

**A CASE STUDY OF THE KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING OF
LEADERSHIP AMONGST LEADERS IN THE SCOUT ASSOCIATION IN AN
ENGLISH CITY.**

by

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ABSTRACT

Little interest has been shown in the leadership of voluntary providers of informal education for young people. This is true of one of the largest providers: the Scout Association. The thesis examines the nature, diversity and sources of the knowledge and understanding of leadership of Scout Association leaders in one English Midlands city. The understanding is compared with contemporary ways of understanding leadership in education using a typology established by Gunter and Ribbins (2003) and Gunter (2005). The impact of leader training on the understanding of leadership and its perceived effect on leader performance is explored. A case study methodology is used including a questionnaire method supported by documentary evidence and drawing on personal experience. Data analysis involves factor analysis, analysis of variance and Chi-square tests. Findings indicate that leadership is understood in terms of inclusion and success and has an ethical basis pointing to a belief in shared leadership. Variations in this understanding exist amongst different groups. Understanding of leadership mainly comes from sources within the Association. There is a degree of uncertainty amongst leaders about the impact of leader training. Leadership is interpreted in a range of ways as described by the Gunter and Ribbins (2003) and Gunter (2005) typology. The findings could have implications for how the Association develops an understanding of leadership in the future and could influence the thinking and decision making of all leaders in the Association, in particular training managers and trainers from local to national levels of the organisation. The findings may also have implications for researchers interested in the impact of market forces on leadership in the formal education sector.

DEDICATION

The thesis is dedicated to my wife Alma, and our children Thomas, Alice and Theo who have shown understanding and patience during completion. It is also dedicated to my Mother and late Father.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

CHAPTERS

Chapter One:

Introduction

1.0 Aims	1
1.1 Research Questions	3
1.2 Rationale	3
1.3 Background	8
1.4 Reflection	9
1.5 Literature	10
1.6 Methodology, Method and Analysis	12
1.7 Thesis Structure	12

Chapter Two:

The Nature and Work of the Voluntary Sector and the Scout Association

2.0 Introduction	14
2.1 What is the Voluntary Sector?	16
2.2 The Nature of Scouting	19
2.3 The Historical Context of Scouting	23
2.4 Scouting, Militarism and Conservatism	25
2.5 Main Findings	28
2.6 Link to Chapter Three	30

Chapter Three:

Leadership in the Voluntary Sector and the Scout Association

3.0 Introduction	31
3.1 Leadership in the Voluntary Sector	32
3.2 Leadership in the Scout Association: Its Own View	42
3.3 Adair and Action Centred Leadership	46
3.4 The Scout Association and the Action Centred Leadership Model	49
3.5 Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model	53
3.6 The Scout Association and the Situational Leadership Model	58
3.7 A Critique of the Scout Association's Preferred Models of Leadership	62
3.8 A Participant Observer's View	68
3.9 Main Findings	70
3.10 Link to Chapter Four	72

Chapter Four:

Training and Development

4.0	Introduction	73
4.1	Leader Training and Development in the Voluntary Sector	73
4.2	Leader Training and Development in the Scout Association	74
4.3	Competency Training and the Youth Sector	79
4.4	Training in a Wider Context	81
4.5	Main Findings	87
4.6	Link to Chapter Five	89

Chapter Five:

Research Design

5.0	Introduction	90
5.1	Ontological and Epistemological Considerations	90
5.2	Methodological Validity	92
5.3	Methodology	92
5.4	The Case Study City	98
5.5	The Research Method	99
5.6	Questionnaire Design: Links with Research Questions	103
5.7	Design of Questions: Types of Questions	105
5.8	Administration, Sample Size and Sampling	110
5.9	Reliability and Validity	112
5.10	Ethical Considerations	114
5.11	Summary	115
5.12	Link to Chapter Six	116

Chapter Six:

Presentation of Findings

6.0	Introduction	117
6.1	A Profile of the Respondents: A Representative Sample?	117
6.2	The Nature of the Knowledge and Understanding of Leadership - A Descriptive Analysis	120
6.2a	Total Percentage Agreement	121
6.2b	Levels of Disagreement	124
6.2c	Strength of Agreement	126
6.2d	Strength of Disagreement	127
6.2e	Average Item Scores	139
6.2f	Comparisons of Measures of Agreement	132

6.3	The Nature of the Knowledge and Understanding of Leadership - Statistical Analysis	134
6.3a	The Purpose of Factor Analysis	134
6.3b	The Suitability of Data for Factor Analysis	135
6.3c	The Identification of Factors	135
6.3d	The Interaction of the Factors	139
6.4	Variations in the Knowledge and Understanding of Leadership	141
6.4a	The Purpose of ANOVA	141
6.4b	Assumptions of ANOVA	142
6.4c	Test for a Normal Distribution of the Data	143
6.4d	Analysis of Variance	146
6.4e	Interpretation of Two or More within Sample ANOVA	147
6.4f	The Main Effects of Leadership Factors	147
6.4g	Other Significant Findings	158
6.5	Sources of Knowledge and Understanding of Leadership	157
6.5a	Chi-Square Test for Significance of Differences in Sources	161
6.6	The Impact of Training on Leaders' Understanding of Leadership	162
6.6a	The Impact of Scout Association Leader Training on Understanding of Leadership.	163
6.6b	Improving Understanding of Leadership	166
6.7	The Relationship of Leaders' Knowledge and Understanding of Leadership with Predominant Contemporary Interpretations of Leadership in Education.	169
6.7a	Measures of Agreement and Leadership Typology	171
6.8	Summary of Key Findings	173

Chapter Seven:

Discussion of Findings

7.0	Introduction	176
7.1	Research Question One	176
7.2	Research Question Two	185
7.3	Research Question Three	189
7.4	Research Question Four	192
7.5	Research Question Five	194
7.6	Summary	198

Chapter Eight:

Conclusion and Recommendations

8.0	Introduction	203
8.1	Research Question One	206
	8.1a Implications and Recommendations	208
	8.1b Further Questions and Research	211
8.2	Research Question Two	213
	8.2a Implications and Recommendations	214
	8.2b Further Questions and Research	216
8.3	Research Question Three	217
	8.3a Implications and Recommendations	219
	8.3b Further Questions and Research	221
8.4	Research Question Four	220
	8.4a Implications and Recommendations	221
	8.4b Further Questions and Research	222
8.5	Research Question Five	222
	8.5a Implications and Recommendations	224
	8.5b Further Questions and Research	225
8.6	Concluding Summary Statement	225
	References	227

Appendices*

Appendix 1:	Letter to Respondents
Appendix 2:	Questionnaire
Appendix 3:	Frequencies
Appendix 4:	Rotated Factor Analysis
Appendix 5:	Summaries of Descriptive Statistics: ANOVA Output
Appendix 6:	ANOVA Appointment
Appendix 7:	ANOVA Section
Appendix 8:	ANOVA Length of Service
Appendix 9:	ANOVA Scout Association Leader Training
Appendix 10:	ANOVA Gender

Appendix 11: ANOVA Age
Appendix 12: ANOVA Work
Appendix 13: ANOVA Education
Appendix 14: ANOVA Non-Scout Association Leader Training

* Please note that the appendices are only available in the bound version of the thesis.
This is kept at the University of Birmingham Education Library.

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

	Page
Chapter Two	
Figure 2.01: The Continuum of Formal and Informal Education	21
Chapter Three	
Figure 3.01: Interaction of Needs	47
Figure 3.02: Continuum of Leadership Behavior	48
Figure 3.03: A Comparison of The Scout Association's Interpretation of ACL with Adair's Single List of Leadership Functions	50
Figure 3.04: Hersey and Blanchard's Expanded Situational Leadership Model	55
Figure 3.05: The Power Bases And Levels of Readiness	57
Figure 3.06: The Scout Association's Situational Leadership Styles	59
Figure 3.07: Knowledge Provinces in the Field of Educational Leadership	63
Figure 3.08: Knowledge and Knowing in Education.	64
Figure 3.09: Knowledge and Knowing in the Field of Educational Leadership	65
Figure 3.10: The Main Characteristics of Grimshaw's Leadership Styles	69
Chapter Six	
Figure 6.01: Knowledge & Understanding of Leadership Percentage Responses	122
Figure 6.02: Total Percentage Agreement From Collapsed Data	123
Figure 6.03: Total Percentage Disagreement From Collapsed	125

Data

Figure 6.04: Strongly Agree Ranked	127
Figure 6.05: Strongly Disagree Ranked	128
Figure 6.06: Knowledge & Understanding of Leadership Mean Item Scores	130
Figure 6.07: Scree Plot Test For The Factor Analysis	136
Figure 6.08: SPSS Output Histogram: Normality and the Inclusion Factor	144
Figure 6.09: SPSS Output Histogram: Normality and the Success Factor	144
Figure 6.10: SPSS Output Normal Q-Q Plots for the Inclusion Factor	145
Figure 6.11: SPSS Output Normal Q-Q Plots for the Success Factor	145
Figure 6.12: Averaged Factor Means for Length of Service	152
Figure 6.13: The Interaction of Section Appointment with the Leadership Factors	155
Figure 6.14: The Interaction of Employment Groups with the Leadership Factors	156
Figure 6.15: Sources of Knowledge & Understanding of Leadership	158
Figure 6.16: Summary of Responses to Question 07: Scout Association Leader Training and Understanding of Leadership	163
Figure 6.17: Scout Association Leader Training and Its Contribution To Knowledge & Understanding of Leadership	165
Figure 6.18: Summary of Responses to Question 07 - How The Scout Association Could Improve Your Understanding of Leadership	167
Figure 6.19: How Scout Association Leader Training Could Improve Knowledge And Understanding of Leadership	168

Chapter Seven

Discussion of Findings

Figure 7.01: How Scout Association Leaders Understand Leadership	184
Figure 7.02: An Adaptation of Knowledge and Knowing in the Field of Educational Leadership.	196

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Chapter Five	
Table 5.01: The Ethnic Composition of the Case Study	99
Table 5.02: The Bases of Items in Question Six	105
Chapter Six	
Table 6.01: A Profile of Respondents	118
Table 6.02: Respondents Interpretations of their Ethnicity	120
Table 6.03: Knowledge & Understanding of Leadership Percentage Responses	121
Table 6.04: Total Percentage Agreement From Collapsed Data	122
Table 6.05: Total Percentage Disagreement From Collapsed Data	124
Table 6.06: Knowledge and Understanding of Leadership Mean Mode & Standard Deviation.	130
Table 6.07: Component Matrix For The Factor Analysis	137
Table 6.08: The Rotated Solution	138
Table 6.09: SPSS Output: Test for Normality	143
Table 6.10: Summary of F Ratios and Significance Levels	148
Table 6.11: ANOVA Output Test for Homogeneity: Length of Service	149
Table 6.12: ANOVA Output: Eta Square Results for Length of Service	150
Table 6.13: ANOVA Output: Post Hoc Tukey HDS Test Results for Length of Service	151
	153

Table 6.14: ANOVA Output: Test for Homogeneity: Section Appointment	154
Table 6.15: ANOVA Output: Test for Homogeneity: Employment	154
Table 6.16: ANOVA Output: Eta Square Results For Section Appointment	155
Table 6.17: ANOVA Output: Eta Square Results For Employment	157
Table 6.18: Sources of Knowledge & Understanding of Leadership	160
Table 6.19: Chi Square for 0500: Sources of Knowledge and Understanding of Leadership	

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

This thesis is an investigation into the knowledge and understanding of leadership amongst adult role incumbents in a voluntary sector organisation providing informal education for young people: the Scout Association in a case study city.

1.0 Aims

This thesis sets out to establish what adult volunteers in a leadership role know and understand about leadership, whether it is the same for all such leaders, and how it compares with different ways of knowing and understanding leadership. It also sets out to identify how leaders obtain the knowledge and understanding and how leader training impacts on it. The aims are important since knowledge of what people know and understanding about leadership may help to explain how they behave in their leadership roles. This in turn allows judgements to be made as to whether behaviour is effective. It is intended that this research will help the designers of the Scout Association's adult leader training programmes and its trainers in the design and delivery of the training. This will particularly important in their consideration of what constitutes leadership and the impact of leadership training. This should ultimately result in an improvement of the training experience by leaders and consequently the quality of informal education they provide for young people. This thesis is particularly important since little research has been conducted into leadership in the Scout Association. It can, therefore, be considered as pioneer work.

The aims have been stimulated by my personal interest not least because I believe that it is often assumed that most people have the same answers to these questions with little or no evidence to support them.

The aims of this thesis, therefore, are:

- To identify the knowledge and understanding of leadership of adult role incumbents in a largely unresearched voluntary sector organisation: the Scout Association in a city in the English Midlands.
- To establish whether or not this understanding varies between groups of leaders.
- To identify who or what informs that knowledge and understanding.
- To examine the impact of leader training on leaders' knowledge and understanding.
- To examine how the knowledge and understanding relates with contemporary models of leadership in education.

The rationale for these aims and research questions is developed further in section 1.2. For the purposes of protecting the identity of participants of the research the city will be referred to using the term: the case study city.

The extent to which the characteristics of the knowledge and understanding of leadership by role incumbents form a series of unrelated ideas on one hand or a series of interrelated ideas or model(s) will be an important theme in the investigation.

This thesis is concerned with the understanding of leadership by both Scouters and Commissioners in the Scout Association. Both are referred to as leaders

throughout the thesis. Scouter appointments are distinguished from Commissioner appointments. Commissioners have leadership roles at district, county and national levels. Scouters primarily work in an adult leadership role with young people directly at a local level in Scout Groups, Commissioners work with Scouters and other Commissioners to provide support and training, to facilitate the development of Scouting and to ensure compliance with the Association's rules and policies.

1.1 Research Questions

The research questions are:

- 1) How do the adult role incumbents understand leadership?
- 2) Is the understanding uniform amongst role incumbents?
- 3) Who and/or what informs their knowledge and understanding of leadership?
- 4) How does training impact on their knowledge and understanding of leadership?
- 5) How do the Scout Association's and its leaders' understanding compare with other ways of understanding leadership in education?

The questions were researched between October 2003 and August 2006.

Research question 5 was addressed with reference to the available literature on other ways of understanding leadership in education rather than empirical sources.

1.2 Rationale

There are several important reasons for pursuing the aims of the thesis. They relate partly to the lack of interest paid to the Scout Association as a major

provider of education for young people. But they are centred round a desire to help enhance the practice of leadership in the Scout Association and so will be of enormous value to the Scout Association and should help it to improve the quality of Scouting young people experience through the education and training of leaders. It will therefore be of great interest to training programme designers and trainers within the organisation. The reasons are expanded in the following paragraphs in this section.

First is the lack of research into the provision of education by the voluntary youth organisations including the Scout Association. Furthermore in the main, local, national or international arms of the Association or affiliated bodies are the sources of the published material. The Scout Association is the largest co-educational voluntary youth organisation the U.K.¹ with a membership of just under half a million. It is the world's largest youth movement with a membership that exceeds 28 million spread across 216 countries and is growing. Leadership of such a numerically important organisation must be worthy of study not least because it could help to explain its success and could help it to continue to be successful. Whilst this thesis will not answer all of the questions that may arise from such a large and unresearched area it will help to answer some and identify many more for further research.

¹ ¹ For instance a search on line (www.theses.com) in the Index To Theses(a listing of theses accepted for higher degrees by universities in Great Britain and Ireland) yielded only one title with reference to the Scout Association (Grimshaw 1978) when it was made in November 2003. A search also made in November 2003 of the COPAC (the merged on line catalogue of 24 of the largest university research libraries in the U.K. and Ireland and the British Library and the National Library of Scotland) yielded limited results. There was only one title of a publication with reference to the impact of the Scout Association on society and one on leadership within it. The overwhelming titles made reference to the history of the movement, biographies of its founder and handbooks of activities for use with young people

A further consideration relating to the lack of research concerns the interests of young people. How they are led in their informal education in their leisure time is important since this could be influential on their understanding of leadership, their practise of it and consequentially their careers.

The research could, in the future, also provide a comparison with knowledge and understanding of leadership in schools. This is an area of education of young people that is not subjected to the same sorts of pressures as schooling. Grace (1995) has shown how the wider socio-political context has influenced the nature of decision making in schools. The 1960s saw a respect of professionalism and collegial decision-making. Since the 1980s concerns for cost effectiveness, the exposure to schools to market forces and the measurement of outcomes (exam results) meant that school leadership became more autocratic. The Scout Association currently is not subjected to such external forces and so the interpretation of leadership within the organisation is seen as important not least since any attempt to subject it to such forces could alter its character and success and so it is important to describe its leadership without them. State provision of youth work is increasingly being tied to government objectives with an emphasis on monitoring, targeting and targets. This is pushing many youth workers away from informal into formal education and the associated means of working including the burden of paperwork workload (Smith, 2002a). This could have profound affects on the form of leadership. It is therefore important that the leadership in the non-statutory sector is understood to enable future comparison.

Leaders in the Scout Association will bring with them conceptualisations and practice regarding leadership from their employment, home, hobbies, and interests and other experiences. It will be important to know how important these contributions are to their knowledge and understanding of leadership. How these sources fair relative to organisational influences such as training will be valuable information and a measure of their success.

An evaluation of the knowledge and understanding of leadership by adult role incumbents in the Scout Association could be used to inform leadership education and training in the Scout Association. An understanding of the origins and nature of the conceptualisation of leadership could inform studies of effectiveness in the delivery of the aims of the Association and possibly result in new ideas being developed about effective leadership in the organisation. Further it can provide a measure of the impact of the enormous emphasis and investment of leader training made by the Scout Association. This last point assumes that there is a link between leadership and the quality of the effectiveness of the service. It is an assumption that the Scout Association's preferred leadership models have. Gronn (1999) notes that there has been an increase in the search to link leadership with improvements in the performance of organisations. He observes that:

leader-watchers agree that qualitative differences can be made to organization members' behaviour (Gronn, 1999 p.198)

But he points to a difference in opinion as to whether or not there can be a direct causal link established between changes and the actions of those deemed to have

the leadership role rather than other mitigating influences. The importance of causality is highlighted especially in education in improving the effectiveness of schools. He argues that there is not much evidence for the connection. Indeed, Stacey (1993) comments on the lack of scrutiny of leadership models including those that link success to a vision, in that their validity is just accepted without supporting evidence.

A similar assumption is made between leader training and organisational performance: that the former has a positive effect on the latter. If it does what are the best form(s) of training and development? If there is no such link how is the investment of time, money and energy justified? The contributions from leaders relating to the causation issue will be an important input into the debate.

There is often a difference between reading and reality. In other words, what is described in writing as being the 'official view' of a situation in a particular context is often not what those who participate in it experience. It is important to establish whether or not this is the case particular with reference to the official models of leadership promoted by the Scout Association. Are these models taken on board? If not, why not, or indeed should they be?

Leadership can be understood in many ways. Does the understanding of leadership that is promoted and that which is held have any focus? Should any focus be widened and developed so to enhance any links between it, training and organisational performance?

In summary the argument is that the research is important because little is known about leadership in a large organisation providing a service for thousands of young people, that such knowledge could be a valuable help to understanding and furthering the success of the organisation through the training of leaders and through examining the link between training and leader and the performance of an organisation that operates uninfluenced by market forces generated by measured outcomes.

1.3 Background

The case study city was chosen because its large size provided the potential to explore the contribution of the diversity of cultural, ethnic and employment backgrounds of individuals who volunteer as leaders with the Scout Association. These will bring with them a variety of experiences. Further, my relationship with the Association in this city (described below) provides a gateway for research and provides an opportunity for the work to be of use to the organisation in the future.

The structural definition provided by the Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project (Kendall and Knapp, 1996) with the addition of altruistic aims provides the definition of the voluntary sector for this study. The definition requires that the sector is made up of organisations that are formal entities with formal sets of rules, that are independent and self-governing, that are non-profit distributing and primarily non-business and have a meaningful voluntary element through philanthropic and freely given time or money by citizens. The Scout Association is a uniformed organisation falling within the definition with its distinctive aims

and methods of providing an informal form of education for young people. This is based on the acceptance of a law and promise embracing duty to God, country and helping other people, the provision of a progressive training scheme. It primarily operates at a local level with a hierarchy of support and supervision covering wider geographical areas.

1.4 Reflection

Mason (1996) notes that is naïve to believe that a researcher can produce a complete and neutral account so it is important that I make my position in this research from the outset. The thesis is the product of over four years of doctoral studies in leaders and leadership in education (Kirsz, 2002a, 2002b, 2002c, 2003). The doctorate studies were undertaken as part of my own professional development as a teacher beginning in 2001. As a family we have strong connections with the Scout Association and are keen to ensure that young people (including our own children) get the best from it. My experience and continued membership of the organisation has encouraged me to question the basis of leadership in it. I have been a member of the Scout Association as a young person, a leader working with young people and as a manager at middle and senior levels. This included an appointment with responsibility for the management of the delivery of adult leader training in the case study city. The Scout Association supports particular leadership models and I question the extent to which they are accepted in practice. Whilst I have concerns about objectivity, overwhelmingly insider research provides me with an insight into the meanings of the raw data. Rather like the participant observer it will allow for everything to be 'seen' - "the real happenings, warts and all" (Denscombe,

1998, p.149). On the other hand I have tried to guard against assumptions that are not necessarily shared with the reader. Finally it is important to realise that since I hold a senior appointment this could have affected the responses provided by the research participants. Throughout, I try to be aware of the possible impact that such influences might have on my judgements and lay the evidence open to the readers so that they can decide whether there is concurrence with the interpretations.

1.5 Literature

In examining the nature of the voluntary sector and an analysis of the structural definition of the voluntary sector I draw primarily on contributions from Gann (1996), Hudson (2002), Kendall and Knapp (1996), Marshall (1996), the National Council for Voluntary Organisations (2001, 2003), Osborne (1996).

The nature, structure and background of the Scout Association is examined through a variety of Scout Association publications and through the works of Foster (1997, 2001), Loades (1997), Mitterauer (1992), Rosenthal (1986), Smith (2002), Springhall (1977), Trenemann (2003). An analysis of leadership in the voluntary sector is made with reference to the Association of Chief Executives of Voluntary Organisations (2003), Bastleer (1996), Gann (1996), Handy (1988), Kay (1996), Wilson (1996), Muijs et al (2006). Reference is made to distributed leadership, and ethical leadership and the power and agency of the designated leader and followers and interpretivist leadership. It is argued that the more democratic forms of leadership could really be variations of transformational leadership. The possibility that values and ideas relating to the Scout

Association's altruistic and military backgrounds have influences the understanding of leadership is explored.

The Scout Association's preferred models of leadership and leadership styles, namely action centred leadership and situational leadership, are examined through the works of Adair (1973), Hersey and Blanchard (1977, 1993), Northouse (2004), and various Scout Association publications (see references). A critique of the interpretations of leadership made by the voluntary sector and the Scout Association is made using Gronn's (1999, 2000) notions of the agency of followers and leaders and the associated notion of conjoint agency. It is argued that the models are not about leading learning. The critique is also made with reference to their relationship to other interpretations of leadership as revealed in a typology of knowers, knowing and knowledge in the field of educational leadership (Gunter and Ribbins, 2003;Gunter, 2005). The models are seen largely as being instrumental and are not based on what happens in practice. The only identified study of leadership in the Scout Association is reviewed and put in the context of the typology. This is an ethnographic study by Grimshaw (1978) who identified latitudinarian, liberal, fraternalist , traditionalist leadership styles.

The nature and impact of leader training in the voluntary sector and the Scout Association is examined with reference to ACEVO (2003), Burridge and Hayden (1993), DES (1991), NCVO (2003b, 2003c), NYA (1993), OFSTED (1998), VSNT0 (2003), Sugrue (2002), Muijs et al (2006) and Scout Association publications. The assumption that training impacts on individual and

organisational performance is examined. The degree to which preferred models of leadership are accepted is questioned. The emphasis on a competence-based approach to training is explored. An argument is made to consider the use of coaching as an effective means of human resources development. The training of leaders and it is put in the context of the typology of knowers, knowing and knowledge in the field of educational leadership (Gunter and Ribbins, 2003; Gunter, 2005 and an argument is made to move towards leader education rather than training by understanding leadership through more of the perspectives described in the typology.

1.6 Methodology, Method and Analysis

The research employs a case study methodology with a questionnaire method sampling 50% of the total population (400 leaders). A large sample was needed because of the heterogeneous nature of the population. The first 400 in an alphabetically arranged list was sampled. This provided a degree of randomness given the unknown composition of the list. The data is analysed descriptively and by using factor analysis and analysis of variance (ANOVA) using SPSS software to identify underlying beliefs about leadership and variations between different groups of leaders. A Chi-square test is used to identify whether or not there are significant differences in the various sources of knowledge and understanding of leadership.

1.7 Thesis Structure

The next chapter investigates what is and is not already known about the context of the study by examining the nature of the voluntary sector and the Scout

Association and the relationship of the Scout Association with the voluntary sector. In doing this the influence of the purposes of the voluntary sector and the Scout Association on leadership is examined. The review of the literature continues with a chapter exploring leadership in the voluntary sector and the Scout Association. The fourth chapter looks at the nature and impact of leader training in the voluntary sector and the Scout Association. The fifth chapter describes, justifies and evaluates the research design. A case study methodology is justified together with a questionnaire research method. The sixth chapter presents, describes and analyses the empirical data. The seventh chapter provides a discussion of the findings. The final chapter concludes the thesis by identifying the extent to which the research questions have been answered and the reasons why or why not question(s) have been answered. The contribution of the study to knowledge is identified together with recommendations for further research and actions.

CHAPTER TWO: THE NATURE AND WORK OF THE VOLUNTARY SECTOR AND THE SCOUT ASSOCIATION

The literature search for the chapters 2, 3 and 4 was carried out using a variety of approaches. It involved a COPAC search for key words and phrases for example 'the voluntary sector', 'youth work' and the 'Scout Association'. It also involved undertaking similar searches using the University of Birmingham's Information Services online catalogue and via it the British Educational Index. This was later repeated and refined for key authors once they became known. Internet search engines Google and Google Scholar were used in a similar manner and also to access voluntary service organisations and Scout Association websites. A ZETOC Alert was set up for a range of journals including the British Educational Research Journal and Educational Management and Administration. Written requests for details of publications were made to the National Council for Voluntary Organisations and the Scout Association. A search was also made of references and reading material used in the preparation EdD coursework assignments and the assignments themselves. Finally contact with current and former colleagues in the Scout Association helped to identify further appropriate literature relevant to the research questions.

2.0 Introduction

This thesis is concerned with identifying the sources and nature of the knowledge and understanding of leadership by volunteer role incumbents in a voluntary sector organisation. See chapter 1. The present chapter sets out to provide contextual knowledge and understanding to address the research questions that focus on the sources and nature of leader understanding of leadership. This will provide an

understanding of where leaders work and exercise their leadership. It does this by defining the voluntary sector, the Scout Association and their leaders and by developing an understanding of the nature of the voluntary sector and the nature and history of the Scout Association. It also examines the relationship between the Scout Association and the voluntary sector. In this way it aims to further an understanding of how leadership in the voluntary sector and the Scout Association is understood. The following contextual questions are therefore addressed:

1. What is the voluntary sector? It is important to know what this is since its purposes and the values it fosters could determine how leadership is understood.
2. What is the Scout Association? The nature of the Scout Association is examined so that the reader can understand the nature of the organisation forming the focus of this study and how this could influence the perception of leadership.
3. How does the Scout Association relate to the rest of the voluntary sector? The similarities with the voluntary sector and its uniqueness are examined to identify potential influences on how leadership is understood.

The nature of the voluntary sector is examined by reference to Gann (1996), Hudson (2002), Kendall and Knapp (1995, 1996), Marshall (1996), National Council for Voluntary Organisations (2003) and Osborne (1996). The nature of the Scout Association is examined through its own stated aims and that of the World Organisation of the Scout Movement (2004) and also Smith (2002a), Springhall (1977) and Foster (2001). Criticism that Scout Association is militaristic examined using the work of Foster (1997) who looks at how it has reacted to it. A response to the criticism is made by reference to Loades (1977). Scouting is placed in its contemporary context using the work of Foster (2001) and Treneman (2003). The relationship of the Scout Association with the voluntary sector is described in terms of

a voluntary provider of informal education using the work of Smith (2002a) supported by the National Youth Agency (1993).

2.1 What is the Voluntary Sector?

The National Council for Voluntary Organisations (NCVO, 2001) points to the diversity, complexity and increasingly significant influence of voluntary organisations in society. It provides an estimate of 186,000 active registered charities in the U.K. of different sizes, with numerous other non-registered organisations.

Hudson (2002) notes the growing confidence and revitalisation since the 1960s of the voluntary sector in the face of a public perception of the failure of public sector organisations to efficiently address contemporary social problems following a period of post-war public service dominance since the sector combines a social conscience with entrepreneurialism.

Kendall and Knapp (1996) highlight the significant role that the voluntary sector organisations (VSO) have played in U.K. history in service provision, mutual aid, campaigning and advocacy in all forms. Kendall and Knapp (1996) maintain that is impossible to map the development of U.K. society without reference to the significant part of VSO. Whilst at times VSO have contributed to changes in ideologies, values, responsibilities and policies, VSO have also helped to perpetuate the status quo and acted as agents of social control. These claims, however, are not supported by evidence.

Hudson (2002), Kendall and Knapp (1995, 1996), Marshall (1996), Osborne (1996) show that there is a lack of agreement as to what constitutes a voluntary service organisation. Kendall and Knapp (1996) note that there is no single universal definition of the voluntary sector and describe the difficulties in providing a definition in terms of its exact nature, financing and relationship between state and private businesses. Kendall and Knapp (1995, 1996) therefore advocate definitions dependent on purpose. To allow for international comparison they suggest that they use the structural operational definition which lists all the characteristics that an organisation must have to be described as voluntary or non-profit. They are:

- ◆ Formal entities with constitutions or formal sets of rules.
- ◆ Independent of government and self-governing.
- ◆ Non-profit-distributing and primarily non-business.
- ◆ A meaningful degree of voluntarism through the donation of money or time through philanthropy or voluntary citizen involvement.

There are varying degrees of agreement with the definition. Much of this is related to with altruistic intent. This criterion, however, is an important aspect of the legal definition of charity in the U.K. The National Council for Voluntary Organisations (NCVO) supports and co-ordinates the activities of voluntary organisations in England. It has similar self-governing, non-profit and voluntary criteria (in addition to others) to those listed in the criteria for the structural operational definition (see above) in its membership criteria (NCVO, 2003a). The NCVO does, however, require member organisations to have joined voluntarily to work for the benefit of the community with the exception of party political activity. This altruistic element and the rejection of political activity bring the NCVO in line with the legal definition of registered charity status. There is some support for the inclusion of the altruistic

element in a U.K. context with Gann (1996), Kendall and Knapp (1996) Hudson (2002) and Marshall (1996) being strong advocates although there is little discussion as to what altruism means although the notion that activity should benefit others is a common theme. As to whether the benefit should be morally acceptable is not engaged. It is assumed that it is in this thesis. With this in mind and for the purposes of this research the structural definition with the addition of the altruistic criterion of furthering the welfare of others is acceptable and therefore adopted. We shall see that altruism and its associated values have an important influence on the interpretation of leadership in the voluntary sector.

According to the Voluntary Service National Training Organisation (VSNTO, 2003) 60% of volunteers cited the opportunity to learn new skills as a motivation for their involvement. The Institute for Volunteering Research (1997) found that there were a mixture of self-interest and altruistic reasons for people volunteering. Free time is cited more amongst older people, whereas younger people cited learning new skills more frequently. However, it found that there was a decline in altruistic reasons given between its 1991 and 1997 surveys. In contrast, the Scout Association claims that the backgrounds from which it recruits its volunteer leaders are diverse and include those from different social, professional, educational, religious and cultural backgrounds (The Scout Association, 1999a). The Chief Executive of the Association states that it only has available a few U.K. aggregated statistics on gender and ethnicity (Twine, 2004). It is noted that this data does not include data on social, professional, educational, and religion. The extent of the diversity is therefore not known.

2.2 The Nature of Scouting

The Scout Association (2002) describes Scouting as "world-wide, values based educational movement" (p.1). It describes its global membership as growing and in being in excess of 28 million in over 216 countries and territories with developing countries account for two thirds of the membership. The World Scout Organisation describes the mission of Scouting as thus:

The mission of Scouting is to contribute to the education of young people, through a value system based on the Scout Promise and Law, to help build a better world where people are self-fulfilled as individuals and play a constructive role in society. This is achieved by:

- involving them throughout their formative years in a non-formal education process
- using a specific method that makes each individual the principal agent of his or her development as a self-reliant, supportive responsible and committed person
- assisting them to establish a value system based upon spiritual, social and personal principles as expressed in the Promise and Law.

(World Scout Organisation of the Scout Movement, 2004 p.1)

Foster (2001) offers three criteria in the definition of Scouting. Firstly, the acceptance of a law and promise recognised by the World Scout Bureau (the secretariat of the World Scout Organisation) is a condition of membership. There must be a form of a Scout law and a promise that embraces a duty to God, the nation and helping other people. Secondly, there must be a progressive training scheme based on outdoor pursuits. Thirdly, there must be a distinctive uniform.

The Scout Association in the U.K. is recognised through a Royal Charter. It satisfies Foster's criteria. Its 2002 U.K. membership is put at 476,992. Of these 381,888 forms its youth membership for people aged 6-25. The remainder have various adult leadership, administrative and supporter roles. All of its youth membership and the majority of the adults involved in Scouting in the U.K. are volunteers. The total and

youth membership, however, has shown a steady decline since the heydays of the 1970s. It claims to be committed to making Scouting available to all young people in society (Scout Association, 2003b). This is supported by an equal opportunities policy. The situation, therefore, is gradually changing from a primarily male dominated organisation in favour of co-education with equal access for males and females. The equal opportunities policy was produced in 1997 and relates to its youth and adult membership in areas of social class, ethnic origin, nationality (or statelessness), race, gender, marital or sexual status, mental or physical ability and political or religious belief. The absence of a religious belief is a bar to a leadership appointment as is a conviction of paedophilia (The Scout Association, 2003a).

The Scout Association has many shared aspects with the voluntary sector youth work provision in general. Smith (2002a) identifies five shared aspects with youth work that have existed with varying degrees of emphasis. They are valued based and are:

- 1) Focusing on young people even though there have been historical shifts in the age boundaries.
- 2) Emphasising voluntary participation and relationships. This fundamentally affects the way youth workers work with youth.
- 3) Committing to association. This involves coming together in friendship to take part in a task.
- 4) Being friendly and informal and acting with integrity. This involves youth workers being approachable, believing in people and providing a good example in their lives.
- 5) Being concerned with the education and more broadly, the welfare of young people.

Much youth work has retained an educative direction.

Smith (2002a) argues that we can therefore see youth work as a form of informal education. All of the key aspects of youth work described by Smith (2002a) are shared with the Scout Association. This is particularly evident in its purpose, promise and law. These are described further on in this section.

The National Youth Agency sees informal education as having "different ground rules, values and purpose" (NYA, 1993 p.14) to formal education. It sees formal and informal education complimentary represented as a continuum each with its own advantages and disadvantages summarised by the NYA as follows:

Figure 2.01: The Continuum of Formal and Informal Education

Continuum		
informal education	-----	formal education
people's agenda	-----	state or institution's agenda
voluntary	-----	compulsory
negotiated programme	-----	imposed and specified
curricula		
holistic view of	-----	subject specific view
people		
personal development	-----	pass/fail - levels
personal outcomes -	-----	specific outcomes -
internal	-----	external

(NYA, 1993 p.14)

The Scout and Guide Associations are numerically the largest of the organisations in the non-statutory or voluntary youth sector providing informal education.¹

Whitebloom (2003) describes the Scout Association in the U.K. as hugely popular in spite of its numerical decline since the 1970s. Treneman (2003) describes an

¹ The non-statutory or voluntary youth sector includes national organisations such as the Young Farmers' Clubs, the Boys' Clubs, Woodcraft Folk, The Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association and Youth Clubs U.K.. The uniformed youth organisations include Scout Association together with Girl Guiding U.K., the Boys' and Girls' Brigades and the Army, Air and Sea Cadets. Other local groups and clubs with no national structure exist.

organisation striving to expand and be more attractive to contemporary youth by shaking off its historic legacies. Foster (2001), however, describes it as an organisation struggling to cope and compete with a shift from a monolithic to a pluralistic society with a political shift to the left, state provision of youth services, decreased emphasis on morality in youth work, school provision of extra-curricular activities and a decline in the volunteer culture making leader recruitment more difficult. As a result there has been a numerical decline in real terms that started in 1934 in spite of a quadrupling of the population, the lowering of membership age ranges and a move towards co-education.

The value base of the organisation and its shared aspects with voluntary youth work are seen in its purpose, method, promise and law. The purpose and method of the Scout Association in the U.K. is stated as thus:

...to promote the development of young people in achieving their full physical, intellectual, social and spiritual potential, as individuals, as responsible citizens and as members of their local, national and international communities.

The Method of achieving the Aim is through the provision of an enjoyable and attractive scheme of training based on the Scout promise and Law guided by adult leadership.

(Scout Association, 2003b p.1)

The Scout Promise and Law use terms such as duty to God and the Queen, trust, loyalty, friendship consideration, respect and courage and are evidence of an altruistic value based organisation but with potentially contradictory values in pledging allegiance to the state. Terms such as honour and duty it could be argued to be militaristic. However, the term duty could also indicate an altruistic selfless determination.

The movement is governed and supported nationally via a hierarchy from its London headquarters. However, Scouting activities primarily take place locally in 8,639 Scout Groups. These are supported by 922 Scout Districts. The Scout Districts are supported by 114 Scout Counties (The Scout Association, 2002). The Scout Group, District and County have their own adult leadership, support and administrative teams. The main point of delivery of Scouting activities is the local Scout Group. A Scout Group will consist of one or more of age range related sections: Beavers (6-8 years), Cubs (8-10 years), Scouts (14-18 years) and possibly Explorers (14-18 years) - each with its own adult leadership.

The youth training scheme has changed in its detail and organisation several times in the history of the Association, however, it essentially has kept the same characteristics: preparation for outdoor activities (including camping and outdoor pursuits), understanding nature, service to others, hobbies and interests, sports and games and furtherance of religious and spiritual understanding. The emphasis is on "learning by doing" (The Scout Association, 2002a).¹

2.3 The Historical Context of Scouting

Whilst the Scout Association today is very different from that which was founded by Robert Baden-Powell in 1908 it is useful to look at its origins. This will foster a better understanding of the nature of the movement and some of its legacies including the values it associates itself with and that are often ascribed to. This is important since these may manifest themselves in leaders' understanding of leadership.

¹ Since the programme review initiated in the early 2000s the emphasis has shifted from young people "passing tests" to provide evidence of achievement through young people learning by participating in activities (The Scout Association, 2002b). Achievement is recognised through awards, certificates and badges.

Robert Baden-Powell achieved military fame as a result of his command and the withstanding of the siege of Mafeking (1899-1900) in the Boer War. In 1899 he published ideas on scouting activities. These proved popular and coincided with the development of his views on education. Scouting appears to have had both altruistic and militaristic beginnings, exemplified by concern about the poor physical condition of young recruits to the army and moral degeneration (Smith, 2002b) and youth welfare work through the meeting individual needs (Mitterauer, 1992). Springhall (1977) maintains that the very beginnings of Scouting can be traced to Baden-Powell's experience of public school life and Charterhouse, colonial warfare and the 1900's intellectual context. Prominent words such as honour, loyalty and duty that feature in the Scout Law are thought to have their roots in the public school traditions (Springhall, 1977). The uncertainty of the origins is noted and we are left to surmise about the associated values.

Baden-Powell's rejection of intellectual scholarship in favour of activities and games, in combination with woodcraft, the outdoors, a yearning for class harmony and a sense of imagination meant that:

... the scene was set for serious innovation in informal education practice
(Smith, 2002 p.6)

Other features of Baden-Powell's thinking are reflected in aspects of the Scout Law that remain today such as helping others and friendliness. A belief in benevolence was intertwined with duty to country. Taken together these notions are potentially conflictory and how they might be resolved is not apparent (Smith, 2002b). Nevertheless, a key aspect of Baden-Powell's vision was a view of citizenship that could be developed as a result of self-reliance and unselfishness. Up to the third

edition of *Scouting for Boys* there is a passage deploring war, extreme poverty, misery and excessive wealth (Smith, 2002b).

Baden-Powell, however, is not without his critics. Rosenthal (1986) questions his views on character building and alleges that he was racist, a homosexual and militaristic. Indeed, criticism of militarism as we shall see has been extended to the organisation itself. Any military influence could have an effect on the interpretation of leadership. It is to the criticisms of Scouting that we now turn.

2.4 Scouting, Militarism and Conservatism

Scouting has, particularly in the earliest years of its history, been criticised as being a militaristic organisation from within and outside the movement. For example Foster (1997) and Springhall (1977) mention the sensitivities of the headquarters of the Scout Association to such accusations and Loades (1977) responds to the accusations.

However, apart from former Scout Commissioners Francis Vane and John Hargrave, it is not clear exactly who has made the accusations and how widespread they have been.

Neither is there much discussion of what it takes to be militaristic, although Foster (1997) explores issues such as the presence of former and existing armed servicemen in leadership roles, the involvement in military preparations and the generation of interest in the military. Nevertheless, Foster (1997) claims that as a result of the sensitivity resulting from the criticism of militarism, Baden-Powell steered a course away from overt militarism which otherwise would have been allowed to continue. He attributes this course to the movement's success. This course was helped in the post world war one era as a consequence of co-operation of Scouts from different countries that had once opposed one another in war (Springhall, 1977).

Loades (1977) counters accusations of the movement being an autocratic organisation with militaristic influence. He argues that the organisation is not about the surrender of free will but about willing co-operation. The Scout Association's emphasis on the Law and the Promise is, therefore, not seen as an oath of allegiance rather:

a commitment to endeavour, not achievement; to participation in shared ideals rather than unconditional obedience.(p.21)

Loades (1977) argues that the intention of the Scout Law is to develop a boy's awareness of his relationship with the physical and natural world, other people, society and possessions. Scouting is not a process of socialisation leading to acceptance into a social system without criticism. Rather, by making people aware of their own responsibilities and those of others, as well as the needs, rights and sensibilities of others it may require criticism of the way things are done. Loades (1977) also argues that Scout training is not military in nature since it does not involve the teaching of the use and handling of arms. Neither, he argues is there subjection to military discipline. He also maintains that the uniform is a symbol of a commitment to the movement and taking part in a collective aim. It is worn in a similar fashion as members of the Salvation Army and not as a symbol of subservience to any authority. Loades maintains that the views are his own but his paper is part of a Scout Association report and a Scout Association publication. The paper set out to demonstrate the continued worth of the Movement. This raises questions of impartiality.

More recently, Whitebloom (2003) has noted that criticisms concerning militarism have disappeared. This analysis is accepted and is probably due to the influences of time and a more pluralistic society from which it draws its leadership and support. Thus in accepting the interpretation that the Association took a course away from

militarism, it is my view that this generally has continued as a result of these influences, but the military influence will vary from locality to locality. There remains, however, an argument that the Scout Association is essentially a conservative institution.

Grimshaw (1978) maintains that allegiance to national institutions i.e. the interlinked church and state is what counts as a good scout and so forms a "conservative focus of loyalties within a democratic state" (Grimshaw, 1978 p.255) rather a focus on secularism and republicanism. Grimshaw sees connections between the uniform and loyalty to the military arm of the state. However, he reserves his strongest criticism by asserting that the organisation seeks to "teach the importance of work-related values" (Grimshaw, 1978 p.255). Scouting's ethics expresses political and ideological elements that link simple moral principles with complicated work related loyalties and values. For these reasons and the (then) exclusion of girls he describes Scouting as "a conformist and indeed conservative social movement" (Grimshaw, 1978 p.255). This is a view supported by Springhall (1977) who described youth movements as managed by the middle class that rejected urban working class culture and values. As a result:

...youth movements conditioned the young to accept the social order as it was, rather than make any attempt to change it. (p.126)

It is my own view that the ties that Grimshaw describes have loosened progressively as the Association has tried to reverse numerical decline and have a wider appeal to a society that holds more pluralistic values. A blind eye has been turned to the grass roots rejection of certain policies and expectations in particular its religious policy, the provision of service to others and adherence to a progressive training scheme.

Springhall (1977) is probably correct in his analysis. The altruism of the Scout Association as an organisation does not extend to intently promoting social change. However, that is not to say that individual members do not and cannot lead social change. This is consistent with Loades (1977) view described earlier.

2.5 Main Findings

The chapter set out to provide contextual knowledge and understanding to facilitate the answering of the research questions that focus on the sources and nature of leader understanding of leadership. It does this by defining the voluntary sector and the Scout Association. This is important since legacies, values and expectations fostered and maintained in the Scout Association and the voluntary sector could have an influence on the understanding of leadership by leaders and consequently are linked to the research questions that examine how leadership is understood (research question one), how it could vary between role incumbents (research question two) and where the understanding is derived from (research question three).

The structural operational definition with the inclusion of an altruistic element is adopted in this thesis as the definition of the voluntary sector. It has been found that people volunteer for a mixture of self-interest and altruistic reasons with the latter being cited less in recent years. Altruism may therefore have an influence in the interpretation of leadership by role incumbents (re: research questions one and three). It is claimed that adults working in the voluntary youth sector and the Scout Association come from a diversity of backgrounds. The exact nature of this diversity is not clear, however, and nothing is known about how background might contribute to

their understanding of leadership and how it, therefore, might vary between different groups of leaders.

In spite of numerical decline the Scout Association remains a popular organisation and the largest provider of informal co-education in the U.K.. It shares many value based characteristics with other voluntary providers of informal education providing a basis for co-operation with them. It has militaristic and altruistic origins but the influence of the former has declined over the years. Nevertheless, the values the organisation fosters as embedded in its Promise and Law, its philosophy of informal education and its altruistic and military background may influence interpretations of leadership within it. It has been described as a conservative institution with its values tied to the interests of the church and state. These may be loosening in response to changes in society and the impact it has had on its appeal. This has declined in real terms as a result of societal values becoming more pluralistic. The Association's altruism does not extend to social change although members may have a role in bringing it about. These values and the trend towards pluralism may be reflected in its leaders' interpretation of leadership (research questions one), variations in its interpretation (research question two) and sources of the interpretation (research question three).

2.6 Link to Chapter Three

The following chapter looks beyond the potential contextual influences on the understanding of leadership to examine how the voluntary sector and the Scout Association facilitate the understanding of leadership. It examines the influence of the value base of VSO, the models of leadership that are promoted in the Scout Association and how these relate to other ways of understanding leadership as

described in the Gunter and Ribbins (2003) and Gunter (2005) typology of educational leadership.

CHAPTER THREE: LEADERSHIP IN THE VOLUNTARY SECTOR AND THE SCOUT ASSOCIATION

3.0 Introduction

A rich literature pertaining to leadership studies is available from the educational and commercial sectors, however, little literature has emerged from the voluntary sector, including the Scout Association. The chapter focuses on the potential organisation based influences on the interpretations of leadership by volunteer leaders and as such particularly helps to inform research questions one, two, three and five.

Reference is made to the unique position of the voluntary sector and the value base of many voluntary sector organisations. Consideration is also given to the need to understand leadership also in terms of an interpretivist perspective and how this fits in with the post-positivist stance of this research. How does the National Headquarters of the Scout Association interpret Leadership? In what other ways is leadership in the Scout Association interpreted? These questions are addressed by examining the reasons for the preference given to the action centred leadership and situational leadership models by the Scout Association (1988a, 1999a, 1999b, 1999c) by examining the main characteristics of the models, their strengths and limitations, and by exploring the Scout Association's interpretation of these models.

The chapter progresses to examination of this preference in the context of the typologies of knowers, knowing and knowledge in the field of educational leadership described by Gunter and Ribbins (2003) and further refined by Gunter (2005) and so is related to research question five. This is a comprehensive, contemporary and unique

approach to analysing knowledge claims relating to leadership and allows for the assumptions underpinning ways of understanding leadership to be compared.

Reference is also made to the ethnographic study made by Grimshaw (1978) as the only identified research relating to leadership in the Scout Association. Although dated, it provides first hand account of leadership and in so doing helps to address research questions one to three.

3.1 Leadership in the Voluntary Sector

Bastleer (1996) notes that the Handy Report 1981 on improving effectiveness of voluntary organisations commissioned by the National Council for Voluntary Organisations gave notice that the conventions of administration were insufficient to meet the demands of the changing circumstances of the times and that voluntary sector organisations could not escape the management revolution that was taking place.

Wilson (1996) identifies the changes that affected the public, private and voluntary sectors in the 1980s following the Conservative government's move to negate the dependency culture. The creation of internal markets was viewed as the optimum way of reducing costs. The changes included the professionalisation of management with senior management being employed from the public and private sectors. Managerial practices were imported from the private sector by many voluntary sector organisations.

Bastleer (1996) notes the emergence of a recognisable "culture of management" (p.228) that has permeated even the smallest of community based projects. Much of the informing literature has taken the form of how to do it manuals. But much of this

has been "reactive, opportunistic and short term" (Bastleer, 1996 p.231). The result, Bastleer claims, has been the lack of a "normative model of management" (p.231) and the creation of a context that has permitted VSOs to critically examine their management from a range of perspectives with a consequent diversity of practices. This has not been about the application of instrumental techniques, but a matter of the development of shared meanings and judgements of what is possible and appropriate.

Bastleer (1996) claims that there is some consensus that the values of VSO influence the type of leadership they experience. He maintains that there has been a search for management processes that are consistent with the aims and social values of VSO. Tensions arise between the expectation that managers will be modest facilitators and those who call for unambiguous, sometimes charismatic and moral leadership upholding the value base of their organisations. He argues that effective and sensitive management usually involves bargains and compromises that often sit uneasily with VSOs' principled commitment or missionary moral uprightness. As a result some VSOs put emphasis on distributed leadership and empowerment, the facilitation of learning, participation and co-operation. The result is a culture in which "managers are not expected to disport themselves as old-fashioned bosses" (p.233). The emphasis is on teamwork and support and supervision that lack a feeling of hierarchy and creates a satisfying work environment. This feeling is captured by the Association of Chief Executives of Voluntary Organisations (ACEVO) in the context of the psychological contract with staff:

This can be very different with voluntary organisations. Staff tend to be driven by passion for the cause, and have a more 'democratic' ethos. The culture can be very different. Hierarchies tend to be viewed negatively and those who characterise themselves as leaders maybe perceived as 'getting above themselves'. (ACEVO, 2003 p.18).

Bastleer (1996) concludes that there is a growing appreciation that voluntary sector management thinking and practice may provide a useful understanding of management roles and competencies that managers in the non-profit making public sector (for example, in schools and hospitals) could benefit from particular since that from the private sector has failed them.

Is the shift Bastleer describes i.e. the move from the old-fashion boss to empowerment, learning, participation and distributed leadership really so straightforward? What he does not make clear is exactly how the values influence management style. How do they permeate everyday practice? Who or what drives it? Lakomski (1995) notes the prominence of transformational leadership. There could be evidence of a shift from transactional leadership to transformational leadership within VSO mirroring the adoption of transformational leadership from non-educational settings to educational settings (Gunter, 2001).

Northouse (2004) describes transformational leadership as "one of the newest and encompassing approaches to leadership" (p.198). He summarises the approach as being concerned with the inspiration of followers to make great accomplishments. The leader needs to be able to comprehend and adapt to followers needs and motivation. They are good role models who can act as "change agents" (p.198). They can:

...create and articulate a clear vision for an organisation, who empower followers to achieve higher standards, who act in ways that make others want to trust them, and who give meaning to organizational life. (p.198)

It is:

... leadership that transforms individuals and organizations through an appeal to values and long-term goals (Muijs et al 2006).

The agency¹ of the leader exercising transformational leadership is classified as four factors (Thompson, 1995; Gunter, 2001; Northouse, 2004):

- Inspiration: charismatic motivation of followers to meet high expectations.
- Individualism: concentrating on the developmental needs of followers.
- Intellectual stimulation: influencing the thinking of followers.
- Idealised influence: communication and creation of an emotional tie to a role model who provides vision and mission.

MacBeath (1998) advocates transformational leadership, maintaining that shared and distributed leadership are "an increasing expectation" and "essential" (p.108).

Hall and Southworth (1997) refer to a trend of increased dependence on shared and distributed leadership in an attempt to cope with the increased number of tasks and complexities of institutions and to develop others' leadership potential. In part they relate this to notions of transformational leadership and the associated strategy of empowerment. Muijs et al (2006) refer to the term "shared transformational leadership" (p.90) and claim that it is another term for distributed leadership. This involves the management at middle and lower levels sharing the vision and being involved in decision and initiative making to bring about change in amore sustained and sustainable way. However, it usually means that whilst responsibility may be devolved, power and the nature of the vision are not.

Muijs et al (2006) comment that since transformational leadership engages hearts and minds it is not unexpected that it has become widely accepted in education:

¹ The freedom to make decisions and act upon them in the context of overt and covert rules, conventions and consequences in an organisation.

... where a strong moral purpose and commitment among both school staff and managers, relative job security and low Government-determined pay levels will tend to favour the effectiveness of transformational over more transactional forms of leadership in fostering lasting change (p.88)

In engaging hearts and minds could there be an appeal to individuals' altruistic motives? Could the same conditions that Muijs et al (2006) describe also apply to VSO where similar conditions apply? There is some evidence that transformational leadership affects VSO.

NCVO (2003b) uphold a view of the importance of vision:

...management gurus tell us a great leader must sustain a vision that he or she can spread throughout an organisation. (p.1)

The NCVO uses the views of Deborah Allock Tyler (Chief Executive of the Directory for Social Change) in substantiating the view that leadership is about people. It is about human resources, vision, dreams, aspirations and creating a context where people can stand out and management is about process: motivation, objectives, targets and decision making. The emphasis on vision making is also made by the NVCO in noting the view Eric Appleby, Chair of the Association of Chief Executives of Voluntary Organisations (ACEVO), that "leadership is the capacity to create a vision" (p.1).

Vision is Hudson's (2002) important distinction between leadership and management in the voluntary sector. He sees leadership and management as a continuum but makes a plea for a balance between the two within an organisation, otherwise there is either a lack of progression or nothing gets done. Here the leadership task is seen in terms of long term vision, broad purpose and direction inspiring people to do more,

effectiveness and looking forward to and creating a better future. Management is seen as meeting current objectives, dealing with today's problems: the here and now.

The influence of transformational leadership is seen in the way the ACEVO (2003) answers the question "What is leadership?" It identifies three different models. Firstly, personal models, these deal with the competencies of an individual leader. This is to do with particular characteristics and include: communicating strategy/vision, setting objectives, motivating people, creating a productive culture, developing the organisation and initiating transformation. Secondly, team models that focus on the interpersonal relationships within a group. Reference is made (ACEVO, 2003) to the Audit Commission (2002) that emphasised the need for a shared sense of purpose and responsibility between team members in order to effect change. The core leadership roles are classified as inspire (develop a vision, provide role models, coach, counsel and sponsor), mobilise (sell the vision, listen and respond, proactively manage stakeholders), navigate (set direction and prioritise, co-ordinate, set targets) and enable (allocate skills and resources, invest in projects, decide and delegate). Thirdly, environmental leadership models. According to the ACEVO these models emphasise that a leadership style is dependent on the situation and task. Six styles of leadership are identified as being an important part of a leader's repertoire. They are: coercive, authoritative, affiliative, democratic, pacesetting and coaching.

Following the completion of the Hay McBer project 'Passionate Leadership' in 2003 for the ACEVO, the ACEVO reported the following interim findings, as being characteristics of effective voluntary sector leaders:

- Emotional attachment - passion for cause;
- Energy and enthusiasm. Integrity and trust;

- Strategic perspective - conceptual and analytical thinking. Keeping up to date with broader issues. Flexible, but Mindful of the core purpose; Visionary and inspirational communications - both internal and external, one to one and public speaking;
- Personal humility - making a difference through others;
- Motivating a team - leading from the front. Making things happen. Understanding work on the ground. Helping staff and volunteers retain their resilience and enthusiasm;
- Networking - maintaining and building relationships, both personal and organisational;
- Influencing - knowing where the power is, and how to influence it;
- Resilience - ability to bounce back after setbacks/criticism;
- Self-confidence - sometimes highly stressful situation. Courage to make difficult decisions and admit mistakes;
- Customer service orientation.

(ACEVO, 2003 p.17).

Again the four characteristics of transformational leadership are evident: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration.

We return to the view that VSO leadership is value based. Gann (1996) has made a supporting case. He argues that the value-led nature of VSO makes them distinctive from the private and public sectors. This results in an ethical approach to management in VSO. Ethical management:

- ◆ is supportive;
- ◆ continually uses the aims and objectives of the organisation to define its direction;
- ◆ encourages change, experimentation and innovation;
- ◆ is people centred, encouraging individual growth and development;
- ◆ is non-directive;
- ◆ holds the team together;
- ◆ understands and advances quality;
- ◆ monitors and evaluates;
- ◆ communicates;
- ◆ performs technical tasks efficiently

(Gann, 1996 p61)

Gann maintains that ethical management is not so much a style of management but a focus of it. The focus is personal growth. He develops his ideas further by referring to management skills as falling in to two very gendered categories. One (the left hand female column), consists of person and language centred skills with potentially open ends and include caring, communicating, co-ordinating, praising, relating, supporting, listening and negotiating. The other (the right hand male column) consists of systemic, and manipulative skills with designated ends and include financial, political, practical, shaping, directing, organising and controlling. The left-hand column skills predominate, he argues in the voluntary sector and do so successfully. He recognises that this classification is simplistic and that the male-type organisations can be ethical, but maintains that:

... an ethical, people centred, educational organisation is likely to have, among its most prominent managerial skills, a strong representation of those skills in the left hand column. (Gann, 1996 p.61).

Valuable as it is, there are several problems with Gann's case. The first is that he does not reference the research he uses to support his argument. The second is his unqualified use of the term values. He implicitly uses the term with positive altruistic meaning. There could be an opposite or neutral meaning. Exactly what values he refers to is not at all transparent. Thirdly, Gann, like Bastleer, fails to show exactly how values influence leadership. Fourthly, there are certain characteristics of ethical management (as with Bastleer's account of management in VSO) that could equally match the idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration characteristics of transformational leadership. With its links to managerialism and consumerisation (Thompson, 1995) the ethical basis for this approach may be brought into question. Is the ethical management just

transformational leadership in a different guise, but with an emphasis on female managerial skills? This thesis will investigate the influence that transformational leadership may have in the understanding of leadership by leaders.

In the review so far it has been implicit that the designated leader in VSO has the agency to make a difference by influencing his or her followers. This is one of the assumptions of transformational leadership (Gunter, 2001). Much of the research into leadership has questionable positivist assumptions leading to searches for generalisations and rules that link the behaviour of the individual (the leader) to the realisation of organisational objectives through the actions of followers (Kay, 1996). These have been largely unsuccessful and have resulted in the dismissal of trait and subsequently, contingency theories. Instead Kay invokes an alternative interpretivist view of leadership in VSO recognising the agency of followers to affect outcomes.

Leaders are seen to participate and influence in the process of interpreting reality. Particular skills are needed to take part in this process of social interaction. Leadership is concerned with the social interaction *process* rather than the behaviour of a particular individual. It is understood in terms of individuals and teams (or groups) involved in the mutual process of sense making and influencing others over interpretations of events, issues and actions.

...an account of leadership that understands it not as some objective phenomenon, behaviour or trait external to the individual to be measured, but as a social construct which has to make sense of a social process, one that has use value rather than truth value. (Kay, 1996 p133)

Followers and designated leaders alike are interpreters of reality and do so subjectively. The behaviours of leaders and followers can be interpreted differently

since they have different meanings. The leader is both the creator and discoverer of his/her reality. Language does not reflect reality it is used to make sense of it.

Kay's (1996) stance rejects the positivist approach which sees leadership as a unidirectional influence of the leader over the follower. This does not account for the different meanings followers can attribute to the actions of leaders. Further, it ignores how other people can influence the meaning individuals make of reality.

The account of leadership that followed from this research sees leadership as:

...a multi-dimensional process of social interaction of creating and sustaining acceptable meanings of issues, events and actions. (p.135).

Leadership is taken away from the individual role incumbent and so leaders and followers may swap roles.

Kay's arguments are attractive. Chief amongst the attractions is that Kay starts to explain how values can influence leadership. They are not necessarily inconsistent with the post-positivist stance of this research. The interaction of meanings can result in a common understanding of reality as well as explaining variations. There are, however, a number of concerns that need resolving. Firstly, his research is based on interviews of chief executives. If the process of leadership is shared along with the making of meaning, influence and actions the absent perspectives of the followers should be addressed. Secondly, it is not clear whether his thinking was derived from his research or vice versa. If the latter is the case, by using the logic of demonstration he appears to fall into the trap of adopting a positive approach to understanding reality: something he is critical of. Thirdly, it remains to be seen whether the same processes

can be identified at levels below the chief executive and amongst, for instance, volunteer role incumbents and followers. This happens because many are not aware of their latent abilities and would not be prepared to fight their way forward in a competitive environment. Finally, whilst his model of shared leadership recognises the agency of followers there is little emphasis on the structures that might limit the making of socially acceptable meaning, the network of influence and negotiated actions. If, however, the players themselves are viewed as providing elements of structure, the model is consistent with Gronn's (2000) notion of conjoint agency since the players will interact with structure (rules, conventions, socio-economic forces, and the will of one another) to shape and consequently re-shape their agency and influence.

3.2 Leadership in the Scout Association: Its Own View

This section focuses on the Scout Association's interpretations of leadership. It has already been noted that little is known about the backgrounds of leaders in the Scout Association. It is therefore not surprising that the search has revealed nothing about its voluntary leaders' own interpretations of leadership. It is, however, a different matter when it comes to the organisation's perspective.

The Scout Association (1999b) proposes that if its leaders and commissioners were asked what they meant by leadership then the result would be a variety of answers with most of them being imprecise. Yet it maintains that we use the term leadership assuming that there is a general agreement about its meaning. It points to qualities such as courage, wisdom and a sense of justice as important ideals for winning wars and running a programme of activities for young people. Here we see both altruistic

and militaristic connections. The question as to whether such qualities can be learned through training or whether it needs to recruit individuals who already have such qualities is asked but not answered, except to say that the organisation is clearly concerned with such qualities. However, it argues that since leaders have the responsibility for the welfare of young people, they must be of sound character and have the qualities to match the trust they are given. It lists the qualities as:

- A belief in the Aims of Scouting and the commitment to carry them out.
- The willingness to make the Scout Promise and to accept the Scout Law.
- A willingness to undergo the necessary training to fit themselves for the task of leadership.
- Trustworthiness in their relationships with young people.
- Resourcefulness, responsibility imagination and patience.
- The ability to lead by example.
- A genuine wish to help young people to develop as responsible members of society in their own right.
- A sense of fun.

(The Scout Association, 1999a).

The Scout Association (1990a) suggests that an approach based on qualities and attributes i.e. what a leader is, is useful in leader selection but when it comes to the training and development of leaders it is more useful to examine what leaders do. This functional approach makes improvements possible with training, insight awareness and practice. This theme is revisited (The Scout Association, 1999a) for the Association makes an unreferenced claim that a large amount of research has been undertaken into developing leadership skills. It maintains that the general approach has

been to analyse what leaders do and to make them aware of this in order to help individuals to improve their performance. The functional approach is described as the leader's job: i.e. the proper regard of the needs of the task, the group and the individual.

The task is regarded as attaining the Aim of the Scout Association. This requires leaders to develop the skills of leadership needed to work with groups of people and each individual. The latter is important since Scouting is about people and helping them to develop.

We see that the functional approach that is promoted here is the Action Centred Leadership (ACL) model as developed by John Adair (1973). This is confirmed in correspondence with the Scout Association's Assistant Director of Adult Support (Rogers, 2003a). Rogers states that the leadership models (Adair's functional approach and Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership (SL) were field tested by the Association 1972-8. They were adopted because it regarded them to be simple to understand, but could be interpreted at a number of different levels for universal usage. Thus, young people in a leadership role could use the models, as could comprehensible adults of limited ability. At the highest level leaders could identify and learn different competences that make up the different styles and approaches and apply them appropriately. The models were examined twice in the leader training reviews of the mid to late eighties and again for the 1999 review. Change was not merited on the basis of "if it 'ain't broke then don't fix it" and because any change would require members working with different models for a transition period and because of the sizeable task of re-training of trainers. Rogers explains that the models are not

sacrosanct. The new training scheme (implemented from January 2004) focuses on learning outcomes rather than training. Adults are required to validate their learning and demonstrate their ability in practice. The scheme does not mention the models explicitly. Neither are they required knowledge. The publications describing the models are not being withdrawn so trainers wishing to use the models may do so (Rogers, 2003b).

However, a look at the material produced to support the leader training scheme arising from the most recent leader training review reveals that there is a reference to Adair's model by name (The Scout Association, 2003c p.7) and descriptions of versions of Adair's action centred model and of Hersey and Balanchard situational model.

Although not referred directly by name or source the models clearly feature in the objectives of the training scheme and the validation of learning. For example, the stated training objectives include:

Analyse the functions the functions of leadership in terms of:

- the task to be done and actions to assist it
 - actions to assist group cohesion
 - actions required to meet the needs of individuals within the group
- Identify the range of leadership styles and situations in which different styles might be appropriate.

(The Scout Association, 2003c p.2)

Further, a publication (The Scout Association, 1999b) is listed as a handout for leaders on training courses that describes the responsibilities of a leader as balancing the achievement of tasks, the development of a group of people and the meeting of the needs of individuals. This is the action centred model. Hersey and Blanchard's situational model also features as leaders are encouraged to work out the situation and apply the most appropriate leadership style.

It is clear that the ACL and SL models have been prominent in the Scout Association's interpretation of leadership over the last three decades in spite of the leader training reviews. How do Adair, Hersey and Blanchard describe their models and how does the Scout Association interpret them?

3.3 Adair and Action Centred Leadership

Adair (1973) acknowledges that ACL leadership training originated and evolved in U.K. military establishments and spread to private, public and charitable organisations such that it was difficult to find a working group that did not use it. Adair comments that the models name puts emphasis on what a leader does rather than what he/she has to be. He notes that a "fortuitous characteristic" (p.ix) of the leadership training at Sandhurst was that the tutors were all company commanders, that twelve courses ran simultaneously involving over 300 officer cadets and therefore the theoretical concepts and methods had to be kept simple so that no particular qualification in social psychology or costly expertise was needed by the staff. Similar reasoning also led the Scout Association to adopt this model as has been intimated earlier. Adair claims that with a thorough understanding of ACL theory and methods and an imaginative interpretation of it in the particular context of an organisation, it can make a valuable contribution to management development.

On this basis Adair sets out to produce:

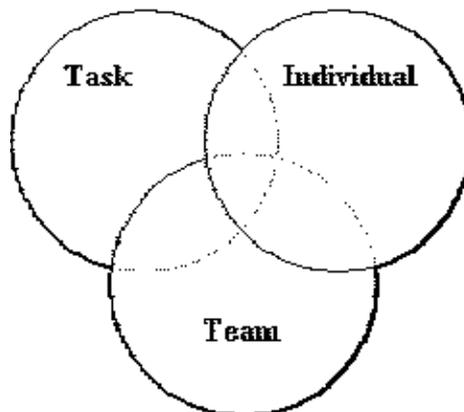
...an intellectually satisfying and practically useful concept of leadership. (p.3)

Adair maintains that the actions of a leader are central to meeting the needs of three interrelated areas: i.e. the group, the individual and the task. Since each impinge on one another and so do the actions of the leader (see Figure 3.01).

The failure to complete a task results in factional forces arising within a group and a reduced sense of achievement felt by individuals. The result is that individuals will then not maximise their inputs into the completion of the task and the viability of the group. Success brings the reverse and team spirit develops, communication improves as barriers are broken down and the working environment for individuals improves. If an individual has his or her needs realised then the task and group benefit.

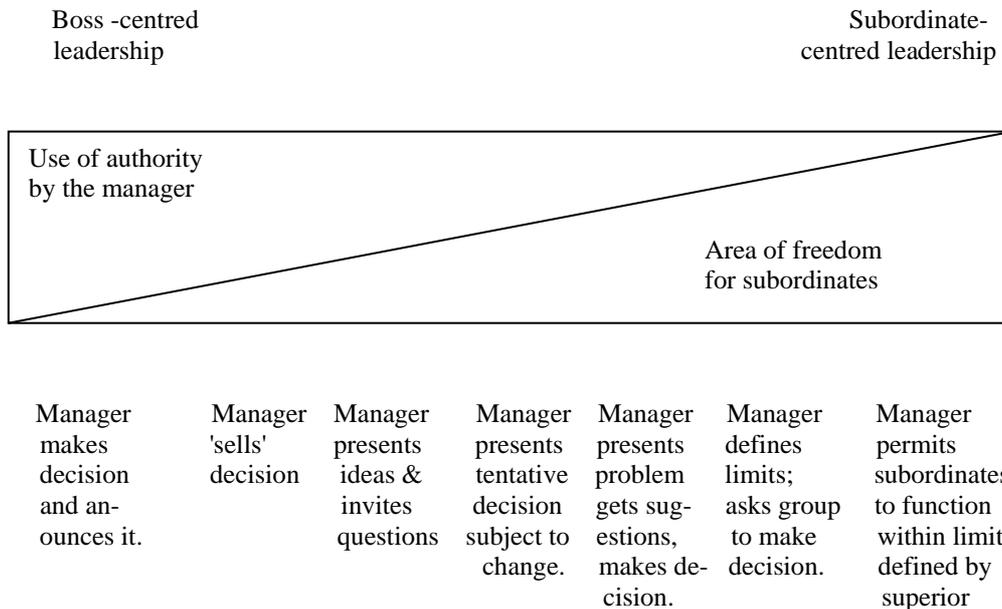
For Adair leadership functions are the leaders' responsibility but the sharing of them is necessary for groups over approximately five. This affords opportunities for individuals to contribute to the meeting of group and individual needs. He draws on a diagram (fig 3.02) produced by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) to describe a continuum of leadership styles. At the one end, the leader makes all the decisions, this

Figure 3.01: Interaction of Needs



(Adair, 1973 p.10)

end is termed boss-centred leadership. This declines in importance in favour of subordinate-centred leadership as it moves through to the selling of decisions, the presentation of ideas for questioning, the presentation of tentative decisions subject to

Figure 3.02: Continuum of Leadership Behavior

(Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958 p.96)

suggested changes, to the definition of limits and the group making to decisions to followers working within defined limits.

According to Adair, the situation (e.g. the type of task, the degree of crisis and the time available) will also determine which the most appropriate approach is. As will the group (knowledge, attitude, and experience). As these improve, subordinate centred leadership will become more appropriate. Contextual factors such as the value system and philosophy of an organisation will also determine which style is used. Adair sees the style shifting with the situation.

3.4 The Scout Association and the Action Centred Leadership Model

The Scout Association's interpretation of leadership is based on the ACL model. How is this itself interpreted? It emphasises that the function of the leader to act to balance

the meeting of the needs of the task, group and individual¹. Indeed, similar tri-circular diagrams are used to illustrate the model (The Scout Association, 1999b p.3). It also advocates the acceptance Tannenbaum and Schmidt's continuum of leadership styles and shared decision-making. The continuum described by the Scout Association shows how there should be a gradual change in leadership style from a directive form where adults take the decisions when working with the youngest of its youth membership to a non-directive style when working with older members (The Scout Association, 1999b).

There is, however, a fundamental difference in the view of the Scout Association and that of John Adair. The Scout Association neither elaborates nor puts emphasis on the interrelationships between the meeting of the needs of the task, group and individual in the actions of the leader. It only notes that they "are obviously closely linked" (The Scout Association, 1999b p.3). The links are illustrated through the use of the tri-circular diagram (Figure3.01). A comparison of the interpretations is made in Figure 3.03.

The Scout Association's interpretation of the ACL model puts more emphasis on the sharing of decision making e.g. in planning, taking decisions, identification and use of resources of the group, and the representation of group interests. It is less appointed

1

The Scout Association (1990c, 1990d, 1999d) like Adair, cites Maslow's (1954) five level hierarchy of human needs (physiological, safety, belonging, esteem and self-fulfilment needs) and Herzberg's (1966) ideas on motivator and hygiene factors to describe how the needs of individuals are met and provide the basis of motivation.

Figure 3.03: A Comparison of the Scout Association's Interpretation of ACL with Adair's Single List of Leadership Functions

Adair's Single List of Leadership Functions	The Scout Association's Leadership Checklist
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Planning: e.g. seeking all available information Defining group task, purpose or goal. Making a workable plan (in right decision-making framework) 	<p>In achieving the task:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Did I plan for it carefully with the group? • Did I continually evaluate how it was going, and again at the end did I take appropriate action?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Initiating: e.g. Briefing group on the aims and the plan. Explaining why aim or plan is necessary • Allocating tasks to group members. Setting group standards. 	<p>In integrating and motivating the group:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Did I share the Leadership with them (that is, were they fully involved in taking the decision)? • Did I discover and use fully the resources of the group? Did I co-ordinate them so that they worked together effectively as a team? • Did I ensure the group's interests were properly when discussing the activity with others outside of the group?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Controlling e.g. Maintaining group standards. Influencing tempo. • Ensuring all actions are taken towards objectives. Keeping discussion relevant. Prodding group to action /decision. 	<p>In encouraging and supporting each individual:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Did I communicate effectively with each one, both facts (for example, what to do) and values (for example enthusiasm)? • Was I fully sensitive to each member as a person, their characteristics and needs? • Did I help each one to acquire any skills required, that is help each to learn? • Did I encourage individuals to take decisions and overcome personal difficulties themselves (that is counsel them)? • Did I set the right example for them to follow?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supporting e.g. Expressing acceptance of persons and their contribution. Encouraging group/individuals. Disciplining group/individuals. Creating team spirit. Relieving tension with humour. Reconciling disagreements or getting others to explore them. 	<p>(The Scout Association, 1999b p.4)</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Informing e.g. Clarifying task and plan. Giving new information to the group i.e. keeping them 'in the picture'. Receiving information from group. Summarizing suggestions and ideas coherently. 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evaluating: e.g. Checking feasibility of an idea Testing the consequences of a proposed solution... Evaluating group performance. Helping the group to evaluate its own performance against standards. 	

(Adair, 1973 pp. 11-12)

leader centred than Adair's original interpretation. This is reflected in the Scout Association (1988) recognising that situations arise where leadership is performed by a more appropriate person than the designated leader. However, who decides this should happen and who it should be is not clear. If it is the appointed leader there is less recognition of the agency of followers. Nevertheless, Adair's original interpretation is that the appointed leader makes more of the decisions: e.g. in defining the group task, explaining why it is necessary, allocating tasks to group members, setting standards, influencing actions, prodding the group and disciplining the group/ individuals. As such the Scout Association's interpretation put more emphasis on the agency of followers and less on the appointed leader than the original Adair interpretation. Adair's later interpretation of ACL (Adair, 1988) sees a shift in emphasis towards more shared decision making functions and delegation. Nevertheless, in Adair's reinterpretation, the primacy of the appointed leader is still evident in the use of the term subordinates in the area of developing individuals.

Unlike the Scout Association the language used is that of the work place with reference to, for instance, removal of controls, reducing checking, making subordinates more responsible for the quality and accuracy of their work and patterns of career and salary development.

Notwithstanding the observations made earlier about Bastleer (1996) work, it is possible that the Scout Association's interpretation is consistent with Bastleer's (1996) argument (described earlier) that VSO have searched for a management approach consistent with their organisations' values. This has very often resulted in a greater emphasis on distributed leadership, empowerment, teamwork, support and a satisfying

work environment. It has resonance with the psychological contract and the democratic ethos (ACEVO, 2003). It is also consistent with Gann's (1996) view of ethical management with its focus on personal growth. Further, there is resonance with the Scout Association's (1990d) view that there is a degree of altruistic commonality in factors motivating its leaders. Indeed, in 1996 Karen Foulton, then the Programme Executive with the Scout Association in Scotland, wrote:

To work in Youth and Community Work and promote the acceptance of certain values, workers must believe that every individual is important. (Foulton, 1996 p.7)

However, the ACL model is interpreted there is insufficient recognition of the agency of followers. Even with the associated reference to Tannebaum's and Schmidt's continuum of leadership style it is clear that the designated leader is in the driving seat and making the decision as to what is the appropriate leadership style. The influence followers might have on the actions of leaders and outcomes is not given recognition. This is something that Gronn (1999) maintains is a common failing of many theories about leadership. At the heart of this is the questionable causal significance given to the actions of designated leaders. These leaders are seen as superior to followers and are attributed as being mainly responsible for outcomes. For Gronn (2000), leaders need to have a significant and tangible effect over peoples feelings, thinking or behaviour but equally followers must need to be willing to accept this influence and in turn influence designated leaders. To a greater or lesser degree Gronn (2000) sees all leadership as shared between designated leaders and followers along a continuum. Leadership therefore needs to be defined in terms of leaders and followers. This is something Adair's model fails to recognise.

3.5 Hersey and Blanchard's' Situational Leadership Model

The Scout Association (1999b) defines leadership style as the exact way a leader goes about balancing the responsibilities of achieving the tasks, developing a group of people and meeting the needs of individuals i.e. undertaking ACL. As already noted, it draws on Hersey and Blanchard's account of SL in maintaining that a leader should adapt his/her leadership style to match the prevailing situation. This is in contrast to Adair's rejection of this notion and the assertion that the leaders should work to change the situation.

Hersey and Blanchard (1977, 1993) claim that the SL model aims to give leaders a degree of understanding of the relationship between effective leadership styles and the levels of maturity of followers. Whilst recognising that variations in situations are important, the focus in situational theory is the interaction of the leader with followers.

Followers are important in all situations:

not only because individually they accept or reject the leader, but because they actually determine whatever personal power the leader may have (1977p.161, 1993 p.185)

Thus unlike Adair, Hersey and Blanchard put more emphasis on the agency of followers. They emphasise that the leader / follower relationship is not hierarchical as superior and subordinate. Consequently the use of terms such as leader and follower should read as potential leader and potential follower. The theory, according to Hersey and Blanchard, should therefore apply irrespective of whom you are trying to influence whether it be an employee, your boss, an associate, friend or a relative.

Hersey and Blanchard give recognition to the agency of followers by recognising follower willingness or readiness to comply with the leaders' intentions (and hence

more often than not organisational objectives). The agency is not recognised in terms of the follower independently helping to drive outcomes. Followers are still regarded as subordinates in this sense. Hersey and Blanchard (1993) describe SL as a model not a theory. Whereas theories attempt to explain why things happen, unlike models, they do not set out to repeat events through learning. For, as far as SL is concerned:

Its concepts, procedures, actions and outcomes are based on tested methodologies that are practical and easy to apply. (p.185).

Northouse (2004) agrees that practicality is one of the strengths of the model:

SL is easy to understand, intuitively sensible and easily applied to a variety of settings.(p.92)

This could explain its take up in leadership training programmes. Hersey and Blanchard (1993) point to its usage in the training programmes of 400 of the 500 Fortune companies, its acceptance in all of the military services (USA) and very many entrepreneurial companies. Northouse (2004) claims this is evidence of SL standing the test of the market place and suggests that this can be attributed to the credibility of the model. Another attraction, according to Northouse, is the prescriptive nature of the model. It provides solutions, for example, once the leader has assessed the situation (follower readiness) the leader can adopt an appropriate leadership style to affect outcomes. This allows flexibility for the leader to meet the particular needs of individuals and groups in order to allow them to progress (Northouse, 2004).

But what are the main elements of the SL model? A key concept of SL is that of readiness of followers:

...the extent to which a follower has the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task. (Hersey and Blanchard, 1993 p.189)

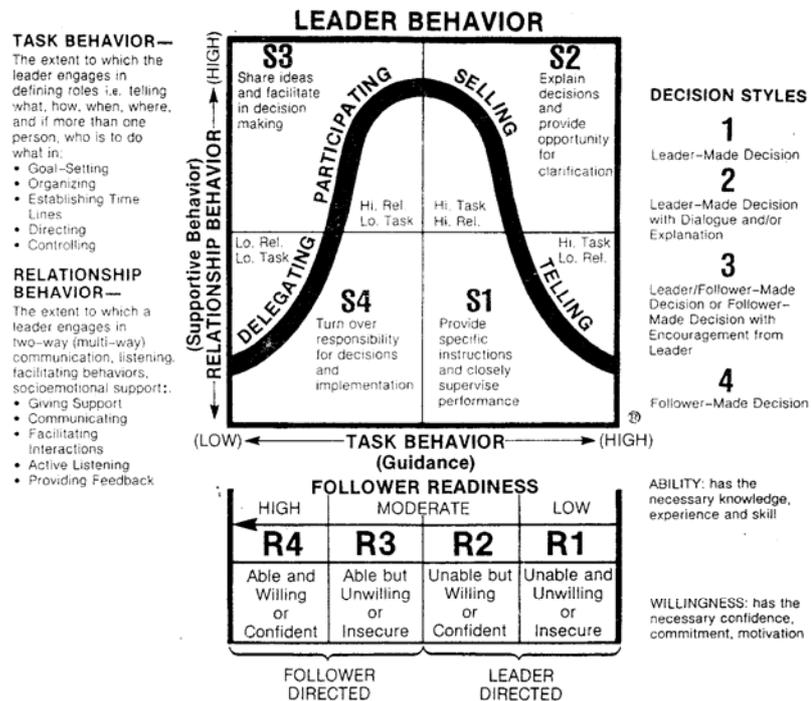
Readiness is dependent on the particular task to be undertaken and not a condition of individuals or groups of people. Therefore readiness may change considerably from

task to task. The level of readiness for a particular situation needs to be assessed by the leader for individuals within a group and for the group as a whole. Hersey and Blanchard envisage a continuum of readiness that can be divided into four levels reflecting a different combination of willingness or confidence and ability. These are summarised diagrammatically in Figure 3 .04

Hersey and Blanchard maintain that it is possible to match a leadership style to the readiness of a follower or group (see Figure3.04). They define leadership style as:

the behaviour pattern that a person exhibits when attempting to influence the activities of others as perceived by others. (1993 pp128-9)

Figure 3.04: Hersey and Blanchard's Expanded Situational Leadership Model



When a Leader Behavior is used appropriately with its corresponding level of readiness, it is termed a High Probability Match. The following are descriptors that can be useful when using Situational Leadership for specific applications:

- | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|
| S1
Telling
Guiding
Directing
Establishing | S2
Selling
Explaining
Clarifying
Persuading | S3
Participating
Encouraging
Collaborating
Committing | S4
Delegating
Observing
Monitoring
Fulfilling |
|--|--|--|--|

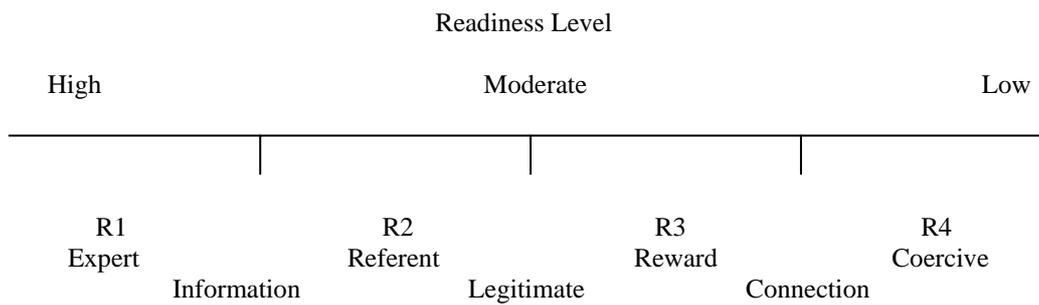
(Hersey and Blanchard, 1993 p.197)

Task behaviour concerns the degree of organisation provided by the leader for the follower. Relationship behaviour concerns the degree to which personal relationships are held between the leader and the follower(s). Thus, for example, the follower(s) or a group at readiness level 1 (unable and unwilling or insecure) there needs to be a high degree of guidance as captured in words such as telling or guiding, directing and structuring (S1). There is little leader support with this style. Task behaviour is high and relationship behaviour is low. Followers and groups at readiness level 2 (unable and willing or confident), the best style is selling (S2 - also described as explaining, persuading, or clarifying). Task behaviour is high because of their inability. Relationship behaviour is high since it is important to capitalise on their motivation and commitment. Here the leader provides the guidance but also provides opportunity for discussion, clarification and support, but does not include the opportunity to question why; only when, where and who. The reason provided for the exclusion of why is that: "efforts to explain why bridge both task and relationship behaviors". (p193). Yet in the next sentence it is claimed that the difference between telling and selling is the explanation of why!

Hersey and Blanchard (1993) regard leadership as influencing others and that influence is brought about through power. This they define as:

influence potential - the resource that enables a leader to gain compliance or commitment from others. (p.220)

What is important is not so much how much power a leader has but the how much power followers perceive a leader to have. They contend that the readiness of the follower(s) determines the style of leadership most likely to bring about success and the power base that the leader should use (see figure 3.05). An appropriate leadership style may not bring success if the power base utilised by the leader is inappropriate.

Figure 3.05: The Power Bases And Levels of Readiness

(Hersey and Blanchard, 1993 p.235)

What are the limitations of the SL model? Northouse (2004) identifies several:

1. The lack of published research to justify its assumptions propositions and effectiveness relative to other models. This is in spite of its use in leader training programmes.
2. There is a lack of clarity as to exactly how commitment (willingness) and competence (ability) relate with one another to form the four levels of development (readiness) and what their relative weightings are.
3. It is not clear as to how followers move from one level to another.
4. Clarification is needed as to how ability and willingness combine to produce commitment. For instance, why should commitment be reduced once someone learns a task?
5. There is a question as to whether less directive styles of leadership are actually more effective with more mature and experienced followers as the model suggests.
6. The model does not account for the influence of education, experience, age and gender affect the match of leadership styles.
7. There is no explanation as to how the variation in the state of readiness within a group should be addressed. The model assumes uniformity within a group.

These suggest that the model is highly theoretical and has not stood up to, and not been evaluated against, the test of leadership in practice.

3.6 The Scout Association and the Situational Leadership Model

How does the Scout Association interpret SL? The Scout Association (1988a, 1999c) recognises that leadership style should vary with leader, circumstance and time. It justifies this in terms of groups and individuals behaving differently and tasks differing. This involves leaders working out and using the most appropriate style for the people, circumstance and point in time. It does not distinguish between leader task behaviour and relationship behaviour. Further, reference is not made of the importance of followers' perception of leader behaviour. It describes the four levels of readiness and explains that people's behaviour varies with their knowledge, experience and self-perception. No reference is made to the security component of readiness. It describes how readiness can be improved by enhancing ability through providing opportunities for experience and the giving of knowledge and skills and how motivation can be improved through encouragement and motivation. It describes each of the four leadership styles but does not attempt to match the state of readiness to the leadership style. Neither does it make any reference to the use of appropriate power bases by the leader. The leadership styles are described in Figure 3.06.

The Scout Association recognises that the style could change with an individual or a group since they may appear to regress and encourages sensitivity and adaptation of style to match the situation. It, however, encourages the use of the delegating style wherever possible.

Figure 3.06: The Scout Association's Situational Leadership Styles

telling (directive) - the leader gives specific step by step instructions, and keeps close supervision while those instructions are followed out.

selling (persuading) - the leader continues to give specific instructions, but also explains reasons, invites suggestions and supports progress;

sharing (consulting) - the leader actively encourages members to give suggestions and try them out, and shares many responsibilities with them.

delegating - the leader passes the responsibility for problem-solving and decision making to members, even if keeping a monitoring watching brief.

(The Scout Association, 1988a p.1. 1999c p.1)

The apparent omissions made by the Scout Association in its description of situational leadership could be explained in terms of the brevity of its publications that are issued as handouts or trainers notes on leader training courses. The need for easily digestible material accessible to people from a variety of backgrounds could account for the lack of reference to some of the important concepts on which SL is based and so should not have occurred. Similar comments could be made of the Scout Association's interpretation of ACL. Nevertheless, it is important to recognise that the accounts provided in the Association's publications could inform leaders' views of leadership and so given the aims of this study recognition of the omissions is important irrespective of the reason(s) they may have been made.

Some differences, however, exist in the Scout Association description of the styles and Hersey and Blanchards' (1993) description. For the selling style, the Scout Association emphasises provision of reasons for instructions. Hersey and Blanchard are not clear whether this is a feature of the style. The Scout Association also puts emphasis on the invitation of suggestions in the selling and sharing styles whereas Hersey and Blanchard refer to the opportunity for dialogue (selling) and two-way communication (participating). This is perhaps reflected in the Scout Association's renaming of the

participating style as sharing. Again this could be consistent with Bastleer (1996) view that VSO have searched for management styles that are often more concerned with distributed leadership and Gann's view of ethical management with its greater emphasis on personal growth. The Association's encouragement of the use of the delegating style may fit in with this interpretation. It mentions that tasks that others can do better and those that help others should be delegated (The Scout Association, 1990e). However, it also stipulates that matters of policy, matters exception to normal policy, non-routine matters and matters requiring a status should not be delegated. It would appear that the distribution of leadership does not include policy decision making.

The marriage of the ACL model with situational leadership by the Scout Association looks ideal. It has already been noted that the Scout Association sees situational leadership as explaining *how* the balance is achieved between the needs of the task, group and individual - although the *how* is not entirely clear. But is it really possible for a leader to adjust leadership style to match the readiness of a less than homogeneous group of individuals and thus help to meet their individual needs? As already noted Adair has used this as an argument for the leadership of small groups of people so that individuals have the opportunity of contributing to meeting the needs of the group and individuals. Indeed, in reviewing a more recent functional leadership model i.e. the Team Leadership Model, Northouse (2004) describes how this shifts the focus from the "position power" (p.222) of a leader so that any team member can assess the situation and perform any of the important leadership functions. This is consistent with a current movement in organisations towards more distributed leadership. It is not clear who makes the decision as to whether an individual can

contribute in this way. But leaders in the Scout Association often deal with large groups. How relevant therefore are these models in large group situations? This sort of question begins to ask whether the models and their marriage are born out of idealism rather than what actually happens or is possible. Hence questions about the origins of knowledge about leadership begin to be asked.

Alvesson and Wilmott (1996) help us to understand how such questions can be asked. They point to the assumption that there is a justifiable difference between managers and those managed. The superiority of managers in the social division is validated in terms of intellect, education and / or because it serves an organisational purpose. This is a political situation that remains unquestioned in management training (Alvesson and Wilmott ,1996). The result is that employee commitment and productivity can only be raised by focusing on technical means through the development of skills and competencies or a change in management culture. Alvesson and Wilmott (1996) claim that the prevalence of this approach in mainstream management theory represents the technical approach as objective and scientific and that it serves to reinforce the social division. The personal, social and ecological costs of this route are ignored but this is justified in terms of the contribution to that industry makes to the economy and these problems are the concern of the individual or the state (Alvesson and Wilmott 1966).

Of course, the Scout Association does not serve the same purpose as industry.

However, what we see are models of leadership developed to serve other organisations with different purposes without due consideration being given to their underlying assumptions and costs. It would be tempting to point to the balancing of individual needs with those of the task and the group in the ACL model to try to weaken this

argument. It needs, however, to be realised that these concerns centre on meeting individual needs in order to help them meet organisational aims through increased job satisfaction, commitment and morale.

And obviously an individual who feels frustrated and unhappy in a particular work environment will not make his maximum contribution to either the common task or to the life of the group. (Adair, 1973 p.9).

3.7 A Critique of the Scout Association's Preferred Models of Leadership

The Scout Association's preferred interpretations of leadership have two main shared characteristics. Firstly, they are imported with some modification direct from the private and public sectors excluding education. They are not accounts of leadership born of a first hand analysis of contemporary leadership in the organisation itself. Secondly, they are prescriptive nature. The how to do it handbook approach is evident. The assumption is that if the off the shelf models are adopted and pursued and that those charged with leadership will be able to facilitate the meeting of the objectives of the organisation. Although the models may be preferred by the Association for the very good pragmatic reasons already mentioned, it does mean that there are other interpretations of leadership that are not considered. This leaves the preferred interpretation of leadership wanting. Gunter and Ribbins (2003) help to identify other ways leadership is understood in their mapping of the field of educational leadership. They identified six interrelated typologies to help understand the dimensions, shapes and landscapes of the field, these are: producers, positions, provinces, practices, processes and perspectives. The third of these i.e. *provinces* can be used to identify the vacancies in the Scout Association's preferred interpretation of leadership. Provinces are:

claims to the truth regarding how power is conceptualised and engaged with (p.260).

and:

Knowledge provinces mean what is being asserted as constituting the truth underpinning the intention behind any leadership activity. (p.263).

They envisage a continuum of provinces. The stress and transparency of intention varies along the continuum. See Figure 3.07.

Figure 3.07: Knowledge Provinces in the Field of Educational Leadership

Conceptual:	Concerned with issues of ontology and epistemology, and with conceptual clarification.
Descriptive	Seeks to provide a factual report, often in some detail, of one or more aspects of factors, relating to leaders, leading and leadership.
Humanistic	Seeks to gather and theorise from the experiences and biographies of those who are leaders and managers and those who are managed and led.
Critical	Concerned to reveal and emancipate practitioners from injustice and oppression of established power structures.
Evaluative	Concerned to measure the impact of leadership and its effectiveness of micro, meso and macro levels of interaction.
Instrumental	Seeks to provide leaders and others with effective strategies and tactics to deliver organisational and system level goals.

(Gunter and Ribbins, 2003 p.262)

Those towards the conceptual end focus on comprehending leadership activity whilst those towards the instrumental end focus on the nature of leadership activity at the expense of understanding it. Further work on the typology by Gunter (2005) helps to deepen the understanding of the significance of this by developing an explanation of the shortcomings of the Scout Association's preferred leadership models. Figure 3.08 shows how the provinces have been classified into four groups represented by the quadrants: understanding meanings, understanding experiences, working for change and delivering change. The quadrants are positioned on the vertical axis relative to the degree to which they involve thinking in abstract terms (activity) away from the day to

day exercise of leadership and the degree to which they involve thinking in the day to day exercise of leadership (actions). They are also positioned on the horizontal axis to reflect the degree to which challenge is provided to understanding and practice and the degree to which they are concerned with the provision of understanding and practice.

Figure 3.08: Knowledge and Knowing in Education

Activity			
Challenge	Understanding meanings	Understanding experiences	Provision
	Conceptual: challenging and developing understandings of ontology and epistemology. Descriptive: challenging and developing understandings of activity and actions.	Humanistic: gathering and using experiences to improve practice. Aesthetic: appreciating and using the arts to enhance practice.	
	Working for change	Delivering change	
	Critical: revealing injustice and emancipating those who experience injustice. Axiological: clarifying the values and value conflicts to support what is right.	Evaluative: measuring the impact of role incumbents on outcomes. Instrumental: providing strategies and tactics for effectiveness.	
Actions			

(Gunter, 2005 p.18)

Figure 3.09 shows the sorts of questions that could be asked in order to develop an understanding of the provinces and what is meant to be a leader, to lead and to provide leadership for each of the provinces.

Figure 3.09: Knowledge and Knowing in the Field of Educational Leadership

Activity			
Challenge	<p>Understanding meanings</p> <p>Conceptual:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❑ What does it mean to be and to do leaders, leading and leadership? <p>Descriptive:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❑ What do we see when we witness leaders, leading and leadership? 	<p>Understanding experiences</p> <p>Humanistic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❑ What experiences do those involved in educational organisations have of leaders, leading and leadership? <p>Aesthetic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❑ What can the arts do to illuminate the practice of leaders, leading and leadership? 	Provision
	<p>Working for change</p> <p>Critical:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❑ What happens when power is exercised as leaders, leading and leadership? <p>Axiological:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❑ What does it mean for leaders, leading and leadership to support what is right and good? 	<p>Delivering change</p> <p>Evaluative:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❑ What impact do leaders, leading and leadership have on organisational outcomes? <p>Instrumental:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❑ What type of leaders, leading and leadership are needed to secure organisational effectiveness? 	
Actions			

(Gunter, 2005 p.19)

The Scout Association's preferred interpretation falls within the instrumental province in the sense that the models are described, and to a large degree prescribed, as

alternatives are not provided to allow an examination of the understanding and assumptions that underlie them. Figure 3.03 shows how the Scout Association provides leaders with a checklist of strategies albeit in question form. Similarly, with situational leadership, leaders are encouraged to choose the most appropriate style given the people, circumstances and point in time. Other models and ways of understanding leadership as exemplified in figures 3.08 and 3.09 are not examined or mentioned. It does not, for example, set out to relate the number of training awards with particular leadership activities (the evaluative province). It does not set out to look at the opportunities for women to progress through its ranks (the critical province) or how they exercise leadership. It does not look for patterns from the stories provided by those who experience the leadership of district teams (the humanistic province). It does seek to provide an account of the adoption of a particular leadership style (the descriptive province). Finally, it does not seek ask what is meant by leadership (conceptual province). It is possible that leaders will bring with them the same or similar instrumental models from their employment in the private and public sectors only to have them reinforced by the Scout Association. The omission of other perspectives of leadership is possibly ironic since it could be argued that Baden-Powell, as we have seen in Smith (2002b), also had elements of a critical mission in his conception of Scouting. The emphasis of the preferred models is at the instrumental end of leadership according to the typology. The preferred models focus on leadership activity rather than understanding it. The emphasis is on actions rather than activity and provision rather than challenge.

The Scout Association preferred interpretation therefore has a focus on the nature of the leadership activity at the likely expense of understanding it using the sorts of

questions pertinent to the other provinces. Gunter (2005) helps to develop this with her conceptualisation of leading teachers who are not driven to meeting organisation goals. Like the interpretations of leadership that fall in the instrumental and evaluative provinces, the ACL and situation leadership models are organisational in that leadership:

... is defined as the activity and actions that leaders in their role take in order to meet organisational goals. (Gunter, 2005 p.29)

These models are not about provision rather than challenge by leading learning. Indeed, there are no direct references to learning in either of the leadership models. Given that the Scout Association has educational aims this appears odd. To be about leading learning the models would need to encourage the questioning of what is learnt, where, when, how and why? To do so would involve role incumbents being encouraged to question the organisational aims that might bring about change to require leaders to ask important philosophical and psychological questions and involve them more in decision and policy making.

The review has shown that the Scout Association's preferred models of leadership are concerned with how to perform leadership rather than understand it. It is not argued that any of the provinces are more important or valuable than the others. The important point as far as the Scout Association's preference of particular models of leadership is concerned is that there is an imbalance and that it is inadvertently denying a more comprehensive understanding of leadership and so gives the preferred understanding of leadership an incomplete status.

3.8 Leadership in the Scout Association: A Participant Observer's View

The Scout Association's interpretation of leadership is in effect an account of how it believes leadership should be understood. It does not necessarily reflect what leaders believe in practice. This is the focus of research questions one, two and three. Indeed this review has shown that very little has been written concerning first hand experience of leadership in the Association. Grimshaw (1978), however, provides some insight. His research falls between Gunter's and Ribbins' (2003) descriptive and humanistic provinces. In a case study of one Scout Troop (consisting, then of boys aged 11-16) using participant observation and interviews as the main data collection tools, he examined the cultural significance of the youth programmes of the Scout Association in the U.K. He showed how the Scout Association's curricular system was implemented in this particular situation. The maintenance of authority in the Scout Troop was made possible by recourse to:

... a structured informal culture of masculinity largely held in common by adults and boys... (p.320)

The informal culture put emphasis on peer association. Grimshaw found that the leanings to the informal culture were to an extent linked with certain leadership styles. Latitudinarian, liberal, fraternalist, traditionalist and were the main styles identified. See figure 3.10. It is important to note that the styles were identified from the analysis of the ways eight adult leaders dealt with the Scouts deviating from the implicit and explicit expectations made of them. It should be remembered that the leadership styles refer to the leadership of male adolescents by adults.

Grimshaw suggests that the differences in leadership style could correspond with the sort of direct investment of personal expressiveness.

Thus for example we may regard the liberal-minded as setting greater store, in personal relations, upon openness, receptiveness and tolerance, while the disciplinarian seem to value control strength control and power. (p.264)

Figure 3.10: The Main Characteristics of Grimshaw's Leadership Styles

Leadership Style	Main Characteristics
Conservative or traditionalist	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❑ Unwillingness to compromise authoritative position ❑ Chief concern is maintenance of law and order and traditional values e.g. thriftiness and cleanliness. ❑ No recognition of an informal youth culture to explain wrong doings
Latitudinarian	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❑ Control devices match evolving situation ❑ Not overtly disciplinarian ❑ Blind eye turned ❑ use of impositions to enhance rather than diminish perpetrators ❑ Tolerates a range of opinions and degrees of informal autonomy
Liberal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❑ Does not engage in public control ❑ Disinclination to correct individuals ❑ Concerned with benevolence and sympathy rather than assertion of discipline or skill training ❑ Bases approach on theoretical background
Fraternalist	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❑ Does not engage in public control or authoritarianism ❑ Main providers of comfort ❑ Emphasis on amity, work and boy culture ❑ Authority only used when context reasonably permitted it ❑ Realise that a boys had the power to make or break leaders. ❑ Has no theoretical background to approach

He suggests that in some ways the outlooks of leaders reflected either an acceptance of the positive experiences or rejection of the negative experiences of the leadership they had been subjected to as Scouts themselves.

One of the limitations of Grimshaw's account is that there does not appear to a discernible theory to explain the leadership styles other than the generalised inferred influences of their own experience of Scouting as young people, their upbringing, schooling, work experiences and career development.

To what extent do Grimshaw's findings relate to the ACL and SL models preferred by the Scout Association? Certainly there is no reference either as a result of the observation or the interview analysis to either model. But then these may not have been part of Grimshaw's agenda. It would be tempting to suggest that the traditionalist could be emphasising the meeting of the needs of the task in the ACL model, with the liberals emphasising the needs of individuals and the fraternalists having an eye on both the needs of the group and the individual. Similarly it could be said that the traditionalist use the selling SL style, fraternalists the selling style and the liberals the sharing style. Such an interpretation would be tentative and would require further investigation including a re-analysis of the primary data.

3.9 Main Findings

The chapter has been concerned with identifying what is known about leadership in the voluntary sector and the Scout Association since this could have a bearing on the origins of the knowledge and understanding of leadership and influence individual leader interpretation of leadership. The chapter, therefore, helps to address research questions one, two, three and five.

There is evidence that there is an approach that is consistent with the altruistic aims and values of VSO. This is described as more democratic, empowering and distributed

forms of leadership and is distinct from approaches found in the public and private sectors. Closer examination, however, shows that this has many of the characteristics of transformational leadership.

Interpretations of leadership in VSO put emphasis on the agency of the designated leader in their positivist understanding of the phenomenon. Alternative interpretivist perspectives of leadership in VSO put forward by Kay (1996) see it as a social interaction of meanings and influences between the designated leaders and followers putting more emphasis on the agency of the latter. Further research needs to be done to explore this stance. Importantly, all the interpretations of leadership reviewed apply at organisational and senior levels. It has been found that scant attention has been paid to individual interpretation or group interpretations of leadership by voluntary sector leaders. This could prove valuable in addressing the criticism that there is a lack of clarity as to exactly how the values of an organisation affect leadership.

The Scout Association asserts that its appointed leaders must have qualities consistent with working with young people and the organisational aims and values. It acknowledges militaristic influences in the interpretation of leadership and sees leadership from a functional perspective through its adoption and adaptation of Adair's action centred leadership model. Adair justifies the model since it allows for recognition that leaders can be trained. The reason for the adoption of the model is partly pragmatic. The adoption and adaptation of the situational model of leadership is seen by the Scout Association as the means by which the needs of the task, group and individuals are balanced in the exercise of the ACL model. The adaptation of both models by the Scout Association results in differences in interpretation. Not least of

this is greater recognition that the appointed leaders do not always have to lead, the greater emphasis put on the sharing of leadership and greater recognition of the agency followers. It is maintained that this is in tune with the organisation's values.

The models and their adaptations have been shown to have potential shortcomings. Amongst these is the insufficient emphasis put on the agency of followers. The models are not about leading learning. The models are instrumental and other ways of understanding leadership as described in Gunter's and Ribbins's typology and Gunter's development of this are ignored. The Scout Association's preferred models of leadership have been developed from military and business settings and are not derived from what happens in practice. Very little work has been published in this area. Grimshaw's case study provides us with some insight. However, more work needs to be done on this and hence represents an important justification for this thesis. The present research explores the extent to which the interpretations of the leadership models discussed permeate practitioner understanding of leadership and the degree to which shortcomings are recognised and evident in leader understanding of leadership.

3.10 Link to Chapter Four

The next chapter looks at the influence of another potential source of knowledge and understanding of leadership. It examines the nature and impact of training and development and questions the links with individual and organisational performance.

CHAPTER FOUR: TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

4.0 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with exploring the nature of the leader training offered by the voluntary sector and the Scout Association. It traces the development of training and examines some of the underlying assumptions relating to the causal and organisational relationships between training and leader performance. As such it relates specifically to research questions one, three and four since it is concerned with how leadership understood, where the understanding is derived from, and what the particular influence of training is. Use is made of the Gunter and Ribbins (2003) and Gunter (2005) typology in setting the training in a broader context of the field of educational leadership. The chapter draws from the works of the Association of Chief Executives of Voluntary Organisations (ACEVO), the National Council for Voluntary Organisations (NCVO), the National Youth Agency (NYA), the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) and the Scout Association.

4.1 Leader Training and Development in the Voluntary Sector

There is evidence and consensus that voluntary sector takes the view "that leadership skills can be developed and honed" (ACEVO, 2003 p.10).

... the weight - and consistency - of expert opinion is that leadership skills do make a difference , both to the performance of the individual and the organisation. And that leadership qualities can be developed in an objective, measurable manner. (ACEVO, 2003 p.23)

The Association of Chief Executives of Voluntary Organisations (ACEVO) therefore calls for a commitment to leader training and development. It asserts that voluntary sector is not short of people with leadership potential. It does not, however, provide evidence for this claim. The ACEVO argues that it is poor at developing this potential.

The ACEVO believes that there is a consensus that everyone has the potential to be leaders. It claims that some will always be better at the job than others; however, the ACEVO believes leadership skills are innate and can be developed. The provision of appropriate leader training and development opportunities is seen as essential to the future of the sector. A culture that lends itself to leadership development is needed (ACEVO 2003). The commitment to training to help meet organisational needs is echoed by the NCVO (2003b, 2003c). The NCVO (2003c) highlights the perceived benefit to organisations that training has in making staff more proficient at their job and advocates training as a means for closing the skills gap that exists in the voluntary sector's paid workforce. The belief in a causal link between training and performance is clear.

4.2 Leader Training and Development in the Scout Association

There is little doubt that the Scout Association believes that leader training has an important impact on adult leader and organisational performance. This is seen in a trend of increased compulsion for leaders to participate in and complete training or demonstrate competence as a result of training over time. Butters and Newell (1978) noted that initially only the early stages of training were compulsory whilst the more demanding later stages were optional. They observe that only a minority of leaders went on to complete the later stages. By 1989 section leaders, group scout leaders and commissioners were obliged to complete all of the available stages (initial, basic and advanced). Assistant section leaders only had to complete the first two. After 1989 all leaders, including assistants and commissioners, had to complete all stages of the training appropriate to their appointment (Halkyard, 2004).¹ From 2004 all leaders and

¹ Robert Halkyard Programme and Development Manager The Scout Association

commissioners are obliged to complete at least 5 hours per year of ongoing learning after the completion of the required formal stages of leader training (Davidson et al 2003). This compulsion is supported by rules that make it clear that appointments should cease if the training requirements have not been met. This applies even though the organisation suffers from a lack of volunteer adult leaders. Rogers (2006) maintains that the introduction of the modular approach to the formal training since 2004, accreditation and validation of prior learning can reduce the amount of compulsion. Rogers (2006), however, explains the trends in terms of:

- wanting to produce a better quality product for young people,
- the increased accountability that all youth services are being subjected to by parents, local authorities and the courts;
- reducing the cost of insurance and protection from litigation.

The significance of meeting the formal training requirements is made tangible with the award of the wood badge worn as part of the adult uniform. Again, as with the voluntary sector the link between training and leader performance is assumed and implied, but not evidenced. Indeed Rogers (2003c) confirms that the Association does not have any studies on the effectiveness of its training. An article in the Association's magazine (Harvey and Brownless, 2006) is illustrative of this assumption. The article is introduced as being about how the new adult training scheme has been a success in an area of the U.K. However, it focuses on the matching of training to individual needs and the recruitment, organisation and development of training staff. There is no mention of the effectiveness of the training.

The nature of Scout Association training up until 1989 meant that participants attended courses and completed written studies at home. A revised pattern was introduced in 1989. Leaders were obliged to complete initial, introductory, leadership one and leadership two courses. Again in practice this meant participants attended courses, but this time they were obliged to complete projects that gave them the opportunity to put into practice what they had learnt on the courses. As with the pre-1989 pattern participants had to attend each of the components of each of the stages.

The change in 1989 came for group scout leaders and commissioners who were introduced to a modular style of training that recognised and credited prior learning. Their training needs were identified from a job description an interview with a participant's line manager. There was no requirement to provide tangible evidence of learning or experience. The modular training was delivered as a result of attendance on training courses (The Scout Association, 1989).

Prior to 2004 attendance on courses was the main criteria for the completion of the training. There was no formal assessment, although there was feedback from personal training advisers, from the project reports and from completion of the in-service period that followed the last formal stage of the training. Further, with the exception of the scheme for group scout leaders and commissioners there was little emphasis on the meeting of individual needs. From 2004 modular training was introduced for all leaders and commissioners. This recognises prior learning and experience and makes available different methods of module delivery (other than formal training courses, e.g. distance learning methods). Validation was introduced to provide evidence of the accredited and planned learning. There is greater emphasis on meeting the needs of

the individual and that of the appointment captured in the personal training plan worked out between the participant and a training adviser based on the job description. The plan specifies what training modules need to be completed, what learning methods are to be employed and how the modules will be validated (Davidson et al 2003). Thus we see a shift towards attempting to meet individual training needs as defined by Scout Association and the provision of more tangible evidence for meeting training module learning objectives. This is further evidence of the belief that there is a direct link between the training and leader and organisational performance. The belief is captured in the following quotations:

Emphasis over the last few years has been firmly on the learning that is achieved rather than the training that is delivered. In the last year or so the emphasis has moved firmly to what is actually done with the learning to the benefit of the individual or the organisation.

The impact of this focus is not to change training itself but to change what you measure as a result. Less emphasis is therefore being placed on the end of course "happy sheet" and more placed on seeing the learning put into practice.

The process is Training - Learning- Action and if the last is not achieved it can be argued that both training and the learning have been a waste of time and resources.

(The Scout Association, 2002c p.1)

However, in spite of this emphasis, an examination of the content of the leader training shows that there is very little emphasis in terms of time allocation and weighting given to an interpretation of leadership itself. Most of the topics, not surprisingly, are very much related to the Scout Association's aim and method and growth. For example, in the section leader training scheme delivered between 1989 and 2003 topics included principles of Scouting, the needs and characteristics of young people, planning, practical skills, safety, decision making in the organisation, the training schemes for the youth membership, administration, history of the movement, international

Scouting, training and integration. An analysis of the sessions (The Scout Association 1988b,c,d,e, 1989) to determine which are related to an interpretation of leadership showed:

- In initial training. One session dealt with the jobs of an adult leader in Scouting and the main skills and characteristics of such adult leaders. There was a total of nine sessions.
- Introductory training. One session dealing with observing the work of other leaders. There was a total of twenty-two sessions.
- Leadership one training. One session examined the ACL model and one session looking at group dynamics and development. There were a total of eighteen sessions.
- Leadership two training. One session on leadership styles (situational leadership). There were a total of a fifteen sessions.
- The modular training scheme for group scout leaders and commissioners for the same period had one of its 13 modules specifically dealing with leadership (covering the ACL and situational leadership models) and one looking at working with people (group dynamics and development communication and counselling). The remaining modules covered the principles of the association, supporting leaders, safety, administration, training adults, links with the community, communicating with the public, developing and extending Scouting, and personal training.

An analysis of the training introduced from 2004 shows that the topics covered for section leaders, group scout leaders and commissioners are very much the same as in

the previous scheme with the inclusion of assessing learning and trainer training modules for those with an appropriate role or appointment. Two modules are specifically related to an interpretation of leadership: a module on the skills of leadership (in essence covering the ACL and situational leadership models in all but name) and a module on managing adults that examines the Adults in Scouting model. This is a model covering the appointment, review of appointment and support and training for adults. The second module also covers motivation, dealing with conflicts, chairing meetings and delegation (Halkyard et al 2003).

Although the term is not used in the Scout Association material, the Association has moved to adopt a competence-based form of training. The absence of the term could be because of the negative employment related images it could conjure in volunteers. The Scout Association has followed the path taken by other parts of the youth sector.

4.3 Competency Training and the Youth Sector

A Department of Education and Science (DES, 1991) report by HMI on innovative training of part-time youth workers in three local authority youth services, which included provision for volunteers, describes a competency-based approach that includes recognition of prior learning and appraisal related to the competencies and the development of a portfolio of evidence. A personal training adviser who is also supervised supports each trainee and much of the training is delivered through work experience and formal courses. Ofsted (1998) also looked at part-time and voluntary youth work training in 25 Local Education Authorities and voluntary organisations (including the Scout Association). It describes the training as generally competency

based and comprising of a taught element, on-the-job training and the compilation of a portfolio of evidence. The components are regularly supervised. It notes:

All components aim to develop the skills, understanding, knowledge and attitudes necessary to carry out effective youth work within the parameters of the many and varied job descriptions (Ofsted, 1998 p.5).

The reason it cites for the competency approach is that it permits the identification and collection of evidence:

...which will be measured against predetermined set of skills, applicable to their particular job and underpinned by a body of knowledge. (Ofsted, 1998 p.5)

There is, however, evidence that there were real concerns over the introduction of a competence based approach. The Education and Training Standards Sub-Committee of the National Youth Agency (NYA) established a working group to define the distinctive elements which form the core of all youth and community work training (NYA, 1993). It describes a portfolio-based approach to training one which is:

...person centred, starts and builds from a trainee's existing strengths, is well supported, competence based, empowering, demonstrable in practice, self directed, relevant to the practice of the particular trainees, and flexible in offering a choice and variety of learning opportunities and methods.

Fundamental to the approach was the need for a clear definition of organisational requirements for competent performance, that is a statement of competence.

Competence statements gave trainees a clear and shared understanding of what was required of them, seeking to facilitate them taking more control over the learning process, shaping and tailoring it to fit with their needs, learning styles and personal circumstances. A personal training adviser offered support and guidance throughout the process and specifically helping to negotiate the tension between the organisations' requirements and the needs of the individual trainee.

(NYA, 1993 p.5)

The report acknowledges that the competence-based vocational training was employer led and supported by the government aiming to improve economic performance. It

recognises that within community and youth training the emphasis was on the process of learning and training rather than economic performance and deems it to be good practice. It does, however, recognise the following dangers:

- The narrow functional, reductionist and mechanistic nature of competence definition
- The over-emphasis on outcomes and assessment
- the potential for disproportionate centralised power of employers over the definition of competence
- the shift from education, training and support to assessment
- the lack of concern with process and with values

(NYA, 1993 p.6)

The concerns, in essence, are about a competency-based approach that is too closely related to measurable organisational performance as defined by employers. This is at the expense of wider educational concern such as understanding underlying processes and values. The working group maintains that the concerns over the approach led to an increased resolve to define and agree the core elements of competencies of youth and community work. It therefore identified and recommended five essential elements of the educational purpose of youth and community work as: informal education process, collective action, autonomy of individuals and groups, change and development, justice and inequality. These and their values had to run through and fuse the elements of functional competence: safety, management, education, communication, analysis, self-analysis, planning and evaluation, knowledge base, interaction with groups and individuals. The main focus of youth and community work training is seen as helping trainees in making this synthesis.

4.4 Training in a Wider Context

A province was defined in chapter 3 as "what is being asserted as constituting the truth underpinning the intention behind any leadership activity" (Gunter and Ribbins, 2003

p.263), the competency based training described is very much in tune with the purposes of the instrumental and evaluative provinces. The interpretation of leadership development by the Scout Association and youth service generally described thus far is very much focused on the development of skills at the expense of understanding broader aspects of leadership as exemplified by the Gunter and Ribbins (2003) typology. Hence leadership development does not include, for instance, an examination of the meaning of leadership, learning from the experiences of others, analysing leadership in action, questioning the exercise of power in leadership and the moral issues associated with this. BurrIDGE and Haydon (1993) illustrate this in recognising the narrow remit of training on behalf of the NCVO:

Training usually describes activities designed to enable people learn to do something, or improve their skills at something.

Education is about people becoming effective learners and responsible citizens. An activity is educational when it is valuable in itself, illuminates other activities, expands people' experience and understanding, and is seen as worthwhile by those involved. Education is broader than training, but may include training.

(BurrIDGE and Haydon, 1993 p.2)

The Scout Association and the youth service both appear to provide little opportunity to examine what leadership means. Rarely is leadership referred to in the publications on youth work training reviewed for this research. The National Occupational Standards for Youth Work (National Training Organisation, 2002) do not mention leaders, leadership or any such derivative. The use of the words training and competencies is consistent with this and as such has much to do with fitting in with organisational aims. Perhaps this could explain the reduced emphasis on academic study? Training is one of the five positions that Gunter and Ribbins (2003) identify that knowledge workers can inhabit.

Training is a position where there is no direct association with the explicit ideology and the model of pedagogy is facilitation. Learners as knowers are given the opportunities to display their knowledge rather than have knowledge transmitted to them. Nevertheless, the learning process is highly structured and controlled by the facilitator. (Gunter and Ribbins, 2003 p.268)

This interpretation is consistent with the ideas pertaining to competencies. The reason why there is leader training rather than leader education may be because of the acceptance of the unquestioned assumptions that leadership training directly impacts positively on performance. This is apparent in the review thus far. We have seen that the Scout Association has little evidence to support a belief in a link between training and performance. Furthermore, there is little discussion of the magnitude of any assumed impact. This also applies to the youth service. The DES (1991) report refers to the high quality of training and learning but does not comment on the application of learning and any effect on outcomes. Ofsted (1998) refers to standards of achievement and quality of teaching. The closest reference to the impact of training is in the comments of the work experience component of the training where it reports that there was:

... evidence of new skills emerging and students keen to try out new ideas, curriculum materials and activities (p.10).

This assumption is unquestioned and in most part unsupported by the research knowledge base. The research that is referred to by the ACEVO (2003) apparently draws on the quality of opinions on the impact of training rather than establishing any direct causal relationships and their strengths. Any link between training and organisational performance must be complex. It would be helpful for it to be demonstrated that the training has had an impact on leaders' knowledge and understanding of leadership and for it to be shown that such a demonstrable impact has

affected leader behaviour in such away that it has had an effect on the performance of the organisation.

Muijs et al (2006) also note the lack of evidence to support the view that leadership development in general or of a particular type directly results in improvements in organisational performance. Assertions that such a link exists often occurs because leadership development is a feature of successful organisational change even though causation is not established. Indeed, although Muijs et al's (2006) own findings suggested a relationship between leadership development and leadership behaviour in the learning and skills (further education) sector. They assert that causality was not proven. Their findings merely point to the possibility that leadership development could affect leadership behaviour and hence organisational performance. They did, however, find that respondents' views of leadership were related to the type of leadership development experienced. Experiential development (such as coaching and mentoring) was associated with transformational leadership (presumably because of the individualized consideration). Course based development (including traditional courses, seminars and INSET programmes) was associated with distributed leadership. Individual based leadership development (such on line distance learning) was associated with transactional leadership.

For as long as the assumption that there is a link between training and performance remains unquestioned it is inevitable that leader training will aim to equip participants with the knowledge and understanding to affect organisational performance and so will be instrumental by its very nature. This provides the justification for the emphasis,

time and money spent on it whereas leader education involving understanding leadership from other perspectives would not.

Joyce and Showers (1988) are unique in making it clear that the link between learning and training is an assumption but nevertheless advocate coaching as important means of improving schools:

Second is the assumption that student learning can be greatly increased through human resource programs. While an important reason for staff development is to benefit the personnel themselves, organization invest in comprehensive programs to develop skills and knowledge of their personnel to enable that organization to reach its objectives. (Joyce and Showers, 1988 p.3. original emphasis).

Coaching is a means of supporting the process of reviewing working or changing practice, concentrating on innovation, change and/or specific skill development (SFE, 2005). It usually involves the coached and coach establishing and understanding the learner's goals, active listening, observing and explaining practice, shared planning of learning, teaching or leadership and a consequential review and analysis of the implemented learning experiences (Centre for the Use of Research and Evidence in Education, 2006). There is, therefore, a large element of interpersonal support involved in coaching. There is evidence that more traditional forms of training have less of an effect on performance. For example, Sugrue (2002) found that teachers agreed that provision of professional learning was more successful in imparting cognitive knowledge than impacting positively on competence and skills. Further, it was found that much of the provision, although provided by colleagues as knowledge, in practice contained more of the negative features of knowledge for practice (provided by experts, not teachers) where they are talked at. Further, where they were more actively involved as participants, the absence of support back at school meant

that learning was not sustained as it did not have context related feedback. The point is that coaching would provide such support.

More recently, in the U.K., there has been an increased awareness of the value of coaching in schools as a means of raising pupil attainment by using it as a vehicle for continued professional development for teachers. The Centre for the Use of Research and Evidence in Education (CUREE) has produced a national framework for Mentoring and Coaching for the Department for Education and Science (CUREE, 2006). Coaching was launched as part of its Secondary School Strategy for school improvement. It is integrated into its view of a new teacher professionalism (DfES, 2006). Teachers are expected to show that they have benefited from the process in order to go through the lower pay thresholds. They have to have provided coaching in order to go through the upper pay threshold levels. Excellent (formerly Advanced Skills) teacher status requires similar criteria to be met. The recent emphasis provided by the DfES on coaching needs to be treated with some caution. The case studies the DfES provides (see, for example, Teachernet, 2007) often concentrates on the implementation of coaching. The link between it and improved performance is not directly attributable to the use of coaching. The influence of other factors cannot be eliminated to establish causation.

In a sense the Scout Association has encouraged something that resembles coaching in the form of the designation of someone who works closely with each leader to act as a personal training adviser or more recently a training adviser. There is no available evidence to say how effective these have been and training advisers have only been in existence since 2004 with the introduction of the revised leader training scheme. My

own impression that the personal training advisers was that often only existed in name, their roles were not understood by themselves or the leaders and that their work was severely limited by demands on their time. Further, and perhaps moreover, more emphasis was put on the completion of the formal non-experiential aspects of the training. A description of the job of a training adviser, however, shows that it falls short of that of a coach not least since it is not specifically related to a review of observed practice.

A Training Adviser performs a number of tasks. You will:

- meet learners joining the Adult Training Scheme and explain it to them.
- help each learner put together a Personal Learning Plan
- provide support to the learner as required
- review their progress with them on a regular basis
- decide what modules they have satisfactorily completed
- recommend the award of the Wood Badge to the Training Manager

(The Scout Association, 2003 p.2)

I would suggest that coaching could go some way to extend the perspectives by which leadership is understood. It could provide the opportunity for participants to become involved in real professional dialogue and perhaps become more effective learners by enlightening and expanding experience and understanding. As such, it is closer to the definition of education provided Burrige and Haydon (1993).

4.5 Main Findings

This chapter has explored the nature of adult leader training in the voluntary sector and the Scout Association as a part of it. It helps to facilitate an understanding of how training might impact on individual understanding of leadership. It has particular relevance for research questions three, four and five.

There are many differences between the voluntary sector in general and the Scout Association. These are mainly due to the more closely defined purposes of the Scout Association. Yet there is much in common between leader training and development in the voluntary sector in general and in the Scout Association. There is a belief, which is not clearly substantiated, that training makes a difference. Indeed it is not known whether trainees accept the perpetrated models let alone rely on them in their subsequent practice. Hence the importance of the fourth research question. Different interpretations of leadership receive little prominence. The main approaches are instrumental in perspective i.e. how to do it, since this fits in with the assumption that training makes a difference. Little credit is given to the agency of followers in influencing outcomes. In the adoption of competence based approaches we see an emphasis shift towards meeting organisational aims. There is an unquestioned assumption that there are links between leader training and leader and organisational performance. It is not clear whether non-experiential means of training such as courses have an effect on performance. There is, however, reason to believe that coaching could be one of the most effective means of human resource development for improving individual and consequently organisational performance. The unquestioned assumption means that there is less opportunity for exploration of leadership from other perspectives as described in the Gunter and Ribbins (2003) typology. The narrowness of the approach means that we cannot talk about leader education in the sense that Burrige and Haydon (1993) interpret education. Coaching, however, could provide an opportunity for the narrow remit of training to be widened and move closer to leader education. Whilst it will be argued that this it is only to be expected that an organisation should primarily be concerned with its own purposes, an inward looking

approach cannot be entirely healthy for the organisation and must result in lost opportunities to learn from other perspectives.

4.6. Link to Chapter Five

Following the review of the literature, the appropriateness of the research questions was considered. It was decided that these remained pertinent and should remain unchanged. Chapter 5 examines the research design and tool. Justification is made for a methodology and methods that explore the findings identified in the previous chapters. Specifically 1) the identification of the main sources of knowledge and understanding of leadership by adult leaders in the Scout Association 2) the nature of this knowledge and understanding 3) determination of any differences of this interpretation between different groups of leaders 4) whether this interpretation gives weight to the Scout Association's interpretation of its preferred models of leadership 5) whether the interpretation has affinity with transformational leadership 6) whether the agency of followers is recognised and 7) the extent to which Gunter's and Ribbins' mapped interpretations of leadership are recognised.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH DESIGN

5.0 Introduction

The chapter is concerned with the justification of a case study methodology including a questionnaire research method. It explains the content and design of the research tool. The nature of the population and how it was accessed and sampled is described. Issues such as the role of the researcher, ethics, reliability, validity, authenticity and generalisability are addressed.

Cohen et al (2000) argue that research design should be determined "by the notion of fitness for purpose" and that there can be no single blue print. The determining factor should be the purpose of the research (p.73).

... the methods and strategies employed in a research programme should always be dictated by the nature of the problem and the kind of data sought. (Verma and Mallick, 1999 p.74)

Ribbins (undated) and Robson (1993) also support the view that methodologies and methods should meet the needs of the research in question. This chapter is concerned with providing a justification of a research methodology and method that informs a coherent, consistent and practical design that sits easily with the purpose of the research.

5.1 Ontological and Epistemological Considerations

The aim and research questions are essentially concerned with discovery. They recognise that knowledge and understanding of reality (in this instance how leadership is understood) is largely subjective and can be found in the interpretations made by individuals made by their experiences and that they are free to develop their views.

The research therefore has foundations in an interpretivist ontology and epistemology (where reality and truth are subject to individual interpretation) using the logic of induction with a leaning towards a qualitative methodology. It is however, recognised that there may be features of social reality that are both independent and dependent on individuals and that both interpretivist and positivist paradigms can sit comfortably together (Pring, 2000). This is a recognition that there is often consensus on what “actually happened” between observers of and participants in social events.

The positivist element of the research reflects my view that there is a degree of consensus as to what is true and real. This view of reality is not fixed but is shared by many. This is my position. It is a post-positivist stance that rejects the central positivist belief of a fixed reality. We can only strive, via research, to get closer to a conditional sense of reality (Trochim, 2004). It nevertheless exists and can be recorded using quantitative tools, for example, questionnaires that lend themselves to quantification. Here language is not treated "as a more or less agreed symbolic system..." (Bassey, 1999 p.43). Further it is believed that the outcomes of research can lead to a form of generalisation. See section 5.3.

Wallace and Poulson (2003) describe five categories of research: knowledge for understanding, knowledge for critical evaluation, knowledge for action instrumentalism and reflexive action. This research sets out to develop, through curiosity, an understanding of where an understanding of leadership is sourced and what the nature of that understanding is in order to inform improvement in practice. It therefore falls within the knowledge-for-understanding category. Gunter (2002),

Gunter & Ribbins (2002), Ribbins & Gunter (2002) also help to contextualise the research.

In their work on the mapping of leadership studies in education, Gunter (2002), Gunter & Ribbins (2002), Ribbins & Gunter (2002) analyse the use and production of knowledge on the basis of a typology detailing knowledge producers, knowledge provinces (formerly domains), knowledge practice and knowledge processes. Building on this work Gunter (2003) identifies six knowledge provinces within a continuum: conceptual, descriptive, critical, humanistic, evaluative and instrumental). The research lies mainly in the descriptive province in that it:

Seeks to provide a factual report, often in some detail, of one or more aspects of, or factors, relating to leaders, leading and leadership. (p.262).

5.2 Methodological Validity

Methodological validity is the extent to which the data collection methods identify with what they are intended to. The starting point for this will be a statement in the research on reflexivity: how my personal “selectivity, perception, background and inductive processes and paradigms shape the research” (Cohen et al, 2000 p.141). This has been monitored throughout the research in order to help me, as researcher and others to identify bias. My position as a researcher and how this might affect it has already been described in chapter 1.

5.3 Methodology

Verma and Mallick (1999) identify three broad categories of research methodologies. The historical approach is concerned with understanding the present in the light of

what is known about the past, the descriptive approach is about understanding the present.¹ Descriptive studies in fact embrace many approaches including the experimental approach but since it involves the deliberate manipulation of variables in an attempt determine links between cause(s) and effect(s) it deserves its own category.

Verma and Malik (1999) note that descriptive studies are concerned about obtaining facts and opinions about the current condition of things. "The discovery of meaning is the focus of the whole process" (p.78). This research adopts a descriptive approach. Several main research styles are identified as descriptive categories by Verma and Malik (1999). These include case studies, ethnographic studies, action research and experiments.

The research questions are concerned with comprehending the contemporary understanding of designated leaders' views on leadership and the informing of those views. The experimental approach therefore can be deemed inappropriate. The questions do not for instance relate to the effect of the deliberate introduction of a particular form of training (a variable) on leaders' views of leadership using a similar control group not exposed to the training for comparison. Denscombe (1998) identifies ethical concerns with the experimental approach regarding the use of people as guinea pigs and the creation of advantage and disadvantage and concerns about establishing identical control and non-control groups, however, a further point is particularly pertinent to my research. We are talking about perspectives on leadership that have developed over a period of time and are likely to be the product of many interacting variables. An experimental approach could not retrospectively identify and

¹ Verma and Mallick note a historical perspective may be key to defining and understanding a problem leading to a descriptive study.

manipulate each of these. There may well be an historical dimension to the research questions. Verma and Mallick (1999 p.74) summarise the approach as "viewing today retrospectively". Some information may not be obtained by any other means. Since the research is concerned with discovering what and how adult leaders currently know and understand about leadership, this approach can be rejected.

An ethnographic style of research usually involves the researcher living and working with the subjects in order to get a greater understanding of their culture and ways of life either to examine or develop theory. It may involve the researcher progressively focusing on areas of emerging interest. A continuum of researcher roles exists from 1) a covert participant through to 2) an overt participant to 3) a covert observer. The two extremes in particular raise ethical issues surrounding the right of the subjects to know that they are being researched and what the nature of the research is. Whilst the approach could produce first hand deep, meaningful and new insights of context bound situations, there are of course real practical issues. How can a participant observer pretend to be a leader? What will be the effect of the researcher's presence on the leaders' behaviour? The researcher will need to be with the leaders for a long time for their views on leadership to be revealed. Moreover the account that is produced can be accused of being subjective for the researcher does not reproduce the situation in his/her account as a replica, rather he/she *constructs* it as he/she sees it (Denscombe, 1998). We also need to consider again the issue of representation. The time commitment means that only one researcher can study a single or a small number of groups. The ethnographic style of research, is therefore, rejected.

Action research would involve an examination of the effects of an intervention carried out either by myself as a researcher or by someone else to provide a solution to a practical problem (Denscombe, 1998). The research questions are not concerned with intervention and so it follows that action research is not an appropriate methodology. It might be if, for instance, the research questions were concerned with the effectiveness of a particular leadership styles. Instead, the focus is on peoples' perspectives on what informs their current understanding of leadership.

Bell et al (1984) offer a definition of a case study as” a systematic investigation of a specific instance “(p.74).”Case study is an umbrella term for the family of research methods having a focus on enquiry about a particular instance” (p.94). The opportunity is provided for the researcher to search beneath superficial data to obtain in depth knowledge and understanding of complex relationships, experiences and processes in their own context "to dig below the taken for granted" (Edwards and Talbot, 1999 p.10). Cohen et al (2000) refer to the case study providing the rare opportunity for investigation of "real people in real situations" (p.181) enabling people to see theory in practice and appreciate how abstract ideas and principles relate to one another. Yin puts an emphasis on instance:

... a case study inquiry may be defined as a technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points.
(Yin, 1999 p.230)

The aim of the research clearly has a focus on a specific instance: in this case leaders in a voluntary organisation in particular position of power and in a particular geographical situation. It is about gaining an insight into the multiplicity of factors that are likely to inform their understanding of leadership. It is not about divorcing them from their situation. Bassey (1999) cites Yin (1994) by describing a case study as:

An empirical inquiry that:

- investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context especially when
- the boundaries between the phenomenon and the context are not clearly evident

(Bassey, 1999 p.26)

Cohen et al (2000) refers to Yin's classification of case studies. They can be exploratory to generate hypotheses for large-scale surveys or methodologies as well as descriptive (narrative) and explanatory (hypothesis testing). The first of these fits in with the purposes of the research, for Yin (1998) states:

Exploratory case studies. When the available literature or existing knowledge base is poor, offering no clues for conceptual frameworks or notable propositions, a new empirical study is likely to assume the characteristics of being an exploratory study. (Yin, 1998 p.236)

Since case study data are detailed, drawn from specific situation(s), and does not involve the use of a large sample, the findings cannot be generalised per se. This means that there is little external validity. But does the inability to generalise from a case study mean that it can have no wider application?

Yin believes that it can:

Even your single case can enable you to generalize to other cases that represent similar theoretical conditions. In fact, the classic single-case studies are classic in part because of their broad implications or generalizability - even though only single cases were the subjects of study. (Yin, 1998 p.239).

Bassey (1999) notes that scientific generalisation means that there can be no exceptions. But what of the social sciences that examine the interplay of many, often inseparable factors? Bassey argues that there are few generalisations to be made in the absolute scientific sense in education but it is possible to make a "fuzzy generalisation" (p.12) from a case study.

A fuzzy generalisation is:

... the kind of statement which makes no absolute claim to knowledge, but hedges its claim with uncertainties. It arises when the empirical finding of a piece of research, such as

In *this* case it *has been* found that ...
is turned into a qualified general statement like this:
In *some case* it *may be* found that ...

(Bassey, 1999 p.12 original emphases)

Bassey maintains that the fuzzy generalisation is a qualitative measure arising from studies of singularities that claim that it is possible, likely or unlikely that the same finding could be found in other similar situations. For Bassey, conclusions presented in this way, in recognising the complexity of educational settings, go some way to answering David Hargreaves's criticism of educational research that is often rarely replicated, inconclusive and of little practical help. Further this notion is entirely consistent with the post-positivist conditional shared reality, for Trochim (2004) argues that it is only through sharing, discussion, evaluating and criticising one another's work do we get closer to the truth through such scrutiny. The conversion and extent to which what has been found from a case study to what may be found in other instances is to a large degree dependent on the reader who must be properly informed to make the judgement (Denscombe, 1998). This is a perspective that Tellis (1997) also recognises and is one to which I subscribe not least since it may result in further work in the development of hypotheses.

An additional consideration in the choice of a case study approach is that it would not be as costly in terms of finance or time as alternative methodologies. There are, however, several limitations of the case study approach. There is the potential threat that the presence of the researcher could influence the reactions of those being researched. There is a danger that the data analysis could be prejudiced if the

researcher gets too close to the focus of the case study (Edwards, 1999). There are also ethical limitations and justification of the approach. See section 5.10. The researcher is aware of all the aforementioned limitations.

The use of a case study methodology is therefore justified because the focus of the study is a particular geographical instance, because it is about providing an insight into the understanding of leadership by real people in a real situation, because it allows for the generation of hypotheses and fuzzy generalisations and because of practical and ethical reasons.

5.4 The Case Study City

The case study city was chosen as the subject of the case study because the concentration of people in a large urban area will mean that there is the potential for the leaders to be drawn from a cross section of people with a variety of backgrounds and influences. In addition it provides a solution to practical problems such as access to participants and gatekeepers.

The area and boundaries of the Scout County¹ is largely the same as the municipal area and boundaries of the city forming the case study for this thesis. The Scout Association (2004) census returns records that there were 99 Scout Groups in the County's Scout Districts. The districts² covered wedge shaped areas expanding out from the city centre through inner city areas to the outer suburbs to its boundary. The total membership (youth membership, leadership and organisational support) for 2004

¹ This is a pseudonym for a Scout Association administrative and support area. A Scout County made up from a number of smaller support and administrative areas called districts.

² Up until September 2004 there were 10 Districts. Eight of these were wedge shaped.. These were amalgamated and reduced from 8 to 4 in January 2005.

is recorded as 5,389. This consists of 4,409 males and 980 females. The youth membership (aged 6-25) is recorded as 4,047 (3,616 males and 431 females). The total leadership membership is recorded as 1,075 (630 males and 445 females). However, the total warranted adult leadership recorded on the Scout County's database numbered 800. The total organisational support is recorded as 267 (163 males and 104 females). In terms of ethnicity the breakdown is provided for the total membership of the Scout County in Table 5.01.

Table 5.01 The Ethnic Composition of the Case Study

	Male%	Female%	Combined %
Asian	1.7	0.9	1.5
Black	1.6	0.8	1.5
Mixed	2.4	1.9	2.3
White	90.4	95.5	91.3
Other	4.0	0.9	3.4

This data is not broken down further to show the differences in ethnicity between the youth and leadership memberships. Information on social background and employment is not collected in the annual census made by the Scout Association.

5.5 The Research Method

A case study was established as an appropriate methodology in section 5.3. Attention now turns to justifying the research tool. Cohen et al (2000) identify eight instruments. Six of these can be dismissed immediately and briefly on the basis that they are too obtrusive and/or time consuming and so not conducive for use with a large population.

These include multi-dimensional measurement and role-playing. Accounts involve eliciting an explanation of an individual's behaviour in a particular event or episode by the researcher. This does not lend itself to use with very large numbers of people but can form an important aspect of interviewing. This can also be said of observation. Even though this method could yield rich data, the time expenditure and the privacy related ethical considerations renders this method inappropriate. Testing is not appropriate since the research is not concerned with measuring, diagnosis or identification of readiness or potential. They are also very obtrusive. Personal constructs and the use of repertory grids involve the researched to evaluate phenomena (elements) that relate to his or her world. Apart from concerns such as the reliability of comparison of elements in the grids (Cohen et al, 2000); their execution would be time consuming for a large population particular since the elements often need to be elicited from each individual. Further, group constructs are not justified by their underlying theory (Edwards and Talbot, 1999).

The questionnaire has a number of advantages outweighing the disadvantages and so justifying their use as the research tool. Tall (2000) describes the advantages of using a questionnaire as saving time in eliciting individual views from a large number of people, allowing for rapid analysis and feedback and encouraging objectivity in that questions were posed to individuals in an identical way and because they:

...are the only data method guaranteeing total confidentiality, even for the researcher, can be guaranteed. (p.5)

Munn and Drever (1990) also mention the efficient use of time, standardised questions (adding to reliability and validity) and anonymity as advantages of questionnaires.

Anonymity gives the questionnaire the advantage over the interview since it encourages more honest responses and hence tends to be more reliable (Cohen et al,

2000). The downside is the loss of the ability to clarify questions and responses and to explore them as provided in an interview. Further, the exclusive use of closed questionnaire items can result in a loss of authenticity or coverage (Cohen et al, 2000). However, this can be compensated for by the inclusion of open questions, which results in the retention of some of the depth of the responses and is in recognition of the limitations of closed questions and questionnaires in general (Cohen et al, 2000).

In support of this view, Tall (2000) recommends the inclusion of at least one open question pointing out that it gives the respondents the opportunity to say what they think. Together with well formulated questions (e.g. avoidance of leading questions), this will improve validity by providing less superficial responses, giving some control to the researched.

Further limitations of questionnaires need to be recognised. These include the inability to clarify responses, detect sarcastic responses and mistruth, their potentially unfriendly nature: lacking verbal and non-verbal interaction, the misinterpretation of questions and the dependence on the good memory of respondents (Tall, 2000).

Interviews do not have these shortfalls to the same degree. However, many of them can be countered as a result of thoughtful design, piloting and reducing the delay in administering questionnaires. Munn and Drever (1990) add superficiality of responses and the tendency for description rather than explanation to be elicited to the list of disadvantages. Even when respondents are asked to give reasons for their responses tend to lack depth.

However, further justification for the use of questionnaires comes from Denscombe (1998) who describes the circumstances when it is appropriate and productive to use

questionnaires as a research method i.e. when: there are large numbers involved; the data required is fairly straightforward; the social climate allows for full and honest responses; there is a need for standardised data; time allows for delays before responses are elicited; resources allow for costs, participants are expected to be able to read and make sense of the questions. Hopkins (1993) adds a further justification by pointing out that the quantifiable nature of certain questionnaire data allows direct comparison between groups and individuals. Such criteria are applicable to this research. Certainly given that questionnaires are more economical time wise than interviews and given that there is a need to get the widest possible views on the knowledge and understanding of leadership, the questionnaire is more preferable than the interview. Moreover, as Denscombe points out, the questionnaire lends itself to the collection of data in the form of facts and opinions. Since the research is interested in part in what designated leaders understand about leadership and the sources of their understanding this is consistent with the functions of questionnaires.

On balance, it is maintained that the advantages outweigh the disadvantages and that with the considered trade-off the questionnaire is an appropriate tool to pursue the research questions.

The case study approach involves making use of more than one source of data (Tellis, 1997; Denscombe, 1998). This is because of the ethical need to confirm the validity of the process (Tellis, 1997). This case study also draws on two other sources to compliment the empirical data provided by the questionnaire. The first is the considerable personal knowledge and understanding obtained and drawn upon from being a member of the Scout Association as a young person and having held a number

of adult leadership appointments from group to county levels over 38 years. Whilst the use of this can be criticised in terms of subjectivity, on the other hand it provides the advantage of providing insight that would not otherwise be provided. The second is the documentary evidence specific to the Scout Association that was searched for, accessed and analysed. Cohen et al (2000) point to the value of such secondary sources of evidence. Questions about authenticity and accuracy of documents arise. Cohen et al (2000) note that deliberate forgeries are less likely to occur in the field of education than that of other fields. The researcher has only used what is believed to be genuine and accurate documentary evidence. The sources have been referenced throughout the thesis.

5.6 Questionnaire Design: Links with Research Questions

An example of the questionnaire is to be found in Appendix 2. The questions are linked with the research questions as follows:

1. How do the adult role incumbents understand leadership?

- Questions 06.01-06.23.

The questions are designed to identify the degree of acceptance of 1) The Scout Association's preferred interpretations of leadership: action centred leadership and situational leadership 2) the agency of followers 3) distributed leadership 4) transformational leadership 5) the mapped interpretations of leadership in education as summarised and Gunter's (2005) typology 6) altruistic influences.

2. Is the understanding uniform amongst role incumbents?

- Questions 01,02,03,04,08,09,10,11,12,13

The purpose of these questions is to identify different groups of leaders in terms of hierarchical status, age range of young people leaders work with, length of service, completion of Scout Association leader training, gender, age, ethnicity, employment, education and leadership training other than that provided by the Scout Association.

3. *Who and/or what inform their knowledge and understanding?*

- Questions 05, 07

The questions are designed to identify the relative importance of various sources of knowledge and understanding of leadership and the contribution that Scout Association leader training has made to this.

4. How does training impact on their knowledge and understanding of leadership?

- Questions: 04, 06.24, 07

The progress with Scout Association leader training is identified and its impact on leadership are examined through these questions.

5. *How does the Scout Association's and its leaders' understanding compare with other ways of understanding leadership in education?*

Questions based on different interpretations of leadership discussed in the literature review are included to identify the degree of their acceptance by respondents.

- Action centred leadership: questions 6.03, 6.07, 6.09, and 6.19. Situational leadership: questions 6.04, 6.11, 6.13. The agency of followers: questions 06.02, 06.20. Distributed Leadership: question 06.18. The mapped interpretations of leadership in education as summarised and Gunter's 2005 typology questions 06.05, 06.06, 06.08, 06.10, 06.12, 06.14, 06.16, 06.21. Transformational Leadership: questions 06.01, 06.15, 06.17, and 06.22.

A more detailed question by question breakdown is given in Table 5.02. The bases of the questions are deliberately mixed up so that the respondents are less likely to be

influenced by associated questions that "lead respondents towards "inevitable answers" (Denscombe, 1998 p. 100) and so that they view them more independently of one another.

Table 5.02 The Bases of Items in Question Six

6.01 =	Transformational leadership (TF): inspirational motivation
6.02 =	Agency of followers
6.03 =	Action Centred Leadership (ACL)
6.04 =	Situational Leadership (SL)
6.05 =	Typology: Conceptual province
6.06 =	Typology:: Descriptive province
6.07 =	ACL
6.08 =	Typology: Aesthetic province
6.09 =	ACL
6.10 =	Typology: Critical province
6.11 =	SL
6.12 =	Typology: Axiological province / altruistic influence
6.13 =	SL
6.14 =	Typology: Evaluative province
6.15 =	TF idealised influence
6.16 =	Typology: Humanistic province
6.17 =	TF Individual consideration
6.18 =	Typology: Distributed Leadership (Gronn, 2002)
6.19 =	ACL
6.20 =	Agency of followers
6.21 =	Typology: Instrumental province
6.22 =	TF Intellectual consideration

5.7 Design of Questions: Types of Questions

An attempt has been made to use terms that are accessible to people from a broad cross-section of backgrounds. The questions are worded to avoid some of the pitfalls identified by Cohen et al (2000) i.e. questions that are leading, highbrow, complex, irritating, instructive, include negatives and double negatives, ambiguous. The advice provided by Denscombe (1998) on the wording of questions was taken into account in their formulation e.g. the age of the target group, not using technical jargon, the need to avoid ambiguity, using questions that are about themselves and not others, keeping

questions short and straight forward. Respondents were asked to identify the most appropriate word rather than handle numbers to avoid confusion in translation. Wherever possible (and particularly in section six) the same style of question is used throughout (apart from the open question) to avoid the possibility of confusion (but increasing the possibility of boredom). The advice provided by Denscombe (1998) to put the most straightforward and least contentious questions first is adopted. Hence questions about respondents' Scouting background come first and more personal questions are located at the end. Thus the "common sequence" described by Cohen et al (2000 p.257) to start with unthreatening factual questions, to go on to closed questions and to move on to more open questions and those asking for personal data is used.

In terms of layout, consideration was given to spacing to make it easy to read. The layout was kept as simple as possible: avoiding tabulation and clutter. The questions were printed on one side to make use and processing easier and consideration was given to provide clear instructions as to how to complete questions.

Cohen et al (2000) maintain that often larger sample sizes result in more structured closed and numerical questionnaires. Apart from enabling comparison between groups of respondents, practical considerations make it impossible and unnecessary to manage large amounts of word-based information within a short time scale. Given the sample size of 400 (50% of the total population) the questionnaire is highly structured.

Questions 1-6, 8-9, 11-13 are closed questions forcing the respondent to choose two or more predetermined answers. All but question 6 are questions aimed at providing factual rather than opinion or attitude based information on the respondents'

background and so facilitate the identification and quantification of different groups of respondents. The factual nature of the information required avoids the problem of closed questions i.e. that of respondents becoming annoyed at not being able to:

...express their views fully in a way that accounts for any sophistication , intricacy or even inconsistencies in their views.
(Denscombe, 1998 p.101)

These questions are about:

1. Warranted Appointment (Qu. 01). The group, district and county responses reflect a hierarchy of appointments.
2. Sectional Appointments (Qu. 02). The available responses reflect the age ranges the leaders work with or whether they are primarily involved with working with other leaders (non-sectional appointment).
3. Length of Service (Qu 03). The length of service responses are based on warrant review periods of 5 years. Someone with more than 10 year's service will have had two warrant reviews.
4. About Scout Association Leader Training (Qu 04) identifies the progress made with the compulsory Scout Association leader training programme.
5. Sources of Knowledge & Understanding (Qu. 05) asks respondents to identify the three most influential sources of knowledge and understanding.

They also include the following questions. These are of a more personal nature in the 'About You' section. This section was placed toward the end of the questionnaire since placement earlier on might have been a deterrent to participation.

6. Gender (Qu. 08).
7. Age (Qu 09). The categories are three broad ranges based on what was then the age range for warranted service.

8. Work (Qu 11). The categories were developed from the eight categories from the occupation classification from the U.K. Government National Statistics website.
9. Education (Qu.12). The available responses reflect the period of compulsory schooling, non-degree and degree based further education.
10. Leadership Training (Qu. 13). The responses for this question identify those who have or have not completed any leader training not provided by the Scout Association. It also aims to identify the provider and when any training was undertaken.

The question on ethnicity (Qu10) allowed for respondents to use a term they wanted to describe themselves thus avoiding any offence that might be made if the categories were reduced to a smaller number to make Chi-square viable from those provided by the U.K. Census 2001.

Question 07 'For the Future' is an open question. It follows from the justification and advice referred to earlier provided by Tall (2000) the inclusion of an open question.

The inclusion of an open questions component tempers the positivism towards an interpretivist perspective and addresses some of the criticisms of questionnaires noted earlier. The question is worded to identify the influence the Scout Association's interpretation of leadership has had on respondents' understanding and as such provides a check against questions based on this interpretation in question in section six. The rider question also performs this function but also is intended to form practice: a characteristic of the EdD as a professional doctorate.

The bulk of the questionnaire is the twenty-four items in question six. These form an attitude scale. Edwards and Talbot (1999 p.87) define an attitude scale as:

... a list of statements to which we ask people to respond by showing the extent to which they agree or disagree.

They cite the following advantages of attitude scales not discussed so far in the context of questionnaires: attitudes sometimes indicate how people will behave; they allow the researcher to go below the surface of issues (and hence provide a degree of depth of data) and yet keep data numerical. However, they note that they are context bound and so are not constant indicators of behaviour. As a form of closed questioning, as we have already noted, they may frustrate respondents by denying them the opportunity to express their views in the ways they want to. Cohen et al (2000), however, agree with the first advantage but maintain that respondents are reluctant to use the extremes of the scale and cautions that it cannot be assumed that there are equal intervals between the categories. Nevertheless they point out that attitude scales are powerful and useful having widespread use since:

They combine the opportunity for a flexible response with the ability to determine frequencies, correlations, and other forms of quantitative analysis. They afford the researcher the freedom to fuse measurement with opinion quantity and quality. (p.253)

Six categories are used in the scale in order to encourage the greatest possible differentiation. The questions are worded to ascertain respondent practice as a reflection of their understanding of leadership, their perception of their impact of leadership on the quality of Scouting and the impact of leader training. The disagreement end of scale is positioned on the left on left so to reduce the tendency to agree. The use of an even number of points on the scale is designed to avoid the possible overuse of the mid-point (Denscombe, 1998).

5.8 Administration, Sample Size and Sampling

The questionnaire was designed to be self-administered. As Gorard (2001) suggests this reduces the researcher influence that a face-to face delivery could produce. This is a trade off against the disadvantages of not being able to preserve the order of questions and not being able to elaborate on the meaning of questions. Self-administration also permitted a large sample to be made to improve representation and validity.

Denscombe (1998) notes that cold postal questionnaires received by respondents without prior warning or contact with the researcher are known to suffer from poor response rates. Thus the distance between researcher and respondents in turn threatens the validity of the findings. Denscombe maintains that the nature of the topic and the length of the questionnaire determine the response rate and that any social researcher will be lucky to get 20% of the questionnaires returned. Such an approach is therefore used when there is a large mailing (as is the case with this research) so that a low response will provide sufficient numbers to make analysis viable (Denscombe, 1988). The minimum number of samples needed for validity is often stated as 30 (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995). Cohen et al (2000), however, refute that response rates for postal surveys are any less than those obtained through interview procedures. They also question whether shorter questionnaires necessarily result in better response rates. However, in order to encourage a greater return rate and thus improve validity, an attempt was made to reduce the distance between researcher and the respondents by mentioning the researcher's work with the Scout Association in the covering letter. In addition the importance of the research was emphasised together with the support of the County Commissioner. The letter and questionnaire also mentioned the provision

of volunteer inclusion in a prize draw for a gift token as an "appropriate type of incentive" (Cohen et al, 2000 p.263) and by means of thanking respondents for their time and efforts. See the covering letter in Appendix 1 and the questionnaire in Appendix 2.

The sample size was 400. This was 50% of the total population of 800 leaders holding warrants¹ in the Scout County. Since it is a heterogeneous population a large sample was necessary (Cohen et al, 2000). Cohen et al (2000) note that a sample size of 30 is taken by many as a minimum for statistical analysis. They record that for total populations of 500 and 1000 for a sampling error of 5% with a confidence level of 95% the size of samples need to be 217 and 278 respectively. Clearly a sample size of 400 out of 800 meets this criterion and is regarded as representative. It is recognised that this does not take into account the response rate. A sample larger than 800 was deemed to be too expensive to administer. Data protection concerns meant that direct access to the database of leaders' personal details was denied. Envelopes containing the questionnaire, covering letter and stamped addressed envelope were delivered to the Scout County office for its staff to add the address labels, post and bill the postage. The questionnaires were posted during the second week of January 2005. The anonymity of the sample and cost considerations meant that it was not possible for non-respondents to be pursued. However, a request in the form of a general appeal for the completion and return of the questionnaires was made. The deadline for the return of the questionnaires was 31st March 2005.

¹ A warrant is a document denoting recognised leader status

A systematic sampling technique was used. This involved the Scout County office staff following my request to take the first 400 from the database that is organised alphabetically by surname. The alphabetical arrangement introduces an element of randomness and since the composition of the database was not known intentional bias should have been avoided. It however remains that the sample may result in various groups not being as proportionally represented as they are in the total population. A total of 150 of the 400 questionnaires were returned. This represents 37.5 % of the sample and 18.75 % of the total population.

5.9 Reliability and Validity

Reliability "is a necessary precondition of validity" (Cohen et al, 2000 p.105). It is concerned with maintaining precision, accuracy, consistency and replicability in the use of research tools so that they remain uninfluenced by the change in situation.

Validity is the extent to which data methods identify access the data they are designed to. Edwards and Talbot (1999) note that reliability in terms of consistency cannot always be a goal in social sciences since the researcher can not entirely control context and the way in which questions will be interpreted. Reliability in terms of getting the fullest richest and best picture of a complex situation should be the goal.

Certain aspects affecting reliability and validity have already been touched on. These include methodological validity, the use of standardised questions, the wording of questions, sampling and sample size and anonymity. The structured nature of the questionnaire adds to reliability since interviewees have essentially been asked the same questions, presented in the same order and in the same manner. The use of structured questionnaires will have permitted the involvement of respondents who cannot or are reluctant to respond at length. This will make the sample more

representative. But this will at the expense of losing an opportunity for participants to express their own individual perspective (Cohen et al, 2000 p, 121). This has been reduced by the inclusion of standard open questions as part of the repertoire.

The accurate and honest completion of the questionnaire is one of the threats to validity of postal questionnaires highlighted by Cohen et al (2000). This must be put into context. The anonymous nature of the questionnaire and the confidentiality of the data were emphasised in the covering letter. Respondents were encouraged to answer from their own experience and with their own opinions. Anonymity with questionnaires encourages greater honesty than in interviews but may leave dishonesty undiscovered since responses cannot be probed (Cohen et al, 2000). A second threat is the failure of those to respond since it is not known how those that did not respond might have responded. Mention has already been made to reduce this unknown quantity with methods designed to improve response rates. However, one of the strengths of the questionnaire could have had a negative influence on response rates since as noted earlier the very anonymous nature of the population has made it difficult to improve response rates by following up non-respondents. The inclusion of the opportunity for the respondent to volunteer to be interviewed in the questionnaire was a conscious decision to improve validity in the event of a poor response rate.

The practicality, reliability and validity of a questionnaire are increased through piloting (Cohen et al, 2000). Pilots therefore help to identify bias and iron out inconsistencies between purpose, interpretation and the wording of questions. The questionnaire was first piloted with a sample of six exclusive of the actual sample in August 2004. The six were chosen since they represented a cross section of appointments and experience in Scouting and because it was felt that they would

provide honest and frank feedback in the evaluation. (See the questionnaire in Appendix 2). Prior to the pilot feedback on the questionnaire was provided by a senior member of the Scout County leadership and University staff. The first pilot revealed original wording of question 4 was confusing. A second pilot undertaken with the same participants in October 2004 suggested that only minor amendments in wording were needed.

5.10 Ethical Considerations

These are based on the guidelines provided by the British Educational Research Association (2004). Ethically, the case study approach can be criticised for being an unjustified intrusion on the lives of people. The methodology is, however, ethically acceptable since with well-chosen methods it allows for confidentiality and anonymity to be maintained. This is underlined by not naming the case study city or Scout County. Further, the case study does not constitute the same sort of intrusion into peoples' lives as would an experimental or ethnographic approach would. Attention now turns to the research method. Some considerations have already been dealt with in the above discussion of validity and reliability. Questionnaires present an intrusion into the privacy of individuals. There were therefore ethical considerations relating to this in the form in the design and administration of the questionnaire. These included the need for respondents to be informed of the beneficial purpose and use of the research, a guarantee of respondent anonymity and confidentiality of responses and the right to opt out of all or part of the questionnaire. A lack of coercion was also a consideration. However, there was a need 'sell' the questionnaire to potential respondents based on its purpose and the importance of their views. Such considerations are evident in the covering letter (see Appendix 1). The decision to use

entry into a prize draw for volunteer respondents was made carefully such that this was seen as a means of saying thank you to respondents for their time and such that the small nature of prize should not make it a significant reason for the completion and return of the questionnaire with poor quality responses (see the questionnaire in Appendix 2).

Care was taken to avoid potentially sensitive or threatening questions since these could have offended individuals and resulted in them distorting responses. Leading questions for example were excluded.

As part of the process of negotiating with the Scout County for access to respondents and support for the research it was accepted that the ownership of the data and intellectual ownership of the findings would remain with the researcher, although these are made available to any interested individual.

5.11 Summary

A mixed design with a corresponding mixed underlying ontology and epistemology but with a bias towards an inductive approach has been argued to be appropriate for the research aims and questions. A case study methodology has been justified to permit access to the breadth and depth of data and a focus on the research questions for a particular instance. This may permit in fuzzy generalisations to be made which will be subject to reader interpretation. The use of a questionnaire research instrument has been justified; as have the use of documentary sources and personal experience. The design has been argued to have validity and reliability through addressing

considerations such as the anonymity, consistency in questioning, piloting, and sample size. The limitations of the methods have been recognised.

It has been argued that decisions affecting the research design have been made on the bases of fitness for purpose, appropriateness to task, informed consent and (the sometimes conflicting) maintenance of consistency and coherency. Trade off, involving a sacrifice of one principle for another have been justified in terms of pragmatism. Such is the complexity of the design process.

5.12 Link to Chapter Six

The next chapter deals with the representation, description and analysis of the data.

The statistical analysis includes factor analysis, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Chi-square tests. The analysis results in the presentation of findings appertaining to the research questions.

CHAPTER SIX: PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

6.0 Introduction

The chapter begins by looking at the backgrounds of respondents, comparing the primary data with that gained from 2005 census data to gauge how representative the sample is of the total population. The nature of the knowledge and understanding of leadership is explored through an analysis of the descriptive statistics. This is complimented by factor analysis: a statistical test to identify underlying beliefs from questionnaire responses (research question one). Analysis of variance (ANOVA) provides the means of showing whether any significant differences exist between the different categories of leaders in the nature of the knowledge and understanding of leadership identified via the factor analysis (research question two). The chapter then proceeds to explore the respondents' sources of knowledge and understanding of leadership. A Chi-square test establishes whether there a significant difference between the different sources. This is accompanied by a descriptive analysis (research question three). The impact of training on respondents' knowledge and understanding of leadership is explored through an analysis of descriptive statistics (research question four). Finally, with reference to the findings developed in the chapter there is a discussion of the relationship of respondents' knowledge and understanding of leadership with other ways of understanding leadership in education (research question five). The main findings are summarised at the end of the chapter.

6.1 A Profile of the Respondents: A Representative Sample?

The section is primarily concerned with examining how representative the sample is of the total population. A full summary of the returns for each question (number of valid

and missing responses, the mean, mode and standard deviation) is provided in Appendix 3.

It was argued in chapter five that a sample size of 50% (400) is representative of the total population. A total of 150 of the 400 questionnaires were returned. This represents 37.5 % of the sample and 18.75 % of the total population. Given that researchers are lucky to get a 20% return on a postal questionnaire (Denscombe, 1998), 37.5% is a good return. It however remains that the return sample may result in various groups not being as proportionally represented as they are in the total population. This is particularly relevant for research question two which asks whether there are differences in the knowledge and understanding of leadership between different groups or categories of leaders.

Table 6.01 provides a summary of the backgrounds of the 150 respondents. The percentages do not include non-responses. See Appendix 3 for details.

Table 6.01: A Profile of Respondents

Background	Percentage	Background	Percentage
Warranted Appointment		Section Appointment	
<i>Group</i>	74.7	<i>Beavers</i>	18.4
<i>District</i>	21.9	<i>Cubs</i>	34
<i>County</i>	3.4	<i>Scouts</i>	22.4
Length of Service		<i>Explorers</i>	10.2
<i><5 years</i>	19.5	<i>Network</i>	0
<i>5-10 years</i>	22.8	<i>Non-sectional</i>	15
<i>10 years+</i>	57.7	Completion of SA Leader Training	
Work		<i>None</i>	11.3

<i>Modern Professional</i>	38.9	<i>Undertaking</i>	18.7
<i>Manual, service, technical, craft, clerical</i>	26.2	<i>Completed</i>	70.0
<i>Snr, middle, jnr managers</i>	34.9	Non Scout Association Leader Training	
Education		<i>No other training</i>	40.4
<i>Fifth form / year 11</i>	21.9	<i>Employment training</i>	47.9
<i>Further Ed./Years 12/13</i>	41.8	<i>Leisure training</i>	7.5
<i>University</i>	36.3	<i>Military Training</i>	1.4
Age		<i>Provider not stated</i>	2.7
<i>18-35 years</i>	24.2	Gender	
<i>36-50 years</i>	38.3	<i>Male</i>	53.7
<i>51+ years</i>	37.6	<i>Female</i>	46.3

With respect to warranted appointments when compared with the 2005 census return for the case study Scout County, Scout Group respondents are under represented and Scout District and County are over represented (Group 94.9%, District 3.7% and County 1.6% of all warranted appointments). The responses from males and females are, however, in line with the County profile: males 54.9%, females 41.1%. Similar comparisons are not possible for Section Appointments, Length of Service, Completion of Leader Training, Age, Work and Education since such census data is not available. Nevertheless, the pattern of responses from leaders with different section appointments is consistent with the relative order of sizes of the sections. There appears to be a fairly even spread from respondents in the different employment groups. It is, therefore, only possible to say that the data collected is representative of the gender distribution of the total population.

Question 10 from the questionnaire asked respondents to state their ethnic origin provided a range of responses shown in Table 6.02. The table suggests that the

overwhelming number of respondents regarded themselves as white English / U.K. /British. This suggests that the overwhelming majority of respondents are indigenous white and so it was not possible to conduct an analysis on the basis of ethnicity.

Table 6.02: Respondents Interpretations of their Ethnicity

Ethnicity	No.	Ethnicity	No.
White British	53	White English Christian	1
British	20	Christian URC	1
English	16	Indian	1
White	13	Caucasian	1
White English	13	White Caucasian	1
White European	5	Member of Human Race	1
White U.K.	5	European English	1
C of E	3	No response	15

6.2 The Nature of the Knowledge and Understanding of Leadership

- A Descriptive Analysis

The section is concerned with how respondents understand leadership (research question one). It is based on the responses to the items in question 6 of the questionnaire (What You Know and Understand About Leadership). See Appendix 2. It looks at the total percentages of agreement / disagreement with the statements in question six, the strength of agreement and average item scores (see section 6.2e) before making a comparison of each. The data are valid percentages and do not include non-responses.

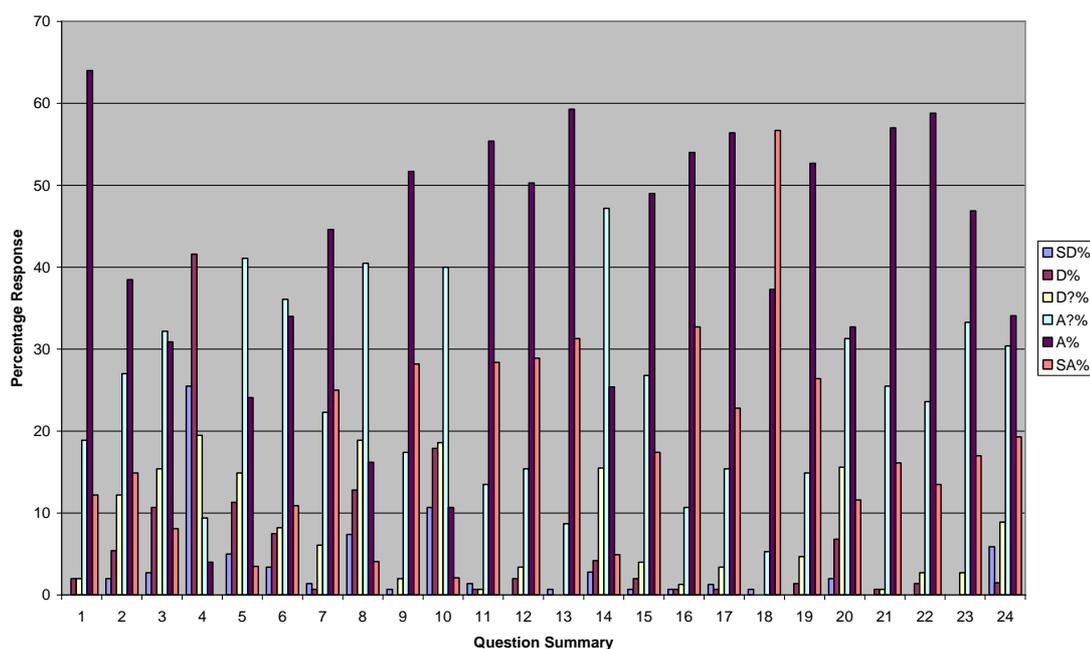
6.2a Total Percentage Agreement

Table 6.03 shows the percentage responses for each of the categories for questionnaire question 6. Respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement concerning their knowledge or understanding of leadership in respect of each item. It shows that there is a large degree of agreement between respondents for most of the statements. Only item 6.04 shows an overall total of less than 50% for the three points of agreement on the scale. This is shown graphically in Figure 6.01.

Table 6.03: Knowledge & Understanding of Leadership Percentage Responses

Qu. No.	Question Summary	SD%	D%	D?%	A?%	A%	SA%
6.01	Communicate Clear Ideas	0	2	2	18.9	64	12.2
6.02	Others Willing To Follow	2	5.4	12.2	27	38.5	14.9
6.03	Concerned Activities Go To Plan	2.7	10.7	15.4	32.2	30.9	8.1
6.04	One Way of Working	25.5	41.6	19.5	9.4	4	0
6.05	Question Practice of Leadership	5	11.3	14.9	41.1	24.1	3.5
6.06	Analyse Work of Others	3.4	7.5	8.2	36.1	34	10.9
6.07	Individuals Learn from Activities	1.4	0.7	6.1	22.3	44.6	25
6.08	Influence of Art, Music, Literature	7.4	12.8	18.9	40.5	16.2	4.1
6.09	Balance Needs	0.7	0	2	17.4	51.7	28.2
6.10	Work to Right Society's Injustices	10.7	17.9	18.6	40	10.7	2.1
6.11	Allow Willing & Able to Get On	1.4	0.7	0.7	13.5	55.4	28.4
6.12	Base Leadership on Right & Good	0	2	3.4	15.4	50.3	28.9
6.13	Help Unable & Willing	0.7	0	0	8.7	59.3	31.3
6.14	Quantify Success	2.8	4.2	15.5	47.2	25.4	4.9
6.15	Encourage People To Want to Work	0.7	2	4	26.8	49	17.4
6.16	Learn from Experiences	0.7	0.7	1.3	10.7	54	32.7
6.17	Let Individuals Know	1.3	0.7	3.4	15.4	56.4	22.8
6.18	Happy for Others to Take Lead	0.7	0	0	5.3	37.3	56.7
6.19	Ensure Group Works Harmoniously	0	1.4	4.7	14.9	52.7	26.4
6.20	Successful with Good Followers	2	6.8	15.6	31.3	32.7	11.6
6.21	Direction for Ensuring Aims of S.A.	0	0.7	0.7	25.5	57	16.1
6.22	Help Others to Solve Problems	0	1.4	2.7	23.6	58.8	13.5
6.23	Leadership Has Positive Effect	0	0	2.7	33.3	46.9	17
6.24	Better Leader from Leader Training	5.9	1.5	8.9	30.4	34.1	19.3

SD=Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, D? = Possibly Disagree, A? = Possibly Agree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree

Figure 6.01: Knowledge & Understanding of Leadership Percentage Responses

SD=Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, D? = Possibly Disagree, A? = Possibly Agree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree

This is confirmed by Tables 6.04 and 6.05 and Figures 6.02, 6.03, 6.04 and 6.05.

These show that there is a higher degree of agreement than disagreement with the items.

Table 6.04: Total Percentage Agreement From Collapsed Data

Qu. No.	Question Summary	A?%	A%	SA%	Total%
6.13	Help Unable & Willing	8.7	59.3	31.3	99.3
6.18	Happy for Others to Take Lead	5.3	37.3	56.7	99.3
6.21	Direction for Ensuring Aims of S.A.	25.5	57	16.1	98.6
6.16	Learn from Experiences	10.7	54	32.7	97.4
6.11	Allow Willing & Able to Get On	13.5	55.4	28.4	97.3
6.09	Balance Needs	17.4	51.7	28.2	97.3
6.23	Leadership Has Positive Effect	33.3	46.9	17	97.2
6.22	Help Others to Solve Problems	23.6	58.8	13.5	95.9
6.01	Communicate Clear Ideas	18.9	64	12.2	95.1
6.12	Base Leadership on Right & Good	15.4	50.3	28.9	94.6
6.17	Let Individuals Know	15.4	56.4	22.8	94.6
6.19	Ensure Group Works Harmoniously	14.9	52.7	26.4	94
6.15	Encourage People To Want to Work	26.8	49	17.4	93.2
6.07	Individuals Learn from Activities	22.3	44.6	25	91.9
6.24	Better Leader from Leader Training	30.4	34.1	19.3	83.8
6.06	Analyse Work of Others	36.1	34	10.9	81

6.02	Others Willing To Follow	27	38.5	14.9	80.4
6.14	Quantify Success	47.2	25.4	4.9	77.5
6.20	Successful with Good Followers	31.3	32.7	11.6	75.6
6.03	Concerned Activities Go To Plan	32.2	30.9	8.1	71.2
6.05	Question Practice of Leadership	41.1	24.1	3.5	68.7
6.08	Influence of Art, Music, Literature	40.5	16.2	4.1	60.8
6.10	Work to Right Society's Injustices	40	10.7	2.1	52.8
6.04	One Way of Working	9.4	4	0	13.4

A? = Possibly Agree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree

For example, Table 6.04 and Figure 6.02 show that if the percentages for the measures of agreement are totalled (collapsed) for each item, twenty of the twenty four items have a total percentage agreement of over 70%. This suggests that respondents have an affinity for most of the understandings of leadership in the questions.

Figure 6.02: Total Percentage Agreement From Collapsed Data

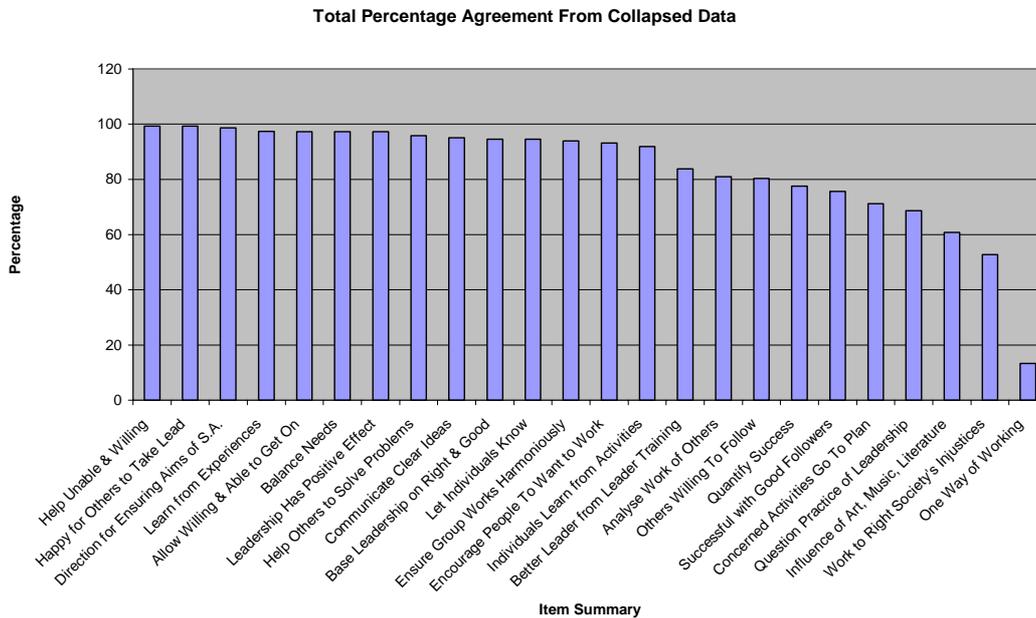


Table 6.04 and Figure 6.02 show the total percentage of agreement from collapsed data. The first 14 of the ranked questions have a similar percentage of agreement. Only after the fifteenth item 0624 'Better Leader from Leader Training', is there a steady

decline ending with an abruptly low level of agreement with 0604 'One Way of Working'. The five highest levels of agreement are for the following items:

0613 Help Unable and Willing (99.3%)

0618 Happy for Others to Take Lead (99.3%)

06.21 Direction for Ensuring the Aims of the Scout Association (98.6%)

06.16 Learn from Experiences (97.4%)

06.11 Allow for the Willing and Able to get On (97.3%)

This suggests that leaders believe that both leaders and followers have something to offer and learn in the process of leading in the context of the aims of the Association.

6.2b Total Percentage Disagreement

Table 6.05 and Figure 6.03 show that if the percentages for the measures of agreement are totalled (collapsed) for each item, that there are low levels of disagreement for all but one item (6.04).

Table 6.05: Total Percentage Disagreement From Collapsed Data

Qu. No.	Question Summary	SD%	D%	D?%	Total%
6.04	One Way of Working	25.5	41.6	19.5	86.6
6.10	Work to Right Society's Injustices	10.7	17.9	18.6	47.2
6.08	Influence of Art, Music, Literature	7.4	12.8	18.9	39.1
6.05	Question Practice of Leadership	5	11.3	14.9	31.2
6.03	Concerned Activities Go To Plan	2.7	10.7	15.4	28.8
6.20	Successful with Good Followers	2	6.8	15.6	24.4
6.14	Quantify Success	2.8	4.2	15.5	22.5
6.02	Others Willing To Follow	2	5.4	12.2	19.6
6.06	Analyse Work of Others	3.4	7.5	8.2	19.1
6.24	Better Leader from Leader Training	5.9	1.5	8.9	16.3
6.07	Individuals Learn from Activities	1.4	0.7	6.1	8.2
6.15	Encourage People To Want to Work	0.7	2	4	6.7
6.19	Ensure Group Works Harmoniously	0	1.4	4.7	6.1
6.12	Base Leadership on Right & Good	0	2	3.4	5.4
6.17	Let Individuals Know	1.3	0.7	3.4	5.4
6.22	Help Others to Solve Problems	0	1.4	2.7	4.1
6.01	Communicate Clear Ideas	0	2	2	4
6.11	Allow Willing & Able to Get On	1.4	0.7	0.7	2.8
6.09	Balance Needs	0.7	0	2	2.7
6.16	Learn from Experiences	0.7	0.7	1.3	2.7

6.23	Leadership Has Positive Effect	0	0	2.7	2.7
6.21	Direction for Ensuring Aims of S.A.	0	0.7	0.7	1.4
6.13	Help Unable & Willing	0.7	0	0	0.7
6.18	Happy for Others to Take Lead	0.7	0	0	0.7

SD=Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, D? = Possibly Disagree

Figure 6.03: Total Percentage Disagreement From Collapse Data

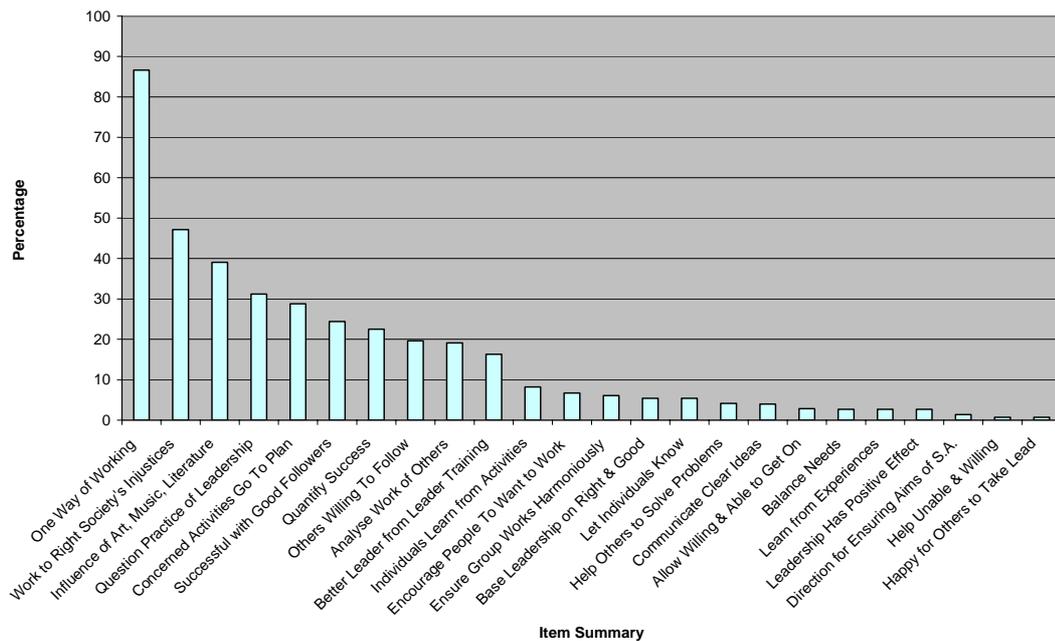


Table 6.05 and Figure 6.03 show that the highest ranked question (06.04 *I have one way of working with the people I lead*) has an outstandingly high total percentage of disagreement. The following questions show a gradual decline in level of disagreement interrupted by a relatively large fall following the tenth ranked question (06.24 *Better Leader from Leader Training*). The five questions with the highest levels of disagreement are:

06.04 One Way of Working (86.6%)

06.08 Influence of Art, Music, Literature (39.1%)

06.10 Work to Right Society's Injustices (47.2%)

06.05 Question Practice of Leadership (31.2%)

06.03 Concerned Activities Go to Plan (28.8%)

This suggests that a large proportion of leaders believe that they have more than one leadership style and do not believe that the arts or society's ills influence their understanding of leadership. It also indicates that they believe that they are flexible when it comes to the implementation of plans.

The measures of disagreement are, however, of diminished importance given that with the exception of item 0604 all other items have 50% or considerably more respondents showing varying degrees of agreement. See Table 6.05 and Figure 6.03.

6.2c Strength of Agreement

Given the lack of differentiation in the total levels of agreement it is worth examining the strength of agreement since this will reveal the degree of conviction with which the responses were made. In Figure 6.04 the items with the strongest levels of agreement are shown in decreasing percentage rank order. It shows that the items with the highest percentages for the strongest agreement are as follows:

06.18 Happy for Others to take the Lead (56.7%)

06.16 Learn from Experience (32.7%)

06.13 Help Unable & Willing (31.3%)

06.12 Base Leadership on Right & Good (28.9%)

06.11 Allow Willing & Able to Get On (28.4%)

6.09 Balance Needs (28.2%)

6.19 Ensure Group Works Harmoniously (26.4%)

This suggests that leaders believe that the leadership can be shared with followers, that they have something to learn from the leadership experience and that there are selfless reasons for their practice of leadership.

Figure 6.04: Strongly Agree Ranked

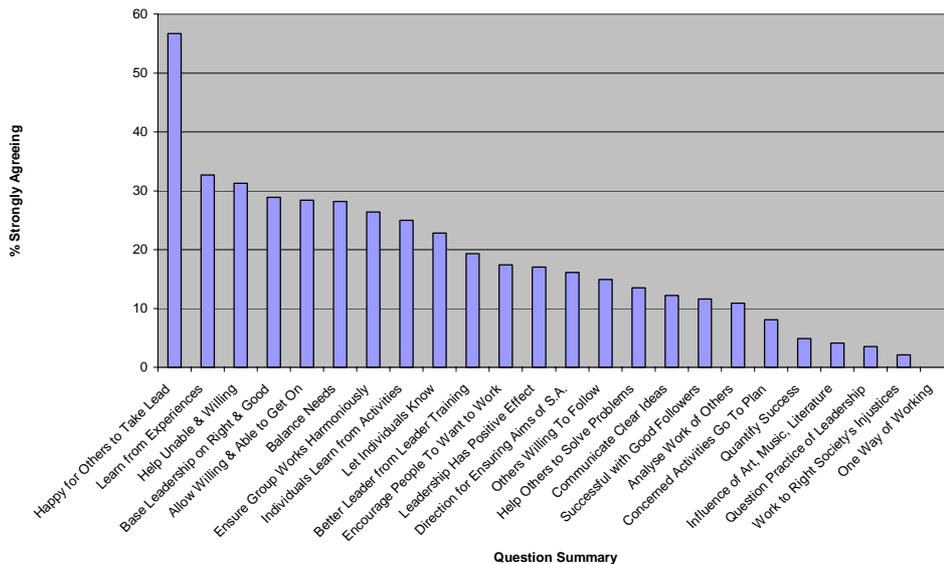


Figure 6.04 shows that item 6.18 (Happy for others to take the lead) stands out with the highest level agreement. From then on there is a uniform decline in percentages for the strongest agreement. Again, the recognition of the contribution of leader and follower in the leading and learning process is identified.

6.2d Strength of Disagreement

Figure 6.05 shows the items with the strongest levels of disagreement in decreasing percentage rank order.

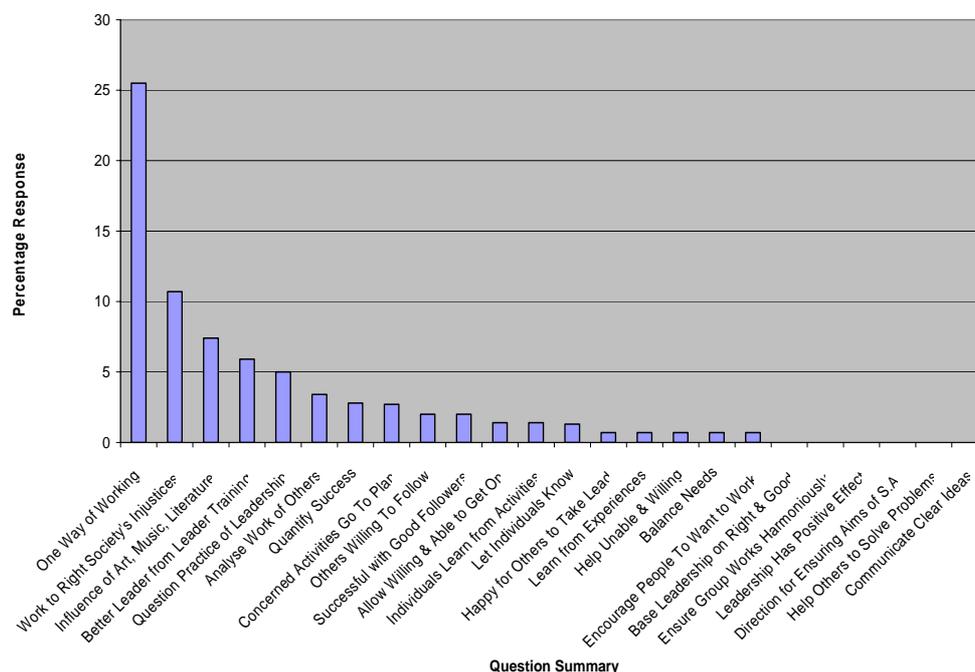
Figure 6.05: Strongly Disagree Ranked

Figure 6.05 shows that the highest degree of disagreement is associated with the following items:

06.04 One Way of Working (25.5%)

06.10 Work to right society's injustices (10.7%)

06.08 Influence of Art, Music, Literature (7.4%)

06.24 Better Leader from Leader Training (5.9%)

06.06 Analyse the Work of Others (3.4%)

06.14 Quantify Success (2.8%)

The strongest disagreement by far was for item 6.04 (One way of working). Again this indicates that leaders believe that they have more than one leadership style. Figure 6.05 shows there is a decline in disagreement for the other items. It is noted that no respondents strongly disagreed with the following items:

06.01 Communicate Clear Ideas

06.12 Base Leadership on Right & Good

06.19 Ensure Group Works Harmoniously

06.21 Direction for Ensuring Aims of S.A.

06.22 Help Others to Solve Problems

06.23 Leadership has Positive Effect

They also had overall low levels of total disagreement. This suggests some degree of consensus. With the exception of items 6.01 and 6.21, there is a suggestion that there is an ethical consideration is the common element.

6.2e Average Item Scores

Other measures of agreement are useful in formulating findings. The average item score applies to the items on the Likert scale in question six. It is calculated by multiplying the number of responses on each point on the scale by the value given to each point indicating its strength of agreement, totalling the resulting scores for the item and dividing it by the total number of respondents. Thus, on the six point scale where the strongest measure of agreement is six, and average item score of 5.2 would indicate that respondents, on average, agreed with the statement. The scores were allocated as follows: strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, possibly disagree = 3, possibly agree = 4, agree = 5, strongly agree = 6. The standard deviation provides a measure of deviation from the mean and so helps to identify how close scores are to the mean. The mode shows the most frequently allocated score. These measures are summarised in Table 6.06 and Figure 6.06.

Table 6.06: Knowledge and Understanding of Leadership Mean Mode & Standard Deviation.

Qu. No.	Question Summary	Mean	Mean Rank	Mode	Standard Deviation
6.18	Happy for Others to Take Lead	5.49	1	6	0.89
6.13	Help Unable & Willing	5.2	2	5	0.685
6.16	Learn from Experiences	5.15	3	5	0.798
6.11	Allow Willing & Able to Get On	5.06	4	5	0.851
6.09	Balance Needs	5.04	5	5	0.804
6.12	Base Leadership on Right & Good	5.01	6	5	0.874
6.19	Ensure Group Works Harmoniously	4.98	7	5	0.853
6.17	Let Individuals Know	4.93	8	5	0.890
6.21	Direction for Ensuring Aims of S.A.	4.87	9	5	0.700
6.01	Communicate Clear Ideas	4.83	10=	5	0.741
6.07	Individuals Learn from Activities	4.83	10=	5	0.986
6.22	Help Others to Solve Problems	4.8	12	5	0.753
6.23	Leadership Has Positive Effect	4.78	13	5	0.754
6.15	Encourage People To Want to Work	4.74	14	5	0.911
6.24	Better Leader from Leader Training	4.43	15	5	1.273
6.02	Others Willing To Follow	4.39	16	5	1.164
6.06	Analyse Work of Others	4.22	17	4	1.192
6.20	Successful with Good Followers	4.2	18	5	1.170
6.14	Quantify Success	4.03	19	4	1.017
6.03	Concerned Activities Go To Plan	4.02	20	4	1.211
6.05	Question Practice of Leadership	3.79	21	4	1.182
6.08	Influence of Art, Music, Literature	3.57	22	4	1.235
6.10	Work to Right Society's Injustices	3.29	23	4	1,248
6.04	One Way of Working	2.25	24	2	1.065

Figure 6.06: Knowledge & Understanding of Leadership Mean Item Scores

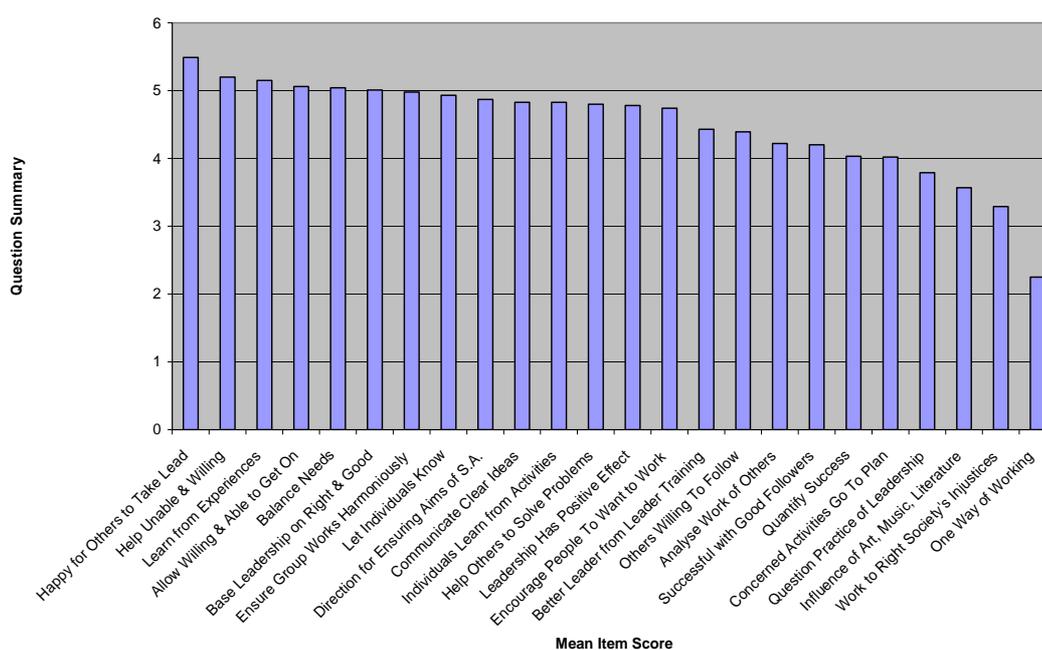


Table 6.06 and Figure 6.06 show that the first six questions have mean item scores of greater than five and less than six indicating that there is agreement but, the standard deviation shows no extreme in agreement with the statements. A value less than five would suggest something less than definite agreement. This interpretation is supported by the mode values with the exception of question 06.11 'Allow Willing & Able to get On' which has a modal value of 4. This anomaly could be explained by it having the highest standard deviation. Thus the highest levels of agreement from the mean item scores are for the following statements:

06.18 Happy for Others to take Lead (5.49)

06.13 Help Unable & Willing (5.2)

06.16 Learn from Experiences (5.15)

06.11 Allow Willing & Able to get On (5.06)

06.09 Balance Needs (5.04)

06.12 Base Leadership on Right & Good (5.01)

Yet again it is indicated that the leaders recognise the valuable contribution that both leaders and followers make in leadership.

Only one item has a mean score equivalent to a definite disagreement: 6.04 'One way of Working' (2.25). However, three of the lowest mean scores are also for:

0605 Question Practice of Leadership (3.79)

0608 Influence of Art, Music Literature (3.57)

0610 Work to Right Society's Injustices (3.29)

These suggest a level of possible disagreement. The higher mode values for these are explained by the relatively higher standard deviation for these items. There is therefore

some ambivalence shown by leaders towards questioning leadership and understanding it through the arts and societal injustice.

The range in standard deviation is small with items falling within the range 0.6-1.3.

This indicates that respondents have largely answered quite close to their means.

However, the greatest disagreement from the mean with a standard deviation greater than one occurs more frequently for the items with the lowest means with the highest standard deviations occurring with items with the lowest mean scores (see Table 6.06).

This indicates a much greater variation in responses from the mean for items with the lowest levels of agreement / weakest levels of disagreement.

6.2f Comparison of Measures of Agreement

An examination of the items with the highest total percentage of agreement from collapsed data, the strongest agreement and the highest agreement from mean item scores shows that these are generally to do with encouraging and maintaining participation. These are repeated here for them to be compared.

Highest Total Percentage of Agreement

0613 Help Unable and Willing (99.3%)

0618 Happy for Others to Take Lead (99.3%)

06.21 Direction for Ensuring the Aims of the Scout Association (98.6%)

06.16 Learn from Experiences (97.4%)

06.11 Allow for the Willing and Able to get On (97.3%)

Highest Strongest Agreement

- 06.18 Happy for Others to take the Lead (56.7%)
- 06.16 Learn from Experience (32.7%)
- 06.13 Help Unable & Willing (31.3%)
- 06.12 Base Leadership on Right & Good (28.9%)
- 06.11 Allow Willing & Able to Get On (28.4%)
- 6.09 Balance Needs (28.2%)
- 6.19 Ensure Group Works Harmoniously (26.4%)

Highest Agreement from Mean Item Scores

- 06.18 Happy for Others to take Lead (5.49)
- 06.13 Help Unable & Willing (5.2)
- 06.16 Learn from Experiences (5.15)
- 06.11 Allow Willing & Able to get On (5.06)
- 06.09 Balance Needs (5.04)
- 06.12 Base Leadership on Right & Good (5.01)

Taken together this reiterates the view that leaders believe that leaders and followers have agency and together contribute in the leadership process. This has an ethical dimension in recognising the needs and contribution of others.

6.3 The Nature of the Knowledge and Understanding of Leadership

- Statistical Analysis

The section supports the analysis made in the previous section by looking at how leaders understand leadership (research question one). The twenty-four items from section 6 of the questionnaire (see Appendix 2) were subjected to a parametrical statistical technique: factor analysis using the principal components analysis (PCA) using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 13.0.

6.3a The Purpose of Factor Analysis

An exploratory approach was used:

Exploratory factor analysis is often used in the early stages of research to gather information about (explore) the inter-relationships among a set of variables. (Pallant, 2001 p.151)

Factor analysis is regarded as a data reduction technique since it takes a large set of variables (in this case questions/items) and reduces or summarises them into a smaller number of factors or components by looking for inter-correlations between the variables. The resulting factors are normally uncorrelated. Tall (2003) highlights an underlying assumption and purpose:

The use of Factor Analysis in psychology and education is based on the view that responses to particular questions are caused or affected by underlying belief systems / 'psychological constructs' / factors. The assumption is that, if this is the case, such questions will be answered similarly and hence will correlate with each other. (p.1)

Thus the analysis helps to answer research questions one (understanding of leadership), four (the impact of training on understanding of leadership) five (interrelationships with interpretations of leadership in education) and facilitates a response the question two (uniformity of understanding if leadership).

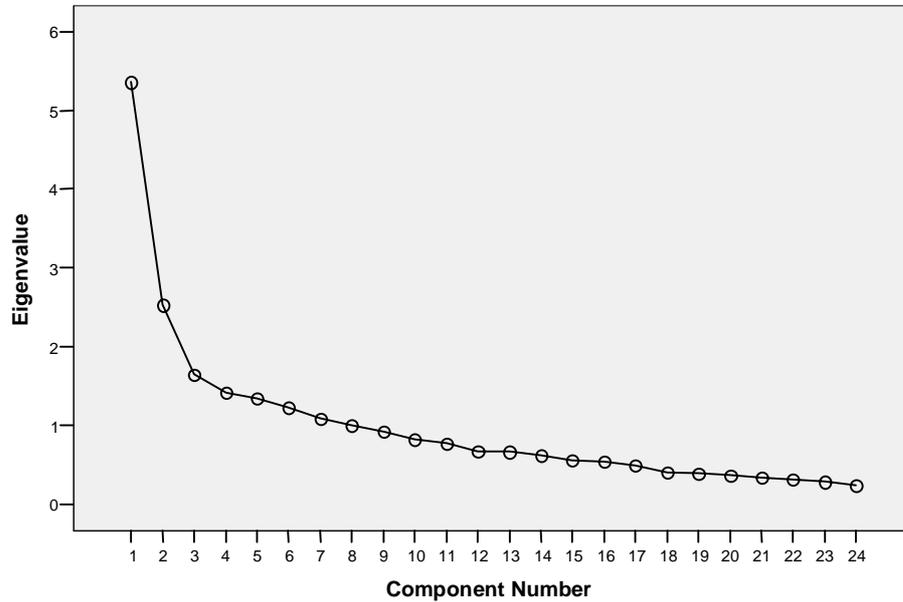
6.3b The Suitability of Data for Factor Analysis

Prior to performing PCA the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed.

Inspection of the correlation matrix (see Appendix 4 for the full output) revealed the presence of many correlation coefficients of 0.3 and above or -0.3 and below. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was 0.774 exceeding the recommended value of 0.6 (Pallant, 2001, citing Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and the Barlett's Test of Sphericity (Pallant, 2001, citing Barlett, 1954) reached statistical significance ($p=0.00$) supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix and the use of factor analysis.

6.3c The Identification of Factors

PCA revealed the presence of eight factors or components with eigenvalues exceeding 1. (See Total Variance Explained in Appendix 4) An eigenvalue is a cut off point. Any factor should account for at least the variance of one variable. If it does not the factor is rejected. The calculation of eigenvalues results in the standardisation of the value of each question to 1. Thus the larger the value the more information or variance correlated or explained by the factor. Thus the seven factors revealed by PCA explained 22.322%, 10.533%, 6.833%, 5.887%, 5.597%, 5.137%, 4.553% and 4.172% of the total variance respectively. An inspection of the screeplot (Figure 6.07) revealed a clear break after the second component (see Pallant, 2001 p.161).

Figure 6.07: Scree Plot Test For The Factor Analysis

Using Catell's scree test, it was decided to retain two components for further investigation. This decision was supported with data from the component matrix (Table 6.07) which showed that the majority of questions load strongly onto the first two factors or components. This indicates that there are two main factors reflecting two main understandings about leadership. Taken together the factors define a general notion of leadership which describes the main ways leadership is understood by leaders.

Table 6.07: Component Matrix For The Factor Analysis

	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
0613 Help unable and willing to undertake tasks	.745							
0615 Encourage people to want to work with me	.736							
0619 Ensure group works in a harmonious way	.657							
0622 Help others to solve problems	.636	-.312						
0616 Learn from experiences of other leaders	.635	-.350						
0612 Base leadership on what is right & good	.594					-.383		
0609 Balance needs of individuals, group and activity	.589							
0618 Happy for others to take the lead	.588			.382				
0611 Allow willing and able to get on with job	.571					.320		
0617 Let individuals know how they are getting on	.506	-.355					.346	
0614 Quantify success of leadership	.477	.442						
0601 Communicate clear ideas of what is possible	.425		-.316			.316	.404	
0603 Concerned activities go to plan	.357	.653						
0620 Successful when I have good followers	.335	.642					-.339	
0604 One way of working when I lead		.564			-.354		.380	
0602 Others willing to follow	.343	.446	-.393					
0624 Better leader result of Scout Association Leader Training			.586			.311		
0608 influence of art, music or literature			.531	.395	.429			
0607 Individuals learn from activities		.371	.485				-.315	
0623 Leadership has a positive effect on quality of Scouting	.386			-.556	.313			
0621 Direction for ensuring Aims of Association are met	.410			-.467				-.335
0605 Question practise of leadership			-.301	.400				-.335
0610 Work to right society's injustices		.310			.472	-.578		
0606 Analyse work of others	.371				.457			.488

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a. 8 components extracted.

Varimax rotation was performed by SPSS to aid the interpretation of the factors by discriminating more between the possible factors. This does not change the underlying result. The rotated solution (Table 6.08) revealed some strong loadings from both

Table 6.08 The Rotated Solution

	Component	
	1	2
0613 Help unable and willing to undertake tasks	.748	
0616 Learn from experiences of other leaders	.725	
0622 Help others to solve problems	.709	
0618 Happy for others to take the lead	.656	
0609 Balance needs of individuals, group and activity	.651	
0617 Let individuals know how they are getting on	.612	
0615 Encourage people to want to work with me	.609	.429
0619 Ensure group works in a harmonious way	.567	.335
0611 Allow willing and able to get on with job	.500	
0612 Base leadership on what is right & good	.488	.352
0601 Communicate clear ideas of what is possible	.468	
0606 Analyse work of others	.401	
0623 Leadership has a positive effect on quality of Scouting	.392	
0621 Direction for ensuring Aims of Association are met	.365	
0603 Concerned activities go to plan		.744
0620 Successful when I have good followers		.724
0614 Quantify success of leadership		.609
0602 Others willing to follow		.552
0604 One way of working when I lead		.518
0607 Individuals learn from activities		.438
0610 Work to right society's injustices		.373
0605 Question practise of leadership		.366
0624 Better leader result of Scout Association Leader Training		
0608 influence of art, music or literature		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
 a Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

components. Only three variables of low values loaded on both components suggesting that the factors are largely uncorrelated and are separate entities.

An examination of the items loading on each of the factors is needed to interpret how leaders understand leadership. The main loadings were considered to be those with values 0.6 or greater. On component 1 these are questions 0613, 0616, 0622, 0618, 0609, 0617, 0615. The main loadings on component 2 are questions 0603, 0620, 0614,

It is noted that the items loading on factor 2 are generally those that have the lowest levels of agreement as identified earlier. Because the items loading on this factor generally have higher correlations between them than other items, it is more likely to reflect an element of ambivalence or caution rather than error raising the question as to whether a second factor has been identified. That all four of the top loading items on the factor and five of the total eight items loading on the factor have average item scores of four or greater lends support to this view (see Table 6.08).

6.3d The Interaction of the Factors

The items loading on factor one are as follows:

0613: I help those people who are unable but are willing to learn to undertake new tasks.

0616: I learn from the experiences of other leaders

0622: I help people to solve problems

0618: I am happy for others to take the lead in situations when they are better qualified.

0609: I work to balance the needs of individuals, the group and the activity.

0617: I let individuals know how they are getting on.

0615: I encourage people to want to work with me.

Three of the four items in section six of the questionnaire developed from transformational leadership are included here (0622, 0617, 0615). The other questions have their origins in situational leadership (0613), the humanistic province (0616), distributed leadership (0618) and action centred leadership (0609).

The items suggest that there is a wish to help others by meeting their needs (0613, 0622, 0609) encouraging participation (0615, 0618) providing feedback (0617) and also recognising that they might have something to offer (0616, 0618). It suggests a two way process between leader and follower. The underlying concept for factor one appears to be one of an ethical inclusiveness such to develop a sense of teamwork, shared learning, participation and involvement. It is consistent with the findings from the descriptive analysis. This is termed 'Inclusive Leadership'.

The items loading on factor two are as follows:

0603: I am primarily concerned that activities go to plan.

0620: I am successful when I have got good followers.

0614: I quantify the success of my leadership activity.

.

Item 0603 has its origins in action centred leadership. Item 0620 has its origins in the recognition of the agency of followers and 0614 in the evaluative province. The underlying concept for factor two appears to be that of success in leadership. For instance item 0603 emphasises things going to plan and objectives being met. Item

0620 in recognises the contribution of followers in success, and item 0614 recognises the measurement of success. Factor two is therefore called the 'Success factor'. The recognition of the contribution of followers has an ethical dimension suggesting that it is shared success. This, along with ethical dimension is consistent with teamwork identified in the discussion of the first factor.

6.4 Variations in the Knowledge and Understanding of Leadership.

6.4a The Purpose of ANOVA

In order to establish whether there is any significant difference between the understanding of leadership as described by the factor analysis and the identification of factor one: the inclusive leadership factor and factor two the success in leadership factor, analysis of variance was conducted using SPSS. This facilitates a response to research question two. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a parametric test that determines whether means differ significantly. In this instance we are interested in establishing whether the understanding of leadership as defined by each of the identified factors varies significantly between different categories of leaders as defined by different: warranted appointment, section appointment, length of service, stages in completion of Scout Association leader training, gender, age, employment, education and completion of leader training outside of the Scout Association. For example, is the inclusion factor stronger for males than females? The analysis of variance used is the "two or more within sample analysis of variance" or "mixed between-within subjects analysis of variance" (Pallant, 2001 p.209). Two way analysis of variance permits comparison of two dependent variables (factors one and two) and their interaction with the independent variables (appointment, length of service, age and

gender). The analysis permits the identification of the main effects (the significant effect of one variable) and the interaction effects (the significant interaction of two variables).

6.4b Assumptions of ANOVA

A number of assumptions underlie its use (Pallant, 2001). 1) Level of Measurement: the assumption that the dependent variable is measured at the interval or ratio level using a continuous scale rather than discrete categories. This study uses ordinal data from a likert scale. Pallant (2001) is cautious about violations of the assumption suggesting that "wherever possible" (p.171) continuous data should be used for the dependent variable.

However, Fielding and Douglas (2005) note ordinal data is widely used. The violation is acceptable because of the power of the test and because an average of a number of items is used based on the factor analysis and the test is designed to compare the means of groups of data. 2) Random sampling. This assumption is satisfied. See Chapter 5: Research Methodology and Method. 3) Independence of observations. This means that the responses of participants are not influenced by one another. Given the large sample of respondents and consequential geographical spread it is unlikely that this assumption is violated. 4) Normal distribution. This assumes that the population from which the sample are taken are normally distributed. Since the sample is large (30+) any violation of this assumption does not cause any major problems (Pallant, 2001 p.172). Nevertheless, normality is tested for and reported on in this section. 5) Homogeneity of variance. This assumes that the variability of scores of each of the groups is similar. SPSS tests for this in its output with the Levene test. A not significant result with a significance value of *more than* 0.5 is needed for the

assumption to be valid. Pallant (2001) comments that violations of this assumption are acceptable so long as the size of the groups are similar. The Levene test is reported on in this section.

Howell (1992) elaborates on the violations of assumptions of normal distribution and homogeneity of variance:

As we have seen, the analysis of variance is based on the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance. In practice, however, the analysis of variance is a very robust statistical procedure, and the assumptions can be frequently violated with relatively minor effects. This is especially true for the normality assumption. (Howell, 1992 p.307)

6.4c Test for a Normal Distribution of the Data

One of the implications of this is that ordinal data can be used if it approximates a normal distribution. Indeed Howell (2006) makes reference to a study using repeated measures with ordinal data. To what extent does the data used in this thesis have a normal distribution? The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test tests for such normality.

Table 6.09 below shows the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for normality. Since the significant level is less than 0.05 a violation of the assumption is suggested for the inclusion factor. Pallant (2001 p.58), however, suggests that "this is quite common in larger samples".

Table 6.09: SPSS Output: Test for Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
InclusionFactor	.144	123	.000	.899	123	.000
SuccessFactor	.075	123	.086	.987	123	.283

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The histogram for the success factor suggests a normal distribution (Figure 6.09) whilst that for the inclusion factor indicates a positive skew (Figure 6.08). Pallant (2001) notes that this is often the case in social sciences.

This does not necessarily indicate a problem with the scale, but rather reflects the nature of the construct being measured. (p.59).

Figure 6.08: SPSS Output Histogram: Normality and the Inclusion Factor

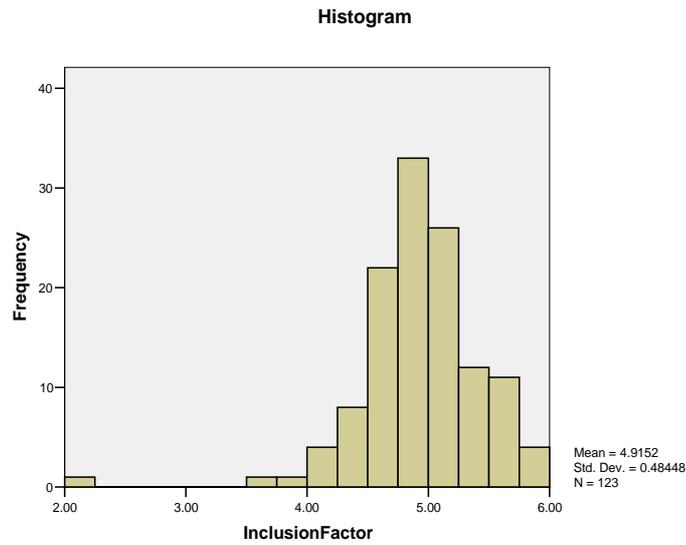
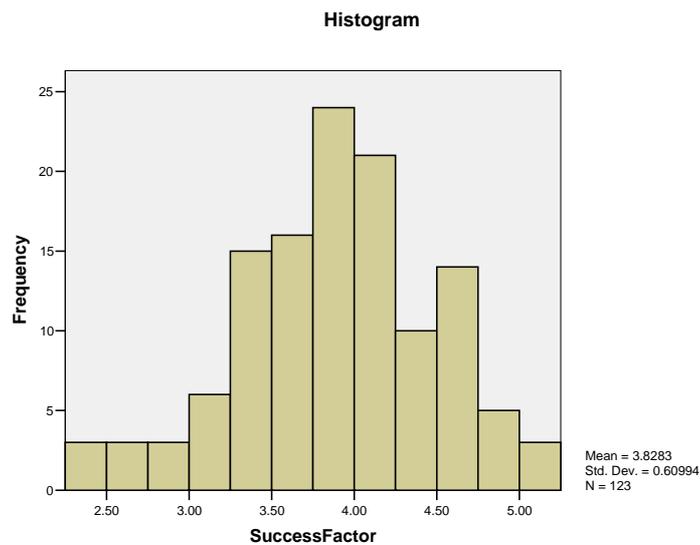


Figure 6.09: SPSS Output Histogram: Normality and the Success Factor



The Normal Q-Q plots (Figures 6.10 and 6.13) for the inclusion and success factors, however, show reasonably straight lines and therefore suggest a normal distribution (Pallant, 2001). The assumption that the data has a normal distribution is therefore taken to be valid.

Figure 6.10: SPSS Output Normal Q-Q Plots for the Inclusion Factor

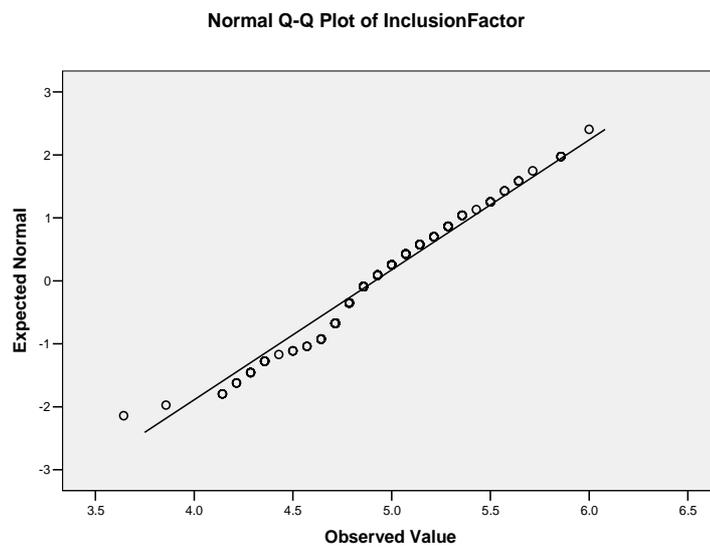
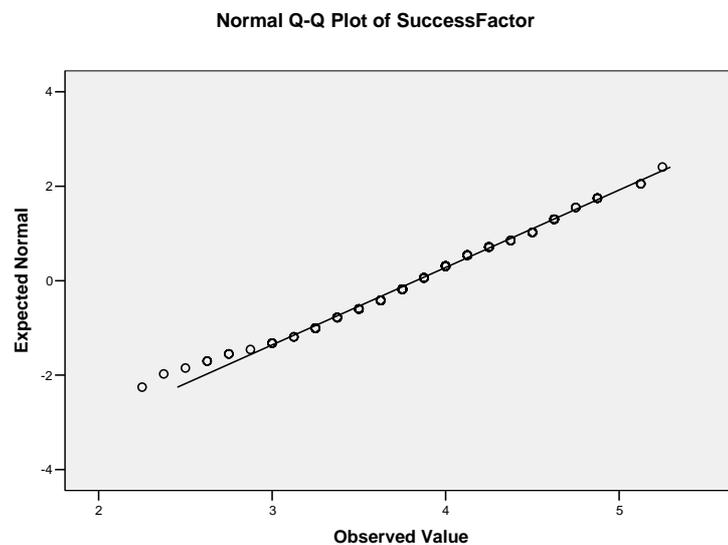


Figure 6.11: SPSS Output Normal Q-Q Plots for the Success Factor



6.4d Analysis of Variance

A two or more within sample analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether there was any difference in the interpretation of leadership by the different categories of leaders. The descriptive statistics (see Appendices 5-14) show that the totals (N) do not match the sample size because of missing values from non-respondents. It should be noted that since the numbers of respondents with county appointments was less than 10 (n=3) and because the numbers of leaders who have completed leadership training as a result of leisure activities (n=9), involvement with the military (n=1) or had not stated a training provider (n=4) were also less than 10 and these were removed from the analysis.

SPSS executed two or more within sample analysis of variance to compare the effect of the inclusion factor and success factor on groups of leaders in the following nine categories in order to determine whether there was any significant difference in the understanding of leadership between them:

- Warranted appointment
- Section appointment
- Length of service
- Completion of Scout Association Leader Training
- Gender
- Age
- Employment
- Education
- Leader training external to the Scout Association

It reports on: a) the interaction between the two leadership factors (inclusion and success): the main effect of leadership factors b) the interaction of these factors on each of the nine categories of leaders c) the main effects i.e. the effects of each category on the general notion of leadership (as defined by the success and inclusion factors). The outputs of descriptive statistics are found in Appendix 5.

6.4e Interpretation of Two or More Within Sample ANOVA

The F ratio shows the size of variability between the groups, (i.e. between the two leadership factors and the different groups of leaders within a category of leaders). See Figure 6.22. The higher the F ratio the greater the variability is. The significance of the variability, however, needs to be determined.

6.4f The Main Effect of Leadership Factors: The Interaction Between The Two Leadership Factors.

A significant F ratio indicates that the null hypotheses that state that a) there is no significant difference between the leadership factors (inclusion and success) can be rejected and/or b) there is no significant difference in interpretation of leadership between different leaders within the considered category can be rejected. The multivariate test results (see Appendices 6-14) show that the variability between the leadership factors is high (between $F=177.676$ and $F=348.102$). Since the significance value (consistently $p < 0.0005$) is well below the significance level of $p = 0.05$ (see Table 6.10 and Appendices 6-14), it is highly significant. This lends further support for the existence of the two factors. The descriptive statistics (see Appendices 6-14) show that there are noticeable variations in the means for the two leadership factors, with the inclusion factor consistently having the higher mean (and therefore a stronger degree of agreement). Further, the consistently lower standard deviation for the inclusion factor suggests that there is more agreement for it than the success factor. See, for example, the means and standard deviations for warranted appointments in Appendix 5. This pattern is repeated for all other categories. The higher means and lower standard deviations indicate that leaders are more positive about the inclusion

factor than the success factor. This is further support for the dominance of the inclusion factor.

6.4g Other Significant Findings

Table 6.10 provides a summary of the F ratios and their significance levels. Three significant results are shown (in bold) and are now discussed.

- a) The main effect of length of service upon the general notion of leadership as defined by both inclusion and success factors.
- b) The interaction of section appointment and the two leadership factors and the interaction of employment and the two leadership factors.

Table 6.10: Summary of F Ratios and Significance Levels

Category	F ratio Main Effects Between Subjects	Significance Main Effects Between Subjects	F ratio Interaction Category by Leadership Factors Within Subjects	Significance Interaction Category by Leadership Factors Within Subjects
Appointment	0.273	0.602	0.629	0.429
Section	1.162	0.381	3.511	0.010
Length of service	3.986	0.021	1.911	0.152
Leader Training	0.188	0.829	0.293	0.747
Gender	0.133	0.716	0.515	0.474
Age	2.094	0.128	2.869	0.061
Employment	0.320	0.727	3.933	0.022
Education	0.040	0.961	0.972	0.382
Non SA Leader Training	3.297	0.072	1.594	0.210

Significant results are shown in bold print.

a) Main Effect - Length of Service

The reports on the main effects (Tests of Between-Subjects Effects) indicate the level of support for the general notion of leadership as defined by both the inclusion and success factors (see Table 6.10 and Appendices 6-14). The results show that the only significant F ratio is for the length of service category (0.021). This suggests that leaders with varying lengths of service are more positive about this general notion of leadership. Averaging the means for the different lengths of service (Appendix 8) supports this view. Thus: less than 5 years $(4.9583+3.8073 / 2) = 4.3828$, 5-10 years $(4.8119 + 3.55/2) = 4.18095$, 10 years or more $(4.9422+3.9522 / 2) = 4.4472$. The averages are greater than 4 suggesting more likely agreement with a greater degree of agreement for leaders that have more than 10 years of service.

The homogeneity test for length of service (see Table 6.11 below) provides significance levels of 0.901 and 0.842 for the inclusion and success factors respectively. Since the significance values exceed 0.5 ($p>0.5$) they are not significant and the homogeneity assumption is valid (Pallant, 2001).

Table 6.11: ANOVA Output Test for Homogeneity: Length of Service

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances ^a				
	F	df1	df2	Sig.
InclusionFactor	.432	2	119	.650
SuccessFactor	1.287	2	119	.280

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a.

Design: Intercept+Service

Within Subjects Design: Iship

F= F ratio df = degrees of freedom. Sig. = significance

An effect size test is needed since any statistically difference discovered between groups does not take into account the degree to which the two variables are associated with one another.

With large samples, even very small differences between groups can become statistically significant. This does not mean that the difference has any practical or theoretical significance. (Pallant, 2001 p.175).

The Eta square value describes the size effect. The following "commonly used values" (Pallant, 2001 p.199) are used: 0.01 = small effect, 0.06 = moderate effect, 0.14 = large effect. A small effect means that the actual difference between the mean values is small and so is of little significance (Pallant, 2001 pp 205-6). A statistically significant result suggests that there is a difference between the groups in a category, but it does not show which groups differ significantly from each other.

The Eta square value for the main effects (the general leadership notion) and length of service is 0.063 this means that there is a moderate size effect and consequently of moderate significance (see Table 6.12). This indicates that there is a difference in the understanding of leadership between the differing lengths of service.

Table 6.12: ANOVA Output: Eta Square Results for Length of Service

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Measure: MEASURE_1
Transformed Variable: Average

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	3774.237	1	3774.237	10153.878	.000	.988
Service	2.963	2	1.481	3.986	.021	.063
Error	44.233	119	.372			

F= F ratio df = degrees of freedom. Sig. = significance

It shows that there is reason to believe that leaders with different lengths of service are more positive of the general notion of leadership. But does the actual length of service have an effect on the degree of acceptance of this notion? Post hoc tests are needed when there are more than two groups within the independent variable to determine which if any groups are significantly different from the others. The Tukey HSD test is used for this purpose. Values of 0.05 or less are deemed significant.

Table 6.13: ANOVA Output: Post Hoc Tukey HSD Test Results for Length of Service

Multiple Comparisons

Measure: MEASURE_1
Tukey HSD

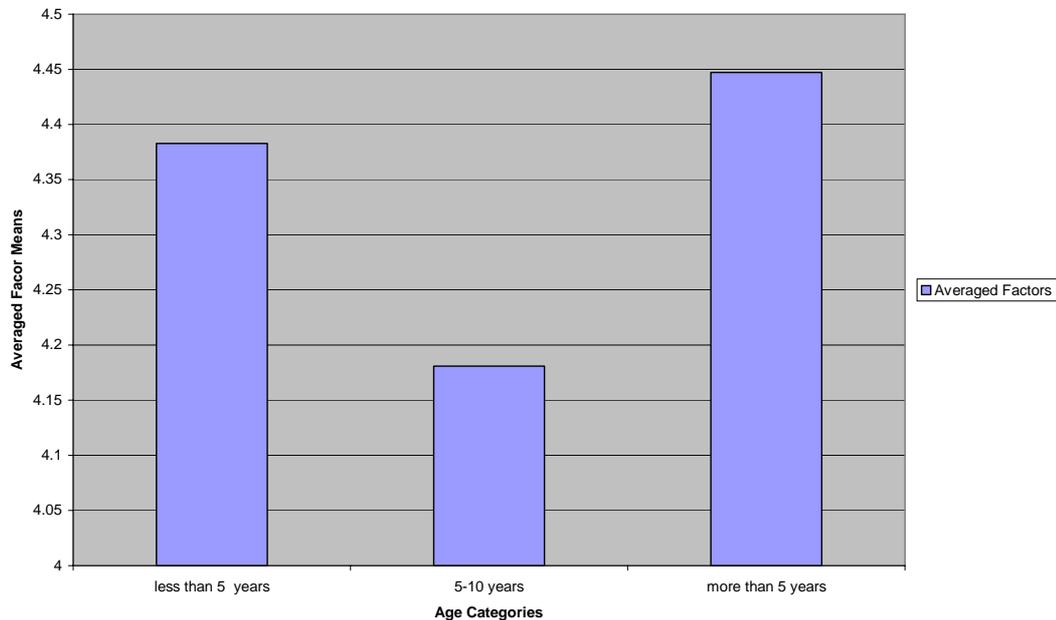
(I) 0300 Length of service	(J) 0300 Length of service	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
less than 5 years	5-10 years	.2019	.11806	.206	-.0784	.4821
	10 years or more	-.0644	.10236	.804	-.3073	.1785
5-10 years	less than 5 years	-.2019	.11806	.206	-.4821	.0784
	10 years or more	-.2663*	.09449	.016	-.4905	-.0420
10 years or more	less than 5 years	.0644	.10236	.804	-.1785	.3073
	5-10 years	.2663*	.09449	.016	.0420	.4905

Based on observed means.

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Sig. = significance

Table 6.13 shows that there is a significant difference between leaders who have undertaken 5-10 years of service and those that have complete more than 10 years of service. The averaged means of the three lengths of service for the two factors (see Appendix 5 Descriptive Statistics For Length of Service) are graphed in Figure 6.12).

Figure 6.12: Averaged Factor Means for Length of Service

The Tukey test (see Table 6.13) and Figure 6.12 show that the leaders who have done more than 10 years of service are significantly more positive about the general notion of leadership than those who have done 5-10 years. There are, however, no significant differences between the other combinations of length of service (>10 years and < 5 years, and < 5 years and 5-10 years).

b) Interaction Effects: Section Appointment by Leadership Factors and Employment by Leadership Factors

Here we examine whether there is any significant difference in the way leaders with different section appointments and employment categories interpret leadership.

The F ratio between the different leaders in each category (Tests within Subjects) is considerably lower (ranging between 0.293 and 3.933). Only section appointment and

employment (work) report a significant difference at $p = 0.010$ and $p = 0.022$ respectively (see Table 6.10 and Appendices 6-14).

It can therefore be said that there is no significant difference in the interpretation of leadership between leaders of different: appointment, length of service, stages in completion of Scout Association of leader training, gender, age, education and leader training outside of the Scout Association. Consequently the tests for homogeneity, effect size and post-hoc test to identify where the difference occur are only necessary for the categories showing a significant difference: section appointment and employment.

The homogeneity test for section appointment provides significance levels of 0.901 for the inclusion factor and 0.842 for the success factor. The test for employment provides significance levels of 0.910 and 0.256 respectively (see Table 6.14 and 6.15 and Appendices 6 and 12). Since all of these values are more than 0.5 and so not significant the homogeneity assumption is valid in both cases.

Table 6.14: ANOVA Output: Test for Homogeneity: Section Appointment

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances ^a				
	F	df1	df2	Sig.
InclusionFactor	.264	4	115	.901
SuccessFactor	.352	4	115	.842

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a.

Design: Intercept+Section

Within Subjects Design: lship

F = F ratio df = degrees of freedom. Sig. = significance

Table 6.15: ANOVA Output: Test for Homogeneity: Employment**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances^a**

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
InclusionFactor	.095	2	120	.910
SuccessFactor	1.379	2	120	.256

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a.

Design: Intercept+Work

Within Subjects Design: Iship

F= F ratio df = degrees of freedom. Sig. = significance

The Eta square values for section appointment and employment given in the multivariate test output are 0.109 and 0.062 respectively. (See Tables 6.16 and 6.17 and Appendices 6 and 12). Thus any difference between the means of section groups is close to a large significance (Eta square = 0.14 for a large effect). The difference between the means of the employment groups has more than a moderate significance (Eta square = 0.06 for a moderate effect). This shows that there are significant differences in the interpretation of leadership between leaders with different section appointments and different employment groups.

Table 6.16: ANOVA Output: Eta Square Results For Section Appointment**Tests of Within-Subjects Contrasts**

Measure: MEASURE_1

Source	Iship	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Iship	Linear	69.572	1	69.572	348.102	.000	.752
Iship * Section	Linear	2.807	4	.702	3.511	.010	.109
Error(Iship)	Linear	22.984	115	.200			

F= F ratio df = degrees of freedom. Sig. = significance

Table 6.17: ANOVA Output: Eta Square Results For Employment

Tests of Within-Subjects Contrasts

Measure: MEASURE_1

Source	Iship	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Iship	Linear	67.900	1	67.900	326.208	.000	.731
Iship * Work	Linear	1.637	2	.819	3.933	.022	.062
Error(Iship)	Linear	24.978	120	.208			

F= F ratio df = degrees of freedom. Sig. = significance

Tukey tests are needed to determine which of the leadership factors are more important amongst the section appointment and employment groups. SPSS, however, does not have the facility to apply the technique to *repeated measures interactions*. Nevertheless, the descriptive statistics in Appendix 5 for section and work permit graph analysis.

Figure 6.13: The Interaction of Section Appointment with the Leadership Factors

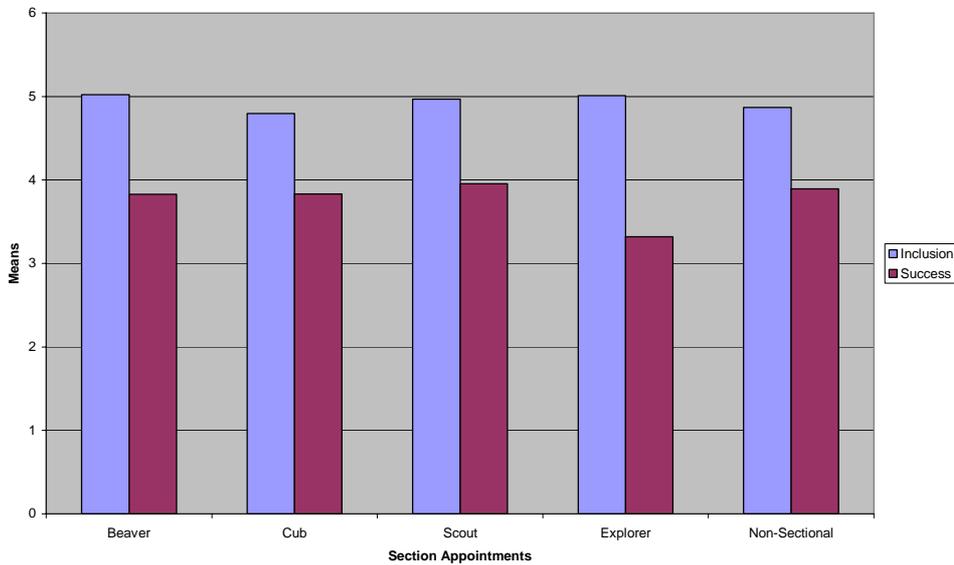


Figure 6.13 shows that there is a higher degree of association with the inclusion factor than the success factor across the section appointment categories. This is consistent with the findings thus far. The difference between the factors is very similar for four of

the five categories with a range of the range 0.9369 - 1.1732. The Explorer section has a much larger difference of 1.7829. This suggests that the success factor is relatively less important for leaders working with the 10.5 - 14 year age group. The significance of the difference, however, cannot be determined from this analysis. Nevertheless, it is conceivable that the difference is due to a tradition and encouragement within the Association for members of the older sections to have more say in the running of through a committee and with the designated leader being seen more as an advisor. This will be explored further in the next chapter.

Figure 6.14: The Interaction of Employment Groups with the Leadership Factors

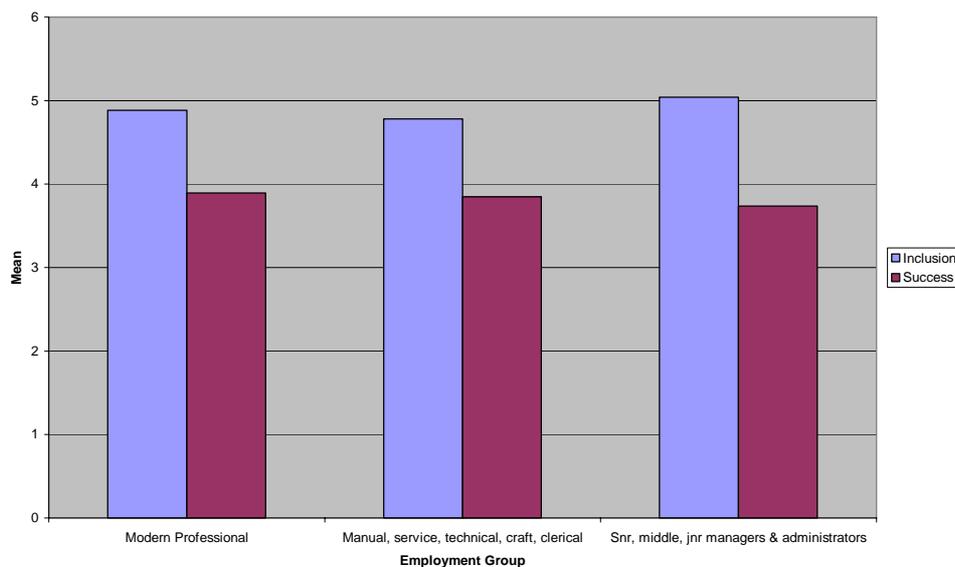


Figure 6.14 again shows the greater acceptance of the inclusion factor across the employment groups. The difference, however, is greater for the senior, middle and junior managers and administrators (1.3036) compared with the modern professionals (0.988) and manual, service, technical and clerical workers (0.931). This would suggest that the inclusion factor is more important for the managers and administrators than the other employment groups. Again, the significance of the difference cannot be determined from this analysis. The difference could be due the influence of

employment training of managers and administrators fostering a more inclusive approach. Again this will be explored further in the next chapter.

6.5 Sources of Knowledge & Understanding of Leadership

This section is concerned with identifying where leaders mainly get their knowledge and understanding of leadership from (research question two). Table 6.18 and Figure 6.15 summarise the responses to question 0500. Respondents were asked to identify the three most important sources of their knowledge and understanding of leadership as a leader in the Scout Association. The figures for the three sources in the table therefore are the number of respondents who have identified it as a source.

Table 6.18: Sources of Knowledge & Understanding of Leadership

Source	All Respondents			Respondents Completing Scout Assoc. Leader Training		
	Total Score	%age	Rank	Total Score	%age	Rank
S.A Leadership Experience	108	24.27	1	78	24.80	1
Colleagues in Scouting	84	18.88	2	53	16.80	3
S.A leader training	80	17.98	3	64	20.3	2
Work	63	14.16	4	45	14.3	4
Employment training	32	7.19	5	26	8.3	5
Parents and family	21	4.72	6=	12	3.8	7
Friends & Community	21	4.72	6=	16	5.10	6
School, education	14	3.15	8	10	3.17	8
Reading	9	2.02	9	7	2.20	9
Hobbies	9	2.02	10	2	0.63	10=
Media	4	0.90	11	2	0.63	10=

* Note that 5 respondents did not identify all 3 sources

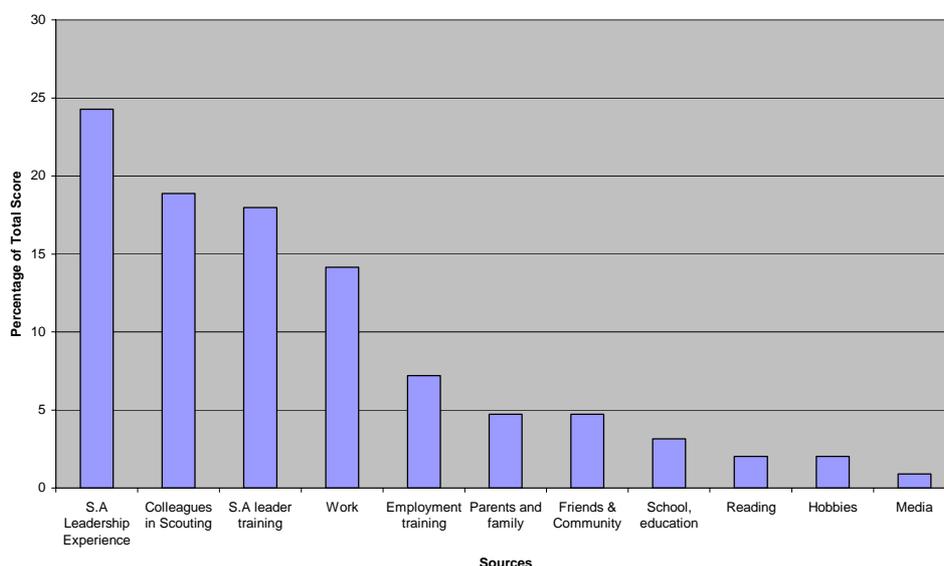
Figure 6.15: Sources of Knowledge & Understanding of Leadership

Table 6.18 shows the most important source of knowledge and understanding of leadership (over 24% of the total score for all respondents) comes from their own practice of leadership with the Scout Association. The second most important source (with nearly 19% of the total score) is from colleagues in the Association. Leader training provided by the Scout Association itself (nearly 18 % of the total score) follows this. Amongst the 70% of leaders who have completed Scout Association leader training the source is the second most important (23.3%) of the total score. The three foremost sources account for over 61% of the total score. Thus much knowledge and understanding of leadership is derived from within the Scout Association). Other sources, with the possible exception of the world of work (coming fourth with just over 14% of the total score) having a much smaller influence. The contribution of sources external to the Association is therefore small.

Table 6.19: Chi-Square for 0500: Sources of Knowledge and Understanding of Leadership

Categories	SA Leadership Experience	Colleagues in Scouting	SA Leader Training	Work Training	Employment Training	Parents & Family	Friends & Com'ity	School & Education	Reading	Hobbies	Media	TOTAL
Observed O	108	84	80	63	32	21	21	14	9	9	4	445
Expected E	38.55	38.55	38.55	38.55	38.55	38.55	38.55	38.55	38.55	38.55	38.55	445
O-E	69.45	45.45	41.45	24.45	-6.55	-17.55	-17.55	-24.55	-29.55	-29.55	-34.55	
(O-E) ²	4823.3025	2065.7025	1718.1025	597.8	42.9025	308.0025	308.0025	602.7025	873.2025	873.2025	1193.703	
(O-E) ² /E	125.1180934	53.58501946	44.568158	15.51	1.112905318	7.989689	7.9896887	15.63431	22.65117	22.65117	30.96505	324.714

The total Chi² is 324.7140838

The no. of degrees of freedom n-1 = 10

The critical values for Chi² show that for the total Chi² for 10 degrees of freedom is greater than 0.001 (0.1%) significance level. The null hypothesis is rejected. There are significant differences between the categories.

Note: no expected frequency in any of the categories is less than 1 and expected frequencies are not less than 5 in 20% or more of the categories

6.5a Chi-Square Test for Significance of Difference in Sources

This analysis assumes that the numerical differences are significant when they may not be. A one way Chi-square test on the data was therefore undertaken (see Table 6.19). It shows that the difference between the observed frequencies (the above totals) and the expected frequencies of an even distribution is statistically significantly bigger than would be expected by chance. Thus the null hypothesis that the number of responses in each category is the same is rejected. This shows that for each item the totals in each category are significantly different. This does not, however, show which source is different from which other ones: a *post hoc* test is needed for this. SPSS, however, does not allow a post hoc test to be undertaken for a one way Chi-square test. It is, however, possible to say which sources are significantly greater or smaller than the mean (the expected values). In order to reduce the risk of a type 1 error (rejecting the null hypothesis when it should not be because there really is no difference between the groups) an appropriate alpha level needs to be set (Pallant, 2001). For one degree of freedom for the one-way test significant levels of $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.005$ have been chosen to give critical values of 6.63 and 7.88 respectively (Howell, 1997 p.141).

Table 6.19 allows a comparison of each sources Chi-square value with 7.88 ($p < 0.005$). It shows that Scout Association leadership experience, colleagues in Scouting and Scout Association leader training and work have Chi-square values of 125.1180934, 53.8501946, 44.568158 and 15.51 are greater than 7.88 and observed values greater than the mean (expected value = 38.55) and so are significantly greater than the mean. Employment training is not since its Chi-square value is 1.112905318 and is less than 6.63 and 7.88. All the other sources are significantly lower than the

expected value since their Chi-square values are greater than 7.88 and their observed values less than the expected value of 38.55. See Table 6.19.

This suggests that Scout Association leadership experience, colleagues in Scouting, Scout Association Leader training and work are the most important sources of knowledge and understanding of leadership and concurs with the earlier findings made from the comparison of percentages.

6.6 The Impact of Training on Leaders Knowledge and Understanding of Leadership.

The section is concerned with research question four: how does training impact on leaders' knowledge and understanding of leadership? Table 6.01 shows that 70% of leaders had completed Scout Association leader training and 18.7% were undertaking it. In section 6.2 it was shown that leader training provided by the Scout Association was the third most important influence on all of the leaders' knowledge and understanding of leadership and contributed 18% of the total score. Amongst leaders who have completed Scout Association leader training, the source is second in importance accounting for 20.3% of the total score. Table 6.04 shows that 83.8% of respondents, with various strengths of agreement felt that they were better leaders as a result of it in their response to item 06.24. It shows that 53.4% either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. However, 15 of the 150 respondents (10%) did not provide a response for this item. This was the highest non-response for section 6 in the questionnaire. This could be because the information requested was sensitive. The second highest number of non-responses was for item 0610 (Work to right society's injustices) at 10/150 could also have been sensitive. Table 6.06 shows that the mode

for 0624 was 5, however, the mean score is 4.43 indicating low strength of agreement (i.e. closer to agree?). This suggests a degree of uncertainty about the value of the Association's leader training but erring on the positive side.

6.6a The Impact of Scout Association Leader Training on Understanding of Leadership

The responses to the first part of question 07: *Please describe how the Scout Association's leader training has contributed to your understanding of leadership* were summarised and classified. The results of the classification are shown below in Figure 6.16.

Figure 6.16: Summary of Responses to Question 07: Scout Association Leader Training and Understanding of Leadership

Totals are the numbers of respondents making a comment. Some respondents made more than one response. Percentages are calculated from the total number of responses: 184.

1. No / Little Contribution

Being a team leader has contributed more - 1 Not impressed with old style training - 1 Unsatisfied - 1 Not a lot / at all / basic understanding - 7 Leader training does not help / help much / learn more from experience or work - 10.

Total = 20 (10.9%)

2. Confidence Building

Improve confidence -5 Lack of knowledge is not a weakness - 1 Set in the correct direction - 1 Clear set of aims provided - 2 Good grounding - 1 Given guidelines - 1 Heading in the right direction - 2 Helping with activities - 1.

Total = 14 (7.6%)

3. Working With People

Delegation - 1 Communication, consideration, consultation - 1 Take into account strengths and weaknesses of all of the group - 1 Thinking about when to let others lead - 1 Bringing the best out of people - 1 Need to involve all people - 1 Counselling - 1 Dealing with adults - 1 Leading by example - 1 Bringing the best out of people - 1 Understanding what others will go through - 1 Need to involve all people - 1 Don't force people to do it if they do not have the knowledge and understanding - 1

Total = 13 (7.0%)

4. Provision of Factual Information

Knowing what to do in Scouting - 4 Child protection - 1 Scout Association policies / rules/ principles - 6 Explaining the role of the leaders in the Scout Association - 1 Development of ideas and programmes - 1 Awareness of resources - 1 Safety - 2 Importance of planning - 1 Simple tools and information - 1 Raising responsibility awareness - 1 Legal aspects - 1 First aid - 1

Total = 21 (11.4%)

5. Reflecting on Practice

Thinking about ways to lead - 1 Encouraged exploration of different leadership approaches - 1 Reinforced previous views about leadership - 2 Basis for improving leadership skills - 1 Not changed way of leadership but improved understanding of what I have to do - 1 Made people think - 1 Self analysis - 3 Wider view of the responsibilities of leadership - 1

Total = 11 (5.9%)

6. Learning from Others

Learning from each other - 19 Seeing how others work - 1 Experiences on courses - 1 Discussing experiences - 1

Total = 22 (11.9%)

7. Working with Young People

Understanding young people - 3 Listening to Scouts - 1 Involving Scouts in programme planning - 1 How to teach - 1 Keeping an open mind to meet children's' needs - 1 Dealing with children - 2 Understanding what others will go through - 1

Total = 10 (5.4%)

8. Leadership Principles and Processes

Putting leadership training into practice - 1 Group dynamics (forming, storming, norming, performing) - 1 Aiming to lead from the front - 1 Enlightenment about different types of leadership - 1 Ideas and advice on how to lead - 1 Simple leadership theory - 1 Styles of leadership - 2 Qualities of leadership - 2 Cannot teach leadership - 1

Total = 11 (5.9%)

9. Teamwork

Teamwork - 4 Working together - 1

Total = 5 (2.7%)

10. Personal Skills

Systematic planning (NAOMIE) - 1 Project work - 1 Running section (planning, resources, games, organisation) - 2 Developing a sense of humour - 1 Developing a sense of realism - 1 How to achieve lifelong learning - 1 Dealing with paperwork - 1 Spectrum of leadership techniques 1 Factors helping leaders lead 1

Total = 10 (2.7%)

11. Miscellaneous

Not done any - 2 All round training - 1 Modular needs related approach - 1 Fairly helpful - 1

Total = 5 (2.7%)

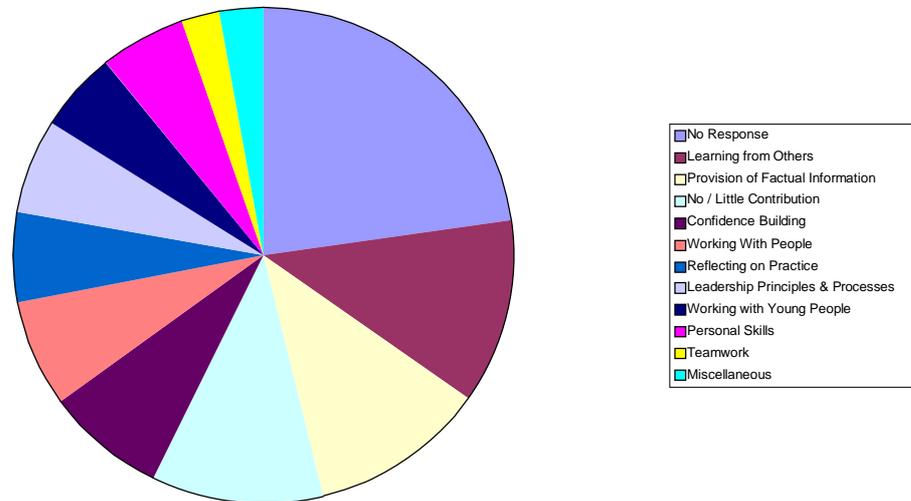
12. No Response

No response - 42

Total = 42 (22.8%)

The information in Figure 6.16 is represented in a pie chart in Figure 6.17.

Figure 6.17: Scout Association Leader Training and Its Contribution To Knowledge & Understanding of Leadership



Figures 6.16 and 6.17 show that there is a very large 'No Response' to the question (22.8%). This could be because a) respondents could not identify how the training has contributed to their knowledge and understanding or b) because there was no contribution or because c) they did not want to respond. If option b) were the case this would add to the figures in the 'No / Little Contribution' category (10.9%). The second highest response (11.9%) is 'Learning from Others'. This is consistent with the response to question 05 concerning the sources of respondents' knowledge and understanding of leadership (see Table 6.18) which ranked learning from others second as a source. 'Provision of Factual Information' and 'No / Little Contribution' provide the third and fourth highest responses (11.4% and 10.9% respectively). One of the two smallest responses is 'Teamwork' (2.7%). This is in contrast to the relatively high average item score (4.98) and ranking (7th) for question 0619. "I am primarily concerned to ensure that the people I lead work together in a harmonious

way'. It suggests that the leader training is not a major facilitator of this and is at odds with the notion of inclusive leadership discussed earlier in section 6.3d.

The most striking feature of the results however, is that the Scout Association's leader training does not impact on leaders understanding of leadership in terms of established and clearly identifiable leadership models, principles, theories and styles as reflected in the 'Leadership Principles and Processes' category (5.9%). This could have been as a result of the way the question was phrased. Nevertheless, there is little or no reference to the Scout Association developing any overarching or deeper understanding as to what leadership means. This is in spite of the emphasis put on action centred leadership and situational leadership in the association's leader training programme. It can be argued that other categories for instance 'Working with People', 'Working with Young People' and 'Teamwork' are elements of the action centred leadership model. Nevertheless, it seems to suggest that respondents have not thought about leadership in terms of the Association's preferred models or any other model, theory or principle. Respondents appear to recognise how the Association's training has helped them perform leadership without recognising what leadership is. This is discussed further in the next section.

6.6b Improving Understanding of Leadership

A similar picture regarding the importance of leadership models and theories emerges in response to the second part of question 07: *Please suggest how the Scout Association could improve your understanding of leadership.*

Again the responses were summarised and classified (see Figures 6.18 and 6.19).

Figure 6.18: Summary of Responses to Question 07 - How The Scout Association Could Improve Your Understanding of Leadership

Totals are the numbers of respondents making a comment. Some respondents made more than one response. Some did not make any. Percentages are calculated from the total number of responses: 146.

1. Providing Opportunities for Sharing and Developing Experiences of Leadership

Opportunities to meet others - 2 Providing examples of good / bad leadership - 2
 Opportunities to learn about successes and exchange ideas - 1 Case studies of challenges of leadership and how to resolve them -1 Use personal experiences more -1 Exposure to good leadership -1 Ideas swaps -1 More opportunities for leaders to meet - 1 Combine leadership with experience-1
 Improvements in leadership comes with experience - 1 Widen leadership experience (practical) -1
 Learning by doing / self evaluation - 2

Total = 15 (10%)

2. Improving the Organisation of Leader Training

Making it more fun - 2 Constructive courses - 1 More at Group level - 1
 Modern setting - 1 Train the trainers in leadership training - 1 More information on leader training -1
 Greater frequency of courses - 1 More contact between groups -1 Explain leadership simply - cut jargon - 1 More flexible timing -2 Provide manuals -1

Total = 13 (9%)

3. Improving the Content of Leader Training

Overlaps with work provision - 1 Move with the times - 1 Needs related - 2
 Managing modern youth - 1 New ideas - 1 Scouting skills - 1 Specialist provision to improve leadership skills - 1 Dealing with challenging behaviour -1 How to help young leaders -1 More Scouting / outdoor skills training -2 Improving leader decision making and communication -1
 Improving lines of communication - 1 Make it more specific to sections -1 Leadership in the context of Scout Leaders -1 Improving enthusiasm -1 Making people aware of the Movements and our commitments - 1
 Explain recent changes in leader training -1

Total = 19 (13%)

4. Encouraging Team Building

Look at teamwork rather than leader and follower -1 Aim the courses towards leadership team building -1 More team building - 3

Total = 5 (3%)

5. No Response

No response - 73 Further training not needed -12 Cannot train for leadership -1

Total = 70 (48%)

6. Satisfied / Improvements Not Needed

Satisfied - no improvements - 2 More areas of leadership are now being addressed - 1

Total = 3 (2%)

7. Providing Updates

Refresher for updates on rules / organisational changes - 1 Ongoing learning / training - 2 Updates - 1
 Update leadership training -3 More support for leaders - 1

Total = 8 (5%)

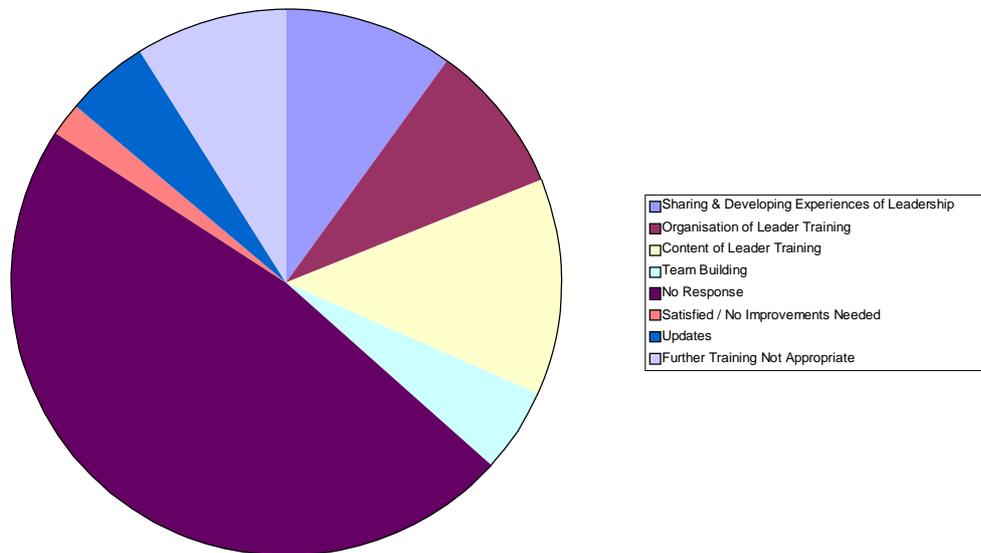
8. Further Training Not Appropriate

Further training not needed -12 Cannot train for leadership -1

Total = 13 (9%)

The information in Figure 6.18 is represented in a pie chart in Figure 6.19.

Figure 6.19: How Scout Association Leader Training Could Improve Knowledge And Understanding of Leadership



Again there is a very large 'No Response' of 48 %. The inability to identify improvements, a reluctance to answer or the possibilities that there are no improvements to be made are feasible reasons for this. Although in the case of the latter 2% of respondents were able to state this as shown in the category 'Satisfied / No Improvements Needed'. The second highest category of response is 'Improving the Content of Leader Training' - 13%. The responses here are quite diverse and specific often to Scouting itself. Again, there is mention of a need to share and develop experiences of leadership. The category 'Providing Opportunities for Sharing and Developing Experiences of Leadership' has the third highest percentage of respondents with 9%.

There again appears to be no demand for a greater insight into what leadership means through scrutinising and developing insight into principles, theories and models of leadership. The Scout Association's preferred models are either accepted or such ways

of thinking about leadership are not seen to be pertinent. It seems that respondents want 'to know how to do it better' without reflecting on what leadership means.

6.7 The Relationship of Leaders' Knowledge and Understanding of Leadership with Contemporary Interpretations of Leadership in Education.

This section addresses research question five by examining how leaders' understanding of leadership compares with other ways of understanding leadership in education. From the discussion in section 6.3 it can be seen that the five following items occur within the top six (one quarter of the total number of items) for the following measures: highest total percentage agreement (Table 6.04 and Figure 6.02), strongest agreement (Figure 6.04) and average item score (Table 6.06 and Figure 6.06).

0618 Happy for Others to take the Lead

0613 Help Unable & Willing

0616 Learn from Experiences

0611 Allow Willing & Able to Get on

0609 Balance Needs

Item 0612 'Base Leadership on Right & Good' occurs in top six for two of the three measures (strongest agreement and average item score).

A reminder why these questions were included in the questionnaire helps to interpret the significance of these items. They were developed to indicate belief in the following interpretations of leadership (see Figure 3.07 and Chapter 5). These are shown in italics.

0618 Happy for Others to take the Lead - *Distributed Leadership (Instrumental Province)*

0613 Help Unable & Willing - *Situational Leadership (Instrumental Province)*

0616 Learn from Experiences - *Humanistic Province*

0611 Allow Willing & Able to Get on - *Situational Leadership (Instrumental Province)*

0609 Balance Needs - *Action Centred Leadership (Instrumental Province)*

0612 'Base Leadership on Right & Good' - *Axiological Province*

It has already been suggested (section 6.3) that leadership is understood in terms of teamwork, involvement and inclusion consistent with an ethical dimension. The inclusion of questions 0618, 0616 and 0612 in the above list adds further support to this suggestion.

The list includes two of the three indicators of situational leadership. The third (0604 'One way of Working' (introduced as a check against the other situational leadership items), has the highest total percentage disagreement (Table 6.05 and Figure 6.03), the highest degree of disagreement (Figure 6.05) and the lowest average item score (Table 6.06 and Figure 6.06). This suggests an acceptance of the situational leadership model by many respondents. Again, the instrumental nature of this model is noted.

The other preferred leadership model: action centred leadership has one item included (0609). However, item 0603 (I am primarily concerned that activities go to plan) is an opposite expression of an aspect of action centred leadership. The item has a large degree of disagreement as indicated by its inclusion in the top six for the total percentage disagreement (Table 6.05 and Figure 6.03) and the strongest disagreement

(Figure 6.05) and the lowest average item scores (Table 6.06 and Figure 6.06). This suggests little acceptance of the action centred leadership model by most leaders.

6.7a Measures of Agreement and Leadership Typology

From the above discussion it is seen that there is affinity (agreement) for one of the two provinces and more distance (disagreement) with the other province in three of the four quadrants in Gunter's (2005) typology (see Figure 3.08). Only 'Understanding meanings' does not have any provinces with a high degree of affinity for one of its two provinces. It shows there is more emphasis on actions at the expense of activity and provision at the expense of challenge. This is particularly evident with reference to the average item scores (Table 6.06).

Understanding Meanings

- Conceptual province: - disagreement (0605)
- Descriptive province: - neither high consensus of agreement nor disagreement

Understanding Experiences

- Humanistic province: - agreement (0616)
- Aesthetic province: - disagreement (0608)

Working for Change

- Critical province: - disagreement (0610)
- Axiological province: - agreement (0612)

Delivering Change

- Evaluative province: - neither high consensus of agreement nor disagreement
- Instrumental province: - agreement (0618, 0613, 0611, 0609)

The factor analysis revealed the existence of two factors. An analysis of the items with highest loadings on each them shows that they have the following origins:

Factor One: Inclusive Leadership.

0613 Help unable and willing to undertake tasks - *Situational Leadership:*

Instrumental Province

0616 Learn from the experiences of other leaders - *Humanistic Province*

0622 Help others to solve problems - *Transformational Leadership (Intellectual Consideration): Instrumental Province*

0618 Happy for others to take the lead - *Distributed Leadership: Instrumental Province*

0609 Balance needs of individuals, group and activity - *Action Centred Leadership: Instrumental Province*

0617 Let individuals know how they are getting on - *Transformational Leadership (Individual Consideration): Instrumental Province*

0615 Encourage people to want to work with me - *Transformational Leadership (Idealised Influence): Instrumental Province*

This shows that the influence of transformational leadership is clear evident consequently there is an emphasis on actions at the expense of activity and provision at the expense of challenge in the context of Gunter's (2005) analysis of educational leadership (see Figure 3.08).

Factor Two: Success in Leadership.

0603 Concerned activities go to plan - *Action Centred Leadership: Instrumental Province*

0620 Successful when I have good followers - *Agency of followers (Conceptual Province)*

0614 Quantify the success of leadership - *Evaluative Province*

This shows that the factor two items show a similar pattern of an emphasis on actions and provision at the expense of activity and challenge.

The main findings are summarised in the next section.

6.8 Summary of Key Findings

Research Question 1: How do the adult role incumbents understand leadership?

1. The descriptive and statistical analyses identify the existence of an understanding of leadership that is based on 1) inclusion 2) success. Both appear to have an ethical dimension with altruistic inclinations to recognise the needs and contributions of others.
2. Both the descriptive and statistical analyses suggest that the success element of the understanding is less important than the notion of leadership based on inclusion.
3. The influence of transformational leadership is evident in the interpretation of leadership in terms of inclusion.

Research Question 2: Is the understanding uniform amongst role incumbents?

1. Leaders with different lengths of service are more positive of the general notion of leadership as defined by the inclusion and success factors than leaders in any other category. Leaders who have completed more than 10 years of service are significantly more positive about the general notion of leadership than those who have served 5-10 years. There is no significant difference between leaders who have served more than 10 years and less than 5 years.
2. There is evidence that inclusion factor is more important than the success factors for all leaders but particularly those working with the Explorer section for those who fall in the management and administrative employment category.

Research Question 3: Who and/or what informs their knowledge and understanding?

1. The main source of knowledge and understanding of leadership is derived from sources within the Scout Association with some contribution from employment.

Research Question 4: How does training impact on their knowledge and understanding of leadership?

1. The majority of leader believe that they are better leaders as a result of undertaking adult leader training, however, overall there is some uncertainty how leaders view the impact of Scout Association leader training on their performance as leaders. This errs on the positive side.

2. The contribution made by other leaders in terms of how they work and in relating their experiences is seen to be the most important identified contribution made by the Scout Association's leader training to leaders' knowledge and understanding of leadership.

3. The Scout Association's leader training does not have any impact on leaders in terms wholesale acceptance of established and clearly distinguishable leadership models, principles and theories. There is some evidence, however, for the acceptance of elements of situational leadership

4. There are diverse views on how the Scout Association's leader training could be improved, but there is no call for a greater understanding in terms of understanding what leadership is.

Research Question 5: How do the Scout Association's and its leaders' understanding compare with other ways of understanding of leadership in education?

1. There is support for interpretations of leadership that come from the Instrumental, Humanistic and Axiological provinces of Gunter's typology. In common with the acceptance of Situational Leadership, it is appears than there is an ethical dimension consistent with the notion of inclusion at play
2. There is no appetite for leaders to question what leaders are and do 'Understanding Meanings' although leaders and leadership is understood in terms of 'Understanding experiences', 'Working for change' and 'Delivering change'. The emphasis is on actions and provision at the expense of activity and challenge.

These findings will be discussed in the next chapter using the main outcomes from the literature review. Again, each research will be addressed in turn.

CHAPTER SEVEN: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

7.0 Introduction

The chapter looks at the findings for each of the research questions in turn and examines their relationship to the literature reviewed in earlier chapters. A summary is provided in section 7.6.

7.1 Research Question 1: How do the adult role incumbents understand leadership?

Potential contextual influences on the knowledge and understanding of leadership were addressed in chapter two. It was suggested that values related to the altruistic aims of VSO, the altruistic and militaristic origins of the Scout Association, together with the values related to its Promise and Law and the conservative nature of the organisation, together with pluralism, could influence how leaders understand leadership. This research has shown that leadership is understood in terms of inclusion and success factors. An ethical dimension appears to be present in both factors: particularly in the inclusion factor (see Fig. 7.01). The ethical dimension is altruistic in so far as it recognises the needs and contributions of others. The altruistic nature of voluntary service organisations (identified in chapter 2) attracting people who volunteer for a mixture of altruistic and self interest reasons (Institute for Volunteering Research, 1977) are highly likely to be influential in framing this understanding.. It has been shown that the Scout Association (1990d) recognises the role of altruistic self development in the motivation of leaders as one of the higher levels of human need, with Foutlon (1996) emphasising the link between working in value based organisation and valuing individuals. The influence of the altruistic motives could explain the finding that the inclusion dimension is more important and

why success component also has an ethical dimension. The identification of the factors is consistent with the view of the voluntary sector as having a mediating role and Hudson's (2002) view of it combining social conscience with entrepreneurialism, since the former has altruistic roots and the latter is concerned with success.

The inclusion and success components can be traced to the history and nature of the Scout Association described in chapter 2. That the Association had altruistic and militaristic beginnings with a belief in benevolence, unselfishness and duty to country helps to identify explanations for the components (Smith, 2002b; Springhall 1977). A similar conclusion is drawn when the Scout Promise and Law are examined. These show value based notions such as promising to help other people, to be trusted, loyal, friendly and considerate, to belong to the world-wide family of Scouts and to have self respect for others and one's self and also making good use of time and being careful with possessions and property. Indeed we have noted that the Scout Association (1999) lists acceptance of the Promise and Law and a genuine wish to help young people to develop as responsible members of society as two of the qualities of candidate leaders. The marriage of the two components is seen in Loades' (1977) comments that the Promise and Law should be seen not as an oath of allegiance but a commitment to endeavour. In some respects this also sits happily with the notion of an organisation surviving in a more pluralistic society from which it draws its leaders since it adopts the middle ground and avoids a political extreme. This is consistent with the description of a conservative organisation (Grimshaw, 1978). Indeed, in spite of its military origins of the Scout Association and ACL, there is little evidence of any autocratic or task-centred style of leadership such as the boss centred leadership in the Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) continuum. In this respect

the interpretation is more like Grimshaw's (1978) fraternalist rather than conservative approach to leadership with its emphasis on amity and an understanding of the social relationships within groups.

The co-existence of the two leadership factors can also be attributed to the Scout Association's left of middle position in the continuum of education with the left extreme representing informal education and co-operation and the right representing formal education and individual and measured success (see Figure 2.01). The influence of the degree of formality of education on the understanding of leadership being provided could be explored further by investigating whether the same components are found in the understanding of leadership in other VSO, particularly those largely made up of volunteers. Would the same factors be present in the leadership of the statutory youth service that is not essentially staffed by volunteers and that has been subjected to monitoring and target setting (Smith, 2002a) in a drive to provide and demonstrate provision of value for money? Furthermore, would the two components be evident in the knowledge and understanding of leaders in formal education? If they were, which would be the more dominant? Would it be the success factor given the concerns for cost effectiveness since the 1980s and the associated measurement of outcomes in the form of exam results (Grace, 1995) rather than a solely altruistic desire to make a difference? This view is captured in the following quotation about school leaders since the 1980s:

The most important characteristics of effective school leaders are now less to be found in their moral, scholarly or professional qualities rather than their "street-wise" capacity to survive in and exploit market opportunities for education. (Grace, 1995 p.42).

Indeed, we can take such postulation further and ask whether there would be any difference in the dominance of factors in schools (such as church schools) that claim to have a sound moral philosophy. It is recalled that Bastleer (1996) highlighted the potential benefits of VSO management thinking to the non-profit making public sector. This is certainly worthy of further investigation.

The literature also shows that altruistic aims and values results in more democratic and shared forms of leadership (ACEVO, 2003; Bastleer, 1996; Gann, 1996) and a more emphasis on the agency of followers. The importance of altruistic values (concerned with helping others) and distributed leadership (concerned with involving others in leadership) is reflected in the findings. For instance, in the factor analysis, the items loading on the inclusion component are: 0613 helping people to undertake new tasks, 0616 learning from the experiences of others, 0618 happy for others to take the lead, 0609 balancing the needs of individuals, the group and activity, 0617 letting individuals know how they are getting on and 0615 encouraging people to work with me. Similarly, one of the three items loading on the success component is about empowerment and sharing success (0620 success when I have got good followers). The loading of items 0618 and 0620 point to the recognition of the agency of followers and the notion of conjoint agency and is consistent with Kay's (1996) interpretivist sense of leadership. This is because there is recognition of the contribution of follower and designated leader and because it shows that leadership can be taken away from the role incumbent with followers and leader role incumbents swapping roles. Further it shows that the co-operation of followers and recognition of their needs is required. However, since it is not clear whom, if anyone has the upper hand. If it is a matter of the designated leader allowing followers to take up leadership

roles without any follower influence, then it is questionable as to whether conjoint agency is recognised. The findings however, still raise important questions concerning exactly how values play a part in a process of shared leadership.

The literature shows that the Scout Association had adopted and adapted the ACL and SL models of leadership. It interprets the models to give more emphasis on the sharing of leadership and greater recognition of the agency of followers. This research found that there is acceptance of *aspects* of the ACL or SL models of leadership by leaders (Figure 7.01). For example, the ACL derived items with the highest measures of agreement are related to meeting needs (0609) and groups working well (0619). Only 0609 loads on the inclusion factor and 0603 (concern that activities go to plan) on the success factor. Similarly for SL, only items 0611 (allow the willing and able to get on with the job) and 0613 (help unable and willing to undertake tasks) appears in the highest measures of agreement and only 0613 loads on a factor in the factor analysis: the inclusion factor. Leaders are, therefore, are not prepared to accept the models in their entirety and possibly because they question their value and/or their instrumental nature as described by the Gunter (2005) typology. Further. leaders accept aspects of the models that are consistent with the notions of inclusion and success. It could be argued that the description of leaders' understanding of leadership in terms of inclusion (with its emphasis on helping others and getting others involved) and success is not that different from the ACL model with its emphasis on balancing the needs of the task, group and individual with the needs of the task relating to the success factor. The difference is that the success factor is seen as less important whereas the ACL model provides for equal weighting and little recognition of the agency of followers.

The research findings show that leaders put some emphasis on shared leadership and greater recognition of the agency of followers. The more democratic approach that the findings suggest, despite consistency with the Scout Associations' interpretation of the ACL and SL models, is at odds with what essentially is a hierarchical organisation. What this might reflect is that although it is a hierarchy, it is made up from volunteers and that these, and in particular good adult leaders, are not easy to recruit and retain. Conscious of the voluntary nature of the membership, a more democratic and less authoritarian style of leadership may be essential (even though they are united by a common cause), possibly because volunteers may claim a right to have a large say in what they do with their time. Weakening of the power of position within the hierarchy strengthens the agency of the followers within it. It could also reflect the more pluralistic nature of the population from which it draws its leadership and increased calls for accountability. Further, this could also reflect the self interest element of volunteering (Institute for Volunteering Research, 1977). The respect for authority by virtue of position is no longer automatic. If either or both are the case then it would be further evidence of conjoint agency and it is consistent with Kay's (1996) interpretivist view of leadership (see Figure 7.01).

The research findings show the influence of transformational leadership, although the role of vision (inspirational motivation) is less apparent in leaders understanding of leadership (see Figure 7.01). This is consistent with the finding in chapter 3, that distributed leadership in the voluntary sector had many of the characteristics of transformational leadership i.e. shared transformational leadership. It is recalled that Muijs et al (2006) argues that transformational leadership appeals to the hearts and minds of individuals. VSO participants, with their altruistic values could, therefore,

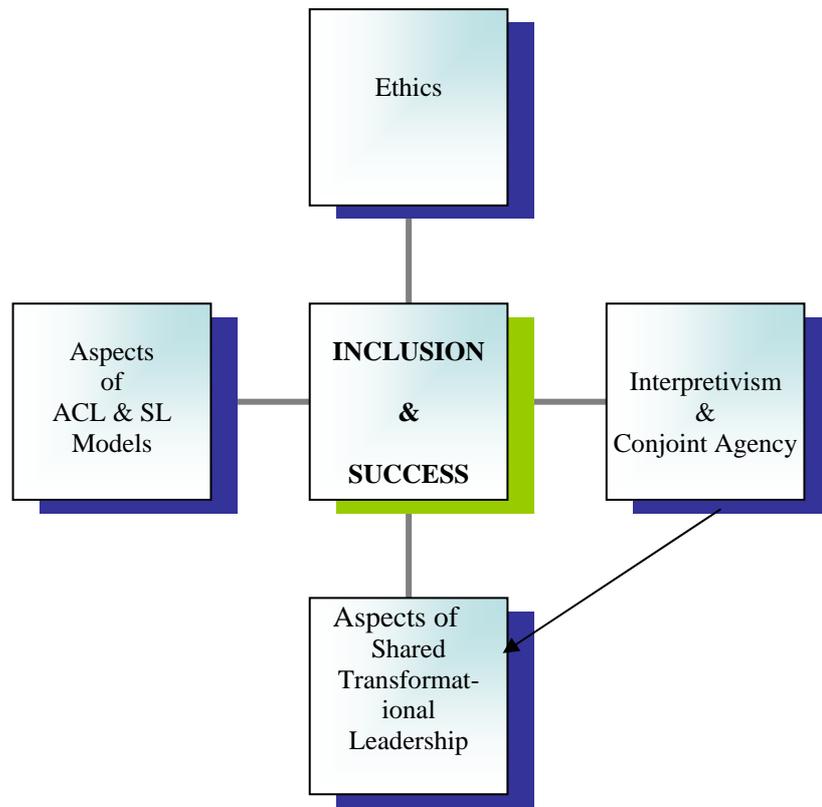
readily accept it. The findings appear to lend weight to a belief in shared transformational leadership. What is not clear is where this comes from, particularly since much of the informing of leadership appears to come from sources within the Scout Association. The Scout Association's interpretation of leadership does not have a transformational leadership context. The sources, of course, could be second hand with leaders learning from other leaders who import much of their knowledge and understanding from external sources such as employment. The findings, however, suggest that the main source of knowledge and understanding of leadership come from within the Association itself. The extent to which this is second hand with the knowledge and understanding conscientiously or sub-conscientiously being imported from work and other sources and adapted is unknown and again is an important basis for further research for trainers interested in the impact of leadership training.

That vision does not appear to play a part in leaders' understanding of leadership as it does in transformational leadership, is, as is the case with the ACL and SL models, evidence of them filtering out aspects of leadership. But it may well be that, unlike non-voluntary organisations where the vision has to be made and made explicit by the leader and shared, that through the altruistic motivation the vision is developed and shared between them.

One of the problems of accepting the influence of transformational leadership in the shaping of leaders' understanding of leadership is that transformational leadership outcomes are directly attributable to the leader and the agency of the followers is not adequately recognised. It is recalled that Gronn (1999a) has identified this as a common feature of models of leadership, that it has earlier been argued that it is true

of the ACL and SL models and that Gunter (2001) has argued that this is also true of transformational leadership. Yet, it has been suggested that the understanding is consistent with conjoint agency. What we could be seeing here is a reduction in the influence of the leader in favour of followers. Evidence for this comes in the lack of recognition of vision in leaders' interpretation of leadership. Visioning or the inspirational motivation of followers involves the leader working to persuade followers to understand, accept and work to implement a vision (usually the leader's or the organisation's). By rejecting visioning leaders could be saying we work *together* through social interaction develop a shared understanding of what we need to achieve and where we need to be as part of the inclusive approach to leadership. Alternatively, it could be that since the cause, and hence the vision is already accepted and is the prime motivation for involvement "Staff tend to be driven by passion for the cause" (ACEVO, 2003 p.18). So, unlike non-voluntary organisations, there is no need for leaders to foster and followers to accept a vision. Leaders *together* through social interaction work out how to achieve their goals. This would answer the criticism we have seen (NCVO, 2003b; Hudson 2002) that without a vision we have management rather than leadership and so there will be no progress. With either explanation there is consistency with Gronn's (2000) argument that leadership is really shared rather than focused on an individual. It appears that leaders in the case study city too believe that leadership is essentially distributed. Figure 7.01 illustrates the relationship between the notion of conjoint agency, shared transformational leadership and the two leadership factors.

Figure 7.01: How Scout Association Leaders Understand Leadership



The Scout Association's preferred models of leadership were shown in chapter 3 not to be about leading learning. The understanding of leadership so far described from the research findings also does not include any reference to leadership of learning. The questions which asked participants to identify how leader training had contributed to their understanding of leadership and how they believed leader training could be improved did not elicit any response about helping followers to learn. Thus like the ACL and SL models, leaders do not see leadership in terms of leading in learning (Gunter, 2005) by being concerned about what is learnt, when, how and why.

7.2 Research Question 2: Is the understanding uniform amongst role incumbents?

The research findings are particularly important since the review of literature has shown that nothing is known about the backgrounds of leaders in VSO and the Scout Association and how they might influence their understanding of leadership.

It was found that leaders with different lengths of service were more positive about the general notion of leadership as defined by the inclusion and success factors than any other categories. It has also been found that leaders with more than 10 years of service are more positive about the general notion of leadership than those who have done 5-10 years. There is no difference between those who have more than 10 years of service with those who have done less than 5 years. Further it has been found that the inclusion factor is more important than the success factor particularly for those leaders working with the Explorer section and those with management and administrative employment backgrounds. These findings are important because they suggest that the age of followers and the employment background of leaders influence leadership. The influence of the followers lends support for Gronn's (2000) notion of conjoint agency since it highlights the agency of followers. Leaders must realise that if they used an inappropriate leadership style the responses from followers would make their leadership more difficult and so they would be forced to adopt an appropriate leadership style. An authoritarian style, used with people used to making shared decisions, could, for example, result in followers being uncooperative.

Why should length of service result in leaders being more positive about the general notion of leadership? This could be because it reflects the degree of commitment and socialisation of leaders into the notion. The longer leaders are with the Association the

more they accept it. Leaders who have completed more than 5 years of service could be more positive about the general notion of leadership because of the socialisation brought about by their participation and involvement with other leaders. If they have lasted more than ten years they may have a higher degree of affinity with the people they work with, the organisation itself and the knowledge and understanding of leadership fostered. Understanding, attitudes and values could become embedded with time. Support for this view comes from the finding that the main source of knowledge and understanding are sources internal to the Scout Association. If this is the case then it would be expected that leaders would become increasingly more positive the longer they served. This would mean leaders who have completed 5-10 years would be more positive than those who have done less and leaders who have completed more than 10 years would be more positive than those who have 5-10 years. This was not found to be the case. Leaders who completed more than 10 years of service are significantly more positive about the general notion of leadership than those who have completed 5-10 years, but there was no significant difference between leaders who have completed more than 10 years and less than 5 years. It may be that early enthusiasm, including a stronger belief in the altruistic value of their work and an eagerness to demonstrate, lessens the difference. Leaders initially may be more accepting of the prevailing views but by the time they have completed five years of service they may begin to question these. The findings are important and given the uncertainty of the reasons behind them they highlight the need for important further research since this may help the Association help to keep more of its leaders and reduce its retention problem.

That the inclusion factor is more important than the success factor for those working with the Explorer section can be explained in terms of the age of the young people involved (14-18) and the expectation that they make more corporate decisions about matters concerning them as part of the philosophy of the section. In essence it is consistent with the Association's concept of a progressive training scheme and the Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) continuum of leadership behaviour described in chapter 3 (see Figure 3.02), with a shift in leadership styles from a directive form to non-directive style for older members (The Scout Association, 1999b). The rationale here is that the older and presumably more experienced members are more capable of democratically making decisions that affect them and so they are less dependent on the designated leader.

A similar finding would have been expected for respondents who held non-sectional district and county appointments. Since these are highly likely to be commissioner appointments and hence are more involved in leading the leaders of young people. We are reminded that the small numbers necessitated the removal of county appointments from the statistical analysis. Nevertheless, we would have expected the district and non-sectional appointments to have shown the inclusion factor to be significantly more important for the same reason offered for the Explorer section i.e. the fact that they are dealing with adults and this involve them more in the decision making. The reason for there not being a significant difference could be because many are likely to hold dual appointments, that is are section leaders working with young people and also hold a commissioner appointment. The finding could reflect their section leader appointment. If this is not the explanation then this tells us something about how commissioners see their leadership role. That is they are less inclusive than the leaders

of the Explorer section and that they see success and inclusion as just as important as one another.

The same finding (see section 6.4g) for people with managerial and administrative backgrounds could reflect a greater emphasis on teamwork in their employment and an expectation that they will corporately make decisions. Success is more likely to be attributed to a team effort with everyone doing his or her bit. This may diminish the desire for individual recognition of success. Indeed it may be indicative of shared transformational leadership. The literature points to shared leadership being a form transformational leadership. Muijs et al (2006) have argued that it is believed shared transformational leadership brings about sustainable change. Hall and Southworth (1997) have shown that the number and complexity of tasks together with the need to empower and develop leadership potential makes shared leadership essential. Lakomski (1995) noted the predominance of transformational leadership and Northouse (2004) has noted the increased popularity of the approach. MacBeath (1998) in advocating transformational leadership maintains that shared leadership is increasingly expected and essential. This increases the chances that transformational leadership should influence leaders' knowledge and understanding of leadership particularly since they will have employment that is concerned with a performing a function of leadership. Again this suggestion well deserves further investigation to identify the nature of any such link. This could help to assess the impact of Scout Association training as opposed to employment training on the knowledge and understanding of leadership.

7.3 Research Question 3: Who and/or what informs their knowledge and understanding?

It has been noted that little is known about the backgrounds of leaders in the Scout Association. The literature review shows that this consequentially and equally applies to the sources of their knowledge and understanding of leadership. This, again, adds to the importance of the findings.

This research has found that overall the main source of knowledge and understanding of leadership mainly came from sources within the Scout Association. Employment (including training) was the second most important source.

It is surprising that the contribution of sources external to the Scout Association is small given, for example, that 47.9% of respondents (Table 6.01) maintained that they had undertaken a form of leadership training through their employment yet this itself only accounts for just over 7 % of the total score (Table 6.18). It may be that few respondents are exposed to knowledge and understanding of leadership outside of the Association and employment. Employment and leisure activities may expose some to the knowledge and understanding. Others may not have or take up such opportunities. It could, however, suggest that any knowledge and understanding of leadership respondents are exposed to outside of the Scout Association itself is either not recognised, not regarded as relevant by respondents or it is not transferable. This could reflect the androgynous nature of adult learning. It appears that a lack of recognition is possible given the earlier discussion about the origin and influence of transformational leadership. Nevertheless, there is an element of insularity broken partially by the world of work since work itself and employment training together

account for over 21% of the total score. It is, however, worth commenting on the contribution Scout Association leader training makes to respondents' knowledge and understanding of leadership. It accounts for 20.3% of the score for leaders who have completed it. In effect 60.9% (64/105) of leaders who had completed leader training named it as an important source.

So why should internal sources (Scout Association leadership experience and colleagues in Scouting) be so influential. Why should Scout Association leader training less influential than other internal sources? This is an important question, not least since it is not known how effective the knowledge and understanding derived from the internal sources are. Exposure could be at play here. Leaders quite clearly spend more time working as leaders and working with other leaders. They internalise, observe, discuss and share ideas on a frequent basis. In comparison, they spend very little time in a formal training situation. But it could be for other reasons. It may reflect that different leaders are motivated to learn in different ways. It could be because they cannot see the relevance and make the connection between theory and practice. There is a different perception of reality. It could be because the instrumental how to do it approach is seen as not being effective and that leaders perceive reality as lying in understanding leadership through the experiences of those who are leaders and are led. In other words, they want to work out what leadership is about rather than being told that these are the skills of leadership. If this were the case, it would be at odds with the finding that the Scout Association's preferred models of leadership are instrumental and there would be connections with Gunter and Ribbins (2003) and Gunter (2005) humanistic province. The focus would be towards the comprehending end of the continuum rather than the nature of leadership activity end of it. It would

also help us to understand why knowledge and understanding of leadership from work was more influential than the leadership training provided by employment since they could be developing their understanding of leadership through the experiences of colleagues.

In many respects the reliance on colleagues and experience in informing knowledge and understanding of leadership is consistent with the finding that the link between leadership development and organisational performance had not been established (Muijs et al, 2006). If leaders perceived that training did not make a difference they would be sceptical about it. This is also consistent with the finding that professional learning had more of an impact of cognitive knowledge than competence or skills (Sugrue, 2002). In other words, we understand the ideas but cannot or will not apply them. The finding that coaching was the most effective form of development could explain the lack of application (Joyce and Showers, 1988). If people were coached then the ideas could be embedded more effectively in practice. We have seen in chapter 4, that the value of coaching, with its link to improving student attainment, has been increasingly recognised as an important means of professional development of teachers. Its integration into the new teacher professionalism (DfES, 2006) and the development of the National Framework for Mentoring and Coaching as part of the DfES Secondary School Strategy are all signs of this (CUREE, 2006). Coaching appears to be a natural extension to what happens informally in the Scout Association given the inclination for leaders to learn more from one another than from other sources. It therefore makes sense, given the more established link between it and improving organisational performance, to capitalise on it and develop it to improve the quality of Scouting for young people and reverse the numerical decline in

membership. What sense is there in continuing with more traditional training methods if there is little evidence that they make any difference? If such recommendations were to be adopted, there would, of course be resource implications that would need to be addressed. If the Association is serious about improving the quality of Scouting and the role of the coach would need to be a lot more than that of the 'personal training adviser' or 'training adviser', since this would involve a coach agreeing objectives, acting as first hand witness to the leader action, helping leaders to analyse evidence to plan further courses of action.

7.4 Research Question 4: How does training impact upon their knowledge and understanding of leadership?

The literature review shows that there is an unquestioned assumption that leader training makes a difference to individual and organisational performance by impacting on leaders understanding of leadership. That this resulted in the fostering of an instrumental how to do it competence based approach to understanding leadership in the training. It was not known whether leaders accepted the preferred leadership models. The approach put little emphasis on the agency of followers and ignored others ways of understanding leadership. The review also found that there was evidence that experiential forms of training, such as coaching, were more effective than non-experiential forms in affecting performance.

The findings show that overall there is some uncertainty about leaders' perceptions of the impact of leader training on their performance, that learning from other leaders undertaking the training was found to have the greatest impact and that there is no wholesale acceptance of leadership models, principles and theories by leaders and

there was no consensus as to how training could be improved lend weight to the questioning of the assumption.

The uncertainty of the overall impact is again consistent with the Muijs et al (2006) finding that there *may* be a relationship between leader development programmes and organisational performance. The value put on learning from other leaders again could be interpreted as a rejection of the instrumental approach in favour of the humanistic approach described in the Gunter and Ribbins (2003) and Gunter (2005) typology as is the lack of wholesale acceptance of the instrumental ACL and SL models.

The finding that leaders only accept certain parts of the preferred models of leadership suggests that they do question what leadership is. It has also been shown that leaders do recognise the agency of followers. These findings are in spite of the training programme and materials not really encouraging them to do so. We have already noted the relatively small amount of emphasis in terms of time and modules in the Scout Association's leader training scheme given over to understanding leadership. It is, therefore, not surprising that interpretations of leadership are not seen as problematic and there is no consensus about how leader training could be improved by questioning what leading and leadership means. To do so would mean that the understanding of leadership being fostered could fall within other provinces such as the conceptual province of the Gunter and Ribbins, (2003) and Gunter (2005) typology. Indeed, by presenting just two related and complementary models the message is that leadership is given and so leaders are not encouraged to make comparisons and question leading and leadership further.

Recent moves by the Scout Association towards a competence based form of training may result in a positive impact of training becoming clearer. Given the finding that leaders learn more from others, much will depend on the nature and quality of the opportunities. If it becomes a matter of leaders having to compile portfolios of evidence of competence with little reflection with others about witnessed practice then the chances are that the relationship between training and performance will remain unclear. If, on the other hand, leaders are coached then, as has already been argued in this chapter, the learning is likely to have a greater impact.

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7.5 Research Question 5: How do the Scout Association's and its leaders' understanding compare with other ways of understanding of leadership in education?

The Scout Association's preferred interpretation of leadership and its relationship with contemporary interpretations of leadership in education were addressed in chapter 3. It was found that this was largely instrumental. This research, however, found that leaders' interpretation of leadership had an ethical dimension, was not just instrumental but could also be related Gunter's (2005) Conceptual, Descriptive, Humanistic and Axiological provinces but not the remaining three. This is summarised in the adaptation of Gunter's (2005) typology (Figure 7.02). The areas in bold in Figure 7.02 show how leaders' interpretation of leadership is related to the typology.

Why is leaders' understanding of leadership is related to some provinces and not others? The sourcing of knowledge and understanding of leadership in particular from within the Scout Association and from their own experience, with the uncertainty of

the value of leader training, could explain the links with the humanistic province (understanding experiences). There is no link with the aesthetic province (understanding experiences). Appreciation of the value of the arts to enhance leadership practice could be lacking because of a lack of exposure to them and / or a lack of recognition as to how leading and leadership can be understood through them. This may have its roots in wider cultural expectations. It would be interesting to determine whether the findings are repeated for leadership in other organisations. If they were, it could suggest that explanation is related to influences eternal to organisations.

As far as delivering change is concerned, the Scout Association's preferred models provide a link with the instrumental province (delivering change). However, it should be remembered that leaders have only chosen to accept elements of the models. This is particularly true for situational leadership as a result of the value base of the organisation they subscribe to. This provides a link with the axiological province.

Figure 7.02: An Adaptation of Knowledge and Knowing in the Field of Educational Leadership
Gunter, 2005 p.19.

Activity			
Challenge	Understanding meanings	Understanding experiences	Provision
	<p>Conceptual:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> What does it mean to be and to do leaders, leading and leadership? <p>Descriptive:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> What do we see when we witness leaders, leading and leadership? 	<p>Humanistic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> What experiences do those involved in educational organisations have of leaders, leading and leadership? <p>Aesthetic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> What can the arts do to illuminate the practice of leaders, leading and leadership? 	
Challenge	Working for change	Delivering change	Provision
	<p>Critical:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> What happens when power is exercised as leaders, leading and leadership? <p>Axiological:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> What does it mean for leaders, leading and leadership to support what is right and good? 	<p>Evaluative:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> What impact do leaders, leading and leadership have on organisational outcomes? <p>Instrumental:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> What type of leaders, leading and leadership are needed to secure organisational effectiveness? 	
Actions			

So why do the leaders not provide links with the evaluative province and seek to measure the impact of their leadership? This could be because of the voluntary nature

of their work. They are not being paid for their services and the organisation is largely financially independent and therefore there are not the internal or external pressures to demonstrate value for money, as is the case in the public and private sectors. It is the belief in the altruistic value of the work that matters and not exam results that provide a measure of success. Because of this means of measuring the impact of performance have not been devised or imported and leaders have therefore not been exposed to them.

The links with the axiological province (working for change) reflect the value base of the voluntary sector, the Scout Association within it and the motives and motivations of leaders within it - the influence of ethical leadership. However, again this does not extend to challenging power structures and the use of power over the disadvantaged and so there are no understanding leadership in terms of the critical province. In this sense it appears to be consistent with Grimshaw's (1978) notion of conservatism inside a democratic state. It is at odds with Loades (1977) view that Scouting is not a process of socialisation leading to an acceptance into a social system without criticism and that by making people aware of their responsibilities towards others needs and rights they are encouraged to challenge the way things are done. Equally, it could reflect the perspectives of the wider population as a whole, which generally does not challenge power structures, and passively support the status quo.

That leaders accept aspects of leadership models shows that they do inadvertently question leadership. Hence there is a link with the conceptual province of understanding meanings. It has already been suggested that the Scout Association does not actively encourage its leaders to question what leading and leadership means

and what the fundamental assumptions underlying accounts of leading and leadership are. This explains why in part it does not extend to examine the use of power. Hence this questioning only scratches the surface. Likewise learning by witnessing others lead does not extend to an examination of intentions, motives and purposes. And so there is a superficial link with the descriptive province of delivering change. The tenuous links these provinces may well be related to the comments made above about the lack of a relationship with the critical province. The emphasis is therefore on actions, activity and provisions at the expense of challenge. By not questioning taken for granted assumptions it could explain why the understanding of leadership does not extend to leading learning. Here we are reminded of Burrridge and Haydon's (1993) distinction between leader training and leader education with the former being about transfer of skills and the latter being more about creating effective learners and responsible citizens. The Scout Association could explore the pros and cons of being more involved in the latter.

7.6 Summary

Research Question One: How do the role incumbents understand leadership?

1. The literature review provides a number of sources of support for the notion that leadership is understood in terms of the inclusion and success components with both having an ethical basis.
2. There is no wholesale acceptance of the Scout Association's preferred leadership models. Elements of the ACL and SL models that are consistent with the inclusion and success components are evident in the understanding of leadership.
3. Transformational leadership appears to have influenced leaders' understanding of

leadership. The source of the influence of transformational leadership is uncertain. Vision, however, is not seen as important. This is consistent with an interpretivist perspective, recognition of conjoint agency and a belief amongst leaders that leadership is essentially shared.

4. The understanding of leadership is not concerned leading in learning.

Research Question 2: Is the understanding uniform amongst role incumbents?

1. Length of service has a bearing on how positive leaders are towards the general notion of leadership more so than any other factor. Commitment and socialisation are suggested as reasons for this. It is suggested that leaders with more than ten years' service are more positive about the general notion of leadership because of a deeper socialisation and participation and involvement with other leaders. The finding that leaders who have done more than 10 years are as positive about the general notion of leadership as those who have done less than five years can be explained in terms of initial enthusiasm and a strong belief in the altruistic mission. The greater importance of the inclusion factor for leaders working with the Explorer section can be explained in terms of the continuum of leadership behaviour and a move from directive to a non-directive leadership style as the age of followers increases.
2. The greater importance of the inclusion factor for leaders who have a management and administrative employment background can be explained in terms of the influence of the employment in terms of teamwork and shared transformational leadership.
3. More research is needed to establish how valid the suggestions are to determine the importance of conjoint agency and to help retain leadership.

Research Question 3: Who and/or what informs their knowledge and understanding?

1. A variety of reasons are offered for the reliance on sources within the Scout Association for knowledge and understanding of leadership. These include exposure, perceived relevance and transferability of learning.
2. The relative lack of influence of the Scout Association's leader training even given its compulsory nature can be explained in terms of leaders wanting to understand leadership from others rather than be told how to do it and so falls in the humanistic province rather than the instrumental province of the Gunter and Ribbins (2003) and Gunter (2005) typology.
3. The findings are consistent with views that it has only been established that there may be link between leader training and performance, that leader training may have more of a cognitive impact than one on practice and that coaching may be the most effective form of leadership development.
4. Again more research is needed to establish how valid the suggestions are since this could result in more effective use of resources in the future.

Research Question 4: How does training impact upon their knowledge and understanding of leadership?

1. The uncertainty of the link between organisational performance and leader training, a desire to understand leadership from others rather than be given the skills of leadership and preferred approaches to learning could explain why there is some certainty amongst leaders about the impact of leader training and leader performance.
2. The finding that elements of the Situational Leadership model and little of the

Action Centred Leadership model are accepted by leaders again could reflect the uncertainty amongst leaders about the impact of training on performance and a related preference to learn from others what leadership is and/or reflect the lack of emphasis leader training puts on examining leadership models, principles and theories.

3. Although leaders want to understand leadership from others and do question what leading and leadership is, they are not actively encouraged to do so.

Research Question 5: How do the Scout Association's and its leaders' understanding compare with other ways of understanding of leadership in education?

1. The relationship with the descriptive and humanistic provinces can be explained by the importance of sources internal to the Scout Association, in particular colleagues in informing knowledge and understanding of leadership. The link with the descriptive province does not extend to leadership being understood in terms of questioning the motives, purposes and intentions of the witnessed leadership

2. The influence of leader training with the emphasis on the Scout Association's preferred models of leadership could explain the instrumental nature of leaders understanding of leadership.

3. Selection of aspects of the ACL, SL models and transformational leadership is evidence that leaders do question concepts of leadership. This does not extend to questioning the use of power.

4. The value base of VSO and the Scout Association and its leaders explains the axiological nature of the understanding.

5. A variety of reasons are offered for the leadership not being understood in terms of the aesthetic, evaluative and critical, provinces. These are respectively: not appreciating the value of the arts in understanding leadership, the voluntary nature of the organisation, the conservative nature of the organisation.

The next and final chapter provides a final focused response to each of the questions showing what progress has been made to advance the knowledge and understanding in the context of the thesis. Using the findings and their implications, it makes recommendations as to how the findings could be used by designers and deliverers of Scout Association leader training and identifies what further questions arise from them for further investigation.

CHAPTER EIGHT: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.0: Introduction

This chapter is concerned with making a response to each of the research questions describing the findings and their contribution to what is known about the sources, nature, and diversity of the knowledge and understanding of leadership in the Scout Association. Although the questions and the findings are directed specifically at the Scout Association they raise issues such as the effectiveness of training and the influences of market forces on leadership for other providers of informal education and also formal education providers. Recommendations are made from the findings. They are concerned with how they might inform leader development policy and practice and form the basis of further research to advance the knowledge and understanding of leaders and leadership in both the informal, voluntary and formal compulsory sectors.

It should be appreciated that the conclusions, and consequently the subsequent recommendations, are driven by the theoretical basis developed from the literature and personal experience rather than the empirical bases developed from the primary data. This is partly arises from the interpretation of data produced by the statistical techniques For instance factor analysis relies on an objective identification of patterns without knowing what the various questionnaire statements mean. The factors then have to be interpreted by the researcher using his or her knowledge and understanding of the topic.

The research questions focus on role incumbent leaders in one geographical part of the world's largest youth movement and the largest co-educational provider of

informal education for youth in the U.K. The findings relating to the research questions are significant for leaders in the Scout Association, its training managers and trainers, young people and their parents, the National Headquarters of the Scout Association as policy makers, practitioners and researchers; particularly given the lack of research and, presumably also lack of interest in leadership of young people in their leisure time pursuits. The thesis has the potential to provide a basis to enable a future valuable comparison between the leadership of a voluntary organisation providing informal education with those providing statutory formal education. It is valuable given that the latter has been subjected to accountability with measurement of outcomes influencing leadership whereas the former has not and ostensibly permits leaders to act with more freedom. The research, therefore, will be of interest to those in both the informal and formal educational sectors such as practitioners, trainers, policy makers and researchers who may wish to reflect on the impact of educational reforms. Those who are interested in the impact of reforms on leaders and leadership in education could usefully employ this research. The research has also added to the broader debates about the impact of leadership on organisational performance and the contributions of sources of knowledge and understanding of leadership, in particular those concerning questions and assumptions that are related to training and leader and organisational performance. In this context it also provides a means of evaluating the impact of preferred leadership models on the knowledge and understanding of practitioners.

The questions driving the research are:

- 1) How do the adult role incumbents understand leadership?
- 2) Is the understanding uniform amongst role incumbents?

- 3) Who and/or what informs their knowledge and understanding of leadership?
- 4) How does training impact on their knowledge and understanding of leadership?
- 5) How do the Scout Association and its leaders understanding compare with other ways of understanding leadership in education?

Responses to each of these questions in turn are provided. In each case these are followed by recommendations arising from them. In chapter four it was argued that even given limitations the research design is appropriate since all reasonable attempts have been made to ensure validity. The research tool was piloted, a large anonymous sample was accessed and the approach has elicited a good response rate. The use of a questionnaire has denied clarification of responses. This, however, could form the basis of further research based on the findings. The data has been analysed statistically using ideas tested against the expert opinions from University of Birmingham statistical advisory service to add to the validity of the findings provided by the research methodology. Even given the acknowledged limitations of the research design and analysis, it is maintained that the research questions have been addressed. Nevertheless, certain elements remaining unanswered and are worthy of investigation are identified. New questions arising from these are identified to inform the research agenda. These are identified in section 8.1b, 8.2b, 8.3b, .8.4b and 8.5b.

It should be remembered the findings apply to the case study city but they may be made relatable to other case study cities.

Each of the research questions are now addressed in turn together with their implications and recommendations.

8.1: Research Question One. How do the adult role incumbents understand leadership?

The findings arise from the statistical and descriptive analyses. As a result of the theoretical interpretation of factor analysis it has been suggested that leaders understand leadership in terms of the dual factors of inclusion and success with inclusion being the more dominant factor. Descriptive analysis has advocated that both of these factors have an ethical dimension. A belief in a shared form of leadership that is explained in terms of a historic legacy, altruism, volunteering and a more pluralistic society acting together.

The benevolence and responsibility for oneself and country that inform the Scout Association's Promise and Law and its past are likely to be linked to the inclusion and success factors respectively. Altruistic and self-development motivations of the volunteers and the Scout Association are also likely to be linked to the inclusion and success factors respectively. These may equate with satisfying social conscience and entrepreneurialistic desires respectively. It is thus proposed that leaders believe that leadership involves helping others and including others in the process in order to make a difference. In this respect it is similar to the ACL model as summarised by the balancing of the needs of the task, group and individual. The inclusion factor is dominant. In this respect it differs from the ACL model since task, group and individual are given equal weight. This could be consistent with informal education where there is less emphasis on measured success. It is proposed that together, the

factors give rise to a belief in distributed leadership and acknowledgement of the contribution that followers make in the leadership process. If it can be established that followers have the freedom to make decisions to influence outcomes without follower influence then the notion of conjoint agency and Kay's (1996) interpretivist sense of leadership may be recognised since leadership will be a social interaction process rather than attributable to the role incumbent leader. The democratic approach to leadership is may be attributed to the voluntary nature of the leadership within a hierarchical organisation giving more influence to followers to have a large say and influence in the leadership process and hence enhancing the agency of followers. A similar and complementary explanation is offered in terms of a more pluralistic society in which the Scout Association operates and draws its members and leadership where authority is questioned and there are calls for more accountability.

It was suggested that leaders take aspects of the ACL and SL models of leadership that are consistent with the inclusion and success factors and the distributed leadership that develops from them. The positivist nature of the models is put forward as a reason why there is not a wholesale acceptance of them. It was also suggested that leaders also take aspects of transformational leadership that are consistent with their view of leadership. Visioning is excluded from this possibly because of the positivist implications where the leader works to persuade followers to accept a vision and because they already have a shared vision in the form of their altruistic motivation.

In spite of the Scout Association primarily being concerned with helping young people to learn the understanding of leadership does not reflect this since little reference is made about helping young people learn. This could be because leaders are

not encouraged to question what leadership is. For to do so might result in leaders questioning what the membership is learning, how and why and whether this could be improved. In this respect they would be involved in leading in learning.

8.1a: Implications and Recommendations

- for the Scout Association, Parents, Leaders, Followers, Training Managers and Training.

If it is shown that the understanding of leadership put forward prevails throughout the country, the Scout Association needs to question whether this is the most effective understanding. Indeed is it in a position to influence such an understanding given the motivations of volunteers? Could the emphasis on inclusion at the expense of success be one of the reasons that account for the numerical decline in its membership in relative and absolute terms in that there is more emphasis in getting more involved than on achieving and celebrating achievements? Alternatively, could the proposed understanding explain why the organisation continues to be a relatively popular organisation especially given the social trends toward pluralism and increased competition from other sources for the youth market? The National Headquarters of the Scout Association could address these questions as an integral part of its overall strategy of expanding its membership.

Parents and young people alike, however, may be reassured that the leadership has an ethical dimension and that it does not have the authoritarian militaristic approach that the Association has in the past been criticised for having (Foster, 1977; Springhall 1977). Further, in these times where the pressure is increasingly piled on young

people to produce results in the formal sector, parents and young people could be reassured that there is a more relaxed approach to personal development available.

Researchers interested in the impact of market forces fuelled by exam results on education potentially have an example of an understanding of leadership that is relatively untainted by the forces. The suggestion that leadership has an ethical nature with an emphasis on inclusion above success could provide a benchmark for an evaluation of the effects of market forces on leadership since it would show how leadership is understood where success is not measured in terms the measurable results that drive them.

If the Scout Association finds that the understanding being advocated is valuable, it needs to consider what it can do to develop the understanding. The notion of conjoint agency, for instance, is a very powerful one for it recognises that the decisions and actions of followers directly affect outcomes and that they are not directly attributable to the designated leader. How can this message effectively be communicated? Is it desirable or indeed possible to try and harness this and enhance follower decision making? How would this be accomplished if large numbers of followers are involved? These are questions that the Scout Association training managers at headquarters and county levels need to examine. Further, there are implications for followers, who, in a hierarchical organisation, will also be leaders. If they realise more that they are not just passive tools and that they can effect outcomes in being closer to the grass roots of an organisation they can use this to help to meet the needs of young people and hence the organisation more effectively.

The research has suggested that leaders are inclined to pick and choose aspects of preferred leadership models. The Scout Association needs to examine whether it is just worthwhile concentrating on one or two models. Would an examination of a range of models be preferable? It also needs to examine the validity of the positivist characteristics of such models. Would it be better to address general questions such as "What is leadership?", "What are the different ways leadership can be understood?" "What are the pros and cons of these?" and "How can leadership be practised?" in its literature and training opportunities. This would address the Association's concerns described by Rogers (2003a) that it should have a model that could be used by adults with a range of abilities. Again these are concerns for Scout Association training managers at headquarters and county levels and should precipitate a wholesale review as to how the Association addresses the understanding of leadership.

The findings also have implications for other providers of informal and formal education. Since it is advocated that leaders have picked and chosen aspects of models and approaches to understanding leadership, it begs the question for training policy makers and training bodies such as the National College for School Leadership as to whether it makes sense to promote the instrumental model of leadership manifest in transformational leadership. They need to assess the extent to which the models are valid and accepted. This in turn may precipitate a similar sort of review.

The Scout Association needs to consider putting emphasis on leading learning without compromising its aims, values and legacies. Leaders need to be encouraged to question the value of what they are asking young people to learn and when. They could explore the most effective means of encouraging learning. It may well be that

this happens informally, but there appears to be little obvious encouragement for leaders to do so. If they were to do so, perhaps this might be a key to reversing the Association's membership and leadership problems by improving the quality of learning opportunities offered to young people? This goes beyond the immediate concerns of training managers since it could be seen as undermining the fundamental principles of the Scout Association and as such needs handling carefully and should be part of a debate involving the membership at all levels. It is however, so crucial since it will determine whether the organisation can remain relevant or become more so for young people.

8.1b: Further Questions and Research

The description of role incumbents' knowledge and understanding of leadership put forward is based the case study city. It will be important to find out whether this is found amongst leaders throughout the country or indeed in other countries.

More work needs to be done to establish the exact nature of the conjoint agency that has been put forward to determine whether or not the leader has the upper hand.

This will require the collection and interpretation of data that will reveal the depth of understanding.

Does the understanding of leadership advocated, with the inclusion factor being more important than the success factor, exist amongst leaders in the statutory youth sector providing informal education and leaders in formal education where there is more emphasis on measured success as a means of competition and determining value for money? Indeed does the understanding exist amongst leaders of institutions

providing formal education where there is an ethical context such as church schools? Comparisons like these could provide a valuable understanding for policy makers, trainers, practitioners and researchers of the influences on leadership in particular the role of market forces and help determine what of value can be learnt from VSO like the Scout Association. Indeed it could provide a springboard to allow an examination of how the nature of the leadership provided affects to sort of educational experience provided for young people.

Similar sort of data will be needed to determine exactly how the values leaders hold translate into their understanding of leadership particularly notions of conjoint agency and distributed leadership. What is the influence of pluralistic values and the power of the volunteer?

Where could the influence of transformational leadership come from and why might visioning not seen as important? Could it be rejected because it is seen as a model of leadership with positivist assumptions i.e. the leader primarily determining outcomes? Do leaders share an altruistic vision to start with? Again these are salient questions that could be provided by accessing data that would provide a deeper understanding.

I have been concerned with the knowledge and understanding of leadership and not its practice. It is important to find out whether or not these actually translate into practice.

8.2: Research Question Two: Is the understanding uniform amongst role incumbents?

The literature review showed that very little was known about the backgrounds of leaders. The findings therefore provide a start to addressing the lack of knowledge in this area. The research looked for any differences in the understanding of leadership as defined by the general notion of leadership that included the inclusion and success factors identified from the theoretical interpretation of factor analysis amongst leaders of different categories: warranted appointment, section appointment, length of service, stages in the completion of Scout Association leader training, gender, age, employment, education and participation in leader training not provided by the Scout Association. The lack of differentiation in the raw data did not permit ethnicity to be included in this analysis. The analysis used ANOVA to identify any significant differences in understanding of leadership between and within each of these groups.

Length of service has more influence than other factors in determining how positive leaders are towards the general notion of leadership. This could reflect commitment and a process of socialisation into shared understandings and values. It was found that leaders who have completed more than ten years service are more positive about the general notion of leadership than those who have completed less than five years, but there was no difference between those who have served more than 10 years with those that have served less than 5 years. Thus an expected linear increase in acceptance of the general notion of leadership with length of service is not found. Given that those who have served more than 10 years and less than 5 years have the same levels of acceptance of the notion this suggests that there is a dip in the acceptance in the 5-10 year length of service. It could point to a lessening of the commitment to their initial

cause after 5 years of service and so help to explain a loss of leaders. Their departure would leave those who are more committed in the long term and are so more positive towards the general notion of leadership.

The finding that the inclusion factor is more important than the success factor for leaders working with the Explorer section could be explained in terms of the leaders using a more non-directive leadership style that is more in tune with shared leadership and more appropriate to the older age range of young people that they lead. If this is the case, why is the same finding applicable to leaders who are mainly working with adults? Dual appointments could explain this, but so could a less inclusive and shared approach to leadership.

The dominance of the inclusion factor amongst leaders with managerial and administrative employment backgrounds could be explained by the influence of an emphasis on teamwork in their employment. This may be related to shared transformational leadership and reflect the widespread adoption of the notion by employers.

8.2a: Implications and Recommendations

- for the Headquarters of the Scout Association, Trainers and Line Managers.

That the raw data did not permit differentiation on the basis of ethnicity because the vast majority of respondents were 'white British' is consistent with the Association's concern that there are a lack of leaders from other ethnic backgrounds particularly in settlements like the case study city where there is a large percentage of the population from non-white backgrounds.

It is possible that the differences in acceptance of the general notion of leadership is symptomatic of a dip in satisfaction of leaders who have served 5-10 years with their work. This could be a cause of loss of volunteer leaders. Alternatively it could be part of the natural life cycle of leaders. Either way, line managers throughout the Scout Association should be aware of these symptoms if they are to address leader satisfaction and consequently retention. It adds extra weight to the Association's policy of frequently reviewing appointment to determine with the post holder whether they should continue, change appointments or retire since this can only add to the health of the organisation by helping to address leader needs and concerns, revitalising enthusiasm and sensitively removing the 'dead wood'.

The Scout Association might be reassured that its message that a less directive and more shared form of leadership is appropriate for older young people is understood. It might, however, be concerned that, if it values shared leadership, that the same message may not have manifested itself so much amongst leaders working with adults. Training managers therefore should be aware that this may be the case and be prepared to promote it where there is evidence that individuals do not accept it. Furthermore, it begs the question whether a hierarchical leadership including the continued use of the term commissioner for leaders above group level is warranted and best serves the Association. Would a flatter arrangement be better?

These are questions the National Headquarters needs to address and promote.

The Scout Association needs to question whether there is cause to take into account the suggested greater belief in inclusion, teamwork and shared leadership amongst

people from managerial and administrative backgrounds in the training it provides for them. To some extent accreditation of prior learning circumvents some of the issues connected with this, but interviewers should be prepared to explore this possibility in the process of identifying training needs.

If work based transformational leadership has an influence on leaders' understanding of leadership, this should result in some concern given the criticisms of this approach. Given that it has been suggested that leaders have rejected visioning, such concern may be lessened, but training managers need to be aware of the limitations of transformational leadership particularly its positivist assumptions about leadership and the emphasis on the agency of the leader and the associated lack of recognition of the agency of the follower to affect organisational outcomes (Gunter, 2001; Gronn, 1999, 2000).

8.2b: Further Questions and Research

The proposition that there is a link between the acceptance of the advocated general notion of leadership and leader satisfaction deserves further attention; including in particular whether this is part of a natural process and/or it is related to loss of leaders.

More work needs to be undertaken to determine the nature of the understanding of leadership by commissioners as leaders of adults since this could be related to leader fulfilment and satisfaction.

The extent to which transformational leadership could be derived conscientiously or

sub-conscientiously from employment and influences leader thinking should be determined. The desirability of any significant influence should be questioned.

8.3: Research Question Three: Who and/or what informs their knowledge and understanding?

The literature review has shown that nothing was known about where leaders in the Scout Association derived their knowledge and understanding of leadership. The research has made a significant start in addressing this lack of knowledge. A one way Chi-square test showed that there is a significant difference in the contribution made by different sources. A finding of the research is that the main sources of knowledge and understanding of leadership came from sources internal to the Scout Association. For leaders who have completed Scout Association leader training the most importance of these sources was leadership experience, followed by Scout Association leader training and then colleagues in Scouting (Table 6.18). Table 6.18 shows that 60.9% (64/105) of respondents who had completed leader training identified it as an important source. Employment also pays an important contribution to the knowledge and understanding.

The reliance on internal sources could be explained in terms of a lack of exposure (in some instances) to knowledge and understanding of leadership to sources outside of the Association itself. And where leaders are exposed to external sources of knowledge and understanding of leadership, there may be difficulties in recognising them, seeing their relevance and/or transferring that learning to leadership in the Scout Association. External sources appear to have an impact since an understanding

of transformational leadership is evident and this approach to understanding leadership is not promoted by the Scout Association.

The ranking of leader training after experience could be explained in terms of the proportionally greater amount of time leaders spend leading and working with other leaders. Leaders could see everyday experience as a better reflection of reality than that portrayed in training experiences. This could have more resonance than an instrumental how to do leadership approach. There may also be associated problems of transferring learning from the training environment to everyday practice.

8.3a: Implications and Recommendations

- for the Scout Association's Training and Line Managers

The Scout Association should consider whether it is desirable that its leaders source their knowledge and understanding of leadership from experience and colleagues since this could either propagate good or bad practice and, indeed, whether anything could be done to address this. This is more likely to be a matter for line managers at all levels within the organisation particularly since pertinent questions are what is good and bad practice? This in turn, however, begs the organisation to address the question "what is leadership?" more closely.

The Association also needs to consider whether external sources could make a valuable contribution since this could contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of leadership. This is connected to the earlier arguments for leaders to consider the pros and cons of different approaches to understanding leadership and the argument that they embrace questions relating to leadership of learning. This

particularly falls into the remit of national policy makers and the training of training managers and trainers.

The importance of its leader training as a source of knowledge and understanding of leadership may be a concern. The Scout Association needs to consider the value of the formal training course or experience and consider making more use of first hand and everyday experience and that of other leaders as sources since they are more likely to draw on these. This is related to the recommendations arising from the conclusions to the next research question and is developed in it, but will probably require a change in mindset and the questioning of assumptions and interests at every level of the organisation.

8.3b: Further Questions and Research

Although the findings provide an indication of the relative importance of each of the sources, we do not know the impact each of these has. Thus although a source may account for a particular percentage of the knowledge and understanding we do not know how effective this is. This is worthy of further research particularly given the relative importance of experience and Scout Association leader training.

It will be important to identify exactly what sort of contribution each of the sources make. What aspects of knowledge and understanding are derived from which sources and how?

8.4: Research Question Four. How does training impact on their knowledge and understanding of leadership?

Scout Association leader training was found to be second most important source of their knowledge and understanding of leadership for leaders who have completed it (Table 6.18). Nearly 61% of respondents who had completed Scout Association leader training identified it as an important source. The findings show that leaders agree that Scout Association leader training has resulted in them performing better as a consequence of participating in it. The agreement, however, is far from overwhelming and there is some ambivalence (Table 6.06). In this sense it is argued that the jury is still out concerning this issue and is consistent with the findings of Muijs et al (2006). Learning from other leaders was deemed to be more effective than the official content and lends support for the argument put forward by Joyce and Showers (1988) for coaching. The explanations offered for these findings are provided in the previous section (8.3) in terms of time exposure, relevance, greater faith in everyday experiences as a reflection of reality and transfer of learning.

It is suggested that leadership is not understood in terms of *all* aspects of any of the leadership models and theories. Instead it is advocated that leaders take certain aspects of these to inform their understanding. That leaders do accept some but not all aspects of the preferred leadership models could be evidence that leaders *do* question what leadership is and are capable of evaluating different leadership models and ways of understanding leadership.

8.4a: Implications and Recommendations

- for the Headquarters of the Scout Association and Training Managers

Training managers at all levels in the Scout Association need to continue to evaluate the relative value of formal training experiences with those provided by experiential methods in order to address the issues such as relevance, reality and transfer of learning. It needs to consider what type of knowledge and understanding best lends itself to what sort of training and development. In particular it should consider the employment of coaching as a means of developing understanding and practice of leadership since this involves leaders learning from other leaders through the agreement of objectives, observation, feedback and planning for the future. It, however, has enormous human resource implications for leaders in a voluntary organisation at all levels. Given the potential dividends the Association should at least experiment with the approach and evaluate the outcomes and viability.

Questioning the assumed link between traditional forms of delivery of training and leader and hence organisational performance is a huge step to take and inevitably will meet with resistance, possibly from those with vested interests or resistant to change with the use of ad hoc anecdotal evidence. This needs to be countered with an argument for the need for a systematic and comprehensive research to produce reliable conclusions.

There is evidence that leaders do question what leadership is. They should be actively encouraged to do so as part of the official programme of leadership development to further their understanding of the different ways leadership can be understood. The

National Headquarters of the Scout Association should provide the lead in the design of leader training schemes and official publications.

8.4b Further Questions and Research

Given the questions raised about the value of formal training experiences, more work needs to be undertaken to ascertain the precise reasons behind this.

Nevertheless, given that leaders do recognise Scout Association leader training as being an important source of their knowledge and understanding of leadership, more work needs to be undertaken to determine what sort of learning objectives lend themselves to formal training methods and what sort are best met using experiential methods such as coaching or, indeed, other methods. In this respect we enter the questions raised by Smith (1999) concerning andragogy and the particular ways adults learn using their pool of experience and whether this lends itself more to experiential learning.

8.5: Research Question Five. How do the Scout Association's and its leaders' understanding compare with other ways of understanding leadership in education?

The literature review has shown that Scout Association's official interpretation of leadership has been found to be instrumental. Thus other ways of understanding leadership as described by the provinces in the Gunter and Ribbins (2003) and Gunter (2005) typology are essentially not employed. By contrast this research suggests that its leaders understand leadership in ways that have affinity with Gunter's (2005) conceptual, descriptive, instrumental, humanistic and axiological provinces. It is

suggested that the latter is related to and explained by the ethical dimension and altruistic motivations in the understanding. There is some evidence that leaders question what leadership is through the rejection of official models and so this can be classed in the conceptual province. There is no evidence that they consciously do this and question purposes, motives and intentions. Since it has been shown that leaders understand leadership from the experiences of others this falls into the humanistic province but may also fall into the descriptive province. The questioning of the meaning of leadership (conceptual province) and questioning the witnesses of leadership (humanistic province), however, do not appear to extend deeper to examine, for example, power relationships between leaders and followers and hence stray into a critical understanding of leadership (critical province). Since it is advocated that leadership is understood in value based terms of the involving others and helping others, the understanding falls into the axiological province, but again this too does not appear to extend to questioning the morality of the exercise of power and how it is exercised over the disadvantaged in society. It essentially is indicative of a conservative organisation and society in general. Adoption of aspects of the ACL, SL and transformational leadership models shows that the understanding falls into the instrumental province. That the arts are not used to help understand leadership could be explained in terms of a lack of a wider cultural practice. The voluntary nature of the organisation and its financial independence from the public purse could be why leadership is not understood by looking at its relationship with organisational outcomes (evaluative province) since there are few pressures to demonstrate success.

What we therefore see is that leadership is understood in ways consistent with at least one of the two provinces in each of the four areas of the Gunter (2005) typology. But

since this does not apparently extend to questioning the use of power it cannot be said that there is a balance between actions and provisions and activity and challenge. Rather the understanding is biased towards activity, actions and provision at the expense of challenge.

8.5a: Implications and Recommendations

- for the Headquarters of the Scout Association, Training Managers, Trainers and Leaders.

The Scout Association should consider the advantages and disadvantages of providing opportunities for leaders to develop understanding leadership in ways described by the aesthetic, critical and evaluative provinces to provide a more comprehensive grasp of the roles of leaders and the functions of leadership. This would be a step towards providing leader education rather than just training. It may lead to difficult decisions being made particularly since it may involve the traditional role of the Association being compromised and a more radical and political function being realised especially with respect to the critical province.

In particular, there should be due consideration for providing opportunities for leaders to develop a conceptual understanding of leadership by asking what it means to be a leader and practise leadership and a descriptive understanding by questioning what is evident from the witness of leadership. The latter is consistent with the recommendations that leadership should be understood more effectively from a number of perspectives including the use of coaching (even if it is arguably instrumental), as a means of developing an understanding of the practice of leadership.

The implications and recommendations in this section are the concern of leaders and trainers at all levels of the Association, but the National Headquarters should play its part in the debate. All leaders should, however, be proactive and exercise their agency by actively seeking to further their understanding from a variety of perspectives and question the assumptions of the instrumental leadership models they are exposed to inside and outside of Scouting.

8.5b: Further Questions and Research

The extent to which the same findings and conclusions are mirrored in other organisations would provide valuable comparisons between voluntary, private and public organisations and indeed those providing formal and informal educational opportunities since it raises similar issues concerning the debate about leader training and leader education for practitioners, policy makers, and researchers.

If it is decided that the understanding of leadership described in a wider range of the provinces, then there needs to some thought as to what would be the best ways of delivering this so that it can be understood and applied by volunteers with a cross-section of abilities

8.6 Concluding Summary Statement

The thesis is concerned with what leaders in the Scout Association know and understand about leadership. It is pertinent since knowing what people know and understanding about leadership may help to explain how they behave in their leadership roles. This allows judgements to be made about the effectiveness of their behaviour. It is advocated that leaders in the Scout Association in the case study city

understand leadership in terms of inclusion and success, both of which have ethical bases. This could give rise to a belief in a shared form of leadership that gives some recognition to the agency of followers and conjoint agency. It is suggested that the understanding is the result of a number of influences that include the values of leaders and that of the organisation they are involved with and its historical legacy. The understanding can be affected by the age and experience of the people they lead. Training and the promotion of preferred models of leadership may not have the impact on the understanding expected. It is suggested that this is because leaders make their own sense of leadership from the variety of influences but put a lot of weight on that provided by other leaders they are associated with. This process should be encouraged by providing opportunities to explore a greater variety of ways of understanding leadership so that the best possible understanding is developed. The interaction of all the influences to produce common elements as advocated by the inclusion and success understanding is unlikely to be simple and more research needs to be undertaken to account for this.

Nevertheless, the findings and the explanations offered for them, provide an important contribution to the knowledge and understanding of leadership in education given that very little work has been completed on the leadership of voluntary sector informal education and, in particular, the Scout Association as the largest co-educational provider of informal education in the U.K.. They potentially have implications for a range of stakeholders particularly within the Scout Association ranging from the leaders working with young people to the National Headquarters of the organisation. The research also provides a basis for future research allowing an important comparison with leaders and leadership of other education providers.

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