacy & Support)

The meaning of followership as follower agency, knowledgeability and proactivity legitimise the followers' self-identity as an 'influencer' in the leadership process. These findings align strongly with critical conceptions of followership, specifically followers having the capacity to act under their agency and realise their aspirations. It also supports the critical notion that followers cannot be viewed as 'powerless masses' given the distinctiveness of their approaches as intelligent and proactive corporate contributors. The follower experience is of envisaging themselves as integral to the leadership process alongside leaders, and in doing so they erode traditional leader-follower dichotomies. Such experiences are prominent examples of how follower agency can alter structure (Giddens, 1984).

Followership is dynamic beyond the descriptive imperative to envisage follower dynamism as dependent upon a common purpose. Subsequently, this rejects Wortman's

assertion that one can only attain one's own goals by being influenced by the leader toward organisational goals. These findings indicate that the legitimisation of effective followership via identity is a desire for greater job satisfaction and willingness to be highly productive while thriving in the current working environment, as alluded to in Adair's (2008) 4D model of followership. Consequently, this informs why followers will feel comfortable frequently engaging in acts of upward influence. Moreover, it is apparent that what contributes significantly to a follower identity is balancing personal and professional interests against making meaningful alterations to their work environments. Therefore tactical upward influencing is experienced as a necessary means of sustaining the legitimacy of an identity more readily associated with effective followership.

While some followers are well equipped to be influential, occasional and significant displays of support for the leader enhance the confidence to construct a powerful identity as an 'influencer', core to effective followership. There is an association here with implicit voice theories, in terms of engendering a self-belief in 'speaking up' beyond conceiving of such actions as personally precarious. Upward support also expands followership's potential to manipulate control mechanisms to followers advantage alluded to in Gidden's (1982) work. Certainly, Carsten et al. (2010) present a distinction between how followers self-construct their role, and experiences of followers self-identifying with being active and proactive. Such experiences diminish the significance of a narrow leader-centric constructed view of followership. Accordingly, such meaning supports critical arguments that acknowledge effective followership as followers tactically participating and actively opposing; evident in follower experiences of how they appropriately engage in activities when supporting

the leader. It is possible here to draw parallels with Mowday's (1978) observations of how managers draw on their motivations, perceptions of power, and self-presentation to inform how offering and measuring upward support carries meaning.

The follower's skills and knowledge of systems provide privileged access to data. This factor facilitates how their intellect is unique and proactive in its application to analysing problems and offering reasoned solutions that would otherwise not exist. Accordingly, such experiences reaffirm the view that to devalue the contribution of followership is equally damaging to the leader and organisational leadership (Alcorn, 1992). It also supports the critical notion that a balance of power is achieved by access to resources and knowing how to use them to achieve outcomes. Accordingly, the leader's vulnerabilities, being their range of skills and attributes, and reliance on many leadership actions of followers to generate organisational success, rationalises why follower support as effective followership is necessary for leadership and leaders to function effectively. Subsequently, an emancipation of the follower agency occurs as a direct consequence of the leader feeling supported by a level of competence reflected through followership. The proactivity of followers sustains this level of heightened confidence. There is a dilemma here as to what extent the leader-centric view of effective followership is subtly reasserted. However, this is somewhat countered by followers' experiences of not being regarded as unsupportive, even when responding in a manner other than ones preferred by their superior.

Unfavourable experiences of followers being subjected to leaders constraining or demeaning their endeavours elicits meaning when evaluating followership, whereby it is incredibly difficult to legitimately identify with followership being influential in the

leadership process. Followers' acts of followership in this situation to remedy their identity dilemma are deemed risky, and can often expose them to greater scrutiny and condemnation. What underpins this is leaders implicitly associating what they deem as incompetence with a core identity. This situation exposes an association with implicit person theories that define the leader's performance expectations of their follower, holding meaning for an evaluation of followership in the dyad. Such disparaging leader-centric perceptions of follower capabilities decrease job satisfaction and ultimately self-worth, which can further damage followership. Parallels can be drawn here with Adair's (2008) 4D followership model, as prompting followers to be disengaged and/or disgruntled.

These negative effects on followership disregard critical assertions that followers are innately more knowledgeable and oppositional. Instead, legitimisation for followers is merely via their corporate identity as either conforming or rebellious. Followers' unfavourable experiences highlight the prominence of the leader's right to lead as overriding any operational reliance on their followership. Accordingly, followers can experience constraints that impact on how they can formulate a supportive identity based followership, without succumbing to being channelled in to narrow interpretations of good corporate citizenship. Such experiences rely on the essentialism that is critiqued through a critical lens as exaggerated and ill-founded, largely discounting the social and discursive construction aspects of leadership.

9.4.1.3 Follower Influencing Tactics (Challenging & Positioning)

Followers experience having control over the upward flow of information, and draw on this factor as an influencing tactic to either elevate their status or viewpoint. Moreover,

followers' favourable experiences of achieving desired outcomes rely on proactively optimising formal and informal opportunities to interact with leaders. Such experiences hold meaning in terms of effective followership being about a heightened conscious awareness of the importance of timing and various political sensitivities attached to topics of discussion. All of which alludes to several aspects of tactical upward influencing, which present themselves as a common foundation for followership effectiveness. These factors become crucially significant when attempting to enhance informal power by operating as knowledgeable and proactive agents to exemplify the value of followership. Such agents expertly draw on these personal characteristics and an array of tactical tools to habitually improve perceptions of effectiveness.

Followers experience challenging their leader to either produce a new outcome or alter an existing decision or behaviour. Accordingly, there are an array of experiences of successfully challenging leaders by drawing on credibility, and tactically utilising more tangible means of upward influence. Specifically, ensuring that evidence supports followers' viewpoints to increase leader receptivity and avoid outright failure. This approach is only somewhat reliant upon relational preferences and appropriate leader-follower combinations (Lord et al., 1999). Such factors diminish as a key consideration for effective followership as the volume and relevance of the evidence presented increases. Where evidence is less compelling, or there is a significant subjective misalignment of views, then the instigation of an upward challenge aligns with Chaleff's (2015) notion of followers being intelligently disobedient. Experiences of practicing followership in this situation reveals the emphasis followers place on how they operate; subtly and sensitively when electing to engage in tactical manoeuvring, as opposed to evidencing the legitimacy of their viewpoint.

Proactive enhancement of the position of upward influence features prominently; evident in experiences of followership as seeking opportunities for self-development, sustaining a good relationship with the leader, and by broadening networks both internally and externally. There is some alignment here with Thody's (2003) work on behavioural types in education, whereby followers promote their personal qualities with relationship enhancement. Accordingly, the leaders can more readily relate to such followership behaviours as favourable. The positive proactive followership also resonates with critical conceptions of how knowledgeable agents transform situations, utilising their interpretative schema to make decisions, which happen to tactically better position them. Accordingly, such experiences of followership indicate that a range of tactics can be applied underpinned by control of the emotive, powerful, and personal factors that inform the choice of upward influence strategies (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988). Such experiences coincide with the significance of reflecting on interactions and adapting, drawing on an evolving knowledge of the leader's characteristics and values to tactically enhance the credibility of followership. To some extent, this resonates with prescriptive notions of a leader-centric perception of what constitutes effective followership. However, some followers' experiences indicate that leader's adaptations can also enhance upward influence whereby effective followership can then substitute or neutralise the leader's influence.

There is a benefit to the follower of effective followership being associated with a greater scope to dynamically switch between, hard, soft, and rational influencing strategies based on target reactions. Accordingly, these adjustment can camouflage influence attempts to avoid aggressive tactics. There are also benefits attached to identity adaptation when managing interactions and in strategically using of information

to sustain the advantages of upward influence. Effective followership is readily associated with being highly competent in the use of interpersonal skills and the control of self-expression as well as drawing on influencing tactics relative to one another (i.e. reasoning, assertiveness, and favour rendering). The effort required to enact followership in this way is geared toward enhancing perceptions of liking and similarity amongst leaders (Goffman, 1969, Wayne et al., 1997). Such experiences align with expectancy theory; influencing toward specific workplace goals, which means cognitively evaluating the probability of success and alternative courses of action. The suggestion being that effective followership has meaning as a refined ability to evaluate a given situation and being adept at predicting and understanding the selection of influence tactics. Such foresight occurs in conjunction with assigning meaning to leader behaviour, underpinning the significance of symbolic interactionism, to interpret one's own thoughts and feelings to make adjustments to actions. Subsequently, new understandings integrate with existing knowledge and experience and combine to optimise the potential of followership as a position of influence (Eoyang, 1983).

Direct influencing tactics are less risky for followers who are credible in the context of followership. Here relevant experiences hold meaning in terms of a greater capacity to not only position but to reposition to strengthen upward influence across a range of leaders. Practically this can occur via informal information sharing as an influencing tactic to exert more influence through networking to positively enhance the followers' corporate reputation. However, there is no acknowledgement of this tactic in influencing literature. When considering this point in more depth it reinforces the critical contention; that the innate relational qualities and contextually dependent nature of leadership expose the criticality of followers and followership skills as integral to

leadership (Rosenau, 2004). Indeed, experiences of upwardly instigating favoured change, eliciting support, acquiring resources, obtaining access to information, and realising some personal benefit illustrate that effective followership is strongly aligned with the intelligent selection of the right combination of targets and tactics. Contextually this also means optimising how the functionality of followership emerges through job designs in the organisation that facilitate how followers have a capacity to take up various positions of influence. Accordingly, those with heavily academic related roles are more powerfully positioned to make use of influencing tactics. They more frequently experience what it is to be embroiled in complex social processes of interaction through which controls emerge. What this alludes to is the extent structural positioning is considered a distinguishing factor in privileging the follower access and enhancing the contribution of followership to the decision making process.

The unfavourable experiences of followers expose an enhanced risk attached to followership as acting independently or challenging the leader. The effect is to further constrain the meagre agency of followers, particularly felt when their values are under threat. Subsequently, this situation elicits follower frustration in having their capacity to intervene to lessen this threat hampered by their leader. The critical arguments that contend resistance is necessary and followers are compelled to act by ethical considerations are central to this followership dilemma. Underpinning this are followers' experiences of evaluating their appetite for risk. Where this is particularly apparent is when acts of followership are an ethical barometer when faced with a range of consequences emanating from challenging the leader's right to power. Here followers can experience constraints on their followership in how they can apply dissenting strategies, so are confined to softer influencing tactics such as either providing evidence

or repetition and offering solutions. Accordingly, there is a deliberate discounting of more forceful tactics as almost certainly deemed too adversarial from a leader perspective.

Weakened followers become more conscious of grudgingly withdrawing their upward challenge, motivated now by practicing the sort of followership which provides self-protection. Subsequently, such followers have diminishing agencies, but experience drawing on their proactivity and knowledgeability but to avoid or lessen any negative consequences. Accordingly, this is distinct from the same followership qualities being used to enhance their upward influence, prominent as favourable experiences. What can be seen here is an alternative view of how followers self-identify with their followership role. There is an association between this observation and the work of Carsten et al. (2010). It is specifically revealing followers performing ‘passively’ and ‘actively’ but not as a gesture of loyalty and support for the leader. Instead, they feel compelled to do so to remain within the safe boundaries set for them by their leader. Such unfavourable experiences reassert a belief in followership as speaking up as futile and dangerous, alluding to implicit voice theories.

The critical conception of followers drawing on their perceptions to determine the extent to which upward influence is abandoned and replaced with resistance, as an alternative followership position, is central to these followers’ experiences. However, this occurs incrementally over time and in subtle ways. Why it happens, this way is because of the reluctance of followers to regress and elect not to engage in tactical influencing. Ultimately this involves relinquishing an approach to followership that helps them achieve their desired goals and accepting the very real risk of failure.

Paradoxically, influencing literature suggests that this is the very reason why followers are compelled to attempt to upward influence in the first instance. However, these followers' experiences reveal a point at which followership identity takes the form of self-preservation which becomes a greater imperative.

Negative leader-centric evaluations of professional competence weaken the position of influence of these followers. Moreover, the impact of a range of contextual factors impinges on their capacity to be effective in their role. The mainstream literature advocates an unquestioning validation of the leader's position to evaluate their followers and associated followership, but without considering the value of alternative perspectives. Equally the leader's preconceptions that can distort such evaluations are not acknowledged. Ironically, the felt impact of factors that suppress follower influence in these findings disregards the enduring scholarly arguments in the mainstream. Specifically, Schermerhorn Jr and Bond (1991) and Kelley (1988) advocate acts of followership as being fundamental. Consequently, the impact of contextual factors is less prominent in the mainstream but better understood as a contributing factor in critical studies. The prominent critical assertion here, which aligns with these findings, is that followership is prevented from being dynamically attuned and appropriately reactive to situational variables to render it 'effective'.

Unfavourable experiences of followers show that the sustainability of their weakened followership position can be brought about by leaders having the authority to fully control their role and how they do their job. This point resonates with critical condemnation of heroic and hierarchical leaders acts to regulate how followers are expected to follow (practice followership). Certainly it is the social power that

Academic Leaders wield which often goes beyond their hierarchical positioning and allows them to operate through an heroic leader status. Here the follower experience is of being consigned to low level influencing groups, limiting their capacity to tactically augment upward influence through a followership that contributes to how followers can be moderators, substitutes, and constructors of leadership. Equally, they are not well positioned to have an impact by withdrawing their support for their leader. By having their capacity to apply influencing tactics restricted they struggle to make their organisational voice heard. They cannot readily apply rationality which is known to produce greater positive relational outcomes for the follower. Similarly, they cannot respond by being assertive given the known tendency for such tactics to result in negative outcomes, particularly in terms of evaluating performance and hampering any possibility of building trust with the leader.

9.4.2 Power dynamics and relations

The findings that relate to power dynamics and relations reveal what it is that can distinguish followership effectiveness in terms of the dyadic relationship. These findings draw attention to how factors external to the follower, such as the leader and context, are just as crucial in facilitating upward influence.

9.4.2.1 Dyadic Control (Authority & Partnership)

Followers' favourable experiences of how authority presents itself in the contested space between them and their leader, allude through various examples to an underlying mutual recognition of the symbiotic nature of their relationship. Such experiences resonate strongly with the critical notion of shifting interdependences and power asymmetries and acknowledge that power is two-way with leaders being dependent on

followers (mutual dependence between leadership-followership) and followers having some autonomy. Such notions draw attention to the significance of influence as central to the functioning of relational leadership theories (Higgins et al., 2003). Subsequently, control via authority is experienced as less invasive, which makes way for followership to be more effective in terms of persuasive and relationship-based influence tactics (Fu et al., 2004). There is a mutual acknowledgement that the leader cannot be the sole driving force, emphasising dependence on the knowledge and operational experience embedded in followership. There is an association here with acknowledging the significance of many small acts of followership as alluded to in critical literature. As such where the followers' experience is favourable, they are more inclined to draw on open and strategic influencing tactics, and less likely to consider a need for covert tactics such as manipulation.

The leader's legitimate use of their formal power crucially incorporates a duty to their followers. There is a fine line though between genuinely facilitating the follower's organisational voice and ensuring conformity by design, with the follower being an instrument of their own subjugation. This effect is evident in instances whereby followers have greater influence over matters that are less significant to their capacity to draw on followership to resist formal leadership on matters of major importance. Similarly, the follower is conscious of an ethical duty not to exploit their empowered authority, which carries meaning in terms of how followers treat people informed by their leader's core values. Accordingly, these findings acknowledge how leaders can subtly influence follower identity, evident as a mutual tempering of power and authority. Subsequently, the use of their authority via followership that is aligned with organisationally sanctioned behaviour can be an influencing tactic. Here followership

is about present a detachment from destructive behaviours and self-interested motives which are deemed harmful (Egri et al., 2000). Subsequently followers that operate within such parameters are able to use their heightened authority in the dyadic relationship to draw on a full range of influencing tactics (Ringer and Boss, 2000). What this alludes to is followership as a form of organisational power and influence, relying on the acceptability of political behaviour to pursue self-interest (e.g. promotion or financial gain) without breaching organisational policy or norms, rendering such approaches as functional and non-threatening.

The sharing of control in the dyadic relationship elicits a high level of trust and openness, whereby each party can interact authentically to nurture the benefits of partnership working. These findings strongly align with the significance attached to the relational authenticity outlined in the literature review. However, this is achieved not via positive top-down role modelling as alluded to by Gardner et al. (2005), but more via a bi-directional effect. The high level of interpersonal trust discourages the use of assertiveness and upward appeal. What this suggests is that the follower has greater agency in leader-follower power relations. Accordingly, the experiences of leaders and followers in this situation are of the leader speaking freely and the follower feeling able to critique the leader's thinking or decision making. It is also evident in these findings that the integration of leadership and followership in this way means that followers experience less concern about potential risks. Subsequently, there appears to be greater scope to be intelligently disobedient (Chaleff, 2015) when operating in a partnership. Such experiences underpin how influencing behaviour impacts on levels of trust, openness, confidence and credibility (Redding, 1972) affecting how opinions are given and received (Danserau and Markham, 1987).

The experience of effective partnership working blurs boundaries, diminishing the need for responsibility and accountability to be distinctive between the leader and follower; disregarding power asymmetries. This situation starkly contrasts with mainstream theorising which relies on distinguishing between leadership and followership; disregarding any potential for overlap. Favourable experiences of partnership working show that the comprehension of leadership and followership does not position each concept at opposing ends of a spectrum. Such experiences of partnership working reject the notion that the design of each concept is to prescribe and validate a solitary directional flow of influence stringently. Hence the critical claim of shifting identities making established dichotomies impossible to capture is apparent in these experiences of the dynamics of partnership working. There is a greater sense of a physical and emotional bond or closeness, emphasising the relevance of leader distance theorising in the context of followership theorising. It is this connection which heightens levels of communication, understanding, and compromise, which are then central to how the leader-follower relationship sustains its effectiveness. In this scenario followership is informed by experiences of a greater sense of loyalty and respect, meaning that followers then are less likely to withdraw their support to damage their leader's professional and/or corporate standing (Chaleff, 1995).

Positive experiences of partnership working assist followers in tactically transcending what informal authority they have with their leader. Subsequently, they have greater scope to make the best use of what formal authority they have in terms of knowledge and expertise to effectively influence upwards (Jarrett, 2017). What this means is that these followers are not always required to work harder to be upward influencing in a partnership. Accordingly, this situation alludes to the benefits of viewing followers

more as full participants in the leadership process evident in many critical perspectives of followership. What this implies is that followership that works in partnership creates more opportunities to tactically use sources of power, which rely less on force and more on subtle forms of authority (Fairholm, 1993). These findings also touch upon what it is like to operate in the culture of an innovative organisation, being less inclined to inhibit as opposed to cultivating partnership working (Rao et al., 1995).

Unfavourable follower experiences of control occur when power dynamics and relations prevent or constrain upward influence. Consequently, communication is weak and confidence in one another is very low. There is an association here with relational schemas as presented in the mainstream by Tsai et al. (2017), whereby interpersonal congruence is absent, so both parties rely more on short term economic exchanges. Subsequently, they are less likely to invest time and effort in cultivating high-quality interactions (Epitropaki et al., 2013). What this means is that authority is experienced as the foundation of a leader-centred understanding of leadership (Bennis, 1999) and subsequently followership too. This finding resonates with critical assertions of how power can be used to exclude and marginalise of followers and followership from the leadership process. Such experiences disregard Kellerman's (2013) claim that there is a fundamental shift in patterns of dominance and deference, and transference of power and influence from leaders to followers.

Negative experiences of control emphasise the utilisation and manipulation of cultural constraints, formal authority, and expertise alluding to Mintzberg's (1985) view of organisational politics. Here the leader's superior control and formal authority are used to preclude any corrective feedback, so can only be viewed as a top-down flow of

influence based on the leader's divine insight. Accordingly followership lacks influence made more challenging by the political context that augments the followers' sense of not having adequate power to protect themselves. Leaders optimise the formal organisational power invested in them to diminish the followers' formal and informal power (Jarrett, 2017). The resultant tensions and disagreements experienced by both parties can elicit conflict. All of these unfavourable experiences inform what factors are worthy of consideration when choosing influence tactics. Rao et al. (1995) identify the relative power of the influencer, the situation, and immediate supervisor as key factors. Accordingly, followership becomes exposed to an unfavourable combination of these factors and followers are more consciously accepting of the risk attached to 'speaking up' in a hostile climate (Morrison and Milliken, 2000).

Being prevented from working in partnership is experienced by followers as the leader accentuates the asymmetry of authority. Leaders do this by filtering out the followers' views and consciously controlling their overall receptivity. What this does is hamper what Potter and Rosenbach (2006) refer to as the 'relationship initiative', creating a stark demarcation between the leadership and followership. This situation challenges somewhat the critical assertion that power and resistance are implicated, co-constructed, and interdependent processes (Mumby, 2005) because the follower feels powerless and it is the leader's resistance that outweighs that of their follower. In such instances the leader's power is not also limited because the follower isn't resisting to the same extent and as a retort to the leader's reluctance to being upwardly influenced. Underpinning factors are evident in influencing literature as managerial information filtering systems, the leader's perception of downward influence, and reactions to feeling threatened all impinging on the capacity to associate upward influence with followership.

Both parties experience a weakening of information sharing and an intensified distancing, which becomes more of a consideration in the leader's consciousness when the follower acts without consultation. There is some alignment here with Kelley's (1988) early work on categorising followers using dependency on the leader, and also weighing up the risks of being disobedient, even if validated by the followers' intellect (Chaleff, 2015). Accordingly, the loss of capacity to draw on consultation tactics, personal appeal, and inspirational appeal to be upwardly influencing, leads to experiencing a need to adopt a mode of followership that relies more on covert ways of operating. This situation is made worst by experiences of leaders taking opportunities to circumvent followers. Such dynamics underpin the critical notion of control and resistance as mutually reinforcing but in contradictory ways.

9.4.2.2 Dyadic Identity (Legitimacy & Support)

Favourable experiences tend to align with a high level of mutual respect for the person and their professionalism in the dyadic relationship, legitimising the identity of each party. There is an association here with implicit theories, whereby leaders and followers use their observations of each other to find a fit with what they believe is prototypical. Subsequently, this situation facilitates the use of collaboration and apprising influencing tactics (Yukl and Seifert, 2002). The meaning this holds is evident in terms of followers requiring the support and encouragement of leaders to legitimise the level of authority in the practice of followership impacting on its effectiveness. This finding underpins the critical assertion that followership is better understood by considering the dynamics of asymmetrical power relations and the insecurities in everyday life that inform how the subjective nature of power relations consumes individuals (Collinson, 2003). It also somewhat aligns with Burns notion of the follower's need for leader attention, and the

work of Howell and Mendez (2008) focusing on the follower's role being interactive, independent, and shifting. Ironically this suggests that to some degree followership has a heightened on the leader's endorsement to feel that those that practice followership can do so autonomously to be effective. What this emphasises is the interrelationship between autonomy and dependence alluded to as a way of conceiving of power within social systems in contexts of social interaction by Giddens (1984). This effect indicates the means by which top down and bottom up positions are more integrated, which as seen here can shape the identity of followership while sanctioning power to define behavioural norms inherent in the practice of leadership.

Favourable follower experiences indicate a tendency to be unaware of any leader-centred control, but highly conscious of a desire to take individual ownership, which informs the legitimisation of the followership identity. What this alludes to is the 'assuming responsibility' aspect of Chaleff's (1995) work, in the context of organisational systems of shared leadership responsibility, accentuating the significance of knowing when not to invade the other's territory. The identification and protection of the territory to some extent defines the organisation's culture, in as much as where there is contested terrain the effectiveness of followership is concerned with choices between upward pressure or persistence, or rationale persuasion and fact-based logic (Cable and Judge, 2003). Any tendency in this regard can reinforce the legitimacy of followership as influential in the leadership process, or it can be drawn upon by the leader to question its legitimacy. What this alludes to is what extent leadership and followership need to have shared interests to reach a position of mutual legitimacy to be deemed effective. A response in these findings is to operate in the realms of an 'influencing relationship' (Rost, 1993), whereby there is the experience of a need to

practice followership in a way that assures the effectiveness of the leader in order to augment the followers' agency and upward influence.

The linkage between identity and support is experienced as favourable when there is a similar view shared of the challenges faced by those tasked with leadership and followership roles in the operating environment. There are strong parallels here with the work of Riggs and Porter (2017) in respect to there being a high level of ILT congruence, which has a positive impact on the LMX. Accordingly, the capacity of followership to be correspondingly and complementarily leader-like not only elicits the leader's support but also blurs distinctions between the qualities evident in good leaders and effective followers. Underpinning this point is Jarrett's (2017) argument that to have 'influence' you have to understand the terrain. So having a similar view represents a triangulation of what that terrain looks like and the meaning this holds for both leadership and followership. Consequently, this is the basis upon which mutual support in navigating this terrain is viewed as delivering the greatest possibility of mutually acceptable outcomes.

Adopting an identity centred on being supportive is evident in experiences of mutually complementing the respective strengths of leadership and followership to protect the dyad from unfavourable consequences. These findings move beyond a tendency in the mainstream on a concern for how the follower is expected to support the leader. Subsequently, these findings align more with the critical notion of followers practising a followership that assumes responsibility for their own and their leader's behaviour (Chaleff, 2008). Furthermore, this also alludes to modes of political rule as a co-determination approach, whereby both parties work together by drawing on their

respective power bases. Sustaining an identity of support occurs through experiences of not undermining or threatening the leadership position and supporting the leader's priorities. What this alludes to is the critical call for more attention to followers' perceptions of leaders as dominant and their subsequent influencing effects on the dyadic relationship by how such perceptions shape followership.

Favourable follower experiences reveal the capacity within followership to affect the bi-directional flow of influence. What this does is facilitate open and strategic persuasion (Krone, 1991) and informs the follower's selection of tactics based on how their acts of followership are relatively complementary or damaging to their leader's position. There is an underpinning recognition here that to be blatantly out of tune with the leader negatively impacts on one's capacity to have upward influence. Subsequently, the leader's sense of the follower loyalty and commitment elicits mutual support, aligning with characteristics of an 'effective follower' type that features in Thody's (2003) work. From a critical perspective, this finding aligns with the leader changing and activating appropriate follower identities (Lord and Brown, 2001, 2004), alluding to how organisational power can be embedded, structural, and pervasive. Although favourable experiences of the leader protecting and supporting the follower at critical moments are not readily associated with followership as a mechanism of leader-centred control. Instead, followers associate such experiences with greater application of followership via a wide range of bottom-up influence tactics, only made possible because of their favourable relationship, rendering stronger tactics as less threatening to the leader (Kipnis et al., 1980).

Where experiences were found to be unfavourable concerning identity, the findings show that the leader's poor evaluation of the follower credibility questions the legitimacy of followership. Such top-down questioning of legitimacy strongly aligns with the mainstream view of leaders being supremely positioned to evaluate subordinates, and construct what is deemed effective or ineffective about followership behaviour evident in Thody's (2003) study. It also exposes a need to consider the follower perspective too, which is conspicuous by its absence in the evaluation process. Accordingly, this finding reaffirms critical concerns of an assumption of there being shared interests as central to the functioning of the dyad, organisational authority as unproblematic, and resistance as abnormal and irrational. The negative impact this has on followers is to constrain the followership identity, carrying meaning in terms of impacting on the capacity and willingness of those that practice followership to apply open or strategic persuasion as preferred upward influencing tactics. This situation leads to a reciprocation of the questioning of the leader's legitimacy to lead, highlighting the need for leadership to operate on the basis of sufficient knowledge, understanding, expertise, and managerial experience. Such experiences illustrate the significance of Zaleznik's (1965) work on subordinacy, in terms of inner conflict rationalising the level of support or intentional undermining of the leader. Additionally, this also alludes to Chaleff's (2008) 'individualist' categorisation of follower behaviour, and Collinson's (2006) identification of the 'resistant-self' as a follower identity that informs how followership is manifest in an organisational environment.

The contexts that surround unfavourable experiences of legitimising follower identity present an association with the political rule in organisations. The experience of the organisation's political rule can be as the prevalent barrier to forming a legitimate

identity, which facilitates the challenging of autocracy with technocracy via organisational followership. Alongside this finding, followers tend to identify more with their strategic level contributions when self-evaluating their followership performance. The dilemma here for followers is that their leaders' expectations of effective followership predominately focus more on operational competencies. Accordingly, this misalignment with the leader viewpoint takes no account of adaptable types of followership behaviour. So in that sense, this situation resonates with the prescriptive perspective of followership. The identity of followers, as a body of knowledgeable and intelligent people capable of more than mere obedience, is delegitimised by the leader-centred view of effective followership. This approach informs how leaders can and will act to contain followership within their view of employee effectiveness. The resultant effect is that the subordinate who drifts outside these implicit parameters is marginalised from the leadership process, and is only then able to contribute at the lowest possible levels.

There can be an association in these findings with the work of Stech (2008) on states in power relations, which emphasises that which is absent amongst these unfavourable follower experiences. Specifically, the significance for the leader of the expertise, self-motivation, and self-direction, that all inform how followers construct their identity and how followership is typically performed. It is this observation that offers a rationale for leader experiences presenting a tendency to evaluate the worth of followership on historical performance, while those tasked with followership tend to gravitate towards their most recent success as a measure of their effectiveness. Accordingly, leaders frame their unfavourable experiences by recalling feeling a need to typically intervene in operation matters, as a means of compensating for a lack of follower credibility that

reflects negatively on followership. Such experiences expose the significance of the interplay between power and subjectivity of meaning, embedded in the dynamics of the dyadic relationship.

The leadership identity is characteristically informed by a strong leader-centric organisational culture, which is accentuated when leaders act on what they see as corporate expectations to demonstrate their effectiveness. This questions what is portrayed in the mainstream as authentic self-expression through reactions, cooperation, and identification with the leader and corporate leadership. It also draws on Blackshear's (2004) notion of a followership foundation in context and bound by traditions. Here followers are expected to internalise the dominance of academic leadership and seamlessly integrate with it to be deemed effective. Evident here is the critical condemnation of historical power and status differentials been accepted as natural and unproblematic. The work of Tourish and collaborating researchers (2002, 2003) resonates strongly with this finding, given that some of the corporate systems that these leaders safeguard and manipulate, align with follower conformity and hold meaning in terms of the unfavourable characteristics of transformational leadership engendering corporate culturalism (emphasising the shortcomings of a professional bureaucracy in a University setting in terms of upward information sharing). Indeed, the distinction between professional bureaucracy or corporate culturism is somewhat aligned with one's position of authority as well as being values laden (i.e. professional educators being educationalists and managers working for the betterment of the corporation).

The upshot is that this is experienced by followers as a heavily leader-centred approach that shapes the dyadic relationship, subtly controls opposition, and promotes the self-interests of Academic Leaders. A good example here is follower experiences of Academic Leaders only being receptive to what they agree with, and openly resistant to all other points of view. All of which is then reflected in the brand of corporate followership. A subtle but deliberate top-down control of forms of resistance, reaffirm the employee identity with conformity been seen as supportive. What this suggests is that the moderators of followership influence are centred around culture and leadership style, which determines the acceptability of followership influence (Su, 2010). Underpinning this observation are other less prominent moderators, such as the social beliefs of follower that can be at odds with the organisation's political rule (Morgan, 1986).

The overarching impact of unfavourable follower experiences is to see their followership identity reduced to surviving and navigating the corporate terrain to merely do their job, as opposed to feeling a heightened sense of effectiveness. This situation resonates with critical criticism of the mainstream, as ignoring the leader-centred and contextual constraints upon followership in terms of hampering followers developing or acquiring certain attributes, useful to organisational functioning. It also chimes with Kelley's (1988, 1992) categorisation of followers as 'survivors', albeit not in terms of portraying their worth or effectiveness. Subsequently, such experiences can be associated somewhat with the 'apathetic' category evident in the work of Steger et al. (1982), which refers to low enhancement and protection of self. Sure followers do enough to retain their followership position and no more, chiming with Chaleff's (2008)

reference to ‘resource/subordinate’, and partially with Collinson’s (2006) ‘dramaturgical’ self-identity.

These follower experiences carry meaning in terms of having to sacrifice what they can consider as their own best interests, which tends to be a laudable way to construct a corporate followership identity. However, these followers are less able to make their views distinct, compelling them to act in a way that appears to be freely undertaken to be deemed committed, loyal, and efficient (Tourish and Pinnington, 2002). Subsequently, this shapes followership by increases follower reliance on ingratiating behaviours to survive and to have any influence with superiors (Tourish and Robson, 2006). This is evident in the data via experiences of being careful not to openly disagree with the leader and knowing what actions to take or language to use to adhere one’s self to the leader. Ultimately, a follower in this situation is somewhat compelled to adopt a followership identity that is consistently supportive, which more often means legitimising the leader’s view by sharing the vested interests of leadership and avoiding critical upward feedback. Those individuals that have on occasion fallen short of adhering to this expectation, experience being in a dyadic relationship symbolised by poor quality exchanges and a mutual lack of understanding. Their upward challenges are largely viewed as insubordinate followership, further constraining their voice and limiting their capacity to influence upwards. This predicament occurs despite Tourish and Robson’s (2006) warning of the ills of eliminating critical upward influence. These findings expose the challenge for followership; to be effective by offering genuine support but without losing the power to communicate upwards and act in a way that is meaningful beyond the superiority of leadership.

9.4.2.3 Dyadic Influencing Tactics (Challenging & Positioning)

The mutual experience of favourable outcomes aligns with the application of subtle forms of influencing tactics, which are used to resist and challenge. Accordingly, the leader's heightened receptivity renders courageous followership (Chaleff, 1995) as less pertinent in the consciousness of followers. However, intelligent disobedience is more relevant (Chaleff, 2015), especially to pave the way for productive future exchanges of views. This finding resonates somewhat with the assertion made by Iedema et al. (2006), that contemporary workplace dynamics render obeying or rejecting as a false assumption. This suggests that only outright aggressive or confrontational behaviours could put a positive evaluation of the effectiveness of followership at risk. Subsequently, the practice of followership via a subtle approach, as an influencing tactic, contributes greatly to obscuring the coexistence of compliance and resistance in the dyadic relationship. There is a link here to ideational control, as a subtle manipulation of identity and recasting of professionalism. This can be experienced as offering mutual benefits geared towards enhancing dyadic relations.

The dyadic relationship is tactically shaped by persuasion, as opposed to aggressive approaches, and followership actions are informed by a knowledge of political sensitivities and previous influencing attempts (Porter et al., 1981). Soft influence tactics purposefully exaggerate consensus, helping to conceal disagreement or contention. There is an association here with the notion of 'tempered radicalism', as a means of conceiving of how the practice of followership via diplomacy can help followers retain credibility and avoid marginalisation (Meyerson, 2008, Meyerson and Scully, 1995) while working toward influencing change. This approach is prevalent amongst followers that acknowledge that retaining their leader's trust is vitally

important, and their acceptance of future interaction being better facilitated by carefully applying patterns of influence. The foundation for this approach is followership informed by a shrewdness in developing a detailed knowledge of the leader's style and characteristics. The aim is to predict the success or failure of tactical effectiveness in terms of being upwardly influencing (Cable and Judge, 2003, Vigoda and Cohen, 2002). The experiences of followers not only draw on situational factors and target characteristics but demonstrate a capacity within followership practices to learn political norms and structures to bolster the success of challenging leadership, which can define followership effectiveness.

Followers' favourable experiences tend to derive from an inclination to view challenging as a legitimate aspect of their professional role. What facilitates this approach is what Lord (2008) refers to as 'relational preferences' as a complementary alignment between the characteristics of the leader and follower. Subsequently, the experience of being in a high-quality relationship is predicated on dissent being openly shared without this meaning a loss of upward influence (Kassing, 2000b), in which case the follower has scope to view themselves as an influencer and their followership as influencing. The leader's heightened receptivity presents a low risk of severe consequences, which is more evident in the consciousness of those that practice followership, especially as the rate of success increases using multiple influencing strategies and tactics (Rao et al., 1995). There is a strong correlation here with seeking to instil a sense in the leader of an association between effective followership and higher performance, which renders more subtle forms of influence as more impactful. It is also the case that the leader, being receptive to subtle forms of influence, generates a sense

amongst followers of value and fairness in the workplace. What this facilitates is the effective bi-directional exchange (generation and receptivity) of influence.

The findings concerning favourable experiences of challenging illustrate that there is a low level of consciousness concerning being too close to the leader and how this could be detrimental. Indeed, tensions associated with closeness are only evident when the behaviour of those on the periphery of the dyadic relationship notably changes. This finding resonates somewhat with Bluman's (2008) notion of silent collusion or equally alludes to Jones (1964) work on highlighting the effects of toxic dependencies. However, not so evident in such theorising but evident in these findings, is how followers can apply followership to tactically capitalise on these sorts of relationships. In these instances, followers experience making a conscious decision as to what they can 'go along with' and then what 'battles need fighting'. What this situation does, is to question the simplicity of critiquing such relationships merely based on what appears alluring about leaders and any subsequent obedience of followers (Hinrichs, 2007). Certainly, there is a dynamism around how dependency is present in the dyadic relationship as identified by Stech (2004), which informs the leader's receptivity to constructive criticism. Accordingly, this is evident in leaders' favourable experiences of working with those that epitomise highly credible followership, and wield an exceptionally high degree of influence. Typically such examples of the alluring effects that followership can have for leaders remain largely ignored. These findings support the idea that leadership is co-constructed and that the leader-follower relationship is by its very nature political, with a vibrant tension between dominance and deference.

Giving some ground is experienced as an influencing tactic that strengthens the LMX and enhances the follower's status, which then becomes beneficial when experiencing the necessity to upwardly challenge (Deluga and Perry, 1991). Where this is especially prominent is regarding contentious topics. Here followers' experiences are of considering how they adapt their followership identities as the situation demands, so not to completely and irreparably disenfranchise their leader. What this aligns with is the critical observation that oppositional practices and identities reveal how followers engage with leaders beyond such behaviours being considered as organisationally dysfunctional. It also aligns with the critical assertion that power relations can operate subtlety. There is a mutual recognition of effective followership operating via 'knowledgeable agents, that are proactive and self-assured contributors, armed with a repertoire of possible agencies at their disposal, making parallels with Collinson's (2006) post-structural analysis of follower identities. Accordingly, these follower experiences are of seeking alignment with the leader, whereby 'rationality' is the major influencing tactic to challenge upwardly, while retaining credibility. Central to the effectiveness of this followership approach is an intentional reliance on softer tactics, and avoidance of hard tactics (Knippenberg and Steensma, 2003) and frequent use of informal influencing, brought about by structural differences in work settings (Schilit and Locke, 1982).

Favourable experiences of utilising influencing tactics as a means of positioning reveal an evaluation aspect to the dyadic relationship that determines the relative worth of followership. The leader compares and contrasts across their organisation against the qualities of incumbents in the same role and within similar partnerships. This is evidenced by instances of Academic Leaders exchanging ideas and experiences in peer

groups whereby their respective Administration Managers have featured in such conversations as either influential in some way or otherwise. This process of evaluation resonates with Potter and Rosenbach's (2006) work on combining relationship and performance initiatives. However, these findings do not entirely agree with the critical condemnation of a need to have formal authority invested in leaders to make followership meaningful. The experiences of followers in this study show that drawing on a range of power tactics can enhance the worth of followership (i.e. proactivity, using outside experts, displaying charisma, rationalisation, using ambiguity, and building a favourable image) alluded to by Fairholm (1993). It is this finding that refocuses attention on the appropriateness of the tactics used to enhance the followership position (Bhatnagar, 1993). Subsequently, this alludes to how followers develop the political skills to advance their personal and organisational interests (Jarrett, 2017) to be more effective in a followership role. Where this is highly effective the experiences of leaders reveal a fear of losing contribution of followership. This quandary resonates with Adair's (2008) turnover of favourable follower types evident in his 4D followership model. Paradoxically, it also alludes to Collinson's (2008) reference to the dangers of romanticising followers and followership.

Ultimately, followers that are highly successful at positioning and repositioning themselves through followership do so by appropriately drawing on a range of tactics. Predominately, the use of 'ingratiation' is focused on their superior or focused on self to instil a positive perception of their qualities as skilful and competent, which are appealing to their leader. The resultant effect is that the leader can more readily identify with the characteristics of the followership they are exposed to as being positive. The tactics employed by followers in this regard present a close association with 'power

theory', 'impression management theory', and 'ingratiation theory', as identified by Alshenaifi and Clarke (2014). What this indicates is that followership is tactically practised by followers who have the political power to influence, seek to portray a positive self-perception to enhance this power, and engage in strategic behaviours directed towards a predetermined target. There is an association here with Goldberg's (1993) five-factor model, whereby followers can act in a way that creates an impression of favourable traits to their leader, and within their work environment. Underpinning this tactical approach to followership is experiencing a need for personal achievement, and an acknowledgement that self-monitoring is an important means of satisfying this need.

Where experiences are unfavourable concerning influencing tactics, top-down tactics such as 'blocking' and 'undoing' prevail over upward influence. This finding resonates with leader-centred acts that can be informed by IFTs, which shape leaders' judgements and reactions to followers. The effect of this is the suppression of upward influence, and constraining the capacity of those that practice followership to obtain and use sources of information (Cheney and Christensen, 2001) to bolster upward challenging. These factors illustrate that the leader can use their greater formal leadership superiority to apply more aggressive tactics without fear of significant consequences. The ensuing intensification of distance makes it more difficult for the follower to access the leader readily, and apply bottom-up influence tactics when seeking to challenge. Parallels can be drawn here with Zaleznik's (1965) work, whereby followers cannot be anti-authoritarian by being impulsive or compulsive. Equally, their capacity to display courageous followership (Chaleff, 1995), as a foundation for upwardly challenging, is also constrained.

Cognitive dissonance theory is highly relevant in this situation, concerning followers' experiences of a negative motivational state. Consequently, followers question to what extent they can follow some leaders against their better judgement. The increase in distance alludes to the impact on the leader-follower relationship of a chasm in their respective values, which if undermined or threatened provokes the need for more aggressive acts. The risk involved is carefully considered in terms of its impact on the credibility and impact on followership, which alludes to what it means to be 'intelligently disobedient' as opposed to relying unreservedly on 'courageousness' (Chaleff, 2015, 1995). Other bottom-up tactics come in to play, offering some form of protection from adverse consequences (i.e. upward communication distortion, perceptions of role and decision making, and sense-making in a self-serving way). The application of such bottom-up tactics subtly challenge the dominance of the leader and leadership but avoids marginalisation (Meyerson, 2008). After failed upward influence attempts followers experience carefully considering goal importance, influence agent characteristics, and agent-target relationships as identified by Maslyn et al. (1996), that are then central to the effectiveness of followership when considering a further challenge.

Experiences of being exposed to the leaders' downward challenges, increase pressure on followers to conform and further diminishes the credibility of followership that is non-conforming. Subsequently, upward influence can only stem from being overly conformist to avoid punishment, as alluded to in critical literature. As such followers' experiences are of frequently being channelled towards task commitment and task compliance as the outcome of their influence attempts. This predicament also diminishes the significance of the role of followership in the resistance of certain tasks

(Yukl and Tracey, 1992) and Yukl et al. (1996). The evident lack of leader receptibility of upward influencing tactics is closely aligned with what Egri et al. (2000) categorise as destructive but legal behaviour. These findings also show that failed upward challenges eventually dissuade followers from engaging in a followership that involves confronting the leader for fear of reprisal. The necessity of acts of followership to retreat is evident in the mainstream literature, as an aspect of Kelley's (1992) model as followers moving from active to passive and from alienated to sheep, and formerly in Zaleznik's (1965) withdrawn category.

Unfavourable experiences contrast with the observation of Bjugstad et al. (2006), whereby the leader seeks follower participation to avoid feelings of alienation amongst followers. The findings of this study present a limited desire on the part of the leader to seek follower involvement in this way owing to their preference for a conformist or telling leadership style. This situation strongly aligns with several key factors of coercive persuasion as identified by Schein et al. (1961), underpinning the critical notion that coercion is endemic at some level in a poor quality leader-follower relationships. What this underpins is the critical acknowledgement of power as innately relational and typically top-down. It also exposes a lack of understanding of the value of resistance, so narrowly channelling what we come to know as effective followership. These findings also have an association with the theory of reasoned action, by focusing on consequences and implications of whether to participate, emphasising individual and specific situational factors. Hence, the significance of beliefs about normative expectations of superiors, and impediments in the operating environment (Fu et al., 2004) are at the forefront of follower consciousness that informs the followership approach.

Unfavourable follower experiences of influencing tactics, in terms of positioning, results in feeling the need to resort to political game-playing tactics, in an attempt to reposition themselves. To do this, followers resort to a style of followership that relies on tactically and selectively drawing more on contextual factors and utilising their network to enhance their upward influence but indirectly. Accordingly, the ‘game player’ categorisation as identified by Steger et al. (1982) is made distinct from ‘achiever’ and ‘Superfollower’, alluding to the heightened risk attached to the application of such a Machiavellian pursuit of upward influence. Similarly, Potter and Rosenbach’s (2006) ‘politician’ categorisation is more prominent, making a distinction in terms of follower contributions from a ‘subordinate’ or ‘partner’ positional perspective. Subsequently, the unfavourable experiences of followers present a tendency to reposition their followership approach by combining an enhancement of self with the protection of self. The dynamics of this effect in the dyadic relationship resonates with the critical notion that leadership dynamics concern shifting, asymmetrical interrelations between leaders, followers, and context (Collinson, 2011). Accordingly, such situations illustrate how followership can sometime resemble the characteristics of ‘manipulation’, illustrating a reliance on ‘game playing’, which is motivated by the exchange of power between roles, and situational appropriateness when wielding that power.

The manipulation aspect of an approach to followership is somewhat risky, given that what is known is that this tactic creates tensions. However, the root causes are difficult to detect with certainty, meaning that the follower practising this type of followership can acquire some upward influence and protection from any negative consequences. The risk here is that this approach is not readily associated with effective followership.

Despite this, the literature does underpin this finding by conceding that political manoeuvring is necessary for the functioning of organisations, and is critical in the establishment of leadership. What this emphasises is the significance of followers' experiences of drawing on impression management techniques to realise self-serving purposes, exploiting ambiguity to augment power or protect sources of power, and strategic enhancement of their agency. There is also some alignment here with Vigoda and Cohen's (2002) assertion that the use of influencing tactics generates a positive perception of organisational politics (i.e. satisfying employees' expectations indicating a fair work setting). What this alludes to is the root cause of organisational politics as being inevitable and occurring, founded upon social and structural inequality and individual motivations, all of which can be readily associated with followership.

The challenge then for followers is to position themselves to have enough authority to be legitimately accountable and responsible for their followership remit. So finding the right balance between having the desired impact but without their leader feeling dissatisfied (Meyerson and Scully, 1995), which appears to be a central consideration when evaluating of followership effectiveness. As such being conformist and passive is not a viable option (Kelley, 2008). Studies of influence suggest that leader perceptions of favourability align more with 'reasoning' as opposed to 'self-promotion', indicating that self-serving or less intellectually robust tactical approaches carry a greater risk to the follower of being deemed ineffective. Specifically, as seen in this study, some tactical approaches may not be seen as a complementary position and merely attract the leader's greater regulatory focus on the follower and their brand of followership.

The negative experiences of followers finding their leader's style, characteristics, or professional approach challenging, elicits a greater need for followers to attempt to find favour with a higher authority. What this illustrates is the extent to which followers' capacity to position themselves to be upwardly influential in the dyadic relationship can be highly constrained irrespective of their followership qualities and contributions. Certainly, the experiences of some leaders' are of rationalising such constraints as symptomatic of how they view their followers as merely 'operational'. This chimes with the mainstream leader-centric view, which is claimed to systematically devalue the contributions of followers beyond a certain point. So the expectation here is that the follower is merely required to get the job done without challenging, referred to as an 'implementer' by Chaleff (2008). There is a strong alignment here with claims in influencing literature that influencing tactics can be impacted by a bias towards expressions of socially desirable influence tactics. Subsequently, many of these followers' unfavourable experiences present an association with their leaders' prejudices towards the notion of superiors being the strategic and tactical ones. To some extent, this compels followers to heavily rely on followership via soft tactics such as 'expertise', 'exchange', and 'rational persuasion', if they are to have any upward influence.

What appears to muddy the waters, concerning using influencing tactics as a means of positioning, is that leaders are largely oblivious to the follower motivations and don not make any association with how such motivations inform followership. However, the same leaders can be very aware of their follower's political and tactical manoeuvrings. It is unsurprising then that without referring to mental reasoning, which typically prompts follower actions, that some leaders will often evaluate these followers as anti-

prototypical. This chimes with Potter and Rosenbach's (2006) 'politician' category, whereby the leader-centric view of the follower is someone high on the relationship scale but low on performance. Subsequently, for the follower, this is a detrimental imbalance that negatively impacts on their capacity to reposition themselves via their followership performance with leaders that hold this view of them.

Interestingly, a call for more research attention focused on motives concerning dissent and context of resistance to sustain a dissenting agency is prominent in the critical literature. Indeed, these findings underpin this call, which is a defining factor in the contested space that exists in the dyadic relationship. More knowledge here could offer a greater understanding of the experiences stemming from the intensification of distance, and implications for perpetuating oppositional practices based on mistrust and cynicism. Such factors allude to what is evident in influencing literature as a concern for the perspective of the agent and target. The claim here is that there is limited knowledge of the correlation of perspectives of effectiveness in the context of relational dynamics, which in this case centre on the phenomenon of followership. A possible reason for this is identified by Jarrett (2017) who asserts that there is a sense of discomfort with organisational politics. This is despite Vigoda and Cohen's (2002) contention that employees (some of whom engage in followership practices) use of influence tactics in the context of organisational politics can increase satisfaction levels.

9.5 Summary

Upon analysing the findings alongside existing literature, favourable experiences of upward influence more readily align with notions of followership presented in the critical literature. What this advocates is a case for considering followers as intelligent

individuals, capable of adding value to the leadership process by being upwardly influencing. Certainly, this is more evident where Academic Leaders highly rate their Administration Managers as counterparts, valuing their advice and acting on their upward influence. The notion of one party being more superior to the other becomes less salient, given that their respective contributions deliver what they experience as better leadership outcomes. Research subjects' favourable experiences reveal high mutual respect and enhanced individual credibility at the core of their leader-follower interactions. It is this which is the catalyst for bi-directional influence, and prototypically characteristic of the effectiveness of followership in the dyadic relationship.

What becomes very evident in the findings are experiences of rightness and wrongness that inform followership for both leaders and followers. This suggests that levels of support and use of power is profoundly based on moral or normative conceptions that respondents hold that help them make sense of their working relationships. These can be viewed as implicitly setting parameters around what people should do and how they should act. This is evidenced by a sense of unease amongst leaders or followers where perceived transgressions are experienced as contravening such parameters and compromising the validity of the relationship or/and credibility of leadership and followership. Certainly, there is something to be said about followership here that resonates with the renowned way that Bennis and Nanus (1985) denote the virtue of leadership when they assert that "leadership is doing the right things" (p.21). This could readily be translated in to followership too, especially when conceived of as integral to the process of leadership.

In stark contrast, unfavourable experiences of upward influence are broadly consistent with notions of followership portrayed in traditional mainstream leadership theorising. Leaders and followers have defined roles, which narrowly comprehends the Academic Leader as the influencer and the Administration Manager as merely the recipient of that influence. There are clear and observable parameters set for the follower, which are expected to reflect the design of corporate governance. Accordingly, it is Academic Leaders that are held in high esteem, rendering Administration Managers as subservient if the systems of governance are to be deemed credible. There is an unproblematic and accepted corporate endorsement of surveillance of follower behaviour, sustaining a demarcation of duties, and rights of intervention.

Administration Managers have a defined followership role in supporting the Academic Leader irrespective of any other considerations. This factor aligns with how followers are expected to behave as determined by a leader-centric view of what constitutes effective following. Follower acts that deviate radically from this expectation are risky, seen as unnecessary and illegitimate political manoeuvring. Where such acts are effective from the follower perspective, followers can have a voice but concerning only menial matters. However, when the follower voice is not well-received followers lose credibility with their leader, and future attempts to be upwardly influential are consciously blocked. Accordingly, the ultimate consequence for the Administration Manager is to find that they are frustrated when circumvented by their Academic Leader, and their upward influencing attempts are too often futile. This situation impacts upon how they practice followership; leaving them feeling professionally ineffectual and decreasing their overall level of job satisfaction. Subsequently, their

discontent informs their choice of influencing tactic, whereby resorting to aggressive tactics acts as an indicator of the ultimate demise of the follower's upward influence.

9.6 Implications of the Findings

The claim made by Crossman and Crossman (2011) that central to the notion of effective followership is 'influence', is now supported by these findings. Similarly, the claim in critical literature that followers are central to the leadership process and that leader-centric notions of followership are inadequate, are also supported by the outcomes of this study. This study critically reveals that followers with favourable experiences achieve upward influence by tactically utilising various sources of power unique to them, such as their knowledge and expertise. They combine these with enhancing their relations with the leader, to develop and sustain their credibility. Over time their credibility augments, and this has the effect of the leader experiencing greater receptivity to the follower's views. Eventually, it is possible to reach a point whereby the leader experiences less of a role distinction in the dyadic relationship. When this occurs, the relationship benefits from greater trust, confidence, and authenticity. All of these factors facilitate the exchange of power more easily between leadership and followership roles, with the context being more prominent in determining such exchanges as opposed to any formal remit.

The motivation for followers is being considered highly valued as a professional and personally deemed a highly competent individual, being held in high esteem by the leader and eliciting the leaders' admiration. Their enhanced position with the leader brings about several power and control benefits for their followership, which include the agency to act unilaterally on important matters, taking more high-level leadership

authority from the leader, and the full realisation of their own desired outcomes. Where followers present unfavourable experiences, they are seldom upwardly influential with their leader, so in that sense their followership is deemed less effective by the leader's evaluation schema. The consequences for their followership are a loss of credibility, leading to a heightened risk of being circumvented by the leader, future upward influencing attempts being often blocked, having their organisational voice constrained, and dwindling support for their ideas. The personal impact of these factors is evident as a loss of personal motivation and professional pride, diminishing engagement and ultimately withdrawal. There is also an increasing fear of dismissal from the role in instances where the credibility of one's followership is irreparably damaged from a leader-centred vantage point.

While there were findings that supported the view that on the whole an effective follower is deemed to have upward influence as outlined above, some findings only partially supported this outcome. Specifically, these findings are the significance of leader receptivity to followers' upward influencing attempts, the nature of political manoeuvring between effectiveness and ineffectiveness, and the impact of context on the dyadic relationship. Much of the data deriving from followers present experiences of them being upwardly influencing or otherwise. When successful this was deemed to represent their capacity or abilities, while unsuccessful attempts were primarily considered to be down to lack of receptivity from their leader. However, leaders' experiences of unsuccessful upward influence attempts often relate to their lack of confidence or trust in their follower, determined by their own or trusted parties evaluations of a follower's shortcomings. Accordingly, the gap that exists between leadership and followership is not necessarily determined by a lack of endeavour on the

follower's part, but more aligned with other factors that influence the leader's receptivity not always adequately considered by the follower as crucial to making their followership effective.

The findings support the critical perspective that followers are intelligent and active contributors but expose how insufficient knowledge and understanding of the dynamics of political manoeuvring can have a detrimental impact on followership. Irrespective of follower-centric evaluations of followership all followers can relate to their experiences of engaging in tactical attempts to be upwardly influential. Accordingly, effectiveness followership has a stronger association with a heightened consciousness of a need to engage in tactical manoeuvring to enhance a relatively strong position of influence. While, ineffective followership is more aligned with the need to engage in political manoeuvring as merely a form of defence. The motivation for the practice of followership as a form of defensive is a need to prevent a further weakening or an already weak position so that followers can retain some capacity to gain even small amounts of credibility by whatever means possible via their followership. Despite this, tactical actions and reactions of followers, deemed by leaders to be weaker influencers in terms of their followership, were experienced as less subtle. Those considered more effective had greater scope to employ more aggressive tactics as a followership approach, and leaders often experienced this situation as indistinguishable to subtle approaches. What this suggests is that leader experiences are of being more sensitive to interactions with followers who are in a less favourable position of upward influence. The critical lens exposes how consideration of the impact of context is inadequate in mainstream leadership theorising. Indeed, what holds influence over the leader-follower relationship in this study is the type of University setting (organisational culture and

rituals). Context is especially significant to participants when they were able to compare and contrast their experiences of operating in several starkly different University settings. Subsequently, established universities with a rich history of tradition had very different protocols to modern university settings, whereby expectations around the sharing of power and direction of influence would differ considerably. Subsequently, some Administration Managers describe instances of not being allowed to influence decisions in some institutions owing to established traditions, and some Academic Leaders recall how their sense of empowerment would vary based on institutional norms. This becomes very prominent where Administration Managers educated at doctoral level report either an acceptance of their intelligence as comparable to academic colleagues, or as a threat to the dominance of academic colleagues and something that needs to be constrained by the acceptance of academic authority within the operating environment. Where Academic Leaders and Administration Managers had a shared experience of moving from a traditional to the modern environment or vice versa, this would have a marked impact on their capacity to influence each other. This scenario plays out in terms of empathy each party has for the challenges faced by the other emanating from their operating environment. This factor also features strongly as a determinant of leader-follower distance.

9.6 Methodological Limitations

The study has several limitations. The main limiting factor is that the sample size is adequate for a phenomenological study, but it does not represent a large proportion of the entire population of Academic Leaders and Administration Managers that exist in the UK higher education sector. Therefore, it could be argued that by interviewing a larger sample size, further exemplifications could emerge that probe more into the

various facets of followership as a phenomenon. Moreover, it is unclear to what extent the state of the leader-follower relationship at the time of conducting interviews could impact on the generalisability of the results. Finally, while context has been of greater significance than anticipated, the above analysis does not unquestionably conclude that these findings could be equally applicable in all traditional or modern settings.

Where generalisations can arise from the results; the findings are representative of the individuals' experiences of working in differing University environments. So they take account of the fact that these differences have a dependency on the context that surrounds followership. The sample is from a population of Academic Leaders and Administration Managers that operate at various levels of seniority across several organisational units. Hence, their breadth and depth of experiences offer a sufficient number of exemplifications to safely underpin the emerging key themes and sub-themes, which are used to understand followership as a phenomenon better. The inclusion of so many organisational units in this study means that geographic coverage and diverse types of institution contribute to the results being generalisable in other research settings not included in this sample. The methodology of eliciting research subjects' experiences via semi-structured interviews, using a small number of general open-ended questions, illustrates that the same approach could be applied in other educational or public sector institutions to explore followership as a phenomenon. The findings are particularly generalisable where there is a coming together of professions with administrative support services, whereby there is a combined reliance on specialist and administrative knowledge and expertise in the leadership process (i.e. a professional bureaucracy).

9.7 Future Research

Several experiences emerged from the research data that offer exciting new insights in the field, and hold value in revealing more about followership than is already known. These experiences present an opportunity to explore further what it means to practice effective followership in the context of the leader-follower dynamic. In terms of ‘control’, and more precisely ‘authority’, there is a heightened consciousness in the experience of followers of the significance of indirect influence, which is not as prominent amongst leaders’ experiences of followership. It is difficult to determine why this is the case. So by exploring the experiences of the third party as an intermediary for followership influence, it may be possible to broaden our understanding of how indirect upward influence tactics are employed to diminish risk. The ‘partnership’ aspect of ‘control’ exposes the potentially damaging effects of followers being too close and overly influential in the leader-follower relationship. Although this situation only emerged once in these findings, this indicates that there is scope here to focus more on exploring the intensity of leadership-followership bonds and what this means for the leader-follower partnership in the operating environment. Additionally, evident in the findings is an intriguing association with leader-centred or follower-centred professional groupings, advocating that the notion of ‘partnership’ can only truly exist based on shared professional objectives to constitute leadership. A further study, possibly phenomenographic, focusing on this aspect of leadership dynamics could establish why leaders do not readily recognise leadership in followers as easily as in each other. This asymmetrical paradigm remains dominant irrespective of the many acts of leadership performed by followers relied upon by all organisations.

In the context of ‘identity’, experiences concerning ‘legitimacy’ suggest that followers legitimise their role in the same way as leaders, constructed on personal beliefs and social conditioning. It is not clear to what extent one can outweigh the other without further exploration. Moreover, it is worthwhile investigating to what extent contextual factors trigger multiple identities in followers encompassing any association made between resultant changes in follower behaviour and context that resonate with leaders. More research in this area could tell us more about the parameters that followership operates within, as compared with leadership when adopting multiple identities. Several questions remain unresolved concerning the impact of context and culture on identity adoption. In particular, how embedded cultural characteristics inform what identities followers can legitimately adopt, revealing more about the prevalence of contextual identity in and amongst followers. The gap created by the misalignment between leaders’ evaluations of followers based on historic operational competency, and followers’ evaluation of themselves based on recent high-level strategic contributions, requires more investigation.

This study’s findings concerning ‘challenging’ in the context of ‘influencing tactics’ is an area for further investigation. Especially interesting are leaders’ experiences of how followers are tactical in exchanges with them. It is not clear why leaders do not readily acknowledge followers as offering a challenge as a tactical manoeuvre. Equally, it is not clear why followers lack awareness of why challenging themselves is a means by which they (as followers) can gain credibility. Further exploration of political game-playing between leaders and followers whereby a challenge is met by a counter challenge only to trigger a re-challenge, would offer greater insight into leadership dynamics. Similarly, ‘positioning’ reveals an element of political game-playing

between leaders and followers, facilitating the mutual enhancement of influence in the dyad. What is intriguing here is how followers become more or less receptive to leader influence, and why this occurs as a consequence of game playing.

This study reveals experiences of power freely transferring from the leader to the follower in certain circumstances. However, what remains unknown is how distinct the wielding of the same power can be between followers (delegated) and leaders (formal). Finally, in this study some followers experience a sense of there being no consequences, rendering the leader powerless over them, owing to the follower's personal circumstances. This questions how followers draw on their perceived sources of personal power and translate them into authority within the dyadic relationship to strengthen followership.

The researcher would urge other researchers to persist with a phenomenological approach when exploring these remaining questions, which could encompass phenomenography. Here the rationale is that a large scale statistical analysis is incapable of providing a rich seam of information to determine how research subjects in everyday life experience leadership and followership. This assertion draws on the belief that leadership and followership have an 'effect' which can be 'felt' and holds 'meaning' to the recipient of that effect.

Chapter 10: Conclusion

The imaginative variation stage of the phenomenological research methodology applied to this study provides several exemplifications that illustrate the sub-themes (units of meaning) that have emerged from the data (Moustakas, 1994, Vondey, 2012). Consequently, it is possible for the researcher (i.e. me) to describe the phenomenon (i.e. followership). In so doing, this allows the reader to understand better the meaning associated with the phenomenon, to reconstruct the inner world experience of the research subject (Hycner, 1999). For the research subject recollections of what happened represents the experience of influencing as an act of followership, but then this experience extends to making sense of what happens as being representative of the state of followership as effective or ineffective. Accordingly, in this chapter there is a synthesis of meanings and essences, presenting the very nature of the experience of the followership phenomenon (Moustakas, 1994) as experienced by the Administration Manager in a University setting. Accordingly, this is a conclusion of the analysis, as a composite summary, presented as a generalised narrative, containing the contextual background which underpins the emerging themes (Klenke, 2008). As such, the reader should be transported into the research subject's inner world through a rich description to convey the experience of followership, to know and feel what it is like to be with or without upward influence in the role of the Administration Manager captured in the next two sections of this final chapter (i.e. 10.1 and 10.2).

10.1 The Experience of Upward Influence as Effective Followership

In terms of experiences of effectively being able to upwardly influence the leader in the context of 'control', experiences of 'authority' and 'partnership' are significant. Followers experience taking whatever formal authority they do have from their role,

and their professional expertise and personal knowledge, to demonstrate their worth and make significant strategic level followership contributions. It is how they best utilise these factors which affords them upward influence with their leader. They do this to have their voice heard alongside that of the leader. Moreover, this followership approach helps to secure the leader's backing, so they can enjoy greater autonomy and have more opportunities in the future to have their opinions acted on by the leader. Where upward influence is most effective, there is an intensification of the authority within followership via the follower's actions, and in turn, they then have a greater sense of control.

Where there is a strong sense of 'partnership' between the leader and the follower, the follower can have greater upward influence via their followership. Closeness in the leader-follower relationship helps to form a bond, which diminishes or entirely disregards relational asymmetry. Subsequently, both parties can share more sensitive information and their innermost feelings, as well as critique each other in the safe space that their partnership offers. Where this becomes more evident is when sharing leadership responsibility, providing the follower with greater autonomy to display a different style of followership than their formal role will generally allow. A significant aspect of leader and follower experiences of partnership working is their mutual reliance on adapting and learning from one another. The leader is more prone to viewing the follower as equal, which is enhanced through mutual support, trust, respect, and the acceptance of each other's advice at critical times. Effectively working in this way is deemed by the leader and follower alike to produce a better outcome. Consequently, followership is much more integrated into the decision-making process and followers are recognised as leading some of this process in their own right.

Turning to the matter of ‘identity’, and more specifically ‘legitimacy’, where experiences of being upwardly influencing are favourable, followers have a strong sense of personal and formal legitimacy, albeit this is a legitimacy that is heavily reliant on the leader’s positive evaluation of their followership. Another significant factor is the leader being receptive to upward influence as an ethical consideration in the way that followers should be treated more generally. Both parties form part of their identity around each other’s leadership and followership expectations of the other, to be deemed effective in their respective roles. Both parties expect two-way influence in terms of each being interchangeably the source and recipient of influence. Followers then readily identify with being an ‘influencer’, underpinned by their expertise. Adopting the identity of an ‘influencer’ heightens the follower’s awareness of the need to carefully self-monitor their followership behaviours. The aim of making adaptations in the follower’s approach is to enhance the appropriateness of their interactions with the leader. Favourable upward influencing experiences derive from the leader and follower adopting and sustaining complementary identities. Accordingly, this is how each party legitimises each other’s position of influence in the leader-follower relationship.

The sub-theme of ‘support’ under the key theme of ‘identity’ presents favourable experiences of upward influence as directly attributable to the strong emotional connection between the leader and follower. There is an alignment of professional identities, eliciting a sense of admiration but also commitment and loyalty too. Both leaders and followers share the experience of benefiting from mutual support, so negotiate an alignment of their leadership and followership identities in this way to sustain these benefits. Why this is significant is because they recognise that the

enhancement of their respective performance comes about through mutual support. There is an emphasis of shared values and a high degree of honesty and trust in the leader-follower relationship. Subsequently, the follower is more assured of the leader's support in challenging times, and their personal and professional need for greater autonomy and influence is satisfied. There is a mutual effort made to find an acceptable fit by adapting their respective identities between academic and administrative aspects of their roles. They are also more cognisant of a need to represent both local and corporate interests, as well as protecting each other from unfavourable consequences.

In terms of 'influencing tactics', and specifically 'challenging', effective followership is strongly aligned with being very tactical and politically minded, which impacts upon how and why upwardly influencing is realised through followership. Accordingly, the leader's receptivity to upward challenges increases owing to conscious evaluations of appropriateness concerning how the challenge occurs. A tactical followership style that incorporates careful consideration when preparing a challenge and then reflecting on the effectiveness of the challenge is a crucial factor. This politically sensitive and astute approach is significant when leaders evaluate the capacity followers have to influence upwards effectively. Indeed, followers feel free to choose an aggressive or more subtle followership approach in their interactions with the leader. However, their effectiveness emanates from the way they make a conscious decision to speak out.

Followership is informed by the follower appetite for risk, underpinned by notions of balances between informal and formal power, in preparation for attempting to be upwardly influential. This involves adapting followership approaches to intensify upward challenges, which can mean electing to be transparent or covert as the situation

demands. Consequently, effective followership is not fundamentally conformist; followers are highly politically astute and deliberately tactical. Accordingly, they have a greater say in decision making, are encouraged by leaders to voice their opinions, and know how to cultivate good productive leader-follower dynamics. The construct of effectively challenging stems from a desire to engage in a two-way influencing process, recognising that it is not just leaders that can make positive contributions. To reach this position followers experience adapting their followership approaches to sustain upward influence, informed by an evolving knowledge of the leader's preferences. A key distinction associated with effectiveness in this situation is how the follower is equipped to deal with the disappointment of failed challenges and work such experiences in to their style of followership.

When considering 'influencing tactics' in conjunction with 'positioning', followers experience tactically positioning themselves to enhance their leader's receptivity to their upward influence. Typically, this tends to be very subtle, focusing on tactical interactions with the leader, drawing on a learned knowledge of timing and expertise to inform their followership, as well as playing down negative factors while highlighting positive ones. Similar to the approach when challenging, followers acquire knowledge of their leader's preferences. They are then better equipped to tactically change their patterns of followership behaviour, based on this evolving knowledge. What is of paramount importance here is portraying oneself to the leader as an 'effective influencer'. The political mindedness of followers informs how they position themselves, informing how they seek out opportunities to develop their followership approach; applying their knowledge, experience, and utilising their networks. The effect

is an augmentation of social power in support of their followership in the leader-follower relationship.

The context in which the followership operates is a significant factor. Leaders come to rely on their followers' managerial expertise and in-depth knowledge of processes and systems. The leader is somewhat vulnerable by not having the time and space to develop the same level of familiarity and understanding. Accordingly, they need upward support to operate in a highly complex and politically dynamic organisation. The leader and follower share experiences of operating in this environment, which when combined with follower-centred social power, provides a basis for upward influence. The reasoning behind the follower's attempts at being effectively influential is informed by their concern with their credibility with the leader. A positive position of influence is then permeated with an array of informal and often implicit evaluations of their followership credibility. Where this is evident is when the leader views followership behaviours as reliable, providing sound advice, and having a heightened ability to problem solve. Such factors facilitate the follower intervening in areas outside their official remit with their leader's support. Followers acknowledge a need to positively position themselves to establish and cultivate their relationships with leaders. They do so by taking up different roles as the situation dictates, so adapting their followership. What remains pivotal to follower success is how the leader evaluates the appropriateness of the acts of followership, by gauging how well they feel supported by those actions in any given circumstance.

10.2 The Experience of Upward Influence as Ineffective Followership

The findings present experiences of barriers, dilemmas, and challenges faced by followers when attempting to have upward influence. In respect to ‘control’ and more specifically ‘authority’, leaders can and do draw on their superior formal authority to overrule, ignore, or circumvent the follower. This creates a tension between leadership and followership, emphasising the asymmetry in this relationship. The power granted to the leader over the follower can be enhanced or sustained by the leader being less receptive to upward influence. The leader can intervene to weaken the follower’s authority. The consequences for followership is an association with a lack of credibility and diminishing upward influence. Subsequently, the leader can utilise their formal superior authority to control the level of authority invested in followership, which is experienced as a key distinguishing feature of a difficult leader-follower dynamic.

Control features prominently amidst unfavourable experiences of partnership. Upward influence can be hampered by the leader’s view of the follower’s lack of credibility and their followership not being an equal to their leadership, or even the leader’s required level of competence. To some degree this is influenced not only by the individual leader but by culturally established practices in the organisation, informing how the leader-follower dynamic is expected to operate. This situation maintains an asymmetry that is rooted in control which is then experienced as prototypical of the leader-follower relationship. Subsequently, leadership is utilised to control the input of followership, impacting upon how the follower is perceived by others and channelling the followers’ self-perception. Furthermore, the leader can impose more control by being physically and/or emotionally distant from the follower. Consequently, followers experience their followership being constrained; their upward influence attempts becoming more

challenging, diminishing job satisfaction, intensification of asymmetry, a lack of openness and an increase in mistrust.

Participants' unfavourable experiences expose a detrimental association between 'legitimacy' and 'identity'. Leaders can have their downward influence legitimatised by basing their leadership identity on their perception of corporate expectations of them. This approach to identity formation is sanctioned by a strong dominating academic cultural working environment. The leaders' identity pervades in the way they set about managing, measuring, controlling, planning, and implementing. It is the strength of the leaders' identity that impacts upon what followers are permitted to do in this environment. What this emphasises is that it is leadership that defines the legitimacy of followership within the context. Followers experiencing difficulties being upwardly influential in this situation respond by adopting a followership identity that readily acknowledges their limitations, emphasising boundaries. The motivation for adopting this form of followership is survival, specifically navigating the corporate terrain merely to do their job, and seeking out rare opportunities to operate beyond the restrictions placed on them. What this situation exposes is the 'consequences' of leaders having the capacity to be legitimately unreceptive to upward influence. Subsequently, this means that followers feel compelled to adopt a followership style based upon the acceptance of low levels of influence, which produces a greater demarcation in status between the leader and follower. The effect of this situation is to reaffirm that leadership is the dominant identity in the relationship. Interestingly, this situation weakens the capacity of followership to enhance the leadership identity. Where this is more evident is when participants describe experiencing a 'them and us' scenario, which can often pervade

and result in normalising the ways in which leaders can overlook or suppress followership.

There are unfavourable experiences concerning ‘support’ that are associated with ‘identity’. Specifically, a lack of mutual support associated with upward influence is deemed problematic. The leader can limit their support for a follower they evaluate as a poor performer and associate this with the follower’s core identity. This circumstance can arise from the leader focusing on the follower’s operational competency as upward influencing, while many followers experience a sense of their strategic level contributions as more significant. This misalignment of expectations suggests that followership identity formation can be problematic, particularly when it is formed in isolation without reference to any implications for the dyadic relationship. Moreover, the challenging of morality at the core of identity construction can provoke conflict or increase resistance, typically experienced as non-supporting followership behaviours. Accordingly, the follower can feel that their followership is compromised by experiencing a desire to stay true to their core identity but at the expense of leader receptivity and support. Lack of support negatively impacts on communication, and here leaders experience a greater propensity in making assumptions concerning the cognition of followers that informs an approach to followership. In this case the follower experiences a need to adapt to make the leader-follower dynamic work better, in an attempt to prevent the leader from exhibiting diminishing confidence in them. When support is deemed to reach the lowest level of a spiralling decline in leader confidence, the follower experiences a need to revert to followership that is overtly resistant, irrespective of the severity of the consequences.

In terms of ‘influencing tactics’, and more specifically ‘challenging’, the follower eventually relinquishes upward influence. At this stage, the follower is very reluctant to engage in followership that means challenging the leader, motivated by the avoidance of possible confrontation. Whereas for the leader being less receptive is more about what they deem inappropriate or aggressive followership, from a source that too often lacks credibility. The lack of formal authority and expert knowledge, and the consequences of a failed challenge explain why some followers experience a reluctance to offer a challenge. What this indicates is that an appetite for risk is a crucial consideration when deciding on how followership can or should be practiced in the workplace. While leaders experience a need to be consulted; they also do not want to feel that the follower’s will is an imposition upon them. In these circumstances, the followers’ tactic is to sustain distance from their leader; adopting a style of followership centred on selectively feeding up information or circumventing their leader to challenge them indirectly. Conversely, the leader relies on top-down tactics to block and resist the follower’s influence to retain control over decision making. Consequently, this inevitably distances the follower, sanctioning the leader’s questioning of the follower’s credibility, motives, ability, and overall professionalism essential to a favourable evaluation of followership.

Leaders’ and followers’ acts to tactically challenge each other mean that there is an expectation that receptivity and influence between the two aspects of the dyad will dynamically ebb and flow. However, the leader has a greater capacity to make a pre-determined effort to dismiss, circumvent, or block the follower. What this emphasises is the disparity of power and control between the two parties. In an open conflict situation, such as disagreements that arise over issues like the distribution of workload,

best use of resources or expenditure plans, and opinions about individuals, whereby the leader challenges follower values, this merely augments the leader's tactical resistance and weakens the follower's future capacity to upwardly influence via their followership. The demarcation between the leader and follower is exposed, whereby the latter has to work harder through followership to have an upward influence, while the former merely rebuffs any upward challenges via their superior leadership authority. Consequently, it is usually the leader who will expose flaws in the followers' viewpoints; normalising the condescension of followers. Followers in this situation experience questioning their professional standing, or their fit with the organisation's management structure and culture that ultimately impacts unfavourably on their followership in the organisation.

'Positioning', in the context of 'influencing tactics', reveals that followers can experience being poorly positioned to influence their leader. By design, the follower and followership can have a starkly lower status than the leader and leadership in the operating environment. Some leaders experience viewing followers as merely operational, and eventually, these followers align their followership with such meek expectations of them. There is a shared experience of operating in a strong academic organisational culture, which can be typified by the notion of 'them and us'. Consequently, the effect in terms of positioning is that followers are implicitly in the weaker group. Moreover, some followers experience staunchly reaffirming their allegiance to their professional grouping, which holds implications for their closeness to the leader and ultimately risks diluting their precarious position of influence.

Dissatisfaction with environmental factors are typically more readily directed towards the follower, irrespective of their lower level of influence to remedy the negative

impact. The state of the dyadic relationship regulates the type and frequency of interaction, revealing that fraught relationships elicit a mutual disparaging evaluation of leadership and followership that hampers receptivity to influence. Consequently, this situation can directly and unfavourably impact on how the roles of followers are positioned in the micro-society in which they operate. It also typifies the difficulty some followers experience in breaking through heavily leader-centric organisational cultures and practices. It is typically the follower that experiences having to accept an unfavourable compromise position, albeit leaders and followers can negatively experience a misalignment of a fit between their expectations of each other. In this situation, it is leaders that typically critique the relative value of the followership support they receive centred on the pressure of their role.

In the absence of a favourable followership position for the follower to upwardly influence, they feel constrained in their scope to remedy ongoing problems. These followers experience less autonomy, lack of leader confidence, and being bypassed, so become less significant over time. The ensuing frustration can then lead to conflict with their leader, compelling the follower to make critical followership decisions; either to accept their weaker positioning or make a conscious decision to manoeuvre into a better position politically. Accordingly, this encompasses an element of risk if this fails to reposition them in the desired way. When such repositioning acts go wrong, this can irreparably damage credibility, merely reaffirming their leader's negative perception of the threat that followership can pose to their leadership.

10.3 Implications of this Study

Three contributory factors demonstrate the importance of the findings of this research study. Firstly, the heavy reliance on quantitative research methods in traditional leadership theorising. Subsequently, while qualitative research approaches are gaining popularity, phenomenology remains relatively underutilised in the social sciences. Hence, this study applies a relatively new method of analysing leadership dynamics. Secondly, the overly leader-centric approach at the core of mainstream leadership research, which inadequately accounts for follower perspectives or the followership effect on the leadership process. This study encompasses both leader and follower perspectives, providing a more holistic view of the effects of the followership phenomenon as embedded within the leadership dynamic. Finally, research that offers a critical analysis to enhance our understanding of contemporary organisational behaviour seldom presents an empirical base upon which to validate the research results. The combination of research subjects' experiences of the phenomenon in a real-world setting provides this empirical basis. All of these factors illustrate the uniqueness of the contribution that these findings make to human knowledge.

The implications for understanding more about followership emanate from this study. Specifically, these findings could inform improvements in leadership development training to enhance organisational performance and contribute to a change in direction in research in this field. Crossman and Crossman (2011) allude to the same implications for leadership/followership development that support their review of followership literature. Their article makes a compelling case for more empirical research to reveal more about how leaders and followers construct followership to reframe leadership models in organisations. This approach incorporates the notion of 'adaptive leadership',

whereby all employees have the opportunity to lead to adapt to changing times. The effect of such assertions is to question why so many corporations persist in continually choosing to invest time in developing a select number of leaders as opposed to leadership in everyone.

There is an HR aspect, whereby both leadership and followership skills need to be enhanced. Subsequently, this means equipping leaders with a working knowledge of followership to facilitate better organisational change, which can be profound in organisations (Hurwitz and Hurwitz, 2009a, 2009b, 2009c). Indeed, such works advance the claim that the relational connection between leadership and followership is typically misunderstood. It is this very foundation that informs the selection of an intellectual and intelligible focus for this study. Subsequently, the implications of the study are evident in how this research ascertains that the effectiveness of followership is distinctly associated with upward influence, alluded to by Crossman and Crossman as ‘...an influential role assumed by those lower down the hierarchy’ (p.493).

The findings of this study have a value associated with several nascent opportunities. These findings can contribute considerably to the development and evaluation of leadership programmes in the higher education sector. While many in-house programmes exist in university settings, few incorporate meaningful notions of followership in context. These programmes are typically leader-centric, and many segment academic from non-academic staff in response to a perception of differing needs across both groups. This approach ignores the benefits of viewing leadership and followership as intertwined and relies mostly on the outdated traditional dualistic positioning of the two concepts as binary opposites. Accordingly, the results of this

study are of direct practical relevance in challenging and changing the traditional leadership paradigm in university settings. This new approach can ensure that Academic Leaders and Administration Managers have a greater understanding of their respective roles. Consequently, there should be an acknowledgement that both leadership and followership are equally integral elements of the leadership process, and when appropriately combining them have more significant potential to improve leadership outcomes.

To expand further on what the researcher means by improving outcomes it is important to consider context. In an ever-increasing competitive global market place for higher education, university services have to be sustainable and resilient. Such organisations need to be well placed to offer a high-quality product that represents excellent value for money. What this requires is those in leadership positions to work well together in partnership, with equal zeal to improve academic standards, while optimising business efficiency to generate the funds needed to reinvest in the sector. Many students are now asked to pay tuition fees, so see their financial contribution, in addition to their time, as an investment in their future. As consumers, they have an eye on an opportunity to develop a lucrative career beyond their time at university. Accordingly, the challenge for the sector is in offering these students the best possible student experience to optimise their academic potential.

It appears imperative to learn from what we know is fallible (a leader-centric understanding of leadership), and simultaneously embrace and implement what we know can make a positive difference (leader and follower contributions to the leadership dynamic). Drawing on the learning outcomes of this study can do this in the context of

enhancing the leadership process, by producing better outcomes to benefit a wide range of stakeholders. To achieve this, as can be seen in these research subjects' experiences, will mean working against the established organisational norms, taking risks, and adapting our own beliefs. Alternatively, we can accept the status quo in the remote hope that the resultant leadership outcomes will future proof the sector. We would also have to have sufficient confidence that our established leadership approach can respond adequately to the significant global challenges and an increasingly wide range of stakeholder demands.

10.4 Personal Reflections

This study represents an incredible intellectual journey for me. As a part-time student on several degree programmes over many years, this work is the pinnacle of my scholarly endeavours. The personal value is having a better understanding of academic research, strengthening the emotional bond with the subject, and enhancing knowledge in respect to the researcher's professional role. How I personally learn now places a higher value on what can be gleaned from the lifeworld experience, appreciating that it is this very experience that carries meaning and informs beliefs about the world in which we exist. It has been invigorating to gain a greater understating of leadership through a critical lens, and to contemplate the questions that have traditionally gone unasked in pursuit of more knowledge is intensely captivating. It is now possible for me to ponder on the purpose and meaning of leadership informed by movements in the relevant literature that present the evolutionary thinking and theorising on this topic. The acquired knowledge I now possess in this field persuades me to acceptance that there is no compromising dilemma in not defining leadership or followership to everyone's mutual satisfaction. Instead, experiences of research subjects elicit a greater desire to

have an open mind and embrace the possibility that these phenomena can be whatever we want them to be. This paradigm rests on our capacity to recognise it by what we sense as a resonating experience.

To this end, my experiences as a researcher working on this study have helped me reframe leadership. The notion of leadership as a process and the significance of the leader-follower dynamic are much more at the forefront of my mind. I consciously draw on this knowledge when considering the space between leadership and followership. Such pondering infuses my professional practice when devolving responsibility, or being open and receptive to new ideas from above and below in my professional role. Above all else, I hope that this research elicits the interest of others in followership, and particularly in the context of higher education. Hopefully, it can contribute to more studies into this fascinating phenomenon of human behaviour, so that we may understand that which appears elusive but intriguing enough to sustain our endeavours as critical analysers, observers, and scholars of leadership dynamics.

References

- ACKERMAN, C. 2017. *Big Five Personality Traits & The 5-Factor Model Explained* [Online]. Available: <https://positivepsychologyprogram.com/big-five-personality-theory/> [Accessed].
- ACKROYD, P. & ACKROYD, S. 1999. Problems of university governance in Britain Is more accountability the solution? *The International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 12, 171-185.
- AD-MANUM-CONSULTANTS 2004. Is the concept of 'followership' understood in professional sport in the UK and how transferable are its concepts, principles and application to the general business environment? : Ad Manum Consultants.
- ADAIR, R. 2008. Developing great leaders, one at a time. In: RIGGIO R, I, C. & J, L.-B. (eds.) *The Art of Followership: How Great Followers Create Great Leaders and Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- AGHO, A. O. 2009. Perspectives of senior-level executives on effective followership and leadership. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 16, 159-166.
- ALLAWI, R. 2013. Sample size in qualitative research. *Medical Education Research Network* [Online]. Available: <http://blogs.cmdn.dundee.ac.uk/meded-research/2013/06/sample-size/> [Accessed 2nd April 2014].
- AJZEN, I. & FISHBEIN, M. 1980. *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behavior*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, Prentice-Hall.
- AKHTAR, S. & MAHMOOD, Z. 2009. A tri-prong variable analysis of influence strategies. *Journal of World Applied Sciences*, 7, 1080-1089.
- ALABDULHADI, A., SCHYNS, B. & STAUDIGL, L. F. 2017. Implicit leadership theory. In: CURTIS, E. A. & CULLEN, J. G. (eds.) *Leadership and change for the health professional*. London: Open University Press.
- ALCORN, D. S. 1992. Dynamic followership: Empowerment at work. *Management Quarterly*, 33, 9.
- ALGERA, P. & LIPS-WIERSMA, M. 2012. C-creating the conditions under which all members of the organization can be authentic. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23, 118-131.
- ALSHENAIIFI, N. & CLARKE, N. 2014. Follower upward influence tactics - key findings from the literature. Institution Information: School of Management: University of Southampton.
- ALVESSON, M. 1996. Leadership studies: From procedure and abstraction to reflexivity and situation. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7, 455-485.
- ALVESSON, M. & DEETZ, S. 2006a. *Doing critical management research*, London ; Thousand Oaks, Calif., Sage Publications.
- ALVESSON, M. & SKOLDBERG, K. 2005. *Reflexive methodology: New vistas for qualitative research*, London, Sage.
- ALVESSON, M. & SKOLDBERG, K. 2009. (Post-)positivism, social constructionism, critical realism. In: ALVESSON, M. & SKOLDBERG, K. (eds.) *Reflexive methodology: New vistas for qualitative research*. London: Sage.
- ALVESSON, M. & WILLMOTT, H. 2001. *Making sense of management: A critical introduction*, London, Sage.

- ALVESSON, M. & WILLMOTT, H. 2002. Identity regulation as organizational control: Producing the appropriate individual. *Journal of Management Studies*, 39, 619-644.
- AMMETER, A. P., DOUGLAS, C., GARDNER, W. L., HOCHWARTER, W. A. & FERRIS, G. R. 2002. Toward a political theory of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 751-796.
- ANDERSON, H. & GOOLISHIAN, H. 1988. Human systems as linguistic systems: Preliminary and evolving ideas about the implications for clinical theory *Family Process*, 27, 371-393.
- ANON 2009. *The Dictionary of Human Geography*, Oxford, Blackwell.
- ANSARI, M., AAFAQI, R. & ZAINAL, S. 2007. Supervisory behavior and upward influence tactics: The impact of gender. *Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. New York.
- ANSARI, M. & KAPOOR, A. 1987. Organizational context and upward influence tactics. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 40, 39-49.
- ANTELO, A., PRILIPKO, E. V. & SHERIDAN-PEREIRA, M. 2010. Assessing effective attributes of followers in a leadership process. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research*, 3, 1-12.
- ANTONAKIS, J., SCHRIESHEIM, C. A., DONOVAN, J. A., GOPALAKRISHNA-PILLAI, K., PELLEGRINI, E. K. & ROSSOMME, J. L. 2004. Methods for studying leadership. In: ANTONAKIS, J., CIANCIOLO, A. T. & STERNBERG, R. J. (eds.) *The nature of leadership*. Thousand Oaks, Calif. ; London: Sage Publications.
- ARENDT, H. 1958. *The human condition*, Chicago, University of Chicago Press.
- ARONSON, E. 1968. Dissonance theory: Progress and problems. In: ABLESON, R. P., ARONSON, E., MCGUIRE, W. J., NEWCOMBE, T. M., ROSENBERG, M. J. & TANNENBAUM, P. H. (eds.) *Theories of cognitive consistency: A sourcebook*. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- ASHFORD, S. J. & TSUI, A. S. 1991. Self-regulation for managerial effectiveness: The role of active feedback seeking. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34, 251-251.
- ASHFORTH, B. A. & LEE, R. T. 1990. Defensive behavior in organizations: A preliminary model. *Human Relations*, 43, 621.
- ASHWORTH, P. 2003. The origins of qualitative psychology. In: SMITH, J. (ed.) *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- ASHWORTH, P. D. 1993. Participant agreement in the justification of qualitative findings. *Journal of Phenomenological Psychology*, 24, 3-16.
- ATCHISON, T. A. 2004. *Followership: A practical guide to aligning leaders and followers*, Chicago, Ill., Health Administration Press.
- AVOLIO, B. J. & REICHARD, R. J. 2008. The rise of authentic followership. In: RIGGIO, R., CHALEFF, I. & LIPMAN-BLUMENT, J. (eds.) *The Art of Followership: How Great Followers Create Great Leaders and Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- AVOLIO, B. J., WALUMBWA, F. & WEBER, T. J. 2009. Leadership: Current theories, research and future directions. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 60, 421-449.
- BA BANUTU-GOMEZ, M. 2004. Great leaders teach exemplary followership and serve as servant leaders. *Journal of American Academy of Business*, Cambridge, 4, 143-151.

- BACHERACH, S. B. & LAWLER, E. J. 1986. Power dependence and power paradoxes in bargaining. *Negotiation Journal*, 2, 167-174.
- BAKER, S. D. 2007. Followership - The theoretical foundation of a contemporary construct. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 14, 50-60.
- BALDWIN, M. W. 1992. Relational schemas and the processing of social information. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112, 461-484.
- BALL, K. S. & CARTER, C. 2001. *Claiming other selves: New managerialism and the leadership/followership relation*, Leicester, Leicester University Management Centre.
- BALL, S. 2012. Performativity, Commodification and Commitment: An I-Spy Guide to the Neoliberal University. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, March 2012.
- BANKS, S. P. 2008. *Dissent and the failure of leadership*, Cheltenham, Edward Elgar.
- BARKER, J. 1993. Tightening the iron cage: Concertive control in self-managing teams. *Administration Science Quarterly*, 38, 408-437.
- BARLEBO WENNEBERG, S. 2001. *Socialkonstruktivism, Positioner, problem och Perspektiv (Social constructionism. Positions, problems, and perspectives)*, Malmö, Liber.
- BARRICK, M. R. & MOUNT, M. K. 1991. The big five personality dimensions and job performance: a meta analysis. *Personnel psychology*, 44, 1-26.
- BARSALOU, L. W. 1985. Ideals, central tendency, and frequency of instantiation as determinants of graded structure in categories. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 11, 629-654.
- BENGTSSON, J. 1989. Fenomenologi: Vardagsforskning, existensfilosofi, hermeneutik. In: MANSON, P. (ed.) *Moderna samhällsteorier: Traditioner riktningar teoretiker*. Stockholm: Prisma.
- BENNIS, W. 1999. The end of leadership: Exemplary leadership is impossible without full inclusion, initiatives, and cooperation of followers. *Organizational Dynamics*, 28, 71-79.
- BENNIS, W. 2008. Introduction. In: RIGGIO R, I, C. & J, L.-B. (eds.) *The Art of Followership: How Great Followers Create Great Leaders and Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- BENNIS, W. & NANUS, B. 1985. *Leaders: The strategies for taking charge*, New York, Harper & Row.
- BERG, D. N. 1998. Resurrecting the muse: Followership in organizations In: KLEIN, E. B., GABELNICK, F. & HERR, P. (eds.) *The Psychodynamics of Leadership*. Madison, CT: Psychosocial Press.
- BERGER, P. L. & LUCKMANN, T. 1991. *The social construction of reality: A treatise in the sociology of knowledge*, London, Penguin Books.
- BHATNAGAR, D. 1993. Evaluation of managerial influence tactics. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 8, 3-9.
- BILLOT, J., WEST, D., KHONG, L., SKOROBHACZ, C., ROXÅ, T., MURRAY, S. & GAYLE, B. 2013. Followership in Higher Education: Academic Teachers and their Formal Leaders. *Teaching Learning Inquiry*, 1, 91-103.
- BIRNBAUM, R. 1989. Leadership and followership: The cybernetics of university governance. In: SCHUSTER, J. H. & MILLER, L. (eds.) *Governing tomorrow's campus: Perspectives and agendas*. Washington DC: ACE/Macmillan.

- BJUGSTAD, D., THACH, E., THOMPSON, K. & MORRIS, A. 2006. A fresh look at followership: A model for matching followership and leadership styles. *Journal of Behavioural and Applied Management*, 7, 304-319.
- BLACKSHEAR, P. B. 2004. The followership continuum: A model for increasing organizational productivity. *The Innovation Journal: The Public Sector Innovation Journal*, 9, 1-16.
- BLANCHARD, A. L., WELBOURNE, J., GILMORE, D. & BULLOCK, A. 2009. Followership styles and employee attachment to the organization. *Psychologist-Manager Journal*, 12, 111-131.
- BLANCHARD, K. 2018. Followers as servant leaders. Available: <https://ideas.bkconnection.com/followers-as-servant-leaders>.
- BLASS, T. 2008. What can Milgram's obedience experiments contribute to our understanding of followership? In: RIGGIO R, I, C. & J, L.-B. (eds.) *The Art of Followership: How Great Followers Create Great Leaders and Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- BLEIKLIE, I. 2003. Hierarchy and specialisation: On the institutional integration of higher education systems. *European Journal of Education*, 38, 341-355.
- BLIGH, M. 2011. Followership and follower-centred approaches. In: BRYMAN, A., COLLINSON, D., GRINT, K., JACKSON, B. & UHL-BIEN, M. (eds.) *The SAGE handbook of leadership*. London: Sage.
- BLUEDORN, A. C. & JAUSSE, K. S. 2008. Leaders, followers, and time. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19, 654-668.
- BLUMAN, L. S. 2008. Bystanders to children's bullying: The importance of leadership by "Innocent Bystanders". In: RIGGIO R, I, C. & J, L.-B. (eds.) *The Art of Followership: How Great Followers Create Great Leaders and Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- BLUMER, H. 1969. *Symbolic interactionism: Perspective and method*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall.
- BOCHNER, A. P. 2001. Narrative's virtues. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 7, 131-156.
- BOK, D. C. 2003. *Universities in the marketplace: The commercialization of higher education*, Princeton, N.J., Princeton University Press.
- BOTERO, I. C., FOSTE, E. & PACE, K. M. 2012. Exploring differences and similarities in predictors and use of upward influence strategies in two countries. *Journal of Cross-cultural psychology*, 43, 822-832.
- BOURDIEU, P. 1990. *The logic of practice*, Cambridge, Polity Press.
- BOWDEN, J. & MARTON, F. 1998. *The university of learning: Beyond quality and competence in higher education*, London, Kogan Page.
- BOYETT, J. 2013. *The science of leadership*, United States, Createspace.
- BRADFORD, D. L. & COHEN, A. R. 1998. *Power up: Transforming organizations through shared leadership*, New York; Chichester, Wiley.
- BRIGGS, A. R. J. 2004. Middle managers in further education colleges: the "New Professionals". *Journal of Educational Administration*, 42, 586-600.
- BROWN, A. 2003. The new followership: A challenge for leaders. *The Futurist*, 37, 68-68.
- BROWN, R. 2000. *Group processes*, Oxford, Blackwell.
- BROWN, T. 1995. Great leaders need great followers. *Industry Week*, 244, 25-30.
- BRUFEE, K. A. 1999. *Collaborative learning: Higher education, inter-dependence, and the authority of knowledge*, Baltimore, John Hop-kins University Press.
- BRUNNER, R. D. 1997. Teaching the policy sciences: Reflections on a graduate seminar. *Policy Sciences*, 30, 217-231.

- BRYMAN, A. 1992. *Charisma and leadership in organizations*, London, Sage.
- BRYMAN, A. & BELL, E. 2003. *Business research methods*, Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- BRYMAN, A., BRESNEN, M., BEARDSWORTH, A. & KEIL, T. 1988. Qualitative research and the study of leadership. *Human Relations*, 41, 13-13.
- BURKE, C. S. 2006. What type of leadership behaviours are functional in teams? A meta-analysis. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17, 288-307.
- BURNS, J. M. 1978. *Leadership*, New York, Harper and Row.
- BURNS, J. M. 1979. *Leadership*, New York, Perennial.
- BURRELL, G. 1988. Modernism, postmodernism and organisational analysis, part 2: The contribution of Michel Foucault. *Organisation Studies*, 9, 221-235.
- CABLE, D. M. & JUDGE, T. A. 2003. Managers' upward influence tactic strategies: The role of manager personality and supervisor leadership style. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 24, 197-214.
- CAELLI, K. 2001. Engaging with phenomenology: Is it more of a challenge than it needs to be? *Qualitative Health Research*, 11, 273-281.
- CALHOUN, C. J. 1995. *Critical social theory: Culture, history, and the challenge of difference*, Cambridge, Mass. ; Oxford, UK, Blackwell.
- CAMERON, B. C. 1981. *Followership: followers' response to influence tactics*. Doctor of Philosophy, University of Bradford.
- CARPENTIER, V. 2006. Funding in higher education and economic growth in France and the United Kingdom, 1921-2003. *Higher Education Management & Policy*, 18, 9-30.
- CARROLL, B., FORD, J. & TAYLOR, S. 2015. *Leadership: Contemporary critical perspectives*, London, SAGE.
- CARSTEN, M. K., UHL-BIEN, M., WEST, B. J., PATERA, J. L. & MCGREGOR, R. 2010. Exploring social constructions of followership: A qualitative study. *Leadership Quarterly*, 21, 543-562.
- CASTRO, S., DOUGLAS, C., HOCHWARTER, W. A., FERRIS, G. & FRINK, D. 2003. The effects of positive affect and gender on the influence tactics - job performance relationship. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 10, 1-18.
- CAVANA, R. Y., DELAHAYE, B. L. & SEKARAN, U. 2001. *Applied business research: Qualitative and quantitative methods*, Milton, Qld., Wiley.
- CAZA, A. & JACKSON, B. 2011. Authentic leadership. In: BRYMAN, A., GRINT, K., JACKSON, B. & UHL-BEIN, M. (eds.) *The SAGE handbook of leadership*. London: Sage.
- CHALEFF, I. 1995. *The courageous follower: Standing up to and for our leaders*, San Francisco, Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- CHALEFF, I. 2008. Creating new ways of following. In: RIGGIO R, I, C. & J, L.-B. (eds.) *The Art of Followership: How Great Followers Create Great Leaders and Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- CHALEFF, I. 2009. *The courageous follower: Standing up to and for our leaders*, San Francisco, Berrett-Koehler Publishers Inc.
- CHALEFF, I. 2015. *Intelligent disobedience: Doing right when what you're told to do is wrong* Oakland, CA, Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- CHEMERS, M. M. 2003. Leadership effectiveness: Functional, constructivist and empirical perspectives. In: VAN KIPPENBERG, D. & HOGG, M. (eds.) *Leadership and power: Identity processes in groups and organizations*. London: Sage.

- CHENEY, G. & CHRISTENSEN, L. B. 2001. Leadership effectiveness: Functional, constructivist and empirical perspectives. In: VAN KNIPPENBERG, D. & HOGG, M. (eds.) *Leadership and power: Identity processes in groups and organizations*. London: Sage.
- CHITTY, C. 2004. *Education policy in Britain*, London, Palgrave Macmillan.
- CHIU, C., HONG, Y. & DWECK, C. S. 1997. Lay dispositionism and implicit theories of personality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 73, 19-30.
- CIALDINI, R. 2001. *Influence: Science and practice*, Needham Heights, MA, Allyn & Bacon.
- CIULLA, J. 1995. Leadership ethics: Mapping the territory. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 5, 5-28.
- CIULLA, J. B. 2008. Leadership studies and “the fusion of horizons”. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19, 393-395.
- CLARKE, J., GEWIRTZ, S. & MCLAUGHLIN, E. 2000. Reinventing the welfare state. In: CLARKE, J., GEWIRTZ, S. & MCLAUGHLIN, E. (eds.) *New managerialism, new welfare*. London: Open University Press.
- CLIFFORD, J. 1986. Introduction: Partial truths. In: CLIFFORD, J. & MARCUS, G. (eds.) *Writing culture: The poetics and policies of ethnography*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- COGLISER, C. C., SCHRIESHEIM, C. A., SCANDURA, T. A. & GARDNER, W. L. 2009. Balance in leader and follower perceptions of leader-member exchange: Relationships with performance and work attitudes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20, 452-465.
- COHEN, A. & BRADFORD, D. 1989. *Influence without authority*, New York, John Wiley and Sons Inc.
- COHEN, I. J. 1989. *Structuration Theory: Anthony Giddens and the constitution of social life*, London, Macmillan.
- COLANGELO, A. J. 2000. *Followership: Leadership styles*. University of Oklahoma.
- COLLINSON, D. 1992. *Managing the shopfloor: Subjectivity, masculinity, and workplace culture*, Berlin, W. de Gruyter.
- COLLINSON, D. 2002. Managing humour. *Journal of Management Studies*, 39, 269-288.
- COLLINSON, D. 2005a. Questions of distance. *Leadership*, 1, 235-250.
- COLLINSON, D. 2005b. Dialectics of leadership. *Human Relations*, 58, 1419-1442.
- COLLINSON, D. 2006. Rethinking followership: A post-structuralist analysis of follower identities. *Leadership Quarterly*, 17, 179-189.
- COLLINSON, D. 2008. Conformist, resistant and disguised selves: A post-structuralist approach to identity and workplace followership. In: RIGGIO R, I, C. & J, A. L.-B. (eds.) *The Art of Followership: How Great Followers Create Great Leaders and Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- COLLINSON, D. 2011. Critical leadership studies. In: BRYMAN, A., GRINT, K., JACKSON, B. & UHL-BIEN, M. (eds.) *The SAGE handbook of leadership*. London: Sage.
- COLLINSON, D. 2017. Critical leadership studies: A response to Learmonth and Morrell. *Leadership*, 13, 272-284.
- COLLINSON, D. & COLLINSON, M. 2009. 'Blended Leadership': Employee perspectives on effective leadership in the UK further education sector. *Leadership*, 5, 365-380.

- COLLINSON, D. L. 2003. Identities and Insecurities: Selves at Work. *Organization*, 10, 527-547.
- CONGER, J. A. 1998. Qualitative research as the cornerstone methodology for understanding leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 9, 107-121.
- CONGER, J. A. 1999. Charismatic and transformational leadership in organizations: An insider's perspective on these developing streams of research. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10, 145-179.
- CONGER, J. A. & KANUNGO, R. N. 1998. Charismatic leadership in organizations. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- COOPER, D. R. & SCHINDLER, P. S. 1998. *Business research methods*, Boston ; London, Irwin McGraw-Hill.
- COPE, M. 2002. Feminist epistemology in geography. In: MOSS, P. (ed.) *Feminist geography in practice: research and methods*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- CORREA, H. & CARRIERI, A. P. 2004. Administer is creating conflicts: Bullying degrading labor relations in the judiciary. *Proceedings of the National Meeting of the National Association of Graduate Studies and Research in Administration*. Curitiba, PR, Brazil.
- COURPASSON, D. 2000. Managerial strategies of domination: Power in soft bureaucracies. *Organisational Studies*, 21, 141-162.
- COYLE, P. T. 2015. *A field investigation of implicit theory congruence in leader-follower relationships*. Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.
- COYLE, P. T. & FOTI, R. J. 2015. If you're not with me you're...? Examining prototypes and cooperation in leader-follower relationships. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 22, 161-174.
- CRESWELL, J. W. 1994. *Research Design: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*, Thousand Oaks, Sage Pubns.
- CRESWELL, J. W. 1998. *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions*, Thousand Oaks, Calif., Sage Publications.
- CRESWELL, J. W. 2009. *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*, Los Angeles, Sage.
- CROOKS, D. L. 2001. The importance of symbolic interaction in grounded theory research on women's health. *Health Care for Women International*, 22, 11-27.
- CROSSMAN, B. & CROSSMAN, J. 2011. Conceptualising followership – a review of the literature. *Leadership*, 7, 481-497.
- CROSSMAN, B. M. H. 2012. *Leadership and followership within VET: Some Australian and international perspectives*. DBA, Southern Cross University.
- CROTTY, M. 1998. *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*, London, Sage.
- CUNLIFFE, A. L. & ERIKSEN, M. 2011. Relational leadership. *Human Relations*, 64, 1425-1449.
- DAGG-HESTON, S. 2007. *Followership in an educational setting*. MA in Education Management, University of Surrey.
- DANSERAU, F. & MARKHAM, S. 1987. Superior-subordinate communication: multiple levels of analysis. In: JABLIN, F., PUTNAM, L., ROBERTS, K. & PORTER, L. (eds.) *Handbook of organisational communication*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- DANSEREAU, F., GRAEN, G. & HAGA, W. 1975. A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations: A longitudinal investigation of the

- role making process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 13, 46-78.
- DANZINGER, K. 1997. The varieties of social construction. *Theory & Psychology*, 3, 399-416.
- DAVIES, A. & THOMAS, R. 2002. Managerialism and accountability in higher education: The gendered nature of restructuring and the costs to academic service. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, 13, 179-193.
- DE BEAUVOIR, S. 1948. *The ethics of ambiguity*, New York, Citadel Press.
- DE VRIES, R., ROE, R. & THAILLIEU, T. 1999. On charisma and need for leadership. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8, 109-126.
- DEARLOVE, J. 1995. Collegiality, managerialism and leadership in English universities. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 1, 161-169.
- DEARLOVE, J. 2002. A continuing role for academics: The governance of UK Universities in the Post-Dearing Era. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 56, 257-275.
- DEEM, R. 2004. The knowledge worker, the manager-academic and the contemporary UK University: New and old forms of public management? *Financial Accountability & Management*, 20, 107-128.
- DEEM, R. 2006. Changing research perspectives on the management of higher education: Can research permeate the activities of manager-academics? *Higher Education Quarterly*, 60, 203-228.
- DELANTY, G. 1997. Positivism, science and the politics of knowledge. *Social Science: Beyond constructivism and realism*, 11-38.
- DELBRIDGE, R. & EZZAMEL, M. 2005. Conceptions of control. *Organization*, 12.
- DELUGA, R. J. 1988. Relationship of transformational and transactional leadership with employee influencing strategies. *Group and Organization Management*, 13, 456-467.
- DELUGA, R. J. & PERRY, J. T. 1991. The relationship of subordinate upward influencing behaviour, satisfaction and perceived superior effectiveness with leader-member exchanges. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 64, 239-252.
- DENZIN, N. K. & LINCOLN, Y. S. 1994. *Handbook of qualitative research*, Thousand Oaks, CA., Sage.
- DENZIN, N. K. & LINCOLN, Y. S. 2000. *The handbook of qualitative research*, Thousand Oaks, Calif. ; London, Sage.
- DERUE, D. S. & ASHFORD, S. J. 2010. Who will lead and who will follow? A social process of leadership identity construction in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 35, 627-647.
- DETERT, J. R. & EDMONSON, A. C. 2011. Implicit voice theories: Taken-for-granted rules of self-censorship at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54, 461-488.
- DETMER, D. 2013. *Phenomenology explained*, Chicago, IL., Open Court Publishing Company.
- DIXON, G. & WESTBROOK, J. 2003. Followers revealed. *Engineering Management Journal*, 15, 19-25.
- DOCKERY, T. M. & STEINER, D. D. 1990. The role of the initial interaction in leader-member exchange. *Group & Organization Management*, 15, 395-413.
- DOPSON, S. & MCNAY, I. 2000. Organizational culture. In: WARNER, D. & PALFREYMAN, D. (eds.) *Higher education management, the key elements*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

- DRATH, W. 2001. *The deep blue sea: Rethinking the source of leadership*, San Francisco, Calif., Chichester: Jossey-Bass ; Wiley.
- DREHER, G. F., DOUGHERTY, T. W. & WHITELEY, W. 1989. Influence tactics and salary attainment: A gender-specific analysis. *Sex Roles*, 20, 535-550.
- DRUCKER, P. F. & MACIARIELLO, J. A. 2004. *The Daily Drucker: 366 Days of insight and motivation for getting the right things done*, Lodon, Routledge.
- DULEBOHN, J. H., BOMMER, W. H., LIDEN, R. C., BROUCER, R. L. & FERRIS, G. R. 2012. A meta-analysis of antecedents and consequences of leader-member exchange: Integrating the past with an eye toward the future. *Journal of Management*, 38, 1715-1759.
- DWECK, C. S. & LEGGETT, E. L. 1988. A social-cognitive approach to motivation and personality. *Psychological Review*, 95, 256-273.
- EAGLY, A. H. 2005. Achieving relational authenticity in leadership: Does gender matter? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16, 459-474.
- EASTERBY-SMITH, M., THORPE, R. & LOWE, A. 1991. *Management research: An introduction*, London ; Newbury Park, Sage.
- EASTERBY-SMITH, M., THORPE, R. & LOWE, A. 2002. *Management research: An introduction*, London, Sage.
- EDEN, D. 1990. *Pygmalion in management: Productivity as a self-fulfilling prophecy*, Lexington, MA, Lexington Books.
- EDEN, D. & LEVIATAN, U. 1975. Implicit leadership theory as a determinant of the factor structure underlying supervisory behavior scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60, 736-741.
- EDWARDS, P., COLLINSON, D. & DELLA ROCCA, G. 1995. Workplace resistance in Western Europe: A preliminary overview and a research agenda. *European Journal of Industrial Relations*, 1, 283-316.
- EDWARDS, R. C. 1979. *Contested terrain: The transformation of the workplace in the twentieth century*, London, Heinemann.
- EGRI, C. P., RALSTON, D. A., MURRAY, C. S. & NICHOLSON, J. D. 2000. Managers in the NAFTA countries: A cross-cultural comparison of attitudes toward upward influence strategies. *Journal of International Management*, 6, 149-171.
- EISENBERG, E. M. 2007. Ambiguity as strategy in organizational communication. In: EISENBERG, E. M. (ed.) *Strategic ambiguities: Essays on communication, organization, and identity*. London: Sage.
- ELIAS, S. 2008. Fifty years of influence in the workplace: The evolution of the French and Raven power taxonomy. *Journal of Management History*, 14, 267-283.
- EMIRBAYER, M. 1997. Manifesto for a Relational Sociology. *American Journal of Sociology*, 102, 85-317.
- ENGLANDER, M. 2012. The interview: Data collection in descriptive phenomenological human scientific research. *Journal of Phenomenological Psychology*, 43, 13-35.
- ENGLE, E. M. & LORD, R. G. 1997. Implicit theories, self-schemas, and leader-member exchange. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40, 988-1010.
- EOYANG, C. 1983. Symbolic transformation of belief systems. In: PONDY, L. R., FROST, P. J., MORGAN, G. & DANDRIDGE, T. C. (eds.) *Organizational symbolism*. Greenwich, CT.: JAI Press.

- EPITROPAKI, O. & MARTIN, R. 2005. From ideal to real: A longitudinal study of the role of implicit leadership theories on leader-member exchanges and employee outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 659-676.
- EPITROPAKI, O., SY, T., MARTIN, R., TRAM-QUON, S. & TOPAKAS, A. 2013. Implicit leadership and followership theories "in the wild": Taking stock of information-processing approaches to leadership and followership in organizational settings. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24, 858-881.
- EREZ, M., RIM, Y. & KEIDER, I. 1986. The two sides of the tactics of influence: agent vs. target. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 59, 25-39.
- EVANS, P. G. 2010. *The dynamics of the leader follower relationship*. Doctor of Philosophy, University of Manchester.
- EVANS, P. G. & HYDE, P. J. 2011. *The dynamics of the leader follower relationship*, Manchester, UK, University of Manchester.
- FAIRHOLM, G. W. 1993. *Organizational power and politics: Tactics in organizational leadership*, Westport, CT., Praeger.
- FAIRHURST, G. T. 1993. The leader-member exchange patterns of women leaders in industry: A discourse analysis. *Communication Monographs*, 60, 23-53.
- FAIRHURST, G. T. 2001. Dualisms in leadership research. In: JABLIN, F. M. & PUTNAM, L. L. (eds.) *The New Handbook of Organizational Communication*. Thousand Oaks, CA.: Sage.
- FAIRHURST, G. T. 2007. *Discursive leadership: In conversation with leadership psychology*, Los Angeles, SAGE Publications.
- FAIRHURST, G. T. & GRANT, D. 2010. The social construction of leadership: A sailing guide. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 24, 171-210.
- FALBE, C. & YUKL, G. 1992. Consequences for managers of using single influence tactics and combinations of tactics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 35, 638-652.
- FARMER, S., MASLYN, J., FEDOR, D. & GOODMAN, J. 1997. Putting upward influence strategies in context. *Journal of organizational behaviour*, 18, 17-42.
- FAY, B. 1996. *Contemporary philosophy of social science*, Oxford, Blackwell.
- FERRIS, G. R. & JUDGE, T. A. 1991. Personnel/human resources management: A political influence perspective. *Journal of Management*, 17, 447-488.
- FERRIS, G. R., JUDGE, T. A., ROWLAND, K. M. & FITZGIBBONS, D. E. 1994. Subordinate influence and the performance evaluation process: Test of a model. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 58, 101-135.
- FERRIS, G. R., TREADWAY, D. C., PERREWE, P. L., BROUER, R. L., DOUGLAS, C. & LUX, S. 2007. Political skill in organizations. *Journal of Management*, 33, 290-320.
- FINLAY, L. 2003. The reflexive journey: Mapping multiple routes. In: FINLAY, L. & GOUGH, B. (eds.) *Reflexivity: A practical guide for researchers in health and social sciences*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
- FINLAY, L. 2006a. Qualitative research towards public health. *K311 Block 2 Researching Health*. Milton Keynes, Buckinghamshire: The Open University.
- FINLAY, L. 2006b. 'Rigour', 'ethical integrity' or 'artistry'? Reflexively reviewing criteria for evaluating qualitative research. *BJOT: Scholarly Paper for Research Symposium series*.
- FISHBEIN, M. & AJZEN, I. 1975. *Belief, attitude, intention, and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*, Reading, MA, Addison-Wesley.

- FLETCHER, G. J. O., SIMPSON, J. A. & THOMAS, G. 2000. Ideals, perceptions, and evaluations in early relationship development. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 79, 933-940.
- FLETCHER, J. 2002. The paradox of post heroic leadership: Gender, power and the "New" organization. *Organization and Management Theory Division of the Academy of Management*. Denver, CO.
- FORD, J. & HARDING, N. 2015. Followers in leadership theory: Fiction, fantasy and illusion. *Leadership*.
- FORSYTH, D. R. 2009. *Group dynamics*, New York, New York, Wadsworth.
- FOTI, R. J., HANSBROUGH, T. K., EPITROPAKI, O. & COYLE, P. T. 2017. Dynamic viewpoints on implicit leadership and followership theories: Approaches, findings, and future directions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 28, 261-267.
- FOTI, R. J., KNEE, R. E. & BACKERT, R. G. 2008. Multi-level implications of framing leadership perceptions as a dynamic process. *Leadership Quarterly*, 19, 178-194.
- FOTI, R. J. & LORD, R. G. 1987. Prototypes and scripts: The effects of alternative methods of processing information on rating accuracy. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 39, 318-340.
- FOUCAULT, M. 1972. *The archeology of knowledge*, London, Routledge.
- FOUCAULT, M. 1977. *Discipline and punish*, London, Allen and Unwin.
- FOUCAULT, M. 1982. Afterword. In: DREYFUS, H. & RABINOW, P. (eds.) *Michel Foucault: Beyond structuralism and hermeneutics*. Hemel Hempstead, UK: Harvester Press.
- FRANCIS, A. F. 2015. *Followership among secondary school teachers*. Doctor in Education: Leaders and Leadership, The University of Birmingham.
- FRISINA, M. E. 2005. Learn to lead by following. *Nursing Management*, 36, 12-12.
- FROGGATT, C. C. 2001. *Work naked: Eight essential principles for peak performance in the virtual workplace*, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- FROMM, E. 2001. *The fear of freedom*, London, Routledge.
- FROST, P. J. 1987. Power, politics and influence. In: JABLIN, F., PUTNAM, L., ROBERTS, K. & PORTER, L. (eds.) *Handbook of organisational communication*. Newbury Park, CA.: Sage.
- FRYE, J., KISSELBURGH, L. G. & BUTTS, D. 2007. Embracing spiritual followership. *Communication Studies*, 58, 243-260.
- FU, P. P., KENNEDY, J., TATA, J., YUKL, G., BOND, M. H., PENG, T. K. & CHEOSAKUL, A. 2004. The impact of societal cultural values and individual social beliefs on the perceived effectiveness of managerial influence strategies: A meso approach. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 35, 284-305.
- GABBARD, D. 2013. Educational Leadership or Followership? *Democracy and Education*, 21.
- GABRIEL, Y. 1999. *Organizations in depth: the psychoanalysis of organizations*, London, Sage.
- GALTON, F. 1900. *Hereditary genius: An inquiry into its laws and consequences*, New York, D. Appleton.
- GANGESTAD, S. W. & SNYDER, M. 2000. Self-monitoring: Appraisal and reappraisal. *Psychological Bulletin*, 126, 530-555.
- GARDINER, R. A. 2018. Hannah and her sisters: theorizing gender and leadership through the lens of feminist phenomenology. *Leadership*, 14, 291-306.

- 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, 343-372.
- GARDNER, W. L. & MARTINKO, M. J. 1988. Impression management: An observational study linking audience characteristics with verbal self-presentations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 31, 42-65.
- GARFINKEL, H. 2003. Socially negotiating knowledge. In: GERGEN, M. & GERGEN, K. J. (eds.) *Social construction: A reader*. London: Sage.
- GEE, J. P. 1989. Literacy, discourse, and linguistics: Introduction and what is literacy? *Journal of Education*, 171, 5-25.
- GERGEN, K. 1978. Toward generative theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 31, 1344-1360.
- GERGEN, K. 1997. *Constructivist epistemology: Beliefs about knowledge, then, inform, justify, and sustain our practices of education* [Online]. Available: <http://www.ucs.mun.ca/~emurphy/stemnet/cle2.html> [Accessed 20th March 2014].
- GERGEN, K. 1999. *An invitation to social construction*, London, Sage.
- GERGEN, K. 2004. Constructing human nature, from the primordial to the prophetic. *Human Nature*, 13, 123-136.
- GERGEN, K. J. 1985. The social constructionist movement in modern psychology. *American Psychologist*, 40, 266-275.
- GERGEN, K. J. 1996. Social psychology as social construction: The emerging vision. In: MCGARTY, C. & HASLAM, A. (eds.) *For the message of social psychology: Perspectives on mind in society*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- GERGEN, K. J. 2001. Construction in contention: Toward consequential resolutions. *Theory and Psychology*, 11, 419-432.
- GERGEN, K. J. 2003. Knowledge as socially constructed. In: GERGEN, M. & GERGEN, K. J. (eds.) *Social construction: A reader*. London: Sage.
- GERGEN, K. J. 2009. *Relational being, beyond self and community*, New York, Oxford University Press.
- GERGEN, K. J. & GERGEN, M. M. 1991. *Toward reflexive methodologies*, London, Sage.
- GIBBONS, M. 2005. Choice and responsibility: Innovation in a new context. *Higher Education Management & Policy*, 17, 1-13.
- GIDDENS, A. 1979. *Central Problems in Social Theory: Action, Structure, and Contradiction in Social Analysis*, Berkeley and Los Angeles, CA, University of California Press.
- GIDDENS, A. 1982. *Profiles and Critiques in Social Theory*, Berkeley and Los Angeles, CA, University of California Press.
- GIDDENS, A. 1984. *The constitution of society: Outline of the theory of structuration*, Berkeley, University of California Press.
- GIDDENS, A. 1987. *Social theory and modern sociology*, Stanford, Calif., Stanford University Press.
- GILBERT, J. & MATVIUK, S. 2008. The symbiotic nature of the leader-follower relationship and its impact on organizational effectiveness. *Academic Leadership* [Online], 6. Available: http://www.academicleadership.org/260/the_symbiotic_nature_of_the_leader-follower_relationship_and_its_impact_on_organizational_effectiveness/.
- GILBERT, R. G. 1985. Building highly productive work team through positive leadership. *Public Personnel Management*, 14, 449.

- GIORGI, A. 1992. *The theory, practice and evaluation of the phenomenological method as a qualitative research procedure for the human sciences*. Quebec, Universite du Quebec a Montreal.
- GIORGI, A. 1997. The theory, practice, and evaluation of the phenomenological method as a qualitative research. *Journal of Phenomenological Psychology*, 28, 235.
- GIROUX, H. 2006. It was such a handy term: Management fashions and pragmatic ambiguity. *Journal of Management Studies*, 43, 1227-1260.
- GITLIN, T. 1990. Opinion. *Tikkun*, 5, 47-48.
- GLAZIER, J. D. & POWELL, R. R. 1992. *Qualitative research in information management*, Englewood, Colo, Libraries Unlimited.
- GOFFEE, R. & JONES, G. 2001. Followership: It's personal too. *Harvard Business Review*, 79, 148.
- GOFFEE, R. & JONES, G. 2006a. The art of followership. *European Business Forum*, 22-26.
- GOFFEE, R. & JONES, G. 2006b. *Why should anyone be led by you: What it takes to be an authentic leader*, Boston, MA, Harvard Business School Press.
- GOFFEE, R. & JONES, G. 2007. Leading clever people. *Harvard Business Review*, 85, 72-79.
- GOFFMAN, E. 1959. *The presentation of self in everyday life*, Garden City, N.Y., Doubleday.
- GOFFMAN, E. 1969. *Strategic interaction*. Pennsylvania University, Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania Press.
- GOLDBERG, L. R. 1993. The structure of phenotypic personality traits. *American Psychologist*, 48, 26-34.
- GONZALEZ, R., BIEVER, J. L. & GARDNER, G. T. 1994. The multicultural perspective in therapy: A social constructionist approach. *Psychotherapy*, 31, 515-524.
- GOODWIN, V. L., WOFFORD, J. C. & BOYD, N. G. 2000. A laboratory experiment testing the antecedents of leader cognitions. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21, 769-788.
- GORDEN, W. I. 1988. Range of employee voice. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 4, 283-299.
- GORDON, D. 2002. Conceptualising leadership with respect to its historical antecedents to power. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 151-167.
- GORDON, R. 2011. Leadership and power. In: BRYMAN, A., GRINT, K., JACKSON, B. & UHL-BIEN, M. (eds.) *The SAGE handbook of leadership*. London: Sage.
- GORDON, R. D., CLEGG, S. R. & KORNBERGER, M. M. 2009. Power, rationality and legitimacy in public organisations. *Public Administration*, 87, 15-34.
- GORMAN, G. E. & CLAYTON, P. 1997. *Qualitative research for the information professional: a practical handbook*, London, Library Association Publishing Limited.
- GRAEN, G. B. & UHL-BIEN, M. 1995. Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6, 219-247.
- GREIG, A. & TAYLOR, J. 1999. *Doing research with children*, London, Sage.
- GREY, C. 1994. Career as a project of the self and labour process discipline. *Sociology*, 28, 479-497.

- GRINT, K. 1997. *Leadership: Classical, contemporary, and critical approaches*, Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- GRINT, K. 2005a. *Leadership: Limits and possibilities*, Basingstoke, Palgrave Macmillan.
- GRINT, K. 2010. *Leadership: A very short introduction*, Oxford ; New York, Oxford University Press.
- GRINT, K. & HOLT, C. 2011. Followership in the NHS. *Ideas that change healthcare*. The Kings Fund.
- GRONN, P. 1996. From transactions to transformations. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 24, 7-30.
- GRONN, P. 2002. Distributed leadership as a unit of analysis. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 423-451.
- GROVE, J. 2012. University manager numbers rising 'twice as fast as academics'. *Times Higher Education*, 24th July 2012.
- GUBA, E. G. & LINCOLN, Y. S. 1989. *Fourth generation evaluation*, Newbury Park, CA, Sage.
- GUBA, E. G. & LINCOLN, Y. S. 1994. Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In: DENZIN, N. K. & LINCOLN, Y. S. (eds.) *Handbook of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- HACKING, I. 1999. *The social construction of what?*, Boston, MA, First Harvard University Press.
- HALLING, S. 2002. Making phenomenology accessible to a wider audience. *Journal of Phenomenological Psychology*, 33, 18-38.
- HAMBRICK, D. & MASON, P. 1984. Upper echelons: The organization as a reflection of its top managers. *Academy of Management Review*, 9, 195-206.
- HAMMERSLEY, M. 1992. *What's wrong with ethnography: Methodological explorations*, London, Routledge.
- HANNA, R. 2018. Kant's Theory of Judgment. In: ZALTA, E. N. (ed.) *The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy*.
- HANSON, B. 2011. *Why followership is the new leadership* [Online]. Washington D.C.: Smart Brief. Available: <http://www.swampfox.ws/2011/08/25/why-followership-new-leadership> [Accessed].
- HARDING, N. 2015. Studying Followers. In: CARROLL, B., FORD, J. & TAYLOR, S. (eds.) *Leadership: Contemporary Critical Perspectives*. London: SAGE.
- HARDY, C. & CLEGG, S. 1999. Some dare call it power. In: CLEGG, S. R. & HARDY, C. (eds.) *Studying organisation: Theory and method*. London: Sage.
- HARGIE, C. & TOURISH, D. 1997. Relational communication. In: HARGIE, O. (ed.) *The handbook of communication skills*. 2nd ed. London: Routledge.
- HARGIE, O. & DICKSON, D. 2004. *Skilled interpersonal communication: Research, theory and practice*, London, Routledge.
- HARRIS, M. 2010. *Leadership development return on investment: The influence of followership*. MMIM, Victoria University of Wellington.
- HASSELGREN, B. & BEACH, D. 1997. Phenomenography — a “good-for-nothing brother” of phenomenology? Outline of an analysis. *Higher Education Research & Development and Learning in Organizations*, 16, 191-202.
- HEALEY, M. J. 1991. Obtaining information from businesses. In: HEALEY, M. J. (ed.) *Economic activity and land use : the changing information base for local and regional studies*. Harlow: Longman Scientific and Technical.
- HEIDEGGER, M. 1962. *Being and time*, New York, Harpers and Row.

- HEIDEGGER, M. 2000. *Introduction to metaphysics*, New Haven; London, Yale University Press.
- HEIFETZ, R. A. & LAURIE, D. L. 1997. The work of leadership. *Harvard Business Review*, Jan-Feb, 124-134.
- HEIL, D. 2013. Viewpoint: What 'selves' is authentic leadership true to? A Heideggerian contribution. In: LADKIN, D. & SPILLER, C. (eds.) *Authentic leadership: clashes and converges*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.
- HELLER, F. 1998. Influence at work: A 25-year program of research. *Human Relations*, 51, 1425-1444.
- HELLER, T. & VAN TIL, J. 1982. Leadership and followership: Some summary propositions. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 18, 405-414.
- HENKEL, M. 2000. *Academic identities and policy change in higher education*, London, Jessica Kingsley.
- HENWOOD, K. L. & PIDGEON, N. F. 1992. Qualitative research and psychological theorizing. *British Journal of Psychology*, 83, 97-111.
- HERSEY, P. & BLANCHARD, A. 1982. *Management of organizational behavior*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ., Prentice-Hall.
- HEYLIGHEN, F. 1993. Selection criteria for the evolution of knowledge. *13th International Congress on Cybernetics*. Association Internat. de Cybernétique, Namur.
- HIGGINS, C. A., JUDGE, T. A. & FERRIS, G. R. 2003. Influence tactics and work outcomes: A meta-Analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24, 89-106.
- HINRICHS, K. T. 2007. Follower propensity to commit crimes of obedience. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 14, 69-76.
- HIRSCHMAN, A. D. 1970. *Exit, voice and loyalty*, Cambridge, MA., Harvard University Press.
- HODGSON, D. 2005. 'Putting on a professional performance': Performativity, subversion and project management. *Organization*, 12, 51-68.
- HOFFMAN, L. 1992. A reflexive stance for family therapy. In: MCNAMEE, S. & GERGEN, K. J. (eds.) *Therapy as social construction*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- HOGG, M. 2001. A social identity theory of leadership. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 5, 184-200.
- HOGG, M. A. 2008. Social identity processes and the empowerment of followers. In: RIGGIO, R. E., CHALEFF, I. & LIPMAN-BLUMEN, J. (eds.) *The art of followership: how great followers create great leaders and organizations*. 1st ed. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- HOLLANDER, E. P. & OFFERMANN, L. R. 1990a. Power and leadership in organizations: Relationships in transition. *American Psychologist*, 45, 179-189.
- HOLLANDER, E. P. & WEBB, W. B. 1955. Leadership, followership, and friendship: An analysis of peer nominations. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 50, 163-167.
- HOLLIS, M. & SMITH, S. 1990. *Explaining and understanding international relations*, Oxford, Clarendon Press.
- HOPE, V. & HENDRY, J. 1995. Corporate cultural change - is it relevant for organizations of the 1990s? *Human Resource Management Journal*, 5, 61-73.
- HORSFALL, C. 2001. Team leaders make a difference in raising achievement. In: HORSFALL, C. (ed.) *Leadership issues: Raising achievement*. London: Learning and Skills Development Agency.

- HOSKING, D. M. 2011. Moving relationality: meditations on a relational approach to leadership. In: BRYMAN, A., COLLINSON, D., GRINT, K., JACKSON, B. & UHL-BEIN, M. (eds.) *The Sage Handbook of Leadership*. London: Sage.
- HOSKING, D. M., DACHLER, P. H. & GERGEN, K. J. 1995. *Management and organization: Relational alternatives to individualism*, Aldershot, Avebury.
- HOSKING, D. M. & MORLEY, I. E. 1991. *A social psychology of organizing: People, processes, and context*, New York, Harvester Wheatsheaf.
- HOUSE, R. J. & ADITYA, R. N. 1997. The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis? *Journal of Management*, 23, 409-473.
- HOWELL, J. M. & SHAMIR, B. 2005. The role of followers in the charismatic leadership process: Relationships and their consequences. *Academy of Management Review*, 30, 96-112.
- HOWELL, J. P. & COSTLEY, D. L. 2001. *Understanding behaviors for effective leadership*, Upper Saddle River, NJ, Prentice-Hall.
- HOWELL, J. P. & MENDEZ, M. J. 2008. Three perspectives on followership. In: RIGGIO R, I, C. & J, A. L.-B. (eds.) *The Art of Followership: How Great Followers Create Great Leaders and Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- HUDSON, W. D. 1970. *Modern moral philosophy*, London, Macmillan.
- HUNT, J. G. 1999. Transformational/charismatic leadership's transformation of the field: An historical essay. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10, 129-144.
- HURWITZ, M. & HURWITZ, S. 2009a. The romance of the follower: Part 1. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 41, 80-86.
- HURWITZ, M. & HURWITZ, S. 2009b. The romance of the follower: Part 2. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 41, 199-206.
- HURWITZ, M. & HURWITZ, S. 2009c. The romance of the follower: Part 3. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 41, 326-333.
- HYCNER, R. 1999. Some guidelines for phenomenological analysis of interview data. In: BRYMAN, A. & BURGESS, R. G. (eds.) *Qualitative research*. London: Sage.
- IEDEMA, R., RHODES, C. & SCHEERES, H. 2006. Surveillance, resistance, observance: Exploring the Teleo-affective volatility of workplace interaction. *Organization Studies*, 27, 1111-1130.
- JACKSON, B. & PARRY, K. W. 2008. *A very short, fairly interesting and reasonably cheap book about studying leadership*, London, SAGE Publications.
- JANKELSON, C. 2005. *An engagement with the phenomenology of leadership*. Doctor of Philosophy, University of Western Sydney.
- JARRETT, M. 2017. The 4 types of organizational politics. *Harvard Business Review*.
- JAUSSE, K., STEFANOVICH, A. & DELVIN, P. 2008. Effective followership for creativity and innovation. In: RIGGIO R, C. I. A. L.-B. J. (ed.) *The Art of Followership: How Great Followers Create Great Leaders and Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- JERMIAS, J. 2001. Cognitive dissonance and resistance to change: The influence of commitment confirmation and feedback on judgement usefulness of accounting systems. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 26, 141-160.
- JERMIER, J. M., KNIGHTS, D. & NORD, W. R. 1994. *Resistance and power in organizations*, London ; New York, Routledge.
- JHA, A. K. 2012. Epistemological and pedagogical concerns of constructionism: Relating to the educational practices. *Creative Education*, 3, 171-178.

- JOHNSON, B. & CHRISTENSEN, L. B. 2008. *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches*, London, Sage.
- JONASSEN, D. H. 1991. Objectivism vs. constructivism: Do we need a philosophical paradigm? *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 39, 5-14.
- JONES, E. 1964. *Ingratiation*, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- JONES, E. E. & PITTMAN, T. S. 1982. Toward a general theory of strategic self-presentation. In: SULS, J. (ed.) *Psychological perspectives on the self*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- JOST, J. & ELSBACH, K. 2001. How status and power differences erode personal and social identities at work: A system justification critique of organisational applications of social identity theory. In: HOGG, M. & TERRY, D. (eds.) *Social identity processes in organisational contexts*. London: Psychology Press.
- JUDGE, T. A. & BRETZ, R. D. 1994. Political influence behavior and career success. *Journal of Management*, 20, 43-66.
- JUDGE, T. A. & FERRIS, G. R. 1993. Social context of performance evaluation decisions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36, 80-105.
- JUDGE, T. A., HIGGINS, C. A., THORESEN, C. J. & BARRICK, M. R. 1999. The Big Five personality traits, general mental ability, and career success across the life span. *Personnel Psychology*, 52, 621-652.
- KANE, E. 1995. *Doing your own research: basic descriptive research in the social sciences and humanities*, London, Marion Boyars.
- KARK, R. & DINA VAN, D. 2007. Motivation to lead, motivation to follow: The role of the self-regulatory focus in leadership processes. *Academy of Management. The Academy of Management Review*, 32, 500-528.
- KASSING, J. W. 1997. Articulating, antagonizing, and displacing: A model of employee dissent. *Communication Studies*, 48, 311-332.
- KASSING, J. W. 1998. Development and validation of the organizational dissent scale. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 12, 183-229.
- KASSING, J. W. 2000b. Investigating the relationship between superior-subordinate relationship quality and employee dissent. *Communication Research Reports*, 17, 58-70.
- KASSING, J. W. 2001. From the looks of things: Assessing perceptions of organizational dissenters. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 14, 442-470.
- KASSING, J. W. 2002. Speaking up: Identifying employees' upward dissent strategies. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 16, 187-209.
- KASSING, J. W. 2005. Speaking up competently: A comparison of perceived competence in upward dissent strategies. *Communication Research Reports*, 22, 227-234.
- KASSING, J. W. 2007. Going around the boss: Exploring the consequences of circumvention. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 21, 55-74.
- KASSING, J. W. 2009. In case you didn't hear me the first time: An examination of repetitious upward dissent. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 22, 416-436.
- KEDHARNATH, U. 2011. *The influence of leaders' implicit followership theories on employee outcomes*. Master of Science, Colorado State University.
- KELLERMAN, B. 2004. *Bad leadership: What it is, how it happens, why it matters*, Boston, Harvard Business School Publishing.

- KELLERMAN, B. 2008. *Followership: How followers are creating change and changing leaders*, Boston, Mass., Harvard Business Press.
- KELLERMAN, B. 2013. Leading questions: The end of leadership - redux. *Leadership*, 9, 135-139.
- KELLEY, R. E. 1988. In praise of followers. *Harvard Business Review*, 66, 142-148.
- KELLEY, R. E. 1991. Combining followership and leadership into partnership. In: KILMANN, R. H. & KILMANN, I. A. (eds.) *Making organizations competitive: enhancing networks and relationships across traditional boundaries*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- KELLEY, R. E. 1992. *The power of followership: How to create leaders people want to follow, and followers who lead themselves*, New York ; London, Doubleday/Currency.
- KELLEY, R. E. 2008. Rethinking followership. In: RIGGIO R, I, C. & J, A. L.-B. (eds.) *The Art of Followership: How Great Followers Create Great Leaders and Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- KELLY, G. A. 1955. *The psychology of personal constructs: A theory of personality*, London, Routledge.
- KENNEY, R. A., SCHWARTZ-KENNEY, B. M. & BLASCOVICH 1996. Implicit leadership theories: Defining leaders described as worthy of influence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 22, 1128-1143.
- KERLINGER, F. N. & LEE, H. 2000. *Foundations of behavioral research*, Fort Worth, TX, Harcourt College.
- KERNIS, M. H. 2003. TARGET ARTICLE: Toward a conceptualization of optimal self-esteem. *Psychological Inquiry*, 14, 1-26.
- KERR, S. & JERMIER, J. M. 1978. Substitutes for leadership: Their meaning and measurement. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 22, 375-403.
- KETS DE VRIES, M. & BALAZS, K. 2011. The shadow side of leadership. In: BRYMAN, A., GRINT, K., JACKSON, B. & UHL-BIEN, M. (eds.) *The SAGE handbook of leadership*. London: Sage.
- KIPNIS, D. & SCHMIDT, S. M. 1982. *Profile of organizational influence strategies*, San Diego, CA., University Associates.
- KIPNIS, D. & SCHMIDT, S. M. 1988. Upward influence styles: Relationship with performance evaluations, salary, and stress. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 33, 528-542.
- KIPNIS, D., SCHMIDT, S. M., SWAFFIN-SMITH, C. & WILKINSON, I. 1984. Patterns of managerial influence: Shotgun managers, tacticians, and bystanders. *Organizational Dynamics*, 12, 58-67.
- KIPNIS, D., SCHMIDT, S. M. & WILKINSON, I. 1980. Intraorganizational influence tactics: Explorations in getting one's way. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 65, 440-452.
- KLENKE, K. 2008. *Qualitative research in the study of leadership*, Bingley, Emerald.
- KNIGHT, P. T. 2002. *Small-scale research*, London, Sage.
- KNIGHTS, D. & WILMOT, H. 1992. Conceptualizing leadership processes: A study of senior managers in a financial services company. *Journal of Management Studies*, 29, 761-782.
- KNIPPENBERG, B. & STEENSMA, H. 2003. Future interaction expectations and the use of soft and hard influence tactics. *Applied Psychology*, 52, 55-67.

- KOK, S. K., DOUGLAS, A., MCCLELLAND, B. & BRYDE, D. 2010. The move towards managerialism: Perceptions of staff in “traditional” and “new” UK universities. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 16, 99-113.
- KONDO, D. K. 1990. *Crafting selves: Power, gender and discourses of identity in the Japanese workplace* Chicago, IL., University of Chicago Press.
- KRISHNAN, V. R. 2004. Impact of transformational leadership on followers' influence strategies. *The Leadership & Organization Development Behaviour*, 25, 58-72.
- KRONE, K. J. 1991. Effects of leader-member exchange on subordinates' upward influence attempts. *Communication Research Reports*, 8, 9-18.
- KRONE, K. J. 1992. A comparison of organizational, structural, and relationship effects on subordinates' upward influence choices. *Communication Quarterly*, 40, 1-15.
- KRUGER, D. 1988. *An introduction to phenomenological psychology*, Cape Town, Juta.
- KUHN, T. S. 1970. *The structure of scientific revolutions*, Chicago, University of Chicago.
- KUNDA, G. 1992. *Engineering culture: Control and commitment in a high-tech corporation*, Philadelphia, PA, Temple University Press.
- KUNDE, J. & CUNNINGHAM, B. 2000. *Corporate religion*, London, Financial Times Management.
- KÜPERS, W. 2013. Embodied inter-practices of leadership - phenomenological perspectives on relational and responsive leading and following. *Leadership*, 9, 335-357.
- KVALE, S. 1996. *Interviews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*, London, Sage.
- LACOMBE, D. 1996. Refraining Foucault: A critique of the social control thesis. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 47, 332-352.
- LADKIN, D. 2013. From perception to flesh: A phenomenological account of the felt experience of leadership. *Leadership*, 9, 320-334.
- LADKIN, D. M. 2010. *Rethinking leadership: A new look at old leadership questions*, Cheltenham, Edward Elgar.
- LAKOMSKI, G. 2005. *Managing without leadership: Towards a theory of organizational functioning*, Amsterdam ; London, Elsevier.
- LAM, W., HUANG, X. & SNAPE, E. 2007. Feedback-seeking behaviour and leader-member exchange: Do supervisor-attributed motives matter? *Academy of Management Journal*, 50, 348-363.
- LARSSON, J. & HOLMSTRÖM, I. 2007. Phenomenographic or phenomenological analysis: does it matter? Examples from a study on anaesthesiologists' work. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-being*, 2, 55-64.
- LATOUR, S. M. & RAST, V. J. 2004. Dynamic followership. *Air and Space Power Journal*, 18, 102-110.
- LAU, D. C. & MURNIGHAN, K. J. 1998. Demographic diversity and faultlines: The compositional dynamics of organizational groups. *Academy of Management. The Academy of Management Review*, 23, 325-340.
- LAWLER, J. 2005. The essence of leadership? Existentialism and leadership. *Leadership*, 1, 215-231.
- LAWLER, J. & ASHMAN, I. 2012. Theorizing leadership authenticity: a Sartrean perspective. *Leadership*, 8, 327-344.

- LEARMONTH, M. & MORRELL, K. 2017. Is critical leadership studies 'critical'? *Leadership*, 13, 257-271.
- LEBOWITZ, S. 2016. *The 'Big 5' personality traits could predict who will and won't become a leader* [Online]. Available: <http://www.businessinsider.com/big-five-personality-traits-predict-leadership-2016-12> [Accessed].
- LEWIS, D. 1992. Communicating organizational culture. *Australian Journal of Communication*, 19, 47-57.
- LIDEN, R. C. & MITCHELL, T. R. 1988. Ingratiation behaviors in organizational settings. *Academy of Management Review*, 13, 572-587.
- LINCOLN, Y. S. & GUBA, E. G. 1985. *Naturalistic inquiry*, Beverly Hills (Calif.) ; London, Sage Publications.
- LIPMAN-BLUMEN, J. 2005. *The allure of toxic leaders: Why we follow destructive bosses and corrupt politicians-and how we can survive them*, Oxford, UK, Oxford University Press.
- LITZINGER, W. & SCHAEFER, T. 1982. Leadership through followership. *Business Horizons*, 25, 78.
- LOCK, M. J. 2015. Applying Anthony Giddens' Structuration Theory to committee governance - translating theoretical propositions into methodological principles.
- LORD, R. & MAHER, K. 1991. *Leadership and information processing: Linking perception and performance*, Boston, MA, Unwin Hyman.
- LORD, R. G. 2008. Followers' cognitive and affective structures and leadership processes. In: RIGGIO R, I. C. & J, L.-B. (eds.) *The Art of Followership: How Great Followers Create Great Leaders and Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- LORD, R. G. & BROWN, D. J. 2001. Leadership, values, and subordinate self-concepts. *Leadership Quarterly*, 12, 133.
- LORD, R. G. & BROWN, D. J. 2004. *Leadership processes and follower self-identity*, Mahwah, N.J., Lawrence Erlbaum.
- LORD, R. G., BROWN, D. J. & FREIBERG, S. J. 1999. Understanding the dynamics of leadership: The role of follower self-concepts in the leader/follower relationship. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 78, 167-203.
- LORD, R. G., FOTI, R. J. & DE VADER, C. L. 1984. A test of leadership categorization theory: Internal structure, information processing, and leadership perceptions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 34, 343-378.
- LORD, R. G., FOTI, R. J. & PHILLIPS, J. S. 1982. A theory of leadership categorization. In: HUNT, J. G., SEKARAN, U. & SCHRIESHEIM, C. (eds.) *Leadership: Beyond established views*. Carbondale, IL: South Illinois University Press.
- LORD, R. G. & MAHER, K. J. 1993. *Leadership and information processing: Linking perceptions and performance*, London, Routledge.
- LOWIN, A. & CRAIG, J. R. 1968. The influence of level of performance on managerial style: An experimental object-lesson in the ambiguity of correlation data. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 3, 440-458.
- LUNDIN, S. C. & LANCASTER, L. C. 1990. Beyond leadership...the importance of followership. *Futurist*, 24, 18-22.

- MACCOBY, M. 2000. Narcissistic leaders: The incredible pros, the inevitable cons. *Harvard Business Review*, 78, 69-77.
- MACCOBY, M. 2007. *The leaders we need: And what makes us follow*, Boston, MA., Harvard BusinessSchool Press.
- MACCOBY, M. 2008. What kind of leader do people want to follow? In: RIGGIO R, C. I. A. L.-B. J. (ed.) *The Art of Followership: How Great Followers Create Great Leaders and Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- MACINTOSH, N. B. 1995. 'The ethics of profit manipulation: A dialectic of control analysis'. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, 289-315.
- MADILL, A., JORDAN, A. & SHIRLEY, C. 2000. Objectivity and reliability in qualitative analysis: Realist, contextualist and radical constructionist epistemologies. *British Journal of Psychology*, 91, 1-20.
- MARSH, D. & FURLONG, P. 2002. A skin, not a sweater: Ontology and epistemology in political science. In: MARSH, D. & STOKER, G. (eds.) *Theory and methods in political science*. 2nd ed. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- MASLYN, J., FARMER, S. M. & FEDOR, D. B. 1996. Failed upward influence attempts predicting the nature of subordinate persistence in pursuit of organizational goals. *Group and Organization Management*, 21, 461-480.
- MAURER, T. J. & LORD, R. G. 1991. An exploration of cognitive demands in group interaction as a moderator of information processing variables in perceptions of leadership. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 21, 821-839.
- MCCANN, C. 1993. *Four phenomenological philosophers: Husserl, Heidegger, Sartre, Merleau-Ponty*, London, Routledge.
- MCKINLAY, A. & TAYLOR, P. 1996. Power, surveillance and resistance: Inside the factory of the future. In: ACKERS, P., SMITH, C. & SMITH, P. (eds.) *The new workplace and trade unionism, critical perspectives on work and organization*. London: Routledge.
- MECHANIC, D. 2012. Sources of power of lower participants in complex organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 7, 349-364.
- MEHRA, A., SMITH, B. R., DIXON, A. L. & ROBERTSON, B. 2006. Distributed leadership in teams: The network of leadership perceptions and team performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17, 232-245.
- MEINDL, J. R. 1995. The romance of leadership as a follower-centric theory: A social constructionist approach. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6, 329-341.
- MEINDL, J. R., EHRLICH, S. B. & DUKERICH, J. M. 1985. The Romance of Leadership. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 30, 78-102.
- MELTZER, B. N. & PETRAS, J. W. 1970. The Chicago and Iowa schools of symbolic interactionism. In: SHIBUTANI, T. (ed.) *Human nature and collective behavior: Papers in honor of Herbert Blumer*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ.: Prentice-Hall.
- MERLEAU-PONTY, M. 1962a. *The phenomenology of perception*, London, Routledge Classics.
- MERLEAU-PONTY, M. 1962b. *The visible and the invisible*, Evanston, Northwestern University Press.
- MERLEAU-PONTY, M. 1968. *The visible and the invisible*, Evanston, IL, Northwestern University Press.
- MEYERSON, D. 2008. *Rocking the boat: How to effect change without making trouble*, Boston, Harvard business press.

- MEYERSON, D. E. 2003b. *Tempered radicals: How people use difference to inspire change at work*, Boston, Mass., Harvard Business School.
- MEYERSON, D. E. & SCULLY, M. A. 1995. Tempered radicalism and the politics of ambivalence and change. *Organization Science*, 6, 585-600.
- MINTZBERG, H. 1979a. *The structuring of organizations*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J, Prentice-Hall.
- MINTZBERG, H. 1979b. *The structuring of organizations : a synthesis of the research / Henry Mintzberg*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J, Prentice-Hall.
- MINTZBERG, H. 1985. The organization as a political arena. *Journal of Management Studies*, 22, 133-154.
- MORGAN, G. 1986. *Images of organization*, Thousand Oaks; London, Sage.
- MORGAN, G. 1997. *Images of organization*, Thousand Oaks, Calif., Sage.
- MORRISON, E. & MILLIKEN, F. 2000. Organisational silence: A barrier to change and development in a pluralistic world. *Academy of Management Review*, 25, 706-725.
- MORRISON, E. & MILLIKEN, F. 2003. Guest editors' introduction: Speaking up, remaining silent: The dynamics of voice and silence in organizations. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40, 1353-1358.
- MORSE, J. M. 1994. Designing funded qualitative research. In: DENZIN, N. K. & LINCOLN, Y. S. (eds.) *Handbook of qualitative research*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- MORSE, J. M. 2000. Determining sample size. *Qualitative Health Research*, 10, 3-5.
- MOUSTAKAS, C. 1994. *Phenomenological research methods*, Thousand Oaks, CA., Sage.
- MOWDAY, R. T. 1978. The exercise of upward influence in organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 23, 137-156.
- MUMBY, D. 1988. *Communication and power in organizations. Discourse, ideology, and domination*, Norwood, NJ., Ablex.
- MUMBY, D. 2001. Power and politics. In: JABLIN, F. & PUTNAM, L. (eds.) *The new handbook of organisation communication*. London: Sage.
- MUMBY, D. 2005. Theorizing resistance in organization studies: A Dialectical Approach. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 19, 19-44.
- MURPHY, A. G. 2002. Struggling for organizational voice. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 15, 626-631.
- NANDAN, R. K. 1998. The dialectic of power: Implications for management accounting and control research. *The Journal of Pacific Studies*, 22, 133-158.
- NASSER, K. 2010. *"Do it for me dear": structuration and relational dialectics among mother-daughter dyads in Lebanese arranged marriages*. Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) Doctoral, Louisiana State University.
- NOLAN, J. S. & HARTY, H. F. 2001. Followership≥Leadership. *Education*, 104, 112-113.
- NORTHOUSE, P. 2007. *Leadership: Theory and practice*, Thousand Oaks, Sage Publications.
- O'NEIL, J. 2004. Effects of gender and power on PR Managers' upward influence. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 16, 127-144.
- O'REILLY, D. & REED, M. 2010. 'Leaderism': An evolution of managerialism in UK public service reform. *Public Administration*, 88, 960-978.
- OC, B. & BASHSHUR, M. R. 2013. Followership, leadership, and social influence. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24, 919-934.

- OFFERMANN, L. R., KENNEDY JR, J. K. & WIRTZ, P. W. 1994. Implicit leadership theories: Content, structure, and generalizability. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 5, 43-58.
- OLIVER, P. 2003. *The student's guide to research ethics*, Maidenhead, UK, Open University Press.
- OLIVER, P. 2004. *Writing your thesis*, London, Sage.
- OLUFOWOTE, J. O., MILLER, V. D. & WILSON, S. R. 2005. The interactive effects of role change goals and relational exchanges on employee upward influence tactics. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 18, 385-403.
- OSBORNE, C. A. 2011. Followership and leadership: promoting unity in academia. *Journal of Veterinary Medical Education*, 38, 349-352.
- OSPINA, S. 2004. Qualitative research. In: GOETHALS, G. R., SORENSON, G. S. & BURNS, J. M. (eds.) *Encyclopedia of Leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- OSPINA, S. & SORENSON, G. 2007. A constructionist lens on leadership. In: GOETHALS, G. R. & SORENSON, G. L. J. (eds.) *The quest for a general theory of leadership*. Cheltenham: UK: Edward Elgar.
- OTLEY, D. T. & BERRY, A. J. 1980. Control, organisation and accounting. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 5, 231-244.
- OWEN, I. R. 1992. Applying social constructionism to psychotherapy. *Counselling Psychology Quarterly*, 5, 385-404.
- ÖZBAĞ, G. K. 2016. The role of personality in leadership: five factor personality traits and ethical leadership. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 235, 235-242.
- PADILLA, A., HOGAN, R. & KAISER, R. B. 2007. The toxic triangle: Destructive leaders, susceptible followers, and conducive environments. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 176-194.
- PATTERSON, N. 2007. Organisational perspectives of leading in small firms: How is the 'G' factor experienced? In: CLARKSON, G. P. (ed.) *Developing leadership research*. Leeds: Leeds University Press.
- PATTON, M. Q. 2002. *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*, Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.
- PAUL, J. 1996. A symbolic interactionist perspective on leadership. *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, 3, 82-93.
- PEARCE, C. L. & CONGER, J. A. 2003b. *Shared leadership: Reframing the how's and why's of leadership*, Thousand Oaks, Calif., Sage Publications.
- PFEFFER, J. 1992. *Managing with power*, Cambridge, Mass, Harvard University Press.
- PFEFFER, J. 1997. *New directions for organization theory*, New York, NY, Oxford University Press.
- PFEFFER, J. & SALANCIK, G. 2003. *The external control of organizations: A resource dependence perspective*, Stanford, CA., Stanford University Press.
- POLKINGHORNE, D. E. 1983. *Methodology for the human sciences: Systems of inquiry*, Albany, NY University of New York Press.
- POPPER, M. 2001. *Hypnotic Leadership: Leaders, followers, and the loss of self*, Westport, CT., Praeger Publishers.
- PORTER, L., ALLEN, R. W. & ANGLE, H. L. 1981. The politics of upward influence in organization. In: STAW, B. & CUMMINGS, L. (eds.) *Research in organizational behavior*. Greenwich, CT.: JAI Press.

- POTTER, E. & ROSENBACH, W. 2006. Followers as partners: The spirit of leadership. In: ROSENBACH, W. & TAYLOR, R. (eds.) *Contemporary Issues in Leadership*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- POTTER, J. 1996. *Representing reality: Discourse, rhetoric and social construction*, London, Sage.
- PRATTO, F. & JOHN, O. 1991. Automatic vigilance: the attention grabbing power of negative social information. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51, 380-391.
- PREMEAUX, S. & BEDEIAN, A. 2003. Breaking the silence: the moderating effects of self-monitoring in predicting speaking up in the workplace. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40, 1537-1562.
- PROBERT, J. & TURNBULL JAMES, K. 2011. Leadership development: Crisis, opportunities and the leadership concept. *Leadership*, 7, 137-150.
- PULLEN, A. & VACHHANI, S. 2013. The materiality of leadership. *Leadership*, 9, 315-319.
- PUNCH, K. F. 1998. *Introduction to social research: quantitative and qualitative approaches*, London, Sage.
- PUTNAM, L. K., PHILIPS, N. & CHAPMAN, P. 1996. Metaphors for communication and organization. In: CLEGG, S., HARDY, C. & NORD, W. (eds.) *Handbook of organizational studies*. London: Sage Limited.
- RAELIN, J. 1991. *Clash of cultures: managers and professionals*, Boston, MA, Harvard Business Review Press.
- RAELIN, J. A. 2003. *Creating leaderful organizations: How to bring out leadership in everyone*, San Francisco, Berrett-Koehler.
- RAELIN, J. A. 2005. We the leaders: In order to form a leaderful organization. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 12, 18-30.
- RAILTON, P. 1998. Alienation, consequentialism, and the demands of morality. In: STERBA, J. P. (ed.) *The big questions*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- RAJARAM BALIGA, B. & HUNT, J. G. 1988. An organizational life cycle approach to leadership. In: RAJARAM BALIGA, B., HUNT, J. G., DACHLER, P. H. & SCHRIESKEIM, C. A. (eds.) *Emerging leadership vistas*. Lexington, Mass: Lexington Books.
- RALSTON, D., GUSTAFSON, D., MAINIERO, L. & UMSTOT, D. 1993. Strategies of upward influence: A cross-national comparison of Hong Kong and American managers. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 10, 157-175.
- RALSTON, D. A., HALLINGER, P., EGRI, C. P. & NAOTHINSUHK, S. 2005. The effects of culture and life stage on workplace strategies of upward influence: A comparison of Thailand and the United States. *Journal of World Business*, 40, 321-337.
- RAMAZANOGLU, C. & HOLLAND, J. 2002. *Feminist methodology: challenges and choices*, London ; Thousand Oaks, Calif., Sage.
- RAO, A., SCHMIDT, S. M. & MURRAY, L. H. 1995. Upward impression management: Goals, influence strategies, and consequences. *Human Relations*, 48, 147-167.
- RAY, T., CLEGG, S. & GORDON, R. 2004. A new look at dispersed leadership: Power, knowledge and context. In: STOREY, J. (ed.) *Leadership in organizations: Current issues and key trends*. London: Routledge.
- REDDING, W. 1972. *Communication within the organization: An interpretive review of theory and research*, New York, Industrial Communication Council.

- REICHERS, A. E. & SCHNEIDER, B. 1990. Climate and culture: An evolution of constructs. In: SCHNEIDER, B. (ed.) *Organizational climate and culture*. 1st ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- REUS, B. 2009. Bas Reus' quest on self-organization and online collaborative spaces - An introduction to the structuration theory of Giddens. *Online collaborative spaces, self-organization*.
- RICHARDSON, L. 1992. The consequences of poetic representation. In: ELLIS, C. & FLAHERTY, M. (eds.) *Investigating subjectivity*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- RIGGS, B. S. & PORTER, C. O. L. H. 2017. Are there advantages to seeing leadership the same? A test of the mediating effects of LMX on the relationship between ILT congruence and employees' development. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 28, 286-300.
- RINGER, R. & BOSS, W. R. 2000. Hospital professionals' use of upward influence tactics. *Journal of Managerial Issues* 12, 92-108.
- RITTELL, H. & WEBBER, M. 1973. Dilemmas in a general theory of planning. *Policy Sciences*, 4, 155-169.
- ROBBINS, S. P. 2005. *Organizational behavior*, Upper Saddle River, NJ, Pearson Prentice Hall.
- ROPO, A., SAUER, E. & SALOVAARA, P. 2013. Embodiment of leadership through material place. *Leadership*, 9, 378-395.
- RORTY, R. 1979. *Philosophy and the mirror of nature*, Princeton, NJ, Princeton University.
- ROSENAU, J. 2004. Followership and discretion: Assessing the dynamics of modern leadership. *Harvard International Review*, 26, 14-18.
- ROSENBACH, W. & TAYLOR, R. 1998. *Contemporary issues in leadership*, Boulder, CO, Westview Press.
- ROSS, D. 1964. *Aristotle*, London, UK, Methuen & Co. Ltd.
- ROST, J. 1993. *Leadership for the twenty-first century*, Westport, CT, Praeger.
- ROST, J. 2008. Followership: An outmoded concept. In: RIGGIO R, I, C. & J, A. L.-B. (eds.) *The Art of Followership: How Great Followers Create Great Leaders and Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- ROST, J. C. 1995. Leadership: A discussion about ethics. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 5, 129-142.
- ROUSE, J. 1996. *Engaging science: How to understand its practices philosophically*, Ithaca, N.Y, Cornell University Press.
- RUSHER, M. 2005. *A case study of followership in the charter schools of Washtenaw County, Michigan*. University of Missouri.
- RUSSELL, M. 2003. Leadership and followership as a relational process. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 31, 145-157.
- SADALA, M. L. A. & ADORNO, R. C. F. 2002. Phenomenology as a method to investigate the experience lived: A perspective from Husserl and Merleau Ponty's thought. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 37, 282-293.
- SANDBERG, J. 2001. The constructions of social constructionism. In: SVEN-ERIK, S., SANDBERG, J. & TYRSTRUP, M. (eds.) *Invisible management: The social construction of leadership*. London: Thomson Learning.
- SANDBERG, J. & TARGAMA, A. 1998. *Ledning och forstaelse. Ett kompetensperspektiv pa organisationer*, Lund, Studentlitteratur.
- SANDELOWSKI, M. & BARROSO, J. 2003. Writing the proposal for a qualitative research methodology project. *Qualitative Health Research*, 13, 781-820.

- SAUNDERS, M., LEWIS, P. & THORNHILL, A. 2003. *Research methods for business students*, Harlow ; New York, Prentice Hall.
- SAVIN-BADEN, M. & FISHER, A. 2002. Negotiating 'Honesties' in the research process. *British Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 65, 191-193.
- SCAPENS, R. W. & MACINTOSH, N. B. 1996. Structure and agency in management accounting research: A response to Boland's interpretive act *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 675-690.
- SCHEDLITZKI, D. & EDWARDS, G. 2014b. Perspectives on leadership context. *Studying leadership: Traditional and critical approaches*. London: SAGE.
- SCHEIN, E., SCHNEIER, I. & BARKER, C. H. 1961. *Coercive persuasion: A socio-psychological analysis of the 'Brainwashing' of American Civilian Prisoners by the Chinese*, New York, Norton.
- SCHERMERHORN JR, J. & BOND, M. 1991. Upward and downward influence tactics in managerial networks: A comparative study of Hong Kong Chinese and Americans. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 8, 147-158.
- SCHERMERHORN, J. R., OSBORN, R., HUNT, J. G. & UHL-BEIN, M. 2011. *Organizational Behavior* Hoboken, NJ, US, John Wiley & Sons.
- SCHILIT, W. K. & LOCKE, E. A. 1982. A study of upward influence in organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 27, 304-316.
- SCHMIDT, S. M. & KIPNIS, D. 1984. Managers' pursuit of individual and organizational goals. *Human Relations*, 37, 781-794.
- SCHRETLEN, D. J., VAN DER HULST, E., PEARLSON, G. D. & GORDON, B. 2010. A neuropsychological study of personality: Trait openness in relation to intelligence, fluency, and executive functioning. *Journal of Clinical and Experimental Neuropsychology*, 32, 1068-1073.
- SCHRIESHEIM, C. A. & HINKIN, T. R. 1990. Influence tactics used by subordinates: A theoretical and empirical analysis and refinement of the Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson subscales. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 246-257.
- SCHUTZ, A. 1967. *The phenomenology of the social world*, New York, Northwestern University Press.
- SCHWANDT, T. A. 2003. Three epistemological stances for qualitative inquiry: Interpretivism, hermeneutics, and social constructionism. In: DENZIN, N. K. & LINCOLN, Y. S. (eds.) *The landscape of qualitative research*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA.: Sage.
- SCHYNS, B. 2006. The role of implicit leadership theories in the performance appraisals and promotion recommendations of leaders. *Equal Opportunities International*, 25, 188-199.
- SCHYNS, B. & DAY, D. M. 2010. Critique and review of leader-member exchange theory: Issues of agreement, consensus, and excellence. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 19, 1-29.
- SCHYNS, B., KROON, B. & MOORS, G. 2008. Follower characteristics and the perception of leader-member exchange. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 23, 772-788.
- SCHYNS, B. & MEINDL, J. R. 2005. *Implicit leadership theories: Essays and explorations*, Greenwich, Conn., London : Information Age ; Eurospan [distributor].
- SCOTT, J. C. 1985. *Weapons of the weak: Everyday forms of peasant resistance*, New Haven, London, Yale University Press.
- SEALE, C. 1999. Quality in qualitative research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 5, 465-478.

- SEARLE, J. R. 1995. *The construction of social reality*, New York, Free Press.
- SELIMAN, H. & ORIO, P. F. 2018. Three skills that hospital administrators should possess—availability, affability and ability. *Journal of Hospital Management and Health Policy*, 2, 1-5.
- SETEROFF, S. 2003. *Beyond leadership to followership*, Victoria, Trafford Publishing.
- SEWELL, G. & BARKER, J. 2006. Coercion versus care: Using irony to make sense of organisational surveillance. *Academy of Management Review*, 31, 934-961.
- SHAMIR, B., HOUSE, R. J. & ARTHUR, M. B. 1993. The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory. *Organisational Science*, 4, 577-594.
- SHIM, D. & LEE, M. 2001. Upward influence styles of R&D project leaders. *Engineering Management Journal*, 48, 394-413.
- SHONDRICK, S. J. & LORD, R. G. 2010. Implicit leadership and followership theories: Dynamic structures for leadership perceptions, memory and leader-follower processes. In: HODGKINSON, G. P. & FORD, J. K. (eds.) *International review of industrial and organizational psychology*.
- SIMMS, E. M. & STAWARSKA, B. 2013. Introduction: concepts and methods in interdisciplinary feminist phenomenology. *Janus Head*, 13, 6-16.
- SIMON, H. 1976. *Administrative behaviour*, Glencoe, IL, Free Press.
- SMITH, J. A., FLOWERS, P. & LARKIN, M. 2009. *Interpretative phenomenological analysis: theory, method and research*, London, Sage.
- SMITH, N. H. 1997. *Strong hermeneutics: Contingency and moral identity*, New York, Routledge.
- SNYDER, M. 1987. *Public appearances, private realities: The psychology of self-monitoring*, New York, W.H. Freeman.
- SPINK, M. J. 2004. *Discursive practices and creation of meaning in everyday life: Theoretical and methodological approaches*, Sao Paulo, SP, Cortez.
- STARKS, H. & TRINIDAD, S. B. 2007. Choose your method: A comparison of phenomenology, discourse analysis, and grounded theory. *Qualitative Health Research*, 17, 1372-1380.
- STAW, B., SANDELANDS, L. & DUTTON, J. 1981. Threat-rigidity effects in organizational behavior: a multilevel analysis. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 26.
- STECH, E. L. 2004. Psychodynamic approach. In: NORTHHOUSE, P. G. (ed.) *Leadership theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- STECH, E. L. 2008. A new leadership-followership paradigm. In: RIGGIO R, C. I. A. L.-B. J. (ed.) *The Art of Followership: How Great Followers Create Great Leaders and Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- STEENSMA, H. 2007. Why managers prefer some influence tactics to other tactics: A net utility explanation. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 80, 355-362.
- STEGE, J. A., MANNERS JR, G. E. & ZIMMERER, T. W. 1982. Following the leader: How to link management style to subordinate personalities. *Management Review*, 71, 22.
- STEIZEL, S. & RIMBAU-GILABERT, E. 2013. Upward influence tactics through technology-mediated communication tools. *Computers in Human Behaviour*, 29, 462-472.
- STONEQUIST, E. V. 1937. *The marginal man: A study in personality and culture conflict*, New York ; Chicago [etc.], C. Scribner's Sons.

- STRYKER, S. & STATHAM, A. 1985. Symbolic interaction and role theory. In: LINDZEY, G. & ARONSON, E. (eds.) *Handbook of Social Psychology*.
- SU, C. 2010. An examination of usage and impact of upward influence tactics by workers in the hospitality sector of Taiwan. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Science*, 27, 306-319.
- SWANBORN, P. G. 1996. A common base for quality control criteria in quantitative and qualitative research. *Quality and Quantity*, 30, 19-35.
- SY, T. 2010. What do you think of followers? Examining the content, structure, and consequences of implicit followership theories. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 113, 73-84.
- TAGIURI, R. 1968. The concepts of organisational climate. In: TAGIURI, R. & LITWIN, G. (eds.) *Organisational climate: Exploration of a concept*. Boston, MA: Harvard University Press.
- TAJFEL, H. & TURNER, J. 1986. The social identity theory of intergroup behaviour. In: WORCHEL, S. & AUSTIN, W. G. (eds.) *Psychology of intergroup relations*. Chicago: Nelson-Hall.
- TANOFF, G. F. & BARLOW, C. B. 2002. Leadership and followership: Same animal, different spots? *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 54, 157-165.
- TAYLOR, C. 1987. Overcoming epistemology. In: BAYNES, K., BOHMAN, J. & MCCARTHY, T. (eds.) *After philosophy: End or transformation?* Cambridge: MIT Press.
- TEPPER, B. J., BROWN, S. J. & HUNT, M. D. 1993. Strength of subordinates' upward influence tactics and gender congruency effects. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 23, 1903-1919.
- TERPSTRA-TONG, J. & RALSTON, D. A. 2002. Moving toward a global understanding of upward influence strategies: An Asian perspective with directions for cross-cultural research. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 19, 373-404.
- TERRY, L. D. 1995. *Leadership of public bureaucracies: Administrator as conservator*, Thousand Oaks: CA, Sage Publications.
- TESCH, R. 1990. *Qualitative research: Analysis types and software tools*, New York, NY, Falmer.
- THACKER, R. A. & WAYNE, S. J. 1995. An examination of the relationship between upward influence tactics and assessment of promotability. *Journal of Management*, 21, 739-756.
- THODY, A. 2000. Followership or followership? An exploration of the values of non-leaders. *Management in Education*, 14, 15-18.
- THODY, A. 2003. Followership in educational organizations: A pilot mapping of the territory. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 2, 141-156.
- THOMAS, J. M. 1993. *Doing critical ethnography*, Newbury Park, Calif., Sage Publications.
- THOMPSON, G. & VECCHIO, R. P. 2009. Situational leadership theory: A test of three versions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20, 837-848.
- TJOSVOLD, D., ANDREWS, R. & JONES, H. 1983. Cooperative and competitive relationships between leaders and subordinates. *Human Relations*, 36, 1111-1124.
- TOMKINS, L. & SIMPSON, P. 2015. Caring leadership: a Heideggerian perspective. *Organization Studies*, 36, 1013-1031.

- TOMPKINS, M. & CHENEY, G. 1985. Communication and unobtrusive control. In: MCPHEE, R. D. & TOMPKINS, P. K. (eds.) *Organizational communication: Traditional themes and new directions*. Beverly Hills: Sage.
- TOULMIN, S. 1953. *The philosophy of science*, London, Hutchinson.
- TOURISH, D. 1998a. "The God that failed" replacing false messiahs with open communication. *Australian Journal of Communication*, 25, 99-114.
- TOURISH, D. 2000. Management and managerialism: Mis/managing Australian universities? *New Horizons in Education*, 103, 20-42.
- TOURISH, D. 2014. Leadership, more or less? A processual, communication perspective on the role of agency in leadership theory. *Leadership*, 10, 79-98.
- TOURISH, D., COLLINSON, D. & BARKER, J. R. 2009. Manufacturing conformity: Leadership through coercive persuasion in business organisations. *M@n@gement*, 12, 360-383.
- TOURISH, D. & HARGIE, O. 2000. Communication and organizational success. In: HARGIE, O. & TOURISH, D. (eds.) *Handbook of communication audits for organizations*. London: Routledge.
- TOURISH, D. & PINNINGTON, A. 2002. Transformational leadership, corporate cultism and the spirituality paradigm: An unholy trinity in the workplace? *Human Relations*, 55, 147-172.
- TOURISH, D. & ROBSON, P. 2003. Critical upward feedback in organisations: processes, problems and implications for communication management. *Journal of Communication Management*, 8, 150-167.
- TOURISH, D. & ROBSON, P. 2006. Sensemaking and the distortion of critical upward communication in organizations. *Journal of Management Studies*, 43, 711-730.
- TOURISH, D. & WOHLFORTH, T. 2000. *On the edge: Political cults of the right and left*, New York, Sharpe.
- TOWNLEY, B. 1994. *Reframing human resource management: Power, ethics and the subject at work*, London, Sage.
- TOWNSEND, G. & GEBHART, J. 1997. *Five-star leadership*, New York, John Wiley and Sons Inc.
- TRACY, S. J., LUTGEN-SANDVIK, P. & ALBERTS, J. K. 2006. Nightmares, demons and slaves: Exploring the painful metaphors of workplace bullying. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 20, 148-185.
- TSAI, Y., DIONNE, S. D., WANG, A., SPAIN, S. M., YAMMARINO, F. J. & CHENG, B. 2017. Effects of relational schema on leader-member exchange. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 28, 269-285.
- UHL-BIEN, M. 2005. Implicit theories of relationships in the workplace. In: SCHYNS, B. & MEINDL, J. (eds.) *Implicit leadership theories: Essays and explorations*. Greenwich: Information Age Publishing.
- UHL-BIEN, M. & CARSTEN, M. K. 2007. Being ethical when the boss is not. *Organizational Dynamics*, 36, 187-201.
- UHL-BIEN, M. & PILLAI, R. 2007b. The romance of leadership and the social construction of followership. In: SHAMIR, B., PILLAI, R., BLIGH, M. & UHL-BIEN, M. (eds.) *Follower-centred perspectives on leadership*. Greenwich: Information Age Publishing.
- UHL-BIEN, M., RIGGIO, R. E., LOWE, K. B. & CARSTEN, M. K. 2014. Followership theory: A review and research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25, 83-104.

- VAN GILS, S., VAN QUAQUEBEKE, N. & VAN KNIPPENBERG, D. 2009. The X-factor: On the relevance of implicit leadership and followership theories for leader-member exchange agreement. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 19, 333-363.
- VAN KAMMEN, W. B. & STOUTHAMER-LOEBER, M. 1998. Practical aspects of interview data collection and management. In: BICKMAN, L. & ROG, D. J. (eds.) *Handbook of applied social research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- VAN WART, M. 2003. Public-sector leadership theory: An assessment. *Public Administration Review*, 63, 214-214.
- VIGODA, E. & COHEN, A. 2002. Influence tactics and perceptions of organizational politics: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Business Research*, 55, 311-324.
- VON GLASERSFELD, E. 1995. *Radical constructivism: A way of knowing and learning*, London, Falmer Press.
- VONDEY, M. 2012. *Followership: How followers understand what it means to follow*. Doctor of Philosophy in Organizational Leadership, Regent University.
- VROOM, V. H. 1964. *Work and motivation*, San Francisco, CA, Jossey-Bass.
- WALDRON, V. R. 1991. Achieving communication goals in superior-subordinate relationships: The multi-functionality of upward maintenance tactics. *Communication Monographs*, 58, 289-306.
- WARMOTH, A. 2000. *Social constructionist epistemology* [Online]. Sonoma State University. Available: <http://www.sonoma.edu/users/w/warmotha/epistemology.html> [Accessed 20th March 2014].
- WAYNE, S. 2002. Hypnotic Leaders - Book Review. *Political Psychology*, 23, 208-210.
- WAYNE, S. J. & FERRIS, G. R. 1990. Influence tactics, affect, and exchange quality in supervisor-subordinate interactions: A laboratory experiment and a field study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 487-499.
- WAYNE, S. J. & LIDEN, R. C. 1995. Effects of impression management on performance ratings: A longitudinal study. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 232-260.
- WAYNE, S. J., LIDEN, R. C., GRAF, I. K. & FERRIS, G. R. 1997. The role of upward influence tactics in human resource decisions. *Personnel Psychology*, 50, 979-1006.
- WEICK, K. 1995. *Sensemaking in organizations*, Thousand Oaks, California, US, Sage Publications.
- WEICK, K. E. 2007. Romancing, following, and sensemaking: Jim Meindl's legacy. In: SHAMIR, B., PILLAI, R., BLIGH, M. C. & UHL-BEIN, M. (eds.) *Follower-centered perspectives on leadership: A tribute to the memory of James R. Meindl*. Greenwich, CT.: Information Age Publishing.
- WERNIMONT, P. F. 1971. What supervisors and subordinates expect of each other. *Personnel Journal*, 50, 204-208.
- WESTERN, S. 2008. *Leadership: A critical text*, Los Angeles, Calif. ; London, Sage.
- WILLIAMS, G. 2008. The hero's journey to effective followership and leadership: A practitioners focus. In: RIGGIO R, I, C. & J, L.-B. (eds.) *The Art of Followership: How Great Followers Create Great Leaders and Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- WILSON, S. 2017. *Thinking differently about leadership: a critical history of leadership studies* Cheltenham, UK., Edward Elgar Publishing Ltd.

- WILSON, T. 1997. Information behaviour: An inter-disciplinary perspective. In: VAKKARI, P., SAVOLAINEN, R. & DERVIN, B. (eds.) *Information seeking in context*. Tampere, Finland: London: Taylor Graham.
- WINTER, S. 2003. Mistaken perceptions: Cases and consequences. *British Journal of Management*, 14, 39-44.
- WISSEMA, H. 2002. Driving through red lights: how warning signals are missed or ignored. *Long Range Planning*, 35, 521-539.
- WOFFORD, J. C. & GOODWIN, V. L. 1994. A cognitive interpretation of transactional and transformational leadership theories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 5, 161-186.
- WORTMAN, C. B. & LINSENMEIER, J. A. 1977. Interpersonal attraction and techniques of ingratiation in organizational settings. In: STRAW, B. M. & SALANCIK, G. R. (eds.) *New directions in organizational behavior*. Chicago: St Clair Press.
- WORTMAN, M. S. 1982. Strategic management and changing leader-follower roles. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 18, 371-383.
- YAGIL, D. 2006. The relationship of abusive and supportive workplace supervision to employee burnout and upward influence tactics. *Journal of Emotional Abuse*, 6, 49-65.
- YOUNG, I. M. 1990. Throwing like a girl. *Throwing like a girl and other essays in feminist philosophy and social theory*. Bloomington and Indianapolis, Indiana: Indiana University Press.
- YUKL, G. 1999a. An evaluation of conceptual weaknesses in transformational and charismatic leadership theories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10, 285-305.
- YUKL, G. 2002. *Leadership in organizations*, New Jersey, Prentice Hall.
- YUKL, G., CHAVEZ, C. & SEIFERT, C. F. 2005. Assessing the construct validity and utility of two new influence tactics. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 26, 705-725.
- YUKL, G. & FALBE, C. 1990. Influence tactics and objectives in upward, downward, and lateral influence attempts. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 132-140.
- YUKL, G., FALBE, C. & YOUNG, J. 1993. Patterns of influence behaviour. *Group and Organization Management*, 18, 5-28.
- YUKL, G., KIM, H. & FALBE, C. 1996. Antecedents of influence outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 309-317.
- YUKL, G., SEIFERT, C. F. & CHAVEZ, C. 2008. Validation of the extended influence behaviour questionnaire. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19, 609-621.
- YUKL, G. & TRACEY, J. B. 1992. Consequences of influence tactics used with subordinates, peers, and the boss. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77, 525-535.
- YUKL, G. A. & SEIFERT, C. F. 2002. Preliminary validation research on the extended version of the influence behavior questionnaire. *Society of Industrial Organizational Psychology*. Toronto, Canada.
- ZALEZNIK, A. 1965. The dynamics of subordinacy. *Harvard Business Review*, 43, 119-131.
- ZANZI, A. & O'NEILL, R. M. 2001. Sanctioned versus non-sanctioned political tactics. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 13, 245-262.
- ZOLLER, H. M. & FAIRHURST, G. T. 2007. Resistance leadership: The overlooked potential in critical organization and leadership studies. *Human Relations*, 60, 1331-1360.
- ZOOGAH, D. 2014. *Strategic followership: How followers impact organizational effectiveness*, New York, NY., Palgrave Macmillan US.

ZUBER-SKERRITT, O. 1996. Emancipatory action research for organisational change and management development. *In*: ZUBER-SKERRITT, O. (ed.) *New directions in action research*. London: Falmer Press.

Appendices

Appendices 1: Followers' Merits and Demerits

Discourse	Followers are criticized for:	Followers are praised for:
Classical Greek texts	being immoral, unruly, self-interested; lacking understanding of what is right and true	complete obedience to the leader and adherence to religious and social norms
16 th –century texts	being unruly, immoral, ignorant, unreliable in their love and loyalty for the leader	love and loyalty to the leader; adherence to religious and social norms
Locke's model	not actively defending their liberty from interference by leaders and others in positions of authority	seeking as much independence as possible from the influence of leaders in how they think and act
Carlyle's model	being unruly, immoral, ignorant; not appreciating the excellence of the true leader	worshipping leaders, which improves followers' morality
Trait theory	not subject to criticism per se as not a topic of interest; attributes described in order to distinguish leaders from non-leaders	not subject to praise per se as not a topic of interest
Behavioural theory	a lack of motivation, absenteeism and poor productivity are positioned as problems but not located in the person of the follower; acknowledged but not criticized for having needs for 'structure' and 'consideration'	not subject to praise per se; actions are presumed as typically being reasonable and legitimate
Contingency/situational theory	a lack of motivation, absenteeism, poor productivity; a possible threat to leader power (Fiedler)	responding positively to the leader in terms of perceived motivation to perform, reduced absenteeism and increased productivity
'New leadership'	being self-interested; having moral immaturity; lacking vision and a sense of higher purpose	Sacrificing self-interest for the corporate interests of the group; enthusiastically supporting the leader and accepting their guidance; becoming more like a leader and less like a follower

Source: Wilson, 2016, p.177

Appendices 2: The Leader-Follower Relationship

Discourse	Leader-follower relationship
Classical Greek	Distant; demands follower obedience; leader is simultaneously master, servant and slave to the people; relationship is akin to cloning as leader seeks to make followers more like himself
16 th –century Europe	Followers are the subjects of leaders and owe him love, loyalty and obedience; relationship is distant so the leader's 'majesty' is not harmed by followers gaze; the leader's key duty is to protect the well-being of followers
Carlyle	Followers worship leaders; leaders offer themselves as role models from whom others can learn
Trait theory	Leaders are admired by followers who look to them for guidance, advice and direction; leaders offer this service to others
Behavioural theory	Friendly; respectful; focused on achieving organizational results and entails leader guidance and, if needed, support to the follower
Contingency/situational theory	May be friendly, respectful but can also be challenging; requires a watchfulness on the part of the leader
'New leadership'	Close and intense; the leader works on the followers' psyche to unleash their potential

Source: Adapted from Wilson, 2016, p.199

Appendices 3: Summary of Influence Tactics

Author	Mowday	Kipnis, Schmidst & Wilkinson	Porter et al.	Schillit and Locke	Kipnis & Schmidt	Hinkin & Schriesheim	Yukl & Falbe	Krone	Yukl & Tracy	Ralston & Gustafson in Ralston et al.	Yukl & Seifert in Yukl et al
Year	1978	1980	1981	1982	1982	1990	1990	1991	1992	1993	2002
Name of Study	The exercise of upward influence in organizations	Intra-organizational influence tactics: Explorations of getting one's way	The politics of upward influence in organizations	A study of upward influence in organizations	Profile of organizational influence strategies (POIS)	Influence tactics used by subordinates: A theoretical and empirical analysis and refinement of the Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson subscales	Influence tactics and objectives in upward, downward, and lateral influence attempts	Effects of leader-member exchange on subordinates' upward influence attempts	Consequences of influence tactics used with subordinates, peers and the boss	Strategies of upward influence: A cross-national comparison of Hong Kong and American Managers	Preliminary validation of an extended version of the Influence Behaviour Questionnaire
Publication	Administrative Science Quarterly	Journal of Applied Psychology	Research in Organizational Behaviour	Administrative Science Quarterly	Published Book	Journal of Applied Psychology	Journal of Applied Psychology	Communication Research Reports	Journal of Applied Psychology	Asia Pacific Journal of Management	Conference Paper
Tactics	Threats Legitimate Authority Persuasive arguments Rewards Manipulation	Assertiveness Ingratiation Rationality Sanctions Exchange of benefits Upward appeal Blocking Coalition	Sanctions (positive and negative) (Informational persuasion, manipulative persuasion, manipulation)	Assertiveness Rationality Sanctions Exchange of benefits Upward appeal Coalition Manipulation Adherence to rules	Assertiveness Ingratiation Rationality Exchange of benefits Upward appeal Coalition	Ingratiation Exchange of benefits Rationality Assertiveness/pressure Upward appeal Coalition	Pressure Upward appeal Exchange Coalition Ingratiating Rational persuasion Inspirational appeal Consultation	Open persuasion Strategic persuasion Manipulation	Rational Persuasion Inspirational appeal Consultation Ingratiation Exchange Coalition Pressure Personal Appeal Legitimizing	Ingratiation Rational Good Soldier Image management Personal networking Information control Strong-arm coercion Organisationally sanctioned behaviour Destructive legal behaviour Destructive illegal behaviour	Rational persuasion Inspirational appeal Consultation Ingratiation Exchange Coalition Pressure Personal appeal Legitimizing Collaboration appraising

Source: Adapted from Alshenaifi & Clarke (2014) p.14

Appendices 4: University Permission E-mail

Re: Request for consent to undertake PhD research within your University

Dear ???

I am a part time PhD student undertaking research in the area of management learning and leadership at Lancaster University Management School.

As such I am interested in exploring the experiences of practising Academic Leaders and Administration Managers in academic departments in respect to their perspectives on followership. By undertaking this research I hope to reveal new insights into how and why Administration Managers as effective followers upwardly influence Academic Leaders. Consequently, this holds some value for employers given that I intend to make the general findings available to interested parties looking to learn more about contemporary leadership practices in universities.

In respect to your organisation I would like permission to approach Academic Leaders and Administration Managers that are particularly relevant to this study. If you are happy to consent to this request I would then seek the informed consent of those in positions of interest within your organisation. In practical terms this will require a maximum of 1 hour of their working time in which I will interview each participant privately on a one to one basis.

Additionally, I would be very happy to discuss any parameters you wish to establish to protect the reputation of your organisation and to minimise any disruption. Also my proposal has been reviewed by Lancaster University Research Ethics Committee and subsequently I am bound by the University's Code of Practice which obliges me to undertake this research in an ethically sound manner. Thus I can assure you of my integrity at all times and I look forward to hearing from you in due course.

Yours sincerely

Darren Cunningham

Telephone: 07593893563 or 01786 462065 E-mail: dpcunningham@hotmail.co.uk

Appendices 5: **Research Subject E-mail**

Re: PhD Research Interview

Dear xxx

Having obtained permission to carryout research in your institution from xxxxx I am contacting you to request your consent to be a participant in a research study in to followership influence.

I am a part time PhD student undertaking research in the area of management learning and leadership at Lancaster University Management School. My research concerns the experiences of followership influence between practising Academic Leaders and Administration Managers in academic departments. As such I am looking to draw on your first-hand experience of followership either as a follower or as a leader. By undertaking this research I hope to reveal new insights into how and why Administration Managers as effective followers upwardly influence Academic Leaders. Consequently, this is valuable to employers looking to learn more about contemporary leadership practices in universities, and as such I intend to make the general findings available to interested parties.

In respect to your organisation I have identified your role as being particularly relevant to my research and as such seek your informed consent to participate in this study. In practical terms this will require a maximum of 1 hour of your working time in which I will carry out a semi-structured face to face interview with you in private. I would envisage undertaking this work during October, so hope that you would be available for an interview at this time. In the course of this study I will also be interviewing other participants in similar roles in other universities so will capture a range of experiences. All participants will remain anonymous but the general findings of this research will be publicly available.

Additionally, I have attached a document which details the aims and objectives of the study which I hope you will find useful in informing your decision as to whether you wish to participate or not. Similarly I have attached an informed consent form which outlines your position as a research subject in this study. I would be very happy to respond to any questions you may have and I can be contacted using the information presented at the foot of this letter.

Finally, my proposal has been reviewed by Lancaster University Research Ethics Committee and subsequently I am bound by the Code of Practice which obliges me to undertake this research in an ethically sound manner. Thus I can assure you of my integrity at all times and I look forward to hearing from you in due course.

Yours sincerely

Darren Cunningham

Telephone: 07593893563 or 01786 462065

E-mail: dpcunningham@hotmail.co.uk

Appendices 6: Research Project Description

RESEARCH PROJECT DESCRIPTION



Researcher: Darren Cunningham

Researcher contact details:

Postal Address: 9 Birkhill Road, Stirling, Stirlingshire, FK7 9LT

Telephone: 07593893563 or 01786 462065

E-mail: dpcunningham@hotmail.co.uk

Dissertation Title: A phenomenological study into the efficacy of upward influencing tactics and motives and their association with the practice of effective followership

Research Questions:

This study has two key research questions to address. Do followers exercise upward influence? If so, how, why, and what are the consequences? By participating in this research your data will contribute to the response to these questions.

Objectives of the Research:

The purpose of this study is to explore how individuals come to associate followership influence with what it means to be an effective follower. As such, this research attempts to develop a greater understanding of followership from both a leader and follower perspective. The objective of this study is to consider how followers view themselves and followership in the context of their relationship with the leader and the political nature of the workplace, as well as how leaders come to appreciate the significance of followership in the leadership process.

Methodology:

Phenomenology is the research methodology employed for this study. This essentially asserts that followership is a phenomenon and that meaning elicited from the lived experience of followership is important in gaining a greater appreciation of the concept (e.g. what personal experiences do I have of effective followership). Here the overarching questions guiding this study represent a search for meaning (i.e. do I conceive of followership to be effective based on a capacity or ability to be influential in the leader-follower relationship).

Data Collection Procedures:

The researcher is to collect data via in-depth face-to-face interviews with individuals who have experienced the phenomenon of followership either as a leader or a follower. The researcher will begin by using a number of key questions and probe where necessary to elicit more detailed information based on responses given by each respective interviewee. The interview questions are based on themes (i.e. dominance, power, conflict, context and identity) and a semi-structured format is used to assist the researcher in guiding the conversation but will remain open-ended to allow participants to share their experiences. Each interview will be digitally audio-recorded (on a non-encrypted device) and notes may be taken during the interviews for later transcription and analysis. All digital recordings will be deleted from the recorder as quickly as possible when transferred to a secure medium (i.e. a password protected computer) to allow the interview to be accurately transcribed. Both the data and recorder will be securely stored by the researcher. Each interview is expected to last not more than 1 hour. The researcher will provide each interviewee with a written transcript of the interview **before** any analysis is undertaken to provide an opportunity for each interviewee to revise their data. Interviewees can elect to retract their data up to 2 weeks after their interview has concluded, at which point the data will be destroyed and not used; but after this point will remain in the study.

The researcher will make contact with the most relevant leaders in each University to seek their formal permission to undertake this research within their respected organisations prior to approaching potential interviewees. Potential research subjects have been identified by role using information provided by each University on their individual websites. The researcher is to interview circa. 30 research subjects in universities geographically located in Scotland and Northern England and will consider interviewing more research subjects

later in the study. Leaders in each University are asked to allow employees to be interviewed in company time and offered a copy of the study's overall results which will **not** identify any individual source of the data used to derive the research outcomes. Leaders are also asked if there are any parameters that they would like applied to the data collection process to protect the reputation of their respective University. Therefore, no potential research subject is contacted until all of the necessary permissions are formally obtained and mutually agreed parameters are completely adhered to throughout the research data collection process.

Use of Data

The data collected from interviewees during this study will be used for a PhD thesis, publishing, and in presentations.

Withdrawal

Participants are free to withdraw at any time prior to and during their interview. If a participant elects to withdraw during the interview the already collected data will be withdrawn by the researcher from the study as 'incomplete'.

Reporting of Concerns or Complaints:

If participants have any concerns or complaints about this project these should be reported to the following independent person at Lancaster University:

Professor David Collinson
Lancaster University Management School
Charles Carter Building
Lancaster
LA1 4YX
Telephone: 01524 510916
E-mail: d.collinson@lancaster.ac.uk



INFORMED CONSENT FORM

The purposes of this form are to give you information that may affect your decision whether to say YES or NO to participation in this research, and to record your consent if you say YES.

RESEARCHER

Darren Cunningham, PhD candidate, Lancaster University, Department of Management Learning & Leadership

DISSERTATION TITLE

A phenomenological study into the efficacy of upward influencing tactics and motives and their association with the practice of effective followership

DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCH STUDY

The purpose of this research is to explore what it means to be an effective follower and to describe practices which constitute effective followership from your own experience. You will be asked a series of questions in an interview about your role and responsibilities at your organisation, your thoughts and beliefs about following, and how you would describe followership in your organisation in terms of influence. The interview is expected to last no more than 1 hour and—with your permission—will be audio recorded.

CONFIDENTIALITY

All information obtained about you in this study is strictly confidential. The results of this study may be used in reports, presentations, and publications, but the researcher will **not** identify you.

RISKS AND BENEFITS

There is minimal risk to you in participating in this research. Risk is defined as "the probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in the research is not greater in and of itself than that ordinarily encountered in daily life or during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or tests."

The main benefit to you by participating in this study is that you will become more familiar with your own understanding of what it means to be an effective follower in your organisation. Others may benefit by learning that not all forms of followership are alike and that followers have certain experiences of following that are different than previously thought by leaders, scholars, and practitioners.

RIGHT TO WITHDRAW

It is OK for you to say NO. Even if you say YES now, you are free to say NO prior to or during the interview, and withdraw your data from the study up to 2 weeks after the interview has taken place.

VOLUNTARY CONSENT

By signing this form, you are saying several things. You are saying that you have read this form or have had it read to you, that you are satisfied that you understand this form, the research study, and its risks and benefits. The researcher should have answered any questions you may have had about the research. If you have any questions later on, then the researcher should be able to answer them. And importantly, by signing below, you are telling the researcher YES, you agree to participate in this study. The researcher should give you a copy of this form for your records.

Participant's Name (PRINT).....

Participant's Signature.....Date.....

Appendices 8: Interview preamble and questions (Academic Leader)

By way of introduction, the intension of this research is to explore the experiences of Academic Leaders and Administration Managers in respect to upward influence. When answering questions I would like you to reflect on your interactions with the Administration Manager within your department. Therefore, this will require you to respond to questions in this context by reflecting on the actual experiences you have had in your role and what meanings these experiences hold for you.

My key responsibilities to you are in how I capture data, transcribe this data, and make it available for your approval. As such all responses to these questions are strictly confidential and you will not be identified as a participant in this study. In order to accurately capture all of your responses, I would like to ask your permission to tape record the interview. Is it okay if I tape the interview? (Start recording)

In addition, would you mind if I used some of your quotes from this interview under an anonymous pseudonym for the purposes of publishing papers or reports?

Academic Leader Research questions

RQ1: What does it mean to be effective in your role?

RQ2: Overall, how would you describe your relationship with the Administration Manager?

RQ3: What factors have impacted upon how receptive you are to the views of your Administration Manager?

RQ4: How best has an Administration Manager gone about influencing your opinions?

Appendices 9: Interview preamble and questions (Administration Manager)

By way of introduction, the intension of this research is to explore the experiences of Academic Leaders and Administration Managers in respect to upward influence. When answering questions I would like you to reflect on your interactions with the Academic Leader within your department. Therefore, this will require you to respond to questions in this context by reflecting on the actual experiences you have had in your role and what meanings these experiences hold for you.

My key responsibilities to you are in how I capture data, transcribe this data, and make it available for your approval. As such all responses to these questions are strictly confidential and you will not be identified as a participant in this study. In order to accurately capture all of your responses, I would like to ask your permission to tape record the interview. Is it okay if I tape the interview? (Start recording)

In addition, would you mind if I used some of your quotes from this interview under an anonymous pseudonym for the purposes of publishing papers or reports?

Administration Manager Research questions

RQ1: What does it mean to be effective in your role?

RQ2: Overall, how would you describe your relationship with your Academic Leader?

RQ3: What factors have impacted upon how influential you are with the Academic Leader?

RQ4: What sort of upward influencing approaches have you found work best and why?

Appendices 10: **Check Interview Transcript E-mail**

Re: PhD Research Transcript

Dear ???

Please find attached the transcript that I have produced based on the audio recording of the interview I undertook with you.

I would now be very grateful if you would check the contents of this transcript for accuracy and where you would like to edit the content please do so using track changes. If I do not hear back from you within 4 weeks from the date of this e-mail I will assume that you are happy for me to use the data as it is presented.

The next stage of the process involves identifying emerging themes which will then form the findings of the study.

Your identity and those of people that you have referred to in this transcript will remain confidential.

I look forward to receiving your approved transcript in due course, and I would like to take this opportunity to thank you for taking the time to participate in this research.

Kind regards

Darren Cunningham