



From Ships to Leaderships

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The Leadership of Maritime Education and Training (MET) Institutions *in the* United Kingdom

by

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Abstract

This research explicates the leadership of maritime education and training (MET) in the United Kingdom (UK). It explores how a sample of MET leaders made the transition from a professional or seafaring role into maritime education and thence to educational leadership.

Twenty UK MET leaders were interviewed in a survey. Framed against a theoretical exposition of educational leadership, the respondents were asked about: their life experiences; significant people and critical incidents encountered; their move from seafaring to education and the transition between sectors; their current roles as educational leaders; and their training, personal development and styles of leadership.

The findings from this sample reveal extraordinary, multi-faceted and relentless pressure on MET leaders. Career advancement is mostly serendipitous with little formal leadership development. There is scant evidence that reflective leadership is encouraged or practiced. Life experiences, and persons encountered, were significant, though the impact of critical incidents was less noteworthy.

This study has closed gaps in vocational educational research. It enhances our understanding of the transition from seafaring to education and suggests the development of programmes specific to MET leadership. It will help aspiring MET leaders in their decision-making and, also, those responsible for designing personal and organisational development interventions.

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Glossary of terms and abbreviations

AMBA	Association of Masters in Business Administration
BA	Bachelor of Arts Degree
BEd	Bachelor of Education Degree
BEI	British Education Institute
BERA	British Educational Research Association
BSc	Bachelor of Science Degree
CEL	Centre for Excellence in Leadership ¹
CFE	College of Further Education
CMS	Certificate in Management Studies
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
CoC(s)	Certificate(s) of Competence
GCFE	General College of Further Education
DfT	Department for Transport
EdD	Doctor of Education
ERIC	Education Resources Information Center
FCR	Full Cost Recovery
FE	Further Education
GFEC	General Further Education College
HE	Higher Education
HNC	Higher National Certificate
HND	Higher National Diploma
IAMI	International Association of Maritime Institutions
IfL	Institute for Learning
IMO	International Maritime Organization
LLB	Bachelor of Laws Degree
LLUK	Lifelong Learning United Kingdom
LSC	Learning and Skills Council ²
LSIS	Learning Skills Information Service
LSS	Learning and Skills Sector
MA	Master of Arts Degree
MBA	Masters in Business Administration Degree
MCA	Maritime and Coastguard Agency
MET	Maritime Education and Training
MN	Merchant Navy
MNTB	Merchant Navy Training Board
MPhil	Master of Philosophy Degree
MSA	Maritime Skills Alliance
MSc	Master of Science Degree
NCSL	National College of School Leadership ³

¹ CEL transferred its activity to LSIS in 2008.

² The LSC was closed in 2010 and replaced by the SFA and YPLA.

NCLSCS	National College for Leadership of Schools and Children's Services
NFER	National Foundation for Educational Research
NI	Northern Ireland
NInst	Nautical Institute
NOS	National Occupational Standards
NPQH	National Professional Qualification for Headship
NQF	National Qualification Framework ⁴
NQT	Newly Qualified Teacher
NVQ	National Vocational Qualification
OOW	Officer of the Watch
PDF	Portable Document File
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
PWC	Pricewaterhouse Coopers
QCDA	Qualifications and Curriculum Development Agency ⁵
QCF	Qualifications and Credit Framework
QIA	Quality Improvement Agency ⁶
QTLS	Qualified Teacher: Learning and Skills
QTS	Qualified Teacher Status
RAF	Royal Air Force
RN	Royal Navy
RNR	Royal Naval Reserve
RQ(s)	Research Question(s)
SEED	Scottish Executive Education Department
SCQFP	Scottish Credit and Qualifications Framework Partnership
SFA	Skills Funding Agency
SMT	Senior Management Team
SSB	Sector Skills Body
SSC	Sector Skills Council
STCW	Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping
SQA	Scottish Qualifications Authority
TDA	Teachers' Development Agency
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States [of America]
WMU	World Maritime University
YPLA	Young People's Learning Agency

³ In September 2009 The National College of School Leadership changed its name to The National College for Leadership of Schools and Children's Services, commonly abbreviated to The National College.

⁴ In 2008 the NQF was replaced by the QCF.

⁵ In May 2010 the UK Government announced its intention to close QCDA. This will happen at the end of March 2012.

⁶ QIA transferred its business to LSIS in October 2008.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

This chapter explains the rationale for a doctoral research project focusing on a specific instance of leadership in education. The research explores the leadership of Maritime Training and Education (MET) institutions in the United Kingdom (UK), together with the pathways, choices and decisions that have resulted in individuals attaining leadership positions in them.

MET is delivered for the merchant service⁷ by nautical training establishments. In the UK, there are eleven institutions with departments, schools or faculties providing maritime academic programmes and vocational training that lead to statutory Certificates of Competence⁸ (CoCs) (MNTB, 2012).

MET leaders hold mainly middle-management roles within these wider institutions and operate within a tightly regulated national and international statutory framework named Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping, 1978 (STCW 1978), as amended in 1995 and subsequently. This influences and even prescribes curriculum content and design, assessment strategy and awards of qualifications.

The project offers an opportunity to make enquiry in an area which is under-researched and in which I have a close and personal interest. This is outlined below and accords with Denscombe's (2006) position on subjective rationale:

⁷ The 'merchant service' (or Merchant Navy) comprises ships that ply for trade.

⁸ A Certificate of Competence (CoC) is a statutory licence to practice. There are numerous grades depending on the scope and nature of the job function.

‘In practice, the social researcher is faced with a variety of options...and has to make strategic decisions...There is no ‘one right’ direction to take.’ [original emphasis]. (Denscombe, 2006:3)

However, interest will be wider than my own subjective perspective, and this is shown on page 7.

This chapter outlines the aims of the research; specifies and elucidates the research questions; justifies the choice of the topic; indicates the potential for further research; states the author’s value position; acknowledges the ethical considerations in this type of research; addresses in broad terms the literature explored; introduces the methodology, and lastly; outlines the structure of the thesis.

Aims and objectives of the research

The broad aim of the research is to find out how individuals have made the career transition from seafaring (or some other career) to education and thence to educational leadership; what they find challenging in that process and what may assist others following a similar path in the future.

Recording these steps objectively will be one aim but, arguably, these questions are too wide: to find answers to the ‘how?’ of leadership attainment demands a more nuanced approach which will be expanded below.

There are also emancipatory and instrumentalist aspects to the research since it is hoped, firstly, that leadership development becomes a consideration in those places where it is not currently adopted and, secondly, that the findings may be used to offer career guidance to aspiring MET leaders.

Underpinning the thesis is an understanding of the complexity in arriving at a concept of 'leadership'. Barker cites evidence (Rost, 1991) showing that many writers on leadership fail to even define the term, saying 'not defining leadership seems to be an accepted practice among scholars who discuss leadership' (Barker, 1997:344). This project will attempt to avoid this shortcoming by offering a definition (see p.13).

The next section in this chapter will introduce the research questions.

Research questions

Any research enquiry starts with a problem and the perception that something is unknown. The unknown in this instance concerns how seafarers who become educational leaders perceive their roles; how they achieved their positions and whether there is anything that can be done to make this process more effective. These unknowns led to the establishing of four main research questions, each one with subsidiaries:

1. How do MET leaders define their roles and to what extent do they consider themselves 'educational leaders'? Are there differences between MET leadership and educational leadership in general?
2. What influences do MET leaders perceive as having been important in reaching their current positions? What parts did 'chance' and 'planning' take in the development of their careers?
3. To what extent do MET leaders reflect on their own styles of leadership and which do they exhibit? Which styles are perceived to be effective and which less so?
4. What form of training or development would help them do the job more effectively? What development did the leaders themselves receive pre- and post-appointment and what development do they perceive is necessary for those aspiring to MET leadership positions?

'Styles' and 'roles' refer to the manner in which educational leaders perceive they portray and project their leadership, together with the methods and attitudes they employ in their interactions with staff and others in their organisations. This is important since it is claimed that there are strong links between the style of leadership

of top groups of managers and the culture of the organisations they lead (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2006:184).

The research questions were expanded and converted into a schedule of interview questions which were discussed in a focus group meeting with college managers and piloted in a semi-structured interview with the head of the MET provision in an English College of Further Education (CFE). The schedule was then further refined and a final version produced (see Appendix B, p.230).

The relationship between the research questions, their expansion and the schedule of interview questions is shown in Table 1 on p.17.

Following the literature search, the thesis will detail the design and management of the research before presenting the findings and analysis of the data. Finally the work will draw conclusions, contribute to existing knowledge, make tentative recommendations and indicate areas requiring further research.

This introductory chapter continues with a summary of the main aims in undertaking this research. It will outline what is to be learned about MET leaders and their roles and posits a definition for ‘leader’.

The justification for the enquiry is followed by a section on the literature reviewed, then an account of the research design, methodology and methods used to gather data and the processes used to analyse and draw conclusions. Finally, the chapter ends with a summary of the research.

Justification for the research

Merchant ships ply for trade or provide a professional service, thus distinguishing them from warships. This thesis focuses solely on the former category and the leaders of education and training for seafarers in the merchant fleet⁹. Aside from personal interest, which is addressed in the following section, research in this field is justified by the following reasons:

- contributing approximately £26.5 billion to the UK's Gross Domestic Product, the maritime sector has significant commercial importance to the UK (British Chamber of Shipping, 2012);
- the significance of the sector to a nation which has a deep cultural and practical connection with the sea (Potts, 2000; Woodman, 2010);
- the strategic role that the Merchant Navy plays in the defence of the UK (Liverpool Echo, 2009);
- the transition from a seagoing career (where the majority start their careers) to educational leadership has not been explicated (Haughton, 2008b).

The first three reasons underline the strategic significance of the maritime sector to the UK and it is logical to conclude that leaders training the workforce of this sector should themselves be well developed, trained, prepared and effective in their roles.

⁹ Other terms may be used to describe the merchant fleet: for instance, Merchant Navy (usually capitalised), merchant service and mercantile marine.

The fourth reason reveals the fact that little is known about MET leadership: this alone justifies the research effort.

The research will be of interest to:

- current MET leaders who may wish to reflect on their positions, leadership styles and who may be involved in succession planning;
- aspirant MET leaders who may use the findings to facilitate their own career plans;
- MET students who will be able to understand better their teachers and mentors, leading to more effective communication;
- shipping companies who pay students' fees and who will be interested in the development of their employees' leaders;
- managers responsible for appointing MET leaders;
- Government departments who have a statutory role in MET;
- organisations charged with designing appropriate development programmes for the training and development of MET leaders.

Dissemination of the findings

Any dissemination of this thesis will be anonymised and in accordance with ethical standards of reporting. The findings will be offered to: the 7,500 worldwide members of the Nautical Institute (NInst); the International Association of Maritime Institutions (IAMI) and GlobalMET who, between them represent almost 150 international maritime teaching establishments; and the World Maritime University (WMU) in Sweden. There will be

seminar, conference and webinar¹⁰ opportunities to disseminate the findings to MET practitioners in Australasia, the Americas, the Middle East, Asia and Europe. Finally, the author's association with the global leader for the supply of curriculum support material to the maritime industry will offer web-based publicity of the findings.

Further research

For pragmatic and practical reasons (Creswell, 2009) the scope of this small-scale research project has been restricted to the UK. This contradicts the internationalist *raison d'être* of the merchant service and so the need for further, international, research is plain. The Maritime School, Auckland, New Zealand, has agreed to a proposal to extend this study, and additionally, the author will be acting as consultant to GlobalMET, an international organisation representing MET providers, in a project to research MET leadership in other countries.

For reasons of scope and logistics, the research has been limited to a selection of those maritime institutions which deliver MET leading to statutory CoCs. There are numerous other institutions, training schools and sailing clubs throughout the UK, offering courses and other maritime academic provision, many of which employ former seafarers. It would be useful to explore whether the findings of this research project are replicated in this wider arena.

Finally, former seafarers find employment ashore in many different sectors as well education. Further research would be necessary to discover whether or not the findings are replicated elsewhere.

¹⁰ Webinars are web-based (Internet) seminars moderated by a tutor/facilitator and delivered in real time.

My own values, beliefs and position as ‘researcher’, should be recognised as a potential influence (Denscombe, 2006), so this is addressed in the following section.

Statement of value position

My professional interests, the values I hold, and the potential benefits that new knowledge brings to those who read and utilise the research, combine to create the motivating factors undergirding this endeavour. Having gone to sea at the age of 16 and qualifying as a Master Mariner at 28, I ‘came ashore’¹¹ five years later to teach in a MET institution, culminating in a position as Head of School. My subsequent career has been closely involved with MET and leadership development; thus my involvement in the maritime sector stretches back over forty years.

Keen to exploit academic study and experiential learning in the pursuit of increased understanding, my enthusiasm for lifelong learning is reflected by my Fellowship of the Institute for Learning (IfL) and my work is congruent with their aims which include:

‘...the [support of] professional development and excellence in order to deliver the best possible teaching experience to millions of learners.’ (The Institute for Learning, 2011).

I am also passionate about the vocational sector, particularly maritime, which explains my Fellowship of the Nautical Institute (NInst.), the professional body for mariners.

This project accords with one of their tenets which supports:

‘facilitating the exchange and publication of information and ideas on nautical science, encourage[ing] research and publish[ing] its results.’ (Nautical Institute, 2009).

¹¹ In this context, to ‘come ashore’ describes that defining moment when a seafarer ceases sea-going employment to work on the land.

On a pragmatic level, I am familiar with maritime culture and the jargon which assists in the understanding of the collected data (Denscombe, 2006) and affords advantage. For example, even in shore establishments, sailors tend to use the terms 'port' and 'starboard' and refer to 'decks' and 'bulkheads' as opposed to 'floors' and 'walls'. I can therefore avoid the potential confusion when parties to a conversation do not speak a common language.

Concurrent with this, I am aware that my familiarity might result in directive questions and subjective analysis. Measures will be taken so that my knowledge of the sector can be legitimately exploited while, at the same time, ensuring researcher bias is eliminated. These will be introduced in Chapter 3 (see p.72) which addresses research design.

Ethical considerations

The research was conducted within the ethical guidelines of the British Educational Research Association (BERA) (2004) and BERA's 'Good Practice in Educational Research Writing' (2003). The relevant criteria and steps taken to ensure complicity are explained more fully in Chapter 3 (see p.72).

Literature: an overview

One of the conventional aims in any research is to build on the results of previous work thus providing the rationale for a literature search. This is problematic since, despite the breadth of literature introduced in the following pages, nothing relating specifically to MET leadership has been discovered.

There are of course recognised centres of maritime research in the UK and elsewhere (for example: Cardiff University (2012); Liverpool John Moores University (2012);

Plymouth University (2012); Southampton Solent University (2012); The University of Tasmania (2012) and; the Memorial University in Newfoundland (2012)) but none of their research appears to be concerned with the leadership of the MET faculties, schools or departments in their institutions. It is this paucity of research which is remarkable, adds impetus to this assignment and represents both challenge and opportunity, which will be expanded below (see p.20).

The study of leadership is not, of course, restricted to the educational sector, so the literature will look to business and management sectors for leadership literature that is pertinent and informative to this study. The search will draw on an eclectic range of commentators in the field (for example, Taylor, 1911; Bass, 1990; Senge, 2006; Goleman, 1996; Handy, 1987 and Bass, 1990 and Western, 2008). This broad time span, more than a century, offers a wide perspective and will show how leadership theory has evolved and the extent to which leadership practice in MET may or may not have developed.

Returning to general educational leadership and the development of educational leaders, the canon of literature is vast (Simkins, 2005). Most of it is school-centred while some is Higher Education (HE)- or Further Education (FE) -centred, (Briggs, 2002, 2004, 2005; Barber, 2007; Lumby, 2003; Collinson, 2006; Fullan, 2001, 2006; Gronn, 1999; Ribbins, 2003; Wallace, 2002, 2003; Inman, 2009; Rayner *et al*, 2012). The research will draw from across the range as necessary.

A range of publications and journals (see Appendix A, p.229) was systematically scanned by setting up a Zetoc¹² alert using key words (listed in Chapter 2). Using these key words, the search highlighted papers addressing educational leadership and management and the concomitant impact on performance within institutions. This was supplemented by a word search on Google Scholar, The University of Birmingham's e-library website, and the databases of the British Education Institute (BEI) and the Education Resources Information Center (ERIC).

Gronn's (1999) work will be critiqued: he builds on previous research (Avolio and Bass, 1988; Day and Bakioğlu, 1996) by pointing out that there is a 'paucity of systematic psycho-historical studies of leaders' (1999:21). Gunter's (2002) research builds on Gronn's (1999, 2002) work emphasising his 'commitment to biographical methods' (2002:77) while Ribbins (2003) extends Gronn (1999) and contributes to the debate on leadership development. Knight and Trowler's (2001) work straddles the FE/HE sectors and therefore resonates well with MET provision in the UK. It will therefore be introduced, as will Kolb's (1974) seminal work on the learning cycle.

In a pilot study (Interviewee 1, 2007) it became clear that serendipity had played a role in the subject's career path. These effects of chance have been theorised by Hancock (2009) and the research may add more understanding to this ephemeral concept.

With regards to the essence of leadership, the four 'discourses' of leadership, identified by Western (2008) will be used to theorise the research findings. This section of the thesis will present an overview of leadership styles both ancient and modern.

¹² Zetoc is a web-based service which allows a subscriber to pre-select journal titles, key words and other pertinent word criteria. The subscriber receives regular emails alerting them to newly published academic papers relevant to their search criteria.

In addressing the development of educational leaders it has been argued (Bush and Glover, 2003; Brundrett and Rhodes, 2011) that the main focus of educational leaders should be on the achievements of their learners and the teaching that promotes that. In much of the literature there is a predominant emphasis on the 'leader' so this shift back to the 'learner' (in order to make explicit the leader's priorities) is, arguably, a positive development and one which will be considered.

Defining leadership is 'arbitrary and very subjective...some definitions are more useful than others, but there is no 'correct' definition... (Yukl, 2002:4). One approach is to adopt a definition that is adaptable. Barker (1997) offers such a high-level strategic definition, and it is this that will be used to inform the thesis. The definition is quoted below and will be further explained in the relevant chapter of the thesis.

'Leadership...is a process of transformative change where the ethics of individuals are integrated into the mores of a community as a means of evolutionary social development' (Barker, 1997: 491).

The idea that evolution is a complex dynamic that leaders must learn to manage is explored by Fullan (2001), whose work will also be used to inform this research.

The next section will give an overview of methodology and method.

Methodology and method

The aims of this research (see p.2) are served best by an interview survey research methodology. The choice of survey will be explained further in Chapter 3 (see p.72) together with the rationale for the elimination of alternative methodologies.

There are several methods for collecting data including questionnaires, interviews, focus groups, observations and examination of documentary evidence. Of these possibilities, 'semi-structured interviews' was selected for this research project. The rationale for this

choice will be explicated fully below (see p.86). However, by way of introduction, face-to-face interviews offer a sensitive and perceptive measure of subjective feelings, thus facilitating the collection of robust research data. Also, by definition, semi-structured interviews are dynamic and flexible. These qualities provide rich information unprescribed by impermeable boundaries and structures.

In order to be unstilted, free-flowing and effective, interviews also require the researcher to exhibit certain skills. These are primarily centred on so-called ‘active’ listening skills and interviewing competence. Active listening refers to that process of deep, non-judgemental and uninterrupted listening that elicits the richest data.

Finally, my networks are well established across the UK’s maritime colleges and I have a professional and personal relationship with staff in most of the institutions. This means that there are few logistic barriers in arranging interviews. The MET sector is small, so a meaningful sample of leaders from a majority of institutions offering CoCs can be accommodated. For this project a total of twenty interviews were arranged in institutions across England and Scotland since there are no institutions in Wales or Northern Ireland delivering courses leading to CoCs. This is a broad-based sample which, it is estimated, comprises between 20% and 30% of the total UK population.

Outline structure of the thesis

The thesis is divided into six chapters, the first being this introduction. Chapter 2 focuses on the literature relevant to the research questions which include: roles, leadership and differences; life journeys, influence and chance; reflection and style and lastly; professional training and development.

Chapter 3 will explain the design methodology and method of the research project, while the findings from the survey will be presented in Chapter 4. These will be framed by the concepts emerging from the literature review.

Chapter 5 comprises a discussion and analysis of the findings from the preceding chapter. The effectiveness of the data-collection method will also be reviewed here.

In Chapter 6, conclusions will be drawn from the discussion. This will show how the findings support or challenge the theoretical frameworks introduced and go towards answering the research questions. It also determines whether the research findings meet the intended result of providing a resource to aspiring leaders. Finally it will identify those areas where the research has revealed areas still to be investigated and where further research would be beneficial.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter underlines the rationale for this study and explores literature relevant to the research questions (see p.4). Table 1 (see p. 17) shows an expansion of the research questions and includes the interview schedule which was devised to fulfil requirements.

The Zetoc alert was set up using the following key-words: maritime; educational leadership; leadership development; management; further education; transactional leadership; transformational leadership; distributed leadership and dispersed leadership. Other sources included text books acquired for the purpose, papers from attendance at university-based modules, and some curriculum support material I use in my professional role as management consultant and facilitator.

The electronic search included a comprehensive range of publications and journals (see Appendix A, p.229).

Rationale for the study

The growth in interest in leadership between the years 1970 and 2000 is evidenced by the increase in college and university courses offered in the UK and the United States (US) (Storey, 2004), and by official government-led support for such initiatives in the latter country. The *Handbook of Leadership* (Bass, 1990) includes more than 7000 citations and references, while the insertion of the word 'Leadership' into the Google search engine reveals more than 132 million references (Google, 2010). There are over forty leadership labels and descriptors that have been noted during the course of this research (see Appendix C, p. 234 for the full list).

Research questions and their subsidiaries	Expansion of the research questions	Interview Questions 2 – 14 (Questions 1 and 15 are introductory and conclusory)
<p>1. How do MET leaders define their roles and to what extent do they consider themselves 'educational leaders'?</p> <p>- <i>are there differences between MET leadership and educational leadership in general?</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Roles, leadership and differences; • The essence of leadership for middle to senior management leaders of MET establishments. The post-compulsory sector, of which MET is a small component, is complex. Most current leaders of MET are former seafarers having served in a variety of civilian and military roles. • This RQ aims to explore how MET leaders perceive their educational role; whether they see a cross-over of leadership skills from the maritime industry into education and to what extent they now perceive themselves as educational leaders. 	<p>Q2: Could you please describe your current position, roles and responsibilities?</p> <p>Q3: Do you consider yourself an educational leader? Why?</p> <p>Q11: What are the similarities and differences between MET leadership and mainstream FE/HE provision?</p> <p>Q10: What do you do that defines you as a leader?</p> <p>Q14: Do you enjoy your role?</p>
<p>2. What influences do MET leaders perceive as having been important in reaching their current positions?</p> <p>- <i>what parts did 'chance' and 'planning' take in the development of their careers?</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Life journeys, influence and chance; • The life history and journey to leadership experienced by the respondents. Some writers (Day and Bakioğlu, 1996; Gronn, 1999; Ribbins, 2003; NCLSCS, 2008) argue that educational leaders pass through identifiable stages on their way to leadership. • The research will explore to what extent these models apply to MET leaders and also probe the extent to which educational leadership careers have been planned or have been arrived at through chance. 	<p>Q4: Looking back over your life from your earliest memories, what experiences do you think prepared you for the role of leader? (Draw on all spheres including personal, social, educational and professional).</p> <p>Q7: Can you think of individuals who have had (or still have) significant influence over your career path? What did/do they do or say to have this affect?</p> <p>Q9: When and why did you decide to become an educational leader? Was your accession to a leadership role part of a planned process on your part? Have things ever happened by chance?</p> <p>Q13: Have you thought about the next phase of your career and how you might plan that?</p>
<p>3. To what extent do MET leaders reflect on their own styles of leadership and which do they exhibit?</p> <p>- <i>which styles are perceived to be effective and which less so?</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflection and styles of leadership; • Some commentators (Moon, 2002; Senge, 2006) report that leaders' effectiveness is increased by reflecting on own styles of leadership and methods employed. • The findings will explore to what extent MET leaders reflect on their own styles and how these styles may have changed over time. 	<p>Q5: Has your leadership style changed over time? If so, how do you know this and why did it happen?</p> <p>Q6: In regard to your leadership style, which aspects have been effective and which less so? How do you know this?</p>
<p>4. What form of training or development would help them do the job more effectively?</p> <p>- <i>what development did the leaders themselves receive pre- and post-appointment?</i></p> <p>- <i>what development do they perceive is necessary for those aspiring to MET leadership positions?</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training and development; • The degree and extent of pre- and post-appointment training and development that the leaders have experienced together with their perceptions of its effectiveness; types and forms of development that may be effective for others approaching roles in MET leadership. 	<p>Q8: What (pre- and post- appointment) formal leadership training or development have you had?</p> <p>Q12: What training or development do you think would be useful for leaders in similar situations as yourself? When should this happen?</p>

Table 1: Research questions, their expansion and the interview questions

In sum, this offers convincing evidence for the popularity of the genre, at least in those countries sympathetic to a North American or European culture (Brodbeck *et al*, 2000; Hofstede, 2001).

In the UK, writers such as Gronn (1999), Knight and Trowler (2001) and Hartley (2007) bolster this same view, while the study of the theory and practice of leadership is claimed to continue unabated (Glatter, 2006). One dissenter from this view claims, perhaps controversially, ‘that [it is not in dispute] that the field of educational leadership [in England] is dying’ (Gunter, 2010:519). This is the opening sentence of Gunter’s review of four recent (2010) publications on the sociology of educational leadership. It could be argued that the rhetorical power of the sentence is designed more to attract attention than to be taken at face value. Gunter claims that strategic decision-making, and thus leadership, in the UK’s compulsory educational sector has been centralised by government and that schools are left only to ‘grapple’ (2010:519) over local tactical issues concerning education delivery. Ostensibly, it turns out, Gunter is not arguing that leadership, *per se*, is dying but rather the level of discourse is moving from a theoretical and strategic platform to one which is more tactical. Gunter feels ‘intellectually marginalised’ (2010:527) by this shift and argues that is sociologically significant.

These issues may reflect a similar situation (of relevance to this study) in the vocational sector where managers and leaders have struggled for many years with government control of strategy and a ‘political agenda’ (Kelly *et al*, 2006:182). MET managers may not concern themselves consciously with what Gunter (2010:520) calls, in a first tier, ‘grand theories’ (for example, theories of globalisation) or, in a second tier, ‘mid-range theories’ (for example, theories of organisation), but instead, restrict their leadership activities to the third tier in Gunter’s taxonomy which she describes as theories ‘close to practice (for example, theories of learning)’.

This view is supported by Gleeson and Shain's (1999, 2008) work which concerns the ambiguity middle managers in FE face between market (or strategic) and managerial (or operational) matters. Middle managers are seen to be the mediators of college policy, filtering information between senior management teams and the teaching staff. The research will seek to establish if indeed it is this middle ground that the majority of MET leaders find themselves occupying.

Even if Gunter's (2010) nihilistic view of strategic educational leadership in England is accepted (and, of course, she is not saying that 'leadership' is not exercised, only that the level of discourse is reduced and that the locus of decision-making and strategic leadership has shifted to central government away from schools) it may be argued that leadership at tactical and operational levels is still required and important. As Gunter herself admits later in her review 'it could well be that the rush to call the time of death in England [of leadership in education] is somewhat premature' (2010:520).

MET leaders operate in an educational environment which is inherently multi-national and multi-cultural. Much of the leadership literature (for example, Bass, 1990; Fullan, 2001, 2003, 2006; Goleman, 1996) emanates from the US and other Western-oriented states. This raises the issue of cultural effect and possible dissonance and whether there is cross-border interchangeability of leadership concepts and practice. There is evidence that there are, at least in Europe, 'culturally endorsed differences in the way people perceive and think about leadership' (Brodbeck, 2000:19). Storey (2004) attempts to extrapolate and extend this by citing (imprecisely) 'another study (*sic*) [which includes] the even more widely variant comparative contexts of Europe and Africa' (2004:19). In another study, Mellahi (2000) has shown that there are limitations in the effectiveness of transferability of Western leadership models into alternative cultures and that leaders' behaviours may 'violate the cultural norms of dependency

and conformity expected from leaders' (Mellahi, 2000:306). The relevance to MET leaders of these observations will be explored.

Challenge and opportunity

This research project concentrates specifically on the leaders of MET institutions in the UK. Despite the comprehensive search of publications outlined above, no research into the leadership of MET, a sub-set of post-compulsory education, has been identified, which presents a challenge. The institutions are predominantly, but not always, part of wider CFEs or Universities in the HE sector (see Figure 3, p.57). The likelihood that no research has been conducted into leadership in MET does not, of course, mean that MET is not important, especially to those working within the sector and those impacted by it. One reason may be that the small size of the sub-set, combined with its arcane profile, has not hitherto appealed to researchers.

To reiterate, this in itself does not denigrate or lessen the sector's significance, as the justification for the research makes clear (see p.6). Conversely, it offers an opportunity to contribute to knowledge.

Consequently, given the lack of specific MET research, the literature review draws on other sectors, educational and non-educational, where there is a body of work which may serve to illuminate this endeavour.

Chronological perspective

Any analysis of a leadership theory is situated, *de facto*, in a specific time. That time will have its associated framework of cultures, customs and fads (Bass, 1990). As time shifts, so do the frameworks. So the literature review needs to take into account

chronological development (Grint, 2005), both in the theory and practice of leadership, in order to deliver a cogent argument.

Figure 1 (p.23) is a composite of adaptations of models (Storey, 2004; Western, 2008) with additions from the author, and portrays the shift in popularity of leadership positions over time.

The preceding paragraph (together with Figure 1) offers a view of time as a large dimension - a macro view of leadership theory development. However, chronology also encompasses analysis of individual leadership styles (at micro-level) and complements the notion that leaders may experience shifts in behaviour during their lifetimes as they experience personal and professional growth (Browne-Ferrigno, 2003). This will be used to theorise the leadership styles self-reported by the MET leaders in this sample.

The vast array of institutions and organisations spanning pre-school, primary, secondary, tertiary and post-compulsory education in the UK is one reason there can be ‘no single all-embracing theory of educational management’ (Bush, 2003:25). Other reasons include ‘the multi-faceted nature of theory in education and the social sciences’ (Bush, 2003: 25) and varied nature of problems encountered: each requiring different and tailored solutions.

It is maintained (Gunter, 2002; Bush, 2003) that theory plays an important role in helping to understand practice. So, despite the complexity of the sector mentioned above, this appreciation of the range of theories in use is important in order to assist in the formation of dependable conclusions from the research.




The literature search will now move on to a more considered treatment of the key areas introduced above; this includes reviews of the importance and relevance, in this study,

of time and culture (see p.35). The research questions will be introduced at relevant junctures.

Leadership as...	Controller Scientific Management		Therapist Human Relations Movement		Messiah Transformational leadership/culture control			Eco-Leader	
Theories	Taylorism; mechanistic and scientific theories; time and motion, man as machine.	Trait theory; innate qualities; 'great man theories'.	Behavioural theories; task related; style theory; autocratic vs democratic.	Situational and contingency theory; repertoire of styles; expectancy theory.	Exchange and path-goal models; transactional.	'New Leadership'; charismatic and visionary leadership; transformational leadership.	Constitutive, constructivist theory.	Leadership within Learning Organisations: leadership as a creative and collective process; distributed leadership.	Post-charismatic and post-transformational leadership theory.
Period	1910s - 1930s		1930s - 1970s	1960s - 1980s	1970s - 1990s	1970s - 1990s	1990s - 2000s		2000s

Figure 1: Summary of main leadership theories and discourses referenced against a temporal framework.

Key to sources:

diagonal shading		adapted from Western, S. (2008:82)
no shading		adapted from Storey, J. (2004:14)
solid shading		the author (2010)

Literature pertaining to the first RQ: roles, leadership and differences

Defining leadership is ‘arbitrary and very subjective...some definitions are more useful than others, but there is no ‘correct’ definition...’ (Yukl, 2002:4). Gronn argues that ‘leadership is an attributed status’ (1999:5). By this he is asserting that those deemed leaders have reached that position only because of ‘the other abstracted part[ies] in the formulaic dyad’ (Gronn, 1999:5). In other words, Gronn (1999) is suggesting that the followers, without whom there is no need for leaders, have decided to validate the arrangement. This reflects the basis of situational leadership, addressed below. It also implies that only where leaders’ and followers’ goals are in alignment will there be a guaranteed positive outcome.

Where there is debate (for instance, Kotter, 1990; Daft, 2006) over the terms ‘leadership and management’, there is generally an understanding that management is about dealing with complexity and operational considerations, while leadership is more concerned with vision, direction and strategic thinking. One of the outcomes in this research project will be a test Kotter’s (1990) model using the experience of MET leaders.

While the terms may be ‘juxtaposed in theory, in practice the distinction between leadership and management is blurred’ (Lagor, 2007:23). Since middle managers in vocational education are expected to operate effectively (Briggs, 2004) across the whole of the leadership/management spectrum, for the purposes of this thesis the words ‘manager’ and ‘leader’ are used interchangeably and synonymously.

It may be pragmatic to adopt a definition for ‘leadership’ that is adaptable. The benefit of such a broad definition is that traits, characteristics, styles, tasks, operations and other tactical and strategic matters may all be subsumed with a wide paradigm, hence the adoption of Barker’s (1997) definition on p.13.

That definition does not purport to say, in detail, what a leader actually does. Instead, leadership is introduced as an abstract process which involves ‘transformational change’. This is change that achieves fundamental movement in the way people think, through ‘an appeal to values and long-term goals’ (Muijs *et al*, 2006:87). These re-ordered thoughts (both of leaders and the led) translate into behavioural change which is, arguably, the ultimate goal. ‘*Mores*’ (meaning the traditional customs of a community, their conventions and accepted public manners) is sometimes used (Barker, 2001), to indicate the culture in an organisation which, in turn, reveals the depth of reach and influence that leadership enjoys. This definition is made meaningful since it implies that leadership is a dynamic concept, inextricably linked with the society in which it exists. The thesis will return to significance of mores (or culture) in a later section (see p.35).

As Figure 1, (p.23) illustrated, leadership theory and practice has developed considerably over time (Gronn, 1999; Bass, 1990; Storey, 2004; Hartley, 2007; Western, 2008) and numerous types and classifications of leadership have been identified (Bush, 2003; Gunter, 2002). Most can be subsumed within one of several main classifications: scientific and behavioural; trait; situational; transactional (or power/influence) and; transformative/post-transformative (Brungardt, 1996). These overarching classifications will be addressed below.

Scientific and behavioural leadership

Early twentieth century commentary on the practice of management (the term ‘leadership’ was unused at this time in this context) advised a prescriptive and scientific approach (Taylor, 1911). Taylor sought to prove that since the aim of worker and manager was essentially the same, science could be harnessed to achieve it. This form

of management/leadership led to time and motion studies being conducted to what appears now to be an almost absurd degree of control, for instance:

‘...a pig-iron handler walks on the level at the rate of one foot in 0.006 minutes. The average distance of the piles of pig iron from the car was 36 feet...while these men were walking back...their muscles had...the opportunity for recuperation...’ (Taylor. 1911:29)

However, and despite the complexity of his systems, Taylor (1911) was able to demonstrate increased production in the sectors in which he worked. The flaw in the so-called scientific approach was that while it worked (to an extent) in those sectors requiring mechanical input, it served also to dehumanise people and ‘...[reduced] workers to the level of efficiently functioning machines’ (Pugh and Hickson (1971) cited by Western, 2008:87).

Western (2008) emphasises the point that scientific management (Taylorism) was a product of the cultural and social discourses that held sway in the latter part of the nineteenth and early part of the twentieth centuries. He argues that educational management was included in this movement, saying ‘the rationalization of the workplace went beyond the factory and into other non-production sites such as the education system...’ (Western, 2008:87).

In this study however, the findings reveal a more enlightened approach to human relations practiced by MET leaders, the following quote being typical of the comments recorded:

‘...I’ve gone far more towards example, support, encouragement and guidance...with a happy bunch of people’ (Interviewee D).

In wider society, Western (2008) claims that the support for Taylorist style of management dwindled as the influence of organised labour resisted its mechanistic and

debasing methods and gave way to ‘trait’ and the ‘Great Man’ (sic) theory of leadership, reviewed next.

Trait or charismatic leadership

Underpinning Western’s (2008) discourse of ‘Leader as Controller’, trait and behavioural theories argue that the personal attributes of the leader and their distinguishing personal characteristics are seminally important in the determination of their leadership qualities. Knight and Trowler (2001:33) say the theories try to answer questions such as ‘what are leaders like?’

Trait theory, or charismatic, theory (Grint, 1995), posits that if the traits of successful leaders can be identified and studied, then future leaders could be identified and selected from individuals exhibiting the same behaviours. From this viewpoint, leaders are born rather than made and leadership is seen as something inherent in the person rather than something which can be learned or taught (Drucker, 1968). Early research concentrated on this aspect of leadership and led to the idea of the so-called ‘*Great Man*’ (sic) theory. The more radical versions of this theory, claims Grint in later work (2005), would argue that leadership traits are genetically ‘hard-wired’ in individuals. At one time, leadership in education too supported this analysis:

‘Up to the 1930s management was very much about strong control and discipline through the ‘capacity of headteachers to keep other teachers and the pupils in a state of subordination’ (Grace, 1995:29: cited in Gunter, 2002:22)

There is strong evidence to suggest that these tenets were well understood – and practised – in MET establishments of the time. The following account (from the summer of 1940) is explicit:

‘[A nautical training school] was really tough. The food was terrible, and letter[s] ...received would be censored with lumps cut out of it with a razor blade...Before

breakfast...we had to polish the long dormitory floors on our hands and knees, with a pad of blanket material. You were three in a row and you had to polish in step with your hands just like you march in step. A petty officer's fist would smack into your ear if you got out of step...If one did a bad misdeed one would be flogged in front of the whole school...' (Martin, 1998).

Seen from a modern perspective (2010) this account of 'educational leadership' is brutal (as well as illegal) and emphasises the point made earlier which was that leadership may be seen as a product of its time. The 'leaders' of those establishments were fulfilling roles, adopting traits and choosing behaviours that they must have perceived were necessary at that time, when the country was at war, in order to instil unquestioned obedience and compliance, skill and competence in their charges. The significance of these early-life experiences has been theorised by many writers (Bass, 1990; Grint, 1995; Day and Bakioğlu, 1996; Ribbins, 2003; Gronn, 1999; Gunter, 2002.) and is particularly important in Gronn's (1999) theory where it is labelled 'formation'. Since the current generation of MET leaders were nurtured by those who had experienced that regime, it is important to have these early experiences brought forward as there may be an influence on current practice.

While most commentators agree with Stodgill and Shartle (1955) and more recently, Bass (1990) and Hartley (2009), that leadership styles have moved on to embrace a more collegiate approach, trait theory has seen 'a resurgence of interest' (Daft, 2006:662) and there are suggestions that it remains popular. People continue to search for what Grint (1995) calls the 'alchemy of leadership'; witness the National College of School Leadership (NCSL) as recently as 2006 (updated in 2009) arguing that 'a small handful of personal traits explains a high proportion of the variation in leadership effectiveness' (2006:14). The research will reveal if the MET sector shares this perspective.

From a wider, theoretical and pragmatic perspective, the impossibility of individuals possessing even a percentage of these attributes, coupled with research that found only weak links between personal traits and leader success (Daft, 2006), has resulted in trait theories fading in popularity and others coming into ascendancy. What followed was an appreciation that situation and context was as important as trait in the formation of leadership style. The next section introduces this concept.

Situational leadership

Situational leadership theory developed as a reaction to behavioural theory (Daft, 2006) arguing the ‘situation [is] the dominant feature in considering the characteristics of effective leadership’ (Mullins, 2005:294). This is pertinent to this research enquiry since the situations facing a leader at sea are markedly different from those in educational leadership positions ashore.

Situational theory softened the sharp focus of agency on the leader, addressing instead that of the followers. Four styles were identified (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982) which were based on: directing, coaching, supporting and delegating. These were to be seen from the perspective of the follower (as opposed to the leader) and therefore depended on the followers’ preferences on scales of low/high commitment and low/high competence.

Given that most MET leaders’ first careers were at sea, this raises the interesting question as to whether their crews *expected* a certain style of autocratic leadership and, crucially, whether those expectations differ from staff in education.

Some theorists (Stodgill and Shartle (1955) cited in Bass, 1990:40) began to consider that leadership should be studied as a ‘relationship between persons, rather than as a

characteristic of the isolated individual'. As the twentieth century progressed, so these theories gathered momentum and led to the development of 'exchange and path-goal models' (Storey, 2004:14).

Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership has been described (Busher and Harris, 1999) as a process where leaders enter into 'transactions' with their followers. Compliance is based on the exchange of rewards. Transactional leaders intend to 'work within the framework of the self interests of his or her constituency' (Bass, 1990:23).

Linking these theories of trait, situation and transaction is their essentially positivist stance. They seem to offer an objective, almost mechanical, solution to leadership challenges which are often perceived to be effective (Coleman, 2003) and which may be seductive. They underscore the role and capabilities of the individual leader in the execution of their role, referred to as 'agency'. (Gunter, 2002:5). Gunter sees agency as something 'concerned with the subjective capability and capacity to control' (2002:5). She argues that agency is analogous to identity and the choices that individuals make about what and what not to do.

Transformational and distributive leadership

Transformational and distributive theories (Wallace, 2002; Briggs, 2002; Gronn, 2002; Gunter, 2002; Macbeath, 2005; Muijs *et al*, 2006) have developed the agency and structural foci of previous theses. Leaders practicing transformational and distributive theories immerse themselves in the culture of their organisations and anticipate being able to bring significant change to them. Thus the former styles of leadership which often depended on the locus of power are giving way to more collegiate, democratic

relationships which have benefits for a wider audience than just the leaders and followers. Gibbons (1986; cited in Bass, 1990:116) observes that transformational leaders are more able (than transactional leaders) to cope with conflict because they seem to be more aware of self and 'at peace with themselves' (Bass, 1990:116). In considering organisational frameworks, transactional leaders may be said to work *within* them, whereas transformational leaders set out to *change* them.

Deriving an accepted definition of 'distributed leadership' is elusive. Spillane *et al* (2001), quoted by Lumby (2003:283), say 'leadership is best understood as distributed practice, stretched over the school's social and situational contexts' and it is argued elsewhere (Busher and Harris, 1999; Gronn, 2002, 2003; Thrupp, 2005; Briggs, 2005; Busher, 2005) that leadership, in a distributed form, is present *throughout* educational institutions. In other words, the exercising of leadership skills and behaviours is not role-dependant but, rather, situational and contingent upon prevailing circumstances.

Wilkinson (2007) argues that distributed leadership is:

'an emergent property of a group or network of interacting individuals. Within a distributed approach people work together in such a way that they pool their initiative or expertise'. (Wilkinson, 2007:4)

This definition accords with Gronn (2000) who argues that 'distributed organizational leadership has, *prima facie*, much to commend it'. (2000:334).

For Western (2008) distributed leadership is a socio-political development, meeting the needs of 'egalitarian-inspired organizations and movements' (2008:42) and gives as examples: co-operatives, not-for-profit organisations, charities, religious communities, and new social movements (such as the environmental movement). Interestingly, Western omits education from his analysis, unlike Hartley (2007) who comments that distributed leadership is popular and refers to it as a 'social movement' (2007:202).

Harris and Spillane (2008) reflect this complexity quoting Gunter and Ribbins (2003:132) who say ‘...while distributed leadership tends to be seen as normatively a good thing, it has also been contested...most notably because of the complexities of who does the distribution [and] who is in receipt of distribution’. Harris and Spillane (2008:173) argue that ‘at the core of distributed leadership is the idea that leadership is not the preserve of an individual but is a fluid or emergent property rather than a fixed phenomenon’.

Not all commentators agree that distributed leadership actually exists. Lakomski (2008:159) adopts a radical position, arguing that there is ‘little basis in fact about the existence of (distributed) leadership’ (original parentheses). She says that the concept of leadership is essentially a ‘folk psychology’ (2008:159) construct and will, over time, be reduced to elimination.

Spillane *et al*, (2008); Gronn, (2000, 2002, 2008); and Harris, (2004) take a position broadly in support of distributed leadership, its provenance, utilitarianism and application. On the other hand some writers, for example Hartley, (2007); Bolden *et al*, (2008); and Storey, (2004), while not going so far as Lakomski, adopt a more sceptical position. Hartley (2007), in particular, interprets the popularity of distributed leadership through a socio-political lens. He argues that workers will no longer accept overt control and so distributed leadership has evolved to give the impression of delegating control while actually and clandestinely, retaining it. Storey (2004) expresses concern that distributed leadership is designed to deliver increased productivity and to coerce a workforce in subtle fashion, arguing that it is not sufficient to ‘proselytize ‘leadership’ as if this will produce ...behaviours that will unproblematically transform’ (2004:249).

Lumby (2003) cites Spillane *et al* (2001) and Gronn (2000) suggesting that leadership may be discerned in the ‘conflation of activity’ (Lumby, 2003:284). She goes on to say that daily activity is the simultaneous combination of ‘administration, management and leadership’ (Lumby, 2003:297). Spillane *et al*’s (2001) early paper on ‘A Distributed Perspective’ introduced their theoretical and socio-cultural foundation. They argue that it is the very unit of analysis that needs to be revised. The treatment and analysis of context and individual psyche (or mental activity) as separate entities is flawed, they argue, since overall ‘intelligent activity’ is an amalgam of these things. Conjoining concepts from distributed cognition theory and activity theory, Spillane *et al*’s view is that ‘the interdependence of the individual and the environment shows how human activity as distributed in the interactive web of actors, artefacts, and the situation is the appropriate unit of analysis for studying practice’ (2001:23).

Hartley (2009) takes issue with this. Part of the reason, he argues in another paper, (Hartley, 2007:202), is that distributed leadership ‘admits some confusion: its conceptual elasticity is considerable’. He detects a trend towards wider isomorphism (by which is meant a move towards making processes or structures the same) in education (and the public sector at large) and that distributed leadership plays a part in that.

Hartley’s main thrust seems to be that the conflation of agency and structure denies disciplines such as psychology their due involvement. This leads to his analysis that other structural factors – ‘political, economic, cultural and economic have provided distributed leadership with a favourable wind.’ (Hartley, 2009:15). This is congruent with the idea that distributed leadership is ‘ultimately...a political concept’ (Bolden, 2008:25).

There is arguably little objective evidence to support the efficacy of distributed leadership (Hartley, 2007) despite a ‘strong claim’ from the National College for

Leadership of Schools and Children's Services (formerly the National Centre for School Leadership) to the contrary (Bush and Glover, 2003). It will be informative to observe the degree to which distributed leadership is espoused by MET leaders.

Moving on, the concept of post-transformational leadership (Harris, 2003) is gaining popularity. This is concerned with two seminal features of leadership arguing that:

‘...firstly, effective leaders are constantly and consistently managing several competing tensions and dilemmas; and secondly, effective leaders are above all, people-centred...’ (Harris, 2003:19)

Post-transformational leadership is far removed from the Taylorist (1911) theories of the early 20th Century. It demands that leaders engage the hearts and minds of their followers; that they are wholeheartedly aligned to a vision and set of values; and that leader behaviours take into account context and situation.

There is empirical evidence of transformational leaders having positive effect as the following newspaper quote indicates:

‘The school is exceptionally well led by a charismatic, indefatigable headteacher ... students speak warmly of the headteacher's aspirational outlook and powerful motivating force.’ (The Independent, 14th January 2010)

In HE, where MET is also delivered, the problems may be of a different order since some staff ‘are ideologically unable to describe themselves as managers because, for them, the term brings with it concepts of authority and control which they find disturbing’ (Gold, 2002:91). Given that the Merchant Service is a uniformed, quasi-military organisation where command and control, and trait-based leadership styles may still be encouraged (Woodman, 2010; Cox, 2011) it can be argued that there is potential for dissonance in these institutions. Perhaps not within the maritime cadre itself (since they themselves are a product of the maritime system and might be expected to tacitly,

if not implicitly, support it) but between the maritime staff and their colleagues elsewhere in their Universities who may subscribe to Gold's (2002) view.

The importance of time and the role of culture

Leadership styles exist within a temporal and cultural framework. Plainly, a temporal framework can never be fixed since time moves inexorably on, both in terms of an individual's life-cycle and in larger, societal, terms.

Culture, or the way things are done, differs widely from one group to another. Given the multicultural nature of the MET sector it follows that an understanding would be useful.

Therefore this section addresses (a) the contextual importance of chronology and also (b) 'mores' or the cultural context in which leadership exists.

As outlined above, management styles may be products of their time (Hartley, 2007). In other words, management styles may be subject to fashions that come and go.

Positioning particular styles of management and leadership within a temporal framework, Western argues the existence of discrete 'discourses' (2008:80). In defining the term he uses the following Wikipedia¹³ definition:

'...a discourse is considered to be a formalized way of thinking that can be manifested through language, a social boundary defining what can be said about a specific topic...discourses are seen to affect our views on all things; it is not possible to escape discourse. For example, two notably distinct discourses can be used about various *guerrilla* movements describing them either as "*freedom fighters*" or "*terrorists*." In other words, the chosen discourse delivers the vocabulary, expressions and perhaps also the *style* needed to communicate'.

[Original emphasis]. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Discourse>, [accessed 1-7-10]

¹³ Wikipedia is an on-line encyclopaedia. Information gained from this source is often unreferenced and therefore there may be issues of authenticity and validity.

Western's (2008) four leadership discourses (see Figure 1, p.23) offer a fresh interpretation of the styles introduced above and span the twentieth century to the present. They consist of: the leader as controller; the leader as therapist; the leader as messiah and the current model which Western calls the 'eco-leader' discourse. These colourful descriptors are used as shorthand to depict, respectively, the scientific management movement which held sway in the early part of the twentieth century; the 'human relations movement' which Western (2008:82) argues was prevalent in the mid-twentieth century; transformational leadership embracing culture shift in the latter years of the century and finally the emergence of eco-leadership as a modern discourse. Figure 1 (p.23) superimposes Western's (2008) model on the leadership theories already discussed.

Significant in Western's (2008) model is his claim that the discourses are not discrete time-limited entities. Although they are in vogue at the height of their popularity, they then decline only gradually over time. So, Western argues, there is a residual body of leaders exhibiting each discourse long after its popular appeal has waned. Moreover, some of the discourses may perpetuate in certain sectors and cultures well after they have been abandoned elsewhere. The example given by Western (2008) is the controller discourse which, it is claimed, is 'still found following the mode of production, particularly in manufacturing and in China/Asia' (2008:82). It is contended by the author that some of the discourses linger on in Further Education as well and there may be particular resonance in the MET sub-set reflecting its quasi-military culture and work force.

In addition to this 'macro' perspective of time, measured across centuries, there is also the passage of time for the individual, a 'micro' perspective. All lecturers and leaders in the MET educational sub-set will have started their careers within a very different

leadership paradigm at sea as professional mariners. These two paradigms, education and maritime, have major contextual differences which are explained next.

This research project is being conducted in the intrinsically multicultural environment of MET (British Chamber of Shipping, 2009). Following the earlier introduction of culture as an influencing factor (see p.35), and in order to appreciate the significance of ‘mores’, it is important to have an understanding of these issues. So the following section addresses this point and explores culture, reflecting views from writers in educational leadership as well as other sectors.

In discussing culture, it has been shown comprehensively (Gronn, 1999; Fullan, 2001; Hofstede, 2001; Dimmock and Walker, 2002; Spillane, 2006; Bush, 2008a) that the cultural context in which leaders of organisations operate, has significance. Developing an awareness of cultural diversity is considered a vital skill of an effective leader.

Knight and Trowler (2001: vii) argue, from an HE perspective, that culture should be addressed at a local level since it is individual departments (or other groupings of people) that form ‘communities of practice’. This has especial relevance for this research topic since MET generates a discrete cultural environment that may be different even from their host institution.

Culture in this sense refers to the underlying beliefs, values, ideologies and behaviours that differentiate one part of society from another’ (Hofstede, 2001). Bush (2008a) argues that cultural models are ‘manifested by symbols and rituals’ positing that:

‘...cultural models assume that beliefs, values and ideology are at the heart of organizations. Individual hold certain ideas and value-preferences which influence how they behave and how they view the behaviour of other members. These norms become shared traditions which are communicated within the group and are reinforced by symbols and ritual...’ (Bush, 2008a: 156)

Schein (1997) writes extensively on the importance of leadership and culture. His work centres largely on commercial organisations and he argues that:

‘cultural analysis illuminates subcultural dynamics within organizations...[and]...is necessary for management across national and ethnic boundaries...’ Schein (1997: xii – xiii)

However, the importance as well of these issues within educational institutions is highlighted frequently (Busher and Harris, 1999; National College for School Leadership¹⁴ (NCSL), 2003a; Fullan, 2001; Lumby, 2003) so it may be argued that Schein’s work also has application within educational organisations and therefore relevance to this study.

Grint (1995) argues persuasively that culture is a ‘boundary device’ constructed by humans to keep people in or out from whatever group is under consideration. In doing so, people will appropriate language, dress, artefacts and other objects to enhance their culture. Grint (1995:171) supports the notion of ‘cultural competence’ which is the ability to ‘‘pass’ as a local’. This is often achieved by being able to use the correct language, or even the incorrect language provided it is only used by those in the group.

In the maritime sector leaders will take great pains to ensure newcomers are brought within the maritime cultural boundaries. As mentioned above maritime language will be insisted on from the students from the very first day, but once you have become initiated to the culture (and this may even be formalised through ceremony) you are allowed to use the ‘wrong’ language with impunity (Grint, 1995). For instance, it is common for seafarers to talk about ‘box boats’ and ‘lumpy seas’. If, as an outsider, you used slang

¹⁴ In September 2009 The National College for School Leadership (NCSL) changed its name to The National College for Leadership of School and Children’s Services.

like this you would probably be corrected (in this case to '*container ships*' and '*moderate seas*').

MET leaders are required to meet customers' expectations by delivering a highly controlled, prescriptive, curriculum-centred model of education which focuses on the successful acquisition of qualifications. These people and organisations will also use, and be comfortable with, the language and other boundary devices outlined in the preceding paragraph. This is culturally comfortable for the MET leader and client alike.

However, tensions may rise when this MET sub-culture is not entirely aligned with their wider institutions' values of inclusivity, student-centredness and personal development (Busher and Harris, 1999; Leader, 2004). It is possible that MET departments' parent institutions will not understand the arcane and distancing language used by mariners. This could be a potential source of tension and presents an internal challenge to MET leaders.

Summary

This section has explored leadership discourses, namely: trait, behavioural, situational, transactional (or power/influence) and transformative/post-transformative (Brungardt; 1996). These wide paradigms form a backcloth to MET leadership. They may help to theorise the findings which may delineate MET leadership as different. It has also the potential significance of time, context and culture within the maritime field to MET leaders.

The following section addresses the second RQ which is concerned with leaders' life histories and their transition from a maritime to educational career.

Literature pertaining to the second RQ: life histories and transition

In response to the second research question (see p.3), the thesis will discuss theory which addresses lives, careers and transitions in educational sectors; this may illuminate the topic and lead to greater understanding in MET.

Day and Bakioğlu (1996), Gronn (1999), Ribbins (2003), NFER (2007), and NCLSCS (2008) (see Table 2, p.48) offer views from which to analyse the career progression of MET leaders. The models continue to be referenced and critiqued in current literature (Gunter and Ribbins, 2003; NCLS, 2003b; NFER, 2007; Inman 2009; NCLSCS, 2010b) which is testament to their longevity and relevance.

Of these, Gronn's (1999) model of leaders' Formation, Accession, Incumbency and Divestiture (see Table 2, p.48) offers an appropriate platform upon which to structure this enquiry.

Formation

Gronn (1999) argues that the study of the history of leaders mirrors the fundamental debate between agency and structure. This refers to the degree to which we are responsible for our own destinies, as opposed to the scale to which external events have influenced us (Gunter, 2002). Psychologists Sears R. and P. (in Gardner, 1990; cited by Brungardt, 1996) argue that early experiences in childhood, family background and carer influence impact on adult leadership potential. Family influences can affect such personal characteristics as 'intelligence, self-confidence, assertiveness, achievement, orientation and reliability' (Brungardt: 1996:84).

There is a reported correlation between children who have been raised amongst a strong work ethic and high ethical standards and those who seek out leadership roles (Day,

1980; Gibbons, 1986: cited in Brungardt, 1996). As people grow older, other influences begin to have effect: peer groups and teachers. At this stage in a child's life it is likely that there will be leadership opportunities in school or other youth group activities.

Mentoring is often suggested as an important influence (Rowley, 1999; Daresh, 1995). The idea that emergent leaders can learn the craft from positive role models is moderately reinforced by a National College for School Leadership¹⁵ (NCSL) report authored by West-Burnham (2009) which found that 18% of respondents felt role models were 'very important'. However the single most important factor was 'personal faith/philosophy and vocation' (West-Burnham, 2009:2)

Browne-Ferrigno (2003) argues that principals (in U.S. schools) begin to mould their leadership concepts well before aspiring to the role. However, rather than referring to childhood for the start of these experiences, she highlights the time from when teachers become teachers. This perspective ignores childhood experiences and that period when 'the scaffolding of a character structure – 'the essential [moral, social and psycho-physiological] properties of people who hold and want institutional responsibility' (Kaplan, 1990:410) - is erected' (Gronn, 1999:33-34). This idea of leaders possessing a strong ethical, philosophical and moral base is reinforced by West-Burnham's (2009) study into school headteachers.

Some literature (Fullan, 2001; 2003) assumes the leader has already assumed a leadership role before purporting to describe the attributes, aspirations, traits, behaviours and other qualities of which the leader, allegedly, should be possessed, or the style that the leader should adopt.

¹⁵ In September 2009 NCSL was renamed the National College for Leadership of Schools and Children's Services (NCLSCS), commonly abbreviated to The National College.

But the lead up to leadership is less well explicated. One explanation could be that writers do not see the point of addressing an audience of current or aspiring leaders who are already too far into their careers for this to make a difference. In other words, childhood experiences cannot be repeated and what has already occurred cannot be changed.

Having passed through adolescence, potential leaders commence their careers. The concept of 'career' is considered to be seminally important in the discussion of leadership (Gronn, 1999; Browne-Ferrigno, 2003). For instance, Gronn views career as 'an individual's life-course' (1999:26), introducing Stebbins' (1970) concept of career as being both objective and subjective. By this Stebbins means that careers can be externally referenced by job, status and structure (objective) or influenced by individual goals, desires and feelings (subjective).

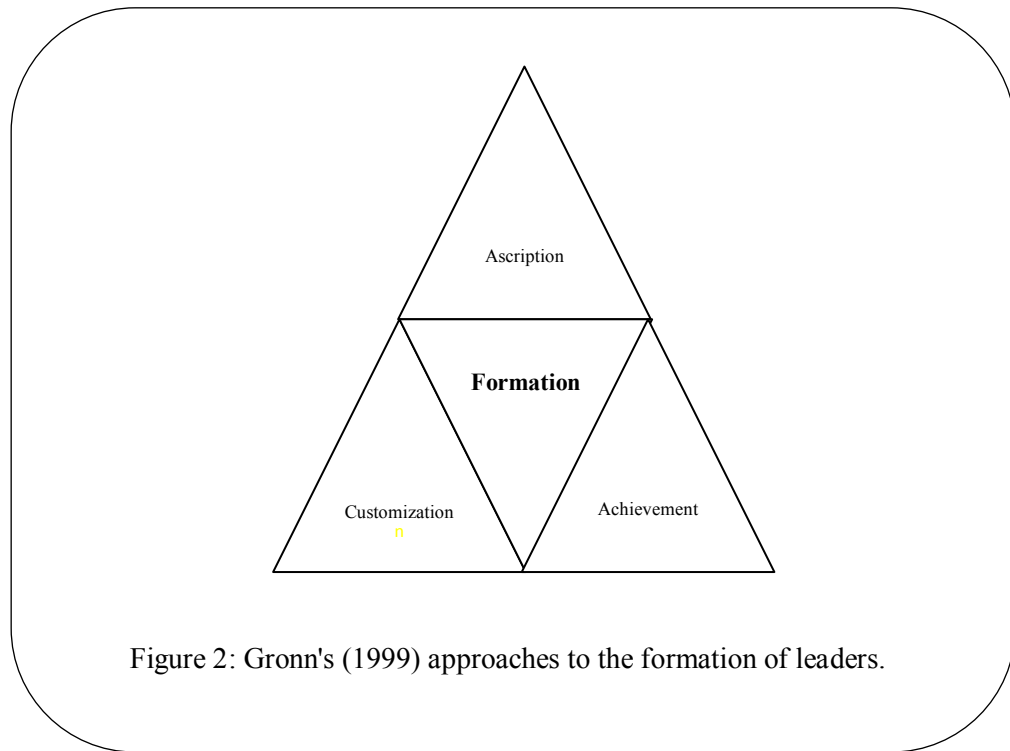
Models of leaders' careers in education have been developed using different themes. Some highlight the importance of encountering step-change critical incidents or people, while others have adopted a linear explanation. Several permutations of model are depicted in Table 2 (see p.48). Day and Bakioğlu's (1996) model consisted of four elements: Initiation, Development, Autonomy and Disenchantment. Initiation is about experiential learning on the job, within the culture of an organisation. In the development phase, leaders consolidate their early experiences and begin to enjoy their role. Day and Bakioğlu (1996) see the following phase – autonomy – as being sometimes problematic. While leaders are now established in their role this is sometimes also the period when they find their sphere of influence becomes restricted by institutional forces around and above them. This can lead to disillusionment and even a loss of control. Sustained pressure at this stage may lead to a 'lack of confidence, enthusiasm and increasing personal fatigue' (Day and Bakioğlu, 1996:224).

Gronn's (1999) model builds on Day and Bakioğlu's (1996) by introducing two prior stages, 'Formation' and 'Accession'. Formation is that period when key agencies may affect the way in which leaders develop. Gronn's work was carried out within an Australian setting (although he also uses English educational institutions to illustrate his research). However the cultural proximity between Australia and the UK (Hofstede, 2001:64), particularly in educational matters, suggests that the model will have application to this study.

Gronn (1999) observes three strands to formation (see Figure 2, p.44) 'ascription', 'achievement' and 'customization'. 'Ascription' refers to the way in which people (usually at a young age) are groomed to match a particular need in society.

In addressing 'achievement', the second of his approaches, Gronn (1999:57) introduces 'formal provision through management education'. 'Customization' is the term Gronn (1999:61) uses for formal management training and development undertaken by leaders in readiness for leadership positions. Gronn (1999) found that 'very few' managers ever received any formal training. This research will endeavour to establish whether this is the case in the MET sector and, if so, what current practitioners feel could be done to improve the situation.

A possible conclusion from this would suggest that even if managers *are* exposed to some form of intervention or management training, this would be only when they are (chronologically) mature. Thus any effects from the other two approaches in Gronn's model (ascription and achievement) have already left their mark.



Accession

The next phase in Gronn's (1999) model is 'Accession', a stage of 'grooming or anticipation' in which potential leaders 'test their potential capacity to lead' (Gronn, 1999: 34). Ribbins (2003) shares this Accession period and remarks how many eventual leaders may not realise they are in this phase since many of them have no plans for leadership at this stage in their careers. Gronn's view is that aspirant leaders experience a twin-track journey during this phase: on the one hand peers and observers look at the aspirant leader for signs of incipient leadership and a 'credible performance routine' (Gronn, 1999:37) while, on the other, the leadership candidates themselves have to 'conform to institutional demands...and the expectations which go with them' (Gronn, 1999:36). These are inner and subjective 'work tasks' and require aspirant leaders to build self-belief, self-worth and a social identity (Brundrett and Rhodes, 2011) and whether or not MET leaders have acquired this sense of social identity will be explored.

In critiquing this approach it appears that Gronn assumes that his research subjects are motivated sufficiently in the first place to consider leadership roles. As with formation, Gronn (1999) is basing these observations on his experience of the school sector and there is evidence to suggest that these principles do not transfer to other educational sectors so readily. For instance, in Scottish Colleges it has been found that:

‘...significant numbers of middle managers are neither interested in progressing further nor are they prepared for more senior college roles...’ Whelan *et al* (2005: 76).

This is even more likely to be experienced in post-compulsory education since many of the practitioners may have had little notion of going into education when their first careers started.

Incumbency

‘Incumbency’ is, according to Gronn (1999:38), ‘leadership proper’. By this time, leaders have become established in their roles and ‘have learned to project their authoritativeness’ (Gronn, 1999:38). An alternative way of expressing it, (Huberman, 1993, in Day and Bakioğlu, 1996), suggests it is that period when leaders have come to know themselves and have realised ‘the necessary conditions leading to professional satisfaction’ (Day and Bakioğlu, 1996:205).

Much of the theory (Day and Bakioğlu, 1996; Gronn, 1999; Fullan, 2001; Gunter, 2002) supports this notion of the aspirant leader having reached some sort of personal, developmental, plateau where not only professional needs are being met, but also a place where leaders ‘must have... [a]...moral purpose.’ (Fullan, 2001:13). Rhodes and Brundrett (2006) in their work with aspirant primary heads argue that they construct a ‘new self-conception and new professional identity’ (2006:284) while Sugrue argues that intending teachers have first to identify with teaching as a profession (1996:158)

and Gunter (2002) maintains her argument that identity is ‘a socialised and socialising process’ (2002:5).

This raises the question as to whether MET leaders identify themselves as seafarers or teachers and if they undergo an identity transformation as their educational career unfolds.

As with ‘accession’, the concept of incumbency is predicated on the assumption that educational leaders appreciate they are leaders and seems to imply that leaders reflect on the fact that they have reached incumbency. The case for recognition (by the incumbents themselves) of this distinct phase in MET, is contested; while the ‘behaviours’ of individuals may ‘project authoritativeness’, (Gronn: 1999:38) it is less clear that they have come to ‘know themselves’ (Day and Bakioğlu, 1996:205).

Divestiture

The last phase in the model is Day and Bakioğlu’s (1996) ‘disenchantment’ which becomes, in Gronn’s (1999) version ‘divestiture’ and purports to describe that phase where fatigue may set in, vision is lost and leaders display a ‘lack of confidence, enthusiasm and increasing personal fatigue’ (Day and Bakioğlu, 1996:224). Ribbins (2003) agrees, broadly, with the Day and Bakioğlu (1996) and Gronn (1999) models until he reaches the end phase. Here, as well as borrowing ‘disenchantment’ from Day and Bakioğlu, he introduces the opposite emotion ‘enchantment’. Ribbins (2003) is claiming that leaders, having reached the apogee of their career, can feel elated and rejuvenated so much so that they look forward to the next phase of their career with enthusiasm.

The most recent model to have emerged is from research by the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER, 2007, in Early and Weindling, 2007). The NFER have nuanced the preceding models and arrived at six ‘stages’. Fundamentally these stages follow the pattern already outlined in the other models.

Most of the commentary and research findings appear to be based on post-appointment analysis and there are rational, pragmatic reasons for this. The main one being that once a person has reached that stage in their career there is literally nothing to be done about early influence, except to become aware and reflect on it. Nevertheless, the contention that ‘religious and moral values...attitudes to authority...are deliberately inculcated by parents or parental surrogates...or that children...acquire them through their own devices...’ (Gronn, 1999:34), and the fact that these same qualities surface in later life when these children have reached leadership roles, may benefit from more research.

At some stage the seafarers in this study became educational leaders. That occurrence will be explored in the field study and reported on in Chapter 4 (see p.98). For now, the next section will explore literature that may shine some light on this process of transfer from one sector to another.

<div> <div></div> <i>Chronological development</i> <div></div> </div>					
Day and Bakioğlu (1996)	Gronn (1999)	Leadership Development Framework (NCSL, 2001)	Ribbins (2003)	NFER¹⁶ Study (2007)	NCLSCS¹⁷ 2008
Initiation Development Autonomy	Formation	Emergent	Formation	Stage 0: Preparation prior to Headship	<p>Former NCSL Framework under review:</p> <p>Leadership now (2011) presented as a 'map' with a variety of routes for headteachers, middle leaders, aspiring headteachers and stakeholders.</p> <p>These are positioned within operational, coordinating and policy decision-making frameworks¹⁸</p>
	Accession	Established	Accession	Stage 1: Entry and encounter (first months)	
	Incumbency	Entry to Headship	Incumbency	Stage 2: Taking hold (3-12 months)	
		Advanced	Initiation	Stage 3: Reshaping (second year)	
			Development	Stage 4: Refinement (years 3 to 4)	
		Consultant	Autonomy	Stage 5: Consolidation (years 5 to 7)	
Dis-enchantment	Divestiture		Dis-enchant-ment	Stage 6: Plateau (years 8 onwards)	
			Enchant-ment		

Table 2: Career stage models (sources shown in the column headings)

¹⁶ NFER: National Foundation for Educational Research. Data from Earley and Weindling (2007).

¹⁷ NCLSCS: National College for Leadership of Schools and Children's Services

¹⁸ NCLSCS (2011)

Transition

In order to understand how leadership styles and behaviours may transfer from the maritime sector into education it may be informative to provide a brief account of leadership at sea.

The idea that a leader should be solely responsible for decisions is one that is very commonly held in the Merchant Service where the Master¹⁹ (sic) of a ship was described in insurance writs as ‘Master Under God’ (Mortimer, 1810). This refers to the legal and *de facto* state of affairs whereby Masters had autocratic, absolute power over the crew. In his exposition of 18th Century merchant shipping one commentator observes:

‘English Admiralty law permitted “reasonable” corporal punishment to keep merchant sailors in line. But predatory officers far exceeded this limit, in some cases killing their sailors.’ (Leeson, 2010:301)

Today, Masters are constrained to give legal orders and their powers, diluted over the years, are influenced by so-called ‘whistle-blower’ schemes, where crew members may report anonymously to the authorities when powers are being abused. However, some Masters are known still to exceed their powers and coerce crews into performing illegally. For instance, some senior officers have been known to order crews to discharge waste into the sea in contravention of the law (Nautilus Telegraph, 2010).

So, leaders of maritime education with a seafaring background will have become socialised within this cultural context and identify with this environment. Arguably, it is logical to posit that the same authoritarian and charismatic style may transfer with the

¹⁹ The legal term denoting the commanding officer of a merchant ship in the UK and elsewhere, regardless of gender is ‘Master’. The term ‘Captain’, although in common use and gender-neutral, is a courtesy title and has no legal significance.

individuals into MET. Consequently there may be tension as individuals employing these styles are confronted by culturally disparate styles in education.

Notwithstanding the fact that the Merchant Service is civilian, it is nevertheless uniformed, shares some of the military's traditions and was famously referred to, by American President Roosevelt, as the 'fourth arm of defense' (Reading Eagle, 2010). So there is a possibility that the positive and negative aspect of transfer of leadership behaviours shown in Table 3 (see p.50) apply to MET leaders as well. This supports

Military to civilian transfer of leadership behaviours	
<i>transfer characteristics considered positive</i>	<i>transfer characteristics considered negative</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • contacts with top government and foreign officials and specialists; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a less authoritarian and more collegial style required;
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • relevant experiences in dealing with boards and staffs; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • civilian employees have a great deal more latitude (say to strike) than do military personnel;
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • effective communication skills; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • delegation and coordination in civilian business and industry requires much more than giving orders and expecting unqualified compliance;
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • experience in strategic planning and decision making; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the lack of cost control in the military and profit orientation in civilian firms may be problems for ex-military leaders;
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • emphasis on clear definitions of authority and responsibility; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the ex-military leaders may lack experience in assessing and making calculated marketing risks.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • experience with integrating operations, such as planning with research and development. 	

Table 3: Military to civilian transfer (Hill, 1984: in Bass, 1990: 691)

Hill (1984, cited by Bass, 1990) who researched the transfer of senior military officers into civilian managerial positions, the closest available comparison to this study.

Gordon and Rosen (1981, cited in Bass, 1990:701) found that cross-sector transition needs to be planned and managed in order to achieve the best results. This research will reveal the level of support that MET leaders receive in their transition. If it is perceived (by the leaders themselves) to be less than effective, this could lead to a recommendation to include some form of transition programme for seagoing staff coming ashore. Traditional induction programmes concentrate on familiarising new staff to the operational aspects of the new job (Knight and Trowler, 2001). Gordon and Rosen's (1981) research would indicate that this induction needs to address a much deeper level and address identity and cultural differences between sectors.

One aspect of career direction that may be impossible, by definition, to predict, difficult to theorise, and therefore academically controversial, is the degree to which 'chance' is involved in life's trajectory. The following section discusses this concept with special reference to critical incidents.

Critical incidents and chance

The role of 'chance' is particularly relevant to this study in MET given the hypothesis that none of the participants intended to be educational leaders when they had set out on their first careers. This section introduces the concept of 'critical incidents' and serendipity or luck. However, just because individuals experience events which appear to be idiosyncratic sets of circumstances, does not necessarily imply serendipity. This is further explained below (see p. 53).

Attempting to theorise ‘chance’ is challenging and there is little or no reference to it in educational leadership literature. Hancock’s (2009) work is therefore useful in providing a framework against which to analyse the evidence: his research concerns career paths and he cites Hodkinson *et al* (1996) who found three types of ‘turning point’ (in Hancock, 2009:122): ‘structural; [critical] incidents impacting on individuals but outside their control; and decisions within a person’s control’. These turning points are embedded within ‘routines’ (Hancock, 2009:122) that may confirm career choices, contradict choices (thus prompting an alternative choice) or ‘socialise a person into accepting as appropriate a career that was reluctantly entered into...’ (Hodkinson *et al*, 1996 in Hancock (2009:122).

Within a school context, Mander (2008) cites Tripp’s (1993) definition of critical incidents as:

‘not ‘things’ which exist independently of an observer...but to take something as a critical incident is a value judgment we make, and the basis of the judgment is the significance we attached to the meaning of the incident.’ (Tripp, 1993:8)

Tripp is saying that a critical incident is not an objectively measurable happening since what is critical to one person is not critical to another. Hancock (2009) has explored this connection between critical incidents in his work on ‘chance’ and ‘turning point’ on male career development. He agrees with Tripp (1993) using an apposite meteorological metaphor to emphasise his point. Hancock says that we all face ‘breezes’, ‘gales’ or ‘hurricanes’ in our lives and they each have different (and ascending) levels of effect, the most substantial of which is effect on our identities. But, as Hancock points out, one person’s gale is another person’s breeze; this reflects the quintessential subjectivity of ‘chance’ and explains why it may be under-researched. Psychologists ‘view chance as an irritant since it can prevent rational career decision-making’ (Osipow (1983) in Hancock, 2009:123). Chance does not fall easily into paradigms of research, which

argue for systematic or planned patterns of development, although some research (Rhodes and Brundrett, 2006) includes the possibility of chance and its impact on identity.

Chance or determination?

At the same time it is important to note that chance events are not necessarily random; they are sometimes influenced by social determinants such as class, gender and culture (Hancock, 2009). Moreover, people may display behaviours or have had experiences that would make it more likely that if one particular set of circumstances did not come about, there would be another set of circumstances that did. For instance, people from a working-class background are less likely to encounter chance events that happen within a middle-class environment and vice versa. So, while people may be unable to affect some of these determinants, it could be argued that if they can seek (even subconsciously) environments where there is a likelihood of events happening (thus maximising their exposure in that environment) they could be in a better position to influence the opportunities for chance, and thus increase the likelihood of career change.

It is also important to appreciate the distinction between an event (which a respondent may have reported as random) and its outcome. It is possible that different people will see different outcomes despite having experienced similar events. In other words, different individuals may experience similar types of events and attribute them to chance, but their reaction to them may be different.

Summary

This section has explored some of the literature on the development of leaders. The topic is vast but it is possible to elicit some overarching themes. Firstly, it is evident that

personal development is a dynamic concept shaped by many influences, agency and structural. Secondly, attempts to graft a neat, linear development model onto MET may be inappropriate. Thirdly, the importance, and challenges involved with transition from one career to another have been introduced, together with the possible significance of chance and critical incidents.

These reflections will be carried forward into the discussion in Chapter 5. The next section in this chapter examines the role of leaders and their styles.

Literature pertaining to the third RQ: the role of leaders and their styles

The literature on educational leadership encompasses the four main sectors comprising: the compulsory sector in primary and secondary schools; and the post-compulsory sectors of FE and HE. While there are some attempts (for example, Knight and Trowler, 2001) to compare and contrast between these sectors they are more often treated as discrete entities.

The focus of this research project is middle leaders in MET where, through a legacy of political change, changes in educational policy and institutional mergers (Gleeson and Knights, 2008), delivery is divided between HE, FE and some private providers.

Thus, leadership of MET must be viewed not only through the lenses of further and higher education, but also that of business leadership. This is illustrated in Figure 3 (see p.57).

The scope of this research study predicates against asking comparative questions of leaders in primary, secondary and non-maritime business sectors. Despite that it will be possible to gain some awareness of the questions and challenges in those other sectors from the literature search alone.

In 2001, Briggs (2001b) was able to write ‘further education is little researched and management in further education even less so’ (Briggs, 2001b:12). It has been reported even more recently that ‘there is limited literature dealing with leadership and management in the university [sector]’. (Rayner *et al*, 2010:618).

The Centre for Excellence in Leadership (CEL) and the Learning Skills Information Service (LSIS) together have produced some ‘375,000 words [on the Learning and Skills Sector], thus establishing a ‘practitioner research footprint’ by the sector, on the sector and for the sector’ (Collinson, 2006: 2). Even so, there remains a view that in comparison with other sectors, research in the Learning and Skills Sector (LSS) ‘is still very much in its infancy’ (Collinson, 2008:5).

Despite the emerging body of research in the LSS (Gleeson and Shain, 1999, 2008; CEL, 2004; Collinson, 2006.) it is not clear whether there are differences in the leadership practice of MET leaders when compared with that practiced by their colleagues in the other parts of the educational sector.

Bush and Glover (2003) argue that the main focus of educational leaders should be on teaching and the achievements of learners. This contrasts with much of the literature reviewed where there is emphasis on leaders and their traits, personalities and characters.

Elsewhere, there is a predominant emphasis on the ‘leader’. For instance, West-Burnham’s (2009) report concentrates almost exclusively on the skills, traits and attributes of the heads in schools rather than as a reflection of their interaction with children. Bush and Glover’s work (2003) actually *predates* West-Burnham’s (2009) suggesting that things move slowly in this sector.

So Bush and Glover's (2003) return to, and emphasis on, the 'learner' (in order to make explicit the leader's priorities) is arguably a positive development. It reflects the move towards the blend of post-transformational and distributed leadership discussed above. It also puts the learners at the heart of decision-making which is far removed from a scientific, trait-based, Taylorist perspective (Taylor, 1911).

The position of educational leaders has become more challenging in recent years (PricewaterhouseCooper (PWC) 2007:1)). The reasons for this include societal, political and economic issues, and while the PWC Report was focused on school leadership, the same constraints can be said to apply in the UK's FE and HE sectors in general. Collinson (2006) found that FE middle-management staff perceive the role of senior managers and principals so stressful that it is a 'significant barrier' (2006: 7) to them applying for senior posts; a point potentially significant to careers' development and to some of the respondents in this research. This point is reached during Gronn's (1996) 'divestiture' (see Table 14,p. 158) and will be explored in the findings.

In FE, the roles of middle managers have changed considerably (Briggs, 2001a; Lumby, 1999; Gleeson and Knights, 2008) since colleges were incorporated in 1993 and there is growing awareness about what they actually do. Where middle managers do display leadership behaviours, there is evidence that styles oscillate between transactional styles (where managers do the bidding of their line managers in exchange for reward) and transformational styles (where managers are encouraged to develop distributed leadership policies and work towards the institution's vision and mission) depending on the culture-in-use in their institution (Briggs, 2005; Simkins, 2005).

Bush and Glover (2003) emphasise that the development of vision is important, together with the management skills necessary to implement it. Moreover, individuals must be

skilful at forming and maintaining teams. This is in accord with Gunter (2002) who argues in favour of an effective blend of transactional and transformative styles.

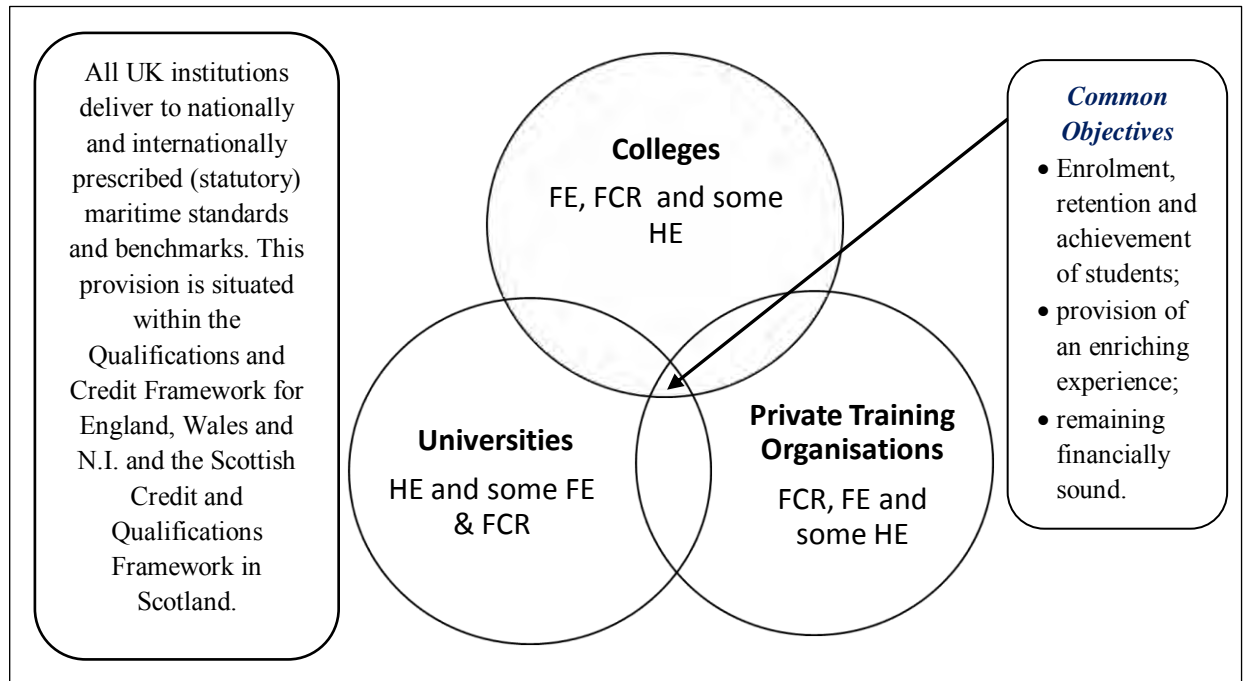


Figure 3: Maritime Education and Training (leading to CoCs) in the UK.

Key: FCR = Full Cost Recovery (not subsidised)
 FE = Further Education (partly subsidised by Government)
 HE = Higher Education (partly subsidised by Government)
 N.I. = Northern Ireland
 CoCs = Certificates of Competence

Source: the author (2010); with information from the Qualifications and Curriculum Development Agency (2010) and the Scottish Credit Qualifications Framework Partnership (2010).

Leadership

Middle managers in FE have been found to adopt leadership 'roles [that are] largely...intuitive' (Busher and Harris (1999) cited by Briggs (2002:63), adopting 'representative leadership' as an example.

This refers to the ways in which middle leaders have to liaise internally within their institutions as well as externally with outside bodies. That role, as interpreted by Briggs (2002), embraces the representation of colleagues and departmental interests.

In contrast to this, and amplifying the comments above, leadership at sea is unquestioned, codified by statute (Merchant Shipping Acts. 1995), prescriptively exercised, expected and demanded by followers, controlled (most of the time) and, above all, an operational necessity when dealing with situations that may be life-threatening or otherwise extraordinarily and physically stressful. In short, it is based on a militaristic command and control model of leadership and, as mentioned above, to challenge or disobey a leader's lawful command may be constituted a mutinous act punishable, in former times, by death. (Leeson, 2010). Times move on and current maritime leadership training emphasises the importance of challenge and teamwork, despite echoes of militarism continuing to reverberate down the centuries, particularly in some cultures (Cox, 2011).

Leadership in education may be no less stressful (Gleeson and Shain, 1999: Busher and Harris, 1999: Wallace, 2003) but it operates within a very different leader/follower-dynamic and is arguably less dramatic than that described above. Educational leadership is exercised within a more 'managerialist' structure (Lumby, 2003:283) with much more attention paid to 'social and situational' contexts: what Wallace (2003: 9), with special reference to educational change, refers to as 'orchestration'. Strong educational leaders expect to be challenged and welcome this test of their leadership style.

Managerialism

Other writers (Gronn, 2003; Thrupp, 2005) recognise and agree there has been an increase in managerialism but, at the same time, deplore it strongly. They suggest that it

represents a slide into ‘designer leadership’ (Thrupp, 2005:14), inflates the idea of charismatic and transformational leadership and that this has a deleterious effect on the creation of ‘communities of practice’ (Gronn, 2003 cited in Thrupp, 2005:14), where leadership is shared and distributed. This may lead to a compliance culture and a state where leadership is seen merely as a means to implement government policy or, ‘intellectual marginalisation’ as Gunter (2010:19) refers to it.

Gleeson and Knights (2008) observe that managers in the FE sector are ‘reluctant to become leaders’ (2008:49) because they want to remain focussed in the classroom, which is emphasised by Brundrett and Rhodes who maintain that ‘educational leaders must focus on learning and teaching activities if educational outcomes are to be enhanced’ (2011:66). They argue that educational leaders must be able to ‘account for the quality of learning’ (2011:66) in their institutions.

Gronn’s (2003) and Thrupp’s (2005) work, concentrating in the compulsory sector, decries the spread of business-centred leadership models into an educational, school-based environment. This logically infers that they believe the current position in the two sectors is qualitatively different. In other words, there is the strong likelihood that leadership within one industry, society or context may be qualitatively different to leadership in another.

It may be deduced therefore that, for Gronn (2003) and Thrupp (2005), business-centred management is a relatively new phenomenon in the schools’ sector. This view is bolstered within the HE sector by Knight and Trowler (2001:28-29) who observe:

‘Higher Education in the UK...has been undergoing rapid and remarkable changes...these challenges have put the spotlight on leadership in higher education...for those leading in [HE]...[there is] downward pressure on funding; ...increased accountability [which is] perhaps via the marketplace.’

Over the decade since that was written little seems to have changed, evidenced by this extract:

‘[that there is]...an increasing emphasis on ‘managerialism’ – in which education institutions are given greater autonomy, are exposed to market pressures and are expected to manage continuous improvements in their performance...’ (Inman, 2009: 420)

In the FE sector, leaders have been grappling with the issue of managerialism at least since 1993 when the governance of UK colleges was radically altered (and colleges became self-governing Corporations) and probably since 1988 when the UK Government introduced education reforms (Gleeson and Shain, 1999; Lumby, 2003).

MET embraces private enterprise, FE and HE in a complicated mix of education and training provision (see Figure 3, p.57); therefore it may be assumed that the managerialism referred to above is very well recognised by MET leaders. It is not considered unusual or a new phenomenon but rather an intrinsic part of a MET leader’s job.

Transition and transfer

MET leaders involved in this research project will have learned and practised their leadership skills in one sector (maritime) before transferring them to another (education). This ‘cross-over’ between the sectors may give rise to issues unknown, or at least not experienced, to those who work in only one sector all their careers. The second research question seeks to probe this.

Another crucial difference between MET leaders and leaders in ‘mainstream’ primary and secondary education is the strong likelihood that the latter practitioners had planned their career paths and expected to be where they were (Macbeath, 2006) whereas, it is hypothesised, MET leaders arrive in post more as a result of chance and serendipity.

So the research asks to what extent individuals planned to follow a subsequent career in education. It is my hypothesis that career planning, if carried out at all, will have been given scant attention. If borne out by the research, this will mean that MET leaders have experienced what was an unplanned shift from one leadership paradigm to another.

So, 'time' (see p.35) seen through the lens of an individual's career is important. As working environments change, along with their different demands, so individuals are faced with choices: to move with time (their time) and adopt behaviours congruent with the new context and culture, or to remain static (in their behaviours) and leave things to serendipity or the status quo.

Summary

This section has sought to describe some of the roles carried out by managers and leaders in the LSS together with the styles they employ. Some practitioners are reluctant to assume the mantle of leadership altogether since they feel it takes them away from the classroom; while others are divided between ethos of managerialism and leadership: This dichotomy is probably not experienced by MET leaders who may be expected to display talents in both arenas. This justifies the synonymous treatment of leadership and management.

Transfer between sectors has surfaced as a critical issue and this will be taken forward to the discussion in Chapter 5.

The next section explores the training and development of educational leaders, with particular reference to people working within the vocational training sector.

Literature pertaining to the fourth RQ: professional development and training

The provision for the training and development of leaders in education is extensive (Gunter, 2002; Bush, 2008a; LSIS, 2010). Bush (2003) argues that the Government is keen to support leadership development but only where that development is in accord with its own imperatives (Bush, 2003:2). From this perspective, leadership development is one way in which governments enforce education policies (Ehrich, 1997, cited by Gunter, 2002).

The following paragraphs describe, briefly, the typical career path of a school sector teacher by way of contrast to that experienced in the LSS.

So, in considering specifically the schools' sector, where research into leadership is abundant, it is a statutory requirement that before teachers take up full time professional teaching they must first acquire Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). This is an academic qualification which may be achieved through a variety of routes, all of which are at degree level. After a further year's successful probation in school, a person may be confirmed as a Newly Qualified Teacher (NQT).

Subject specialism is assumed by virtue of the trainee teachers having obtained a degree either before they embarked upon teacher training or as an integral part of the training process. The path to the classroom for the school teacher is therefore relatively straightforward.

As school teachers' careers mature, management and leadership development become increasingly important (Rhodes and Brundrett, 2008) and this is underpinned by the UK Government, for whom leadership development for senior practitioners has been an imperative since the 1990s (Bush, 2008a). Put simply, continuing professional development (CPD) is an expected component of a school teachers' professional

practice. Later in their career cycle, it has been, since 2009, a statutory requirement for Headteachers to achieve the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH).

Learning and skills sector

In the LSS there are differences. Arguably, the most essential one is that access to the profession is based on an individual's vocational qualifications rather than them having a degree. Prior to 2007 there was no necessity at all to be qualified as a teacher in the LSS. Since then it has been a requirement (Statutory Instrument 2007, No. 2264) for FE Lecturers to acquire, within two years of entering the profession, a Qualified Teacher: Learning and Skills (QTLS) qualification, conferred by the Institute for Learning.

Lifelong Learning (UK) (LLUK) publishes a labyrinthine chart showing the qualifications for teachers, tutors, trainers, lecturers and instructors in the FE sector in England. (see Appendix E, p.261). This is included simply to portray a sense of the complexity of qualification routes for those working in the FE sector.

Muijs *et al* (2006) found that in the FE sector a little over half the respondents had 'never engaged in professional development activities focused on leadership' (2006:97). Historically, there had been an FE Staff Training College (Coombe Lodge) set up in the 1950s but this closed in 1995 (Guardian, 2001). There followed a period where training was *ad hoc* until the creation of the CEL in 2003 (which became LSIS in 2008).

The level of engagement could be considered low and is surprising set against the opportunities available: for instance, the Learning and Skills Improvement Service (LSIS) lists thirty leadership development programmes on its website (LSIS, 2010) targeting those in the sector, from those who have recently become leaders (perhaps as Departmental Head) to those who are experienced practitioners. Brungardt (1996)

argues that leadership development should start in childhood, decades before educational leadership beckons. Self-evidently, this view is use only to upcoming generations and policy-makers; it does nothing to help current, or aspiring, incumbents.

Addressing professional growth, a distinction is drawn (Gunter, 2002) between 'training' and 'development'. Gunter (2002) regrets the apparent emphasis on the former, although Briggs (2001b) argues that an impediment to middle managers' performance can be a lack of it. This has significance for MET leaders since the majority occupy middle-management roles in their institutions.

In simply training people for leadership Gunter (2002) posits that there is a risk of producing leaders who have only a shallow appreciation of the relevant issues. They may be technically trained, she argues, but they lack the reflective skills and academic maturity that allows them to connect with the visionary, transformational aspects of the job. This somewhat pessimistic view is not borne out by Briggs (2005) who argues that middle managers (in FE) 'occupy a pivotal role within a complex setting, translating the purpose and vision of the college into practical activity and outcomes' (Briggs, 2005: 27-28). Scotson (2008), commenting on Briggs' work, concludes that middle managers' training is essential. The participants in her study agreed that some form of CPD was essential but that lack of time to engage with relevant programmes was a significant barrier.

Leader (2004) and Hallinger (2003) argue that leadership and effective management should not be restricted to senior management, and that staff at all levels should be able to engage in strategic decision making and cross-college leadership.

On the other hand, Evans (2008) whose empirical research indicates that different types of leadership development are required at different levels, maintains that leaders on the

‘first rung’ (Evans, 2008:25) of leadership would be best served by development in team building, time management, team maintenance and basic behavioural training.

While accepting Evan’s (2008) research as a valid contribution to the debate, it is also possible to interpret this approach as a patronising attempt to keep middle managers in their place. In other words, the perceived provenance of research may be a smokescreen to protect the middle managers from having to concentrate on matters strategic as well as operational.

This perspective supports the notion that some managers may see their own roles and the roles of their line managers from different perspectives.

‘Respondents were significantly more likely to see their own leadership as transformational than as either transactional or distributed...while [they] described their own...behaviours as transformational, the same was not true of their line managers...[who were] equally likely to [use] transactional behaviours...’ (Muijs *et al*, 2006:95)

Continuing Professional Development

The positive results of CPD reported in some reports (CEL, 2004; Collinson, 2006, 2008, 2009) are at odds with the experience of the HE sector reported by Knight and Trowler (2001). They introduce comment (Bradley *et al*, 1994; McCulloch *et al*, 2000; Schuster, 1990; and Becher, 1996, cited in Knight and Trowler, 2001) much of which reports negatively on the impact and effect of CPD. The possible conclusions are that (a) the CEL reports are over generous in the estimation of impact; (b) that FE managers are more receptive to CPD than their counterparts in HE; (c) that the FE research is incomplete or: (d) that the HE research is incomplete. It seems likely that the conclusion is an amalgam of all.

Inman (2009) argues that leaders in HE may need a different sort of management development than their counterparts in schools or FE. She cites Johnson (2002) who

claims that manager-academics (a term coined by Johnson) are ‘developed thinkers, creative researchers and independent problem-solvers and so formal classroom-based training is not compatible with their interests, values or relevant to their wider experiences’ (Inman, 2009: 426). Johnson (2002) claims that since manager-academics have long since left behind their student days, they have developed a need for a much higher cognitive approach to their learning, one in which they can feel deeply engaged and responsible. Johnson (2002) goes even further by asserting that manager-academics may find a formal training process patronising, and by implication, unnecessary.

Johnson (2002) is, of course, addressing the issue of manager-academics who work in HE. She does not opine on their manager-academic colleagues who work in FE, some of whom may also be ‘developed thinkers, creative researchers and independent problem solvers’ (Johnson, 2002: 43). The unstated implication that formal management training may be appropriate for manager-academics in FE - but not HE - is arguably patronising to those in the FE sector. On the other hand, if this sentiment holds truth it behoves those responsible for training programmes in FE to take note.

Given that MET is a mix of FE, HE and private institutions, (see Figure 3, p.57) the framework below (Turner and Bolam, 1998) cited by Knight and Trowler (2001), provides a useful template against which leaders may reflect on their leadership development. It may also be useful for those responsible for creating leadership development programmes.

In their framework, Knight and Trowler (2001) identify seven knowledge domains required by leaders which are:

- control knowledge;
- knowledge of people;

- knowledge of educational practice;
- management knowledge;
- knowledge of the process of leadership and management;
- knowledge of situational and contingent factors;
- knowledge of how to blend the preceding six into an effective leadership style.

The first knowledge domain is a reflective stage where leaders grow an awareness of self. Critical incidents and people play an important part in this stage since they have opportunity to affect leaders' behaviours and thoughts through interaction.

Taking the concept of interaction a stage further, it is suggested (Knight and Trowler, 2001), that an awareness of the people around them affords leaders opportunities to enhance their decision-making powers through a process of 'collegiality' (Inman, 2009: 424). These first two domains echo the work of Goleman's (1996) Emotional Intelligence. However, the research extends Goleman (1996) by suggesting this awareness, promoted through workshops, personal study and mentoring can 'disconfirm [...] our working assumptions (prejudices) and extend [...] our understandings'. (Knight and Trowler, 2001:168).

The third stage is a knowledge of education. This is evidently going to be easier for leaders already immersed and experienced in the educational sector rather than for leaders entering education from different sectors, as is the case with MET practitioners.

In her analysis, Inman (2009) conflates the fourth and fifth stages concerning conceptual and process knowledge which can, according to Knight and Trowler (2001) be acquired by reading, study and attendance on general management and leadership courses. The potential problem (Knight and Trowler, 2001) is that so-called designer-

courses, where there is an assumption that ‘one-size-fits-all’, may not fit the specific requirements of leaders in specific circumstances.

These five domains can be learned ‘off the job’ yet it is unrealistic to expect the learning to be impactful if it is not contextualised or ‘situated’ within the work environment of the learner and that unless programmes are contextualised within leaders’ work, they may be ‘fatally flawed’ (Johnson, 2002:49).

Returning to Knight and Trowler’s (2001) sixth and seventh domains, it is self-evident that these are, by definition, situated ‘on the job’. By suggesting this learning may be acquired through ‘conversations with students, support, technical and academic staff, advice from colleagues...’, Knight and Trowler (2001:168) are promoting the concept of ‘informal’ and ‘experiential’ learning. While not negating this method of action-learning it is more difficult to measure and, more importantly, there is a risk that time spent ‘on-the-job’, and thus ‘experience’ is interpreted as a measure of learning in itself. Experience and expertise are not synonymous.

Summary

In exploring the fourth research question (see p.4), this section has explored some of the literature pertaining to development in other educational sectors as well as the LSS. It has also raised the question of learning styles and curriculum design.

Overall, the evidence in support of management development is unclear and contradictory (Witton, 2008); this research inquiry will attempt to shed some light on the issues, at least from the perspective of middle leaders in MET, which straddles the FE/HE divide.

Conclusion

The literature research, encompassing the blurred boundaries of FE and HE, has considered educational leadership under four broad areas: roles, leadership and differences; life journeys, influence and chance; reflection and style and lastly; the professional training and development of leaders.

The first firm conclusion is the confirmation that prior research into the MET sub-set of post-compulsory education is non-existent. So, necessarily, the literature search has been required to drawing on evidence from other UK educational and business sectors, on an assumption that these sectors will have relevance to the experience within MET. The fieldwork research will discover how accurate this assumption is while, at the same time, creating a modest degree of evidence in this unresearched area.

Secondly, it is plain that while educational leadership may be an aspiration for early-career individuals in the schools sector, this degree of career planning is not replicated in FE or HE.

The following quote from an advertisement illustrates the former claim:

“When she was training to be a teacher, Anne Byrne decided she wanted to be a head by the time she was 30. And she was.”

(Training and Development Agency advertisement: 2010).

In addressing FE/HE, Inman (2009) found that when HE leaders started their careers they ‘had no thoughts of...any particular leadership aspirations.’ (2009:426). My forecast is that this latter finding will apply invariably to MET leader-academics, the vast majority of whom began their careers as seafarers with, it is hypothesised, little or, indeed, no thought of a secondary career in education. It may be possible therefore to claim that the role of chance is significant.

A third conclusion is that it is clear that consensus about what constitutes effective leadership development is elusive. Each of the sectors, that is, schools, FE and HE, has developed its own discrete approach to leadership research and development with its own apparatus and structures to accommodate their particular perceived needs. This project will seek clarification from MET leaders as to what, if anything, they perceive would be effective and at what stage in their (educational) careers this should occur.

Finally, it is clear that while much commentary on leadership starts with a position where the leader is in post, there is a body of research (Day and Bakioğlu, 1996; Gronn, 1999; Ribbins, 2003) that emphasises other phases of an individual's life cycle. Inman (2009), drawing on Hellawell and Hancock (2001), argues that learning which has been contextualised (by which is meant learning which is bespoke to the individual's requirements) can only be achieved by exposing individuals to leadership situations in their early careers. This then enables them to exploit those early situations, distilling from them the essence of leadership qualities and behaviours they need in their current role.

While this concept may be unusual for many educational leaders, it is prescient for MET leaders since, as former seagoing officers, they will all have been expected to perform a leadership role since their earliest days in uniform – albeit culturally far removed from an educational setting.

The tentative conclusion is that all these experiences may help individuals rise to the challenge of educational leadership. Conversely, the differences in work-place culture and followers' expectations (at sea and in an educational setting) may result in dysfunctional leadership as individuals struggle to come to terms with contrasting

milieux and a new identity. The fieldwork research will go towards answering these questions.

If there are potential differences between the leadership of MET and other educational sectors and business, and if the current curricula and courses for leadership development have been designed with these other sector leaders in mind, it follows that they may not have the same relevance to MET practitioners.

Perhaps something specific needs to be developed to smooth the transition from seafarer to lecturer to educational leader, in the light of the cultural context described above. So it may be possible to suggest innovative methods for the ways in which MET leaders are trained and developed. These questions will be explored in the final chapter of this thesis.

The next chapter concerns the design of this research project. It will include an exposition of research methods and methodologies together with argument and rationale for the eventual selection.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

This chapter explains how I carried out my research and the reasons behind my choice of method and methodology, contextualised within educational research. My own position in the research will become apparent and there will be sections on ethics and the steps taken to ensure ethical awareness and compliance with accepted standards. Finally, the way in which the research data was analysed will be discussed and described. The chapter will draw throughout on relevant literature pertaining to research design.

The essential drivers of academic inquiry are the research questions (see p.4) These must be stated clearly and data collected must address those questions as well as generating further questions (Marshall and Rossman, 2006).

Research questions

Educational research mainly takes place in the world of education. It encompasses competing methods and methodologies, different philosophies and even so-called 'paradigm wars' (Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie; 2004). Cohen *et al* (2008) argue that it is the appropriateness of any one method in context that will define its efficacy. An understanding of the philosophical arguments will assist in my own endeavour to become an educational researcher in this rich and diverse sector.

Creswell (2009) argues that there are three components that intertwine in any research project: philosophical world views (or epistemological and ontological perspectives); strategies of enquiry (or methodology) and the research activity itself (or the methods) (Creswell, 2009). The intersection of these entities represents the findings and the truth

(according to the researcher). Whether or not this represents the ‘absolute truth’ is, to a large extent, a philosophical consideration, depending on the beliefs and perspective of the reader, as well as the researcher.

The relationship between the three dynamic entities is represented diagrammatically in Figure 4 (see p.73). Each circle represents a myriad of information and argument; however the model does serve to present the essence of research design in a simplistic and reductionist form and will be used to frame the sections in this chapter.

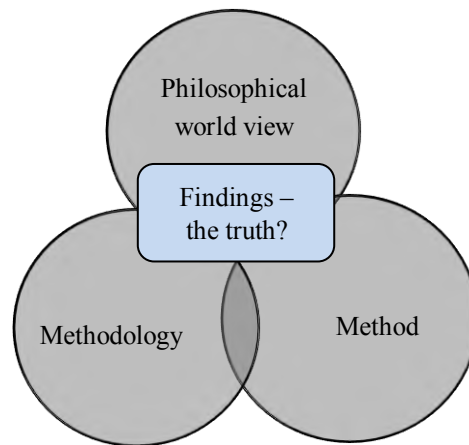


Figure 4: Interrelation of design components. (Adapted from Creswell, 2009)

Philosophical world view

Kerlinger (1970), cited in Cohen *et al* (2008:6), defines research as the ‘systematic, controlled, empirical and critical investigation of hypothetical propositions about the presumed relations among natural phenomena’. This is a scientific description which is predicated on the assumption that all phenomena have observable causes and effects and that there is no supernatural or divine influence over them. Cohen *et al* (2008:7) regard scientific research as the ‘most successful approach to the discovery of truth, particularly as far as the natural sciences are concerned’. The word usually used to describe this perspective is positivism.

This view is not universally shared; some writers (Nesfield-Cookson, 1987; Kierkegaard, 1974; Warnock, 1970; Ions, 1977) maintain that scientific positivism ‘undermines life and mind’ (Cohen *et al*; 2008:17). They contend that it is impossible to reduce the study of humankind, with its chaos and many complexities, to a simple scientific analysis. For these so-called ‘anti-positivists’ the inclusion of subjective material is crucial to our understanding of the truth. Anti-positivists are drawn to a naturalistic and interpretivist view of the world, rejecting the view that there are general and universal laws which govern our behaviour.

These contrasting positions are known as the ‘quantitative’ and ‘qualitative’ paradigms, relating respectively to the positive and anti-positive extremes. The dictionary defines paradigm as ‘a very general conception of the nature of scientific endeavour within which a given enquiry is undertaken’ (Hanks, (Ed.); 1986:1113). Cohen *et al* (2008) refer to a paradigm as a ‘model’, in other words, a construction, in this case of ideas, philosophies or theories, which allows us to conceptualise our thinking. Patton (1986:181) argues that paradigms are ‘deeply embedded in the socialization of adherents and practitioners: paradigms tell them what is important, legitimate and reasonable’. This suggests that if researchers have immutable personal paradigms then this will impact on the nature (and results) of their research.

Creswell (2009:4) describes quantitative research as ‘a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables’ and for some it ‘carries with it an aura of scientific responsibility’ (Denscombe, 2006:236). Supporters of quantitative research argue it should be pure, untainted and objective. It should be capable of being measured with instruments. Observers should be distant from the observed so that results and conclusions are as objective as possible. The research should be ‘time- and context-free’ (Nagel, 1986 in Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004:14). In this way,

the research is kept free from bias, allows replication and generalisation of findings (Creswell, 2009). Quantitative research may be characterised by its reliance on numbers, graphs, tables and statistics.

The alternative view supports a qualitative approach. Here, researchers tend towards words rather than numbers (Denscombe, 2006). Qualitative researchers are interested in the rich data that emanates from and by interacting with the observed. The research tends towards description rather than analysis (Denscombe, 2006) and requires that data is made sense of in ways that the participants would recognise. (Cohen *et al*, 2008:461). Qualitative research relies on naturalistic settings and ordinary happenings thus giving insight to real life events (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Supporters and proponents of the differing perspectives have engaged in so-called 'paradigm wars' (Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004) with each side vigorously defending the provenance of their preferred position. A third way, known as the mixed-method paradigm (Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004), is also posited. This will be addressed below (see p.78).

Cohen *et al* (2008:7) identify four assumptions influencing the debate. These are: ontological, epistemological, human agency and the debate enjoining nomethetic and idiographic standpoints. The chapter will address each of these assumed influences beginning with ontology.

'Ontology' asks whether there is a given truth - a truth 'out there' - or is truth something subjective which we, as humans, impose on the world around us? Ontology, (from the Greek *on* meaning 'being' and *logia* meaning 'writing about, study of'), is literally the study of being. It is a philosophical concept and concerns the meaning of truth and reality. From one perspective it may be argued that reality and truth exist as a 'given'.

Gunter *et al* (2008) argue that people holding strong religious faith may fall into this category. For example, the Creation Museum in Cincinnati, USA, states that their 'exhibit halls are gilded with **truth**' [original emphasis] (Creation Museum, 2009) which would be refuted by others of different persuasions, or atheists, for example. On the other hand, truth and reality may be viewed as the product of a person's own individual perception. It could be argued, using the example above, that adherents to Creation Theory are simultaneously accepting a 'given out-there' whilst at the same time, reinforcing their own individual perception and interpretation.

The consequence of ontology on me as an aspiring educational researcher is fundamental. Do I listen to my own 'truths' and, if so, where did they come from? Or do I adopt an external inquisitive approach and seek the truth elsewhere? Having an awareness of others' perceptions of the truth, as well as my own, will be crucial in all the phases of the research project.

The second assumption (Cohen *et al*, 2008) concerns 'epistemology' which derives from the Greek *episteme* (meaning knowledge) and *logos* (meaning word, thought principle or speech). Epistemology is the branch of philosophy that involves the study of knowledge and how we acquire it. Every research methodology is underpinned by an epistemology which not only signposts the project but also provides the waypoints, or, in other words, the process of steps that have to be taken.

As explained above, some researchers take the view that knowledge is 'hard, objective and tangible' (Cohen *et al*, 2008). This perspective would demand a positivist approach, observation would feature prominently, and a scientific methodology would be adopted. Researchers who display a strong positivist epistemological stance would, arguably,

also be advocates of quantitative research, since this would probably complement their world view.

Researchers who espouse an anti-positivist world view, or a social constructivist view (Creswell, 2009) are arguably more prone towards qualitative research methodologies. They may be likely to favour a subjective and personal methodology.

Having an understanding of my own epistemological perspective is important as I try to understand the phenomena I have researched.

Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:14) report that ‘the advocates of quantitative and qualitative research paradigms have engaged in dispute...[for more than a century]...’. They argue that quantitative purists treat educational research in much the same way a physical scientist would approach physical phenomena. This positivist stance is supported by many commentators (e.g. Ayer, 1959; Popper, 1959; Schrag, 1992; and Maxwell and Delaney, 2004). Quantitative researchers argue that the observer is separate from the entities being researched. Research is almost clinical in that it is emotionally detached, free of bias and written up in a language devoid of subjective syntax. In this way, they maintain, quantitative research is scientifically reliable and valid.

Qualitative researchers dismiss the positivist arguments in the preceding paragraph. Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie describe anti-positivists as seeking ‘constructivism, idealism, relativism, humanism, hermeneutics and, sometimes, post-modernism’ (2004:14), citing Guba and Lincoln (1989), Schwandt (2000) and Smith (1983, 1984) to support their claim. Labaree (2003) introduces some fresh analysis and implies that educational researchers are almost compelled to use qualitative methods since the

conditions for causal and quantitative work (replicable times, places and people) are almost always absent in educational settings.

Burden (undated: 5) describes qualitative researchers as ‘journalists’ or ‘soft scientists’ saying their work is termed unscientific, exploratory and subjective. It is these very qualities, of course, that quantitative researchers find appealing, since their primary aim is to examine the socially-constructed, interpretivist, nature of reality and phenomena.

While this may have been the case in the past, and despite the ‘incompatibility thesis’ (Howe, 1998, cited by Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004)) there is evidence that ‘both methodologies are useful and valid’ (Laberee, 2003:14). He argues that educational research has moved on to a postpositivist paradigm which is subject to the same basic standards that were present in the positivist and anti-positivist paradigms. He justifies this view by arguing that both quantitative and qualitative educational researchers ‘have to work in the same marshy epistemological terrain’. (Laberee, 2003:14).

Mixed methods

Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:16) posit that mixed methods, as a third research paradigm, will bridge the divide between qualitative and quantitative methods and improve the quality of educational research overall. They argue that both quantitative and qualitative methods are useful and can both be used to ‘describe and develop techniques that are closer to what researchers actually use in practice’ (Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004:15).

However, they qualify this, saying mixed methods will not provide a ‘perfect solution’ and there are still purists (Guba, 1990) who argue in favour of the schism.

An overarching principle to keep in mind, as Creswell (2009) points out, is that mixed method research is not simply a matter of using and analysing both sorts of data: mixed method research itself involves a separate philosophical world view that accommodates both perspectives.

This account of ontology and epistemology is necessarily brief, yet it explains how the stances taken by a researcher may translate into their chosen research paradigm. If research paradigms were to form a continuum, those with a positivist outlook would be at one extreme with a scientific and objective approach, while anti-positivists would be at the opposite end arguing in favour of a more subjective and socially-constructed approach.

Clearly, a researcher's ontological and epistemological philosophy will influence the paradigm they choose to adopt for their methodology. So, for instance, a researcher with a positivist ontological and epistemological bias would believe in a scientific approach and would probably adopt an objectivist approach (Cohen *et al*, 2008). Researchers from this discipline could of course choose to use qualitative methods, but would arguably feel more secure and comfortable employing quantitative, experimental, scientific and large-scale survey techniques.

A relevant observation is the syntax I have used in the preceding paragraph. The text is written objectively in the third person, thus reifying the researcher as an outside agency. If I had chosen to write in the first person, as here, this would have implied an alternative ontological perception. Thus the selection of language (in this case, the choice of 'person') nuances the meaning of the research and may be interpreted differently by the reader. Also it reveals an insight into my own ontological and

epistemological position. This supports Grint's (1995) argument, introduced in the preceding chapter, about the importance of language.

Returning to the discussion of paradigms: researchers with a disposition towards multiple realities, subjectivist analysis and interpretism would probably feel more comfortable adopting a qualitative, antipositivist paradigm. As before, it is possible that this group might elect to use a quantitative paradigm but it is not likely that they would be overly enthusiastic. Bridging the schism would be those researchers who devise a mixed-method paradigm and pick aspects of each of the two main paradigms.

Whether humans are influenced more by their own actions or the actions of others and their environment is Cohen *et al*'s (2008) third concern. This argument centres on the dichotomy between agency and structure, first introduced in Chapter 2 (see p.30). By that is meant the degree to which humans behave as a result of their own inner conviction, motivation and self-determinism, as opposed to having their actions determined by other players and the environment. This is also referred to as voluntarism (= agency) at one end of the continuum, opposed by determinism (= structure) at the other. In their fourth set of assumptions Cohen *et al* (2008) introduce nomothetic and idiographic concepts. By nomethetic they mean 'an approach [to the social world] that is characterized by procedures and methods designed to discover general laws' (Cohen *et al*, 2008:8). The alternative view, idiographic, holds that reality is forged solely by those who experience it; that we can only know truth by people involved in its search. This perspective would argue that truth is an internalised, unique and subjective thing.

These assumptions go to the heart of social science research. Believers or advocates of one set of assumptions (as opposed to the other) would, arguably, be predisposed to a particular methodology over another (Creswell, 2009:19). They distil into the three

broad research paradigms discussed in this chapter: quantitative, qualitative and mixed method research. The chapter will now consider my own epistemological and ontological preferences.

The researcher's position

It may be argued that one's own world view, rather than being a static entity, is a dynamic concept that shifts according to time and context. My epistemological perspective has changed considerably as I have matured physically and cognitively. By that, I mean that I think about the world, and my place within it, differently now to, say, thirty, or even ten, years ago, with a significant swing towards an interpretivist philosophy.

This fact is not simply interesting in its own right. It means also that the research design I may be predisposed to adopt will be different today than it might have been years ago. The way in which issues are encountered, problematised and solved, is intrinsically linked with the researcher's and observer's heuristic outlooks and beliefs. Everyone's life experiences, together with their development and training, will influence their choice of methodology, method and overall design (Creswell, 2009).

So, it follows that being transparent in one's own approach will assist the reader, or the audience (Creswell, 2009), in their attempt to make sense of the data. An example of this might be the work of a researcher admitting strong religious faith, where the sense of positivist truth that that person feels, may or may not be shared by the researcher's audience. If that were the case, having an awareness of the researcher's perspective would be crucially important to help the reader synthesise and understand the data.

Thus it is logical to deduce that one's own position as researcher irrevocably affects the design of a research project.

In any research project, ethics are of paramount importance. Before addressing design, this next section sets out, in brief, the ethical framework within which this enquiry is designed.

Ethics

The research was conducted within the ethical guidelines set by the British Educational Research Association (BERA) (2004) and BERA's 'Good Practice in Educational Research Writing' (2003). An ethic of respect for the people involved, their knowledge, and democratic values was observed. No minors were involved so Children's Acts did not apply. No subterfuge or deception was employed and it is assumed that no detrimental effects have been experienced as a result of this project.

Informed, written consent was obtained from all the participants, and their line managers, prior to interview (Appendix B, p.230) and the relevant documentation was submitted to the University of Birmingham's ethics committee for clearance prior to starting the fieldwork.

No incentives were offered and the bureaucratic burden was minimised by negotiating opportunities to interview which were convenient to the subjects, and by ensuring reasonably strict timekeeping. Having sought permission from everyone, contemporaneous file notes were kept. The interviewees' responses were summarised at regular points throughout and my understanding was verified on these occasions and in conclusion at the end. Participants were advised in writing of their right to withdraw from the process at any time.

Having cognisance of this ethical framework, the chapter will now address design.

The design of any research project, assuming the epistemological and ethical concerns are acknowledged, depends on methodology and method. The two elements are distinct. Creswell (2009) uses the term ‘strategies of enquiry’ to describe methodology and these will be addressed first.

Methodology

The broad aims of this research were to find out how and why a specific group of educational leaders got where they are. This section outlines the rationale for eliminating most methodologies in favour of survey; it includes a description of the sampling and a justification for it.

The eight strategies of enquiry (Creswell, 2009) or methodologies (Denscombe, 2006) provide a comprehensive selection to choose from. They are:

- case study;
- internet search;
- experiment;
- action research;
- ethnographic research;
- phenomenological;
- grounded theory *and*
- survey.

Each of these methodologies was considered and the next section gives the rationale for discarding most in favour of selecting ‘survey’.

Denscombe (2006) argues that the defining characteristic of a case study is that it focuses ‘on just one instance of the thing that is to be investigated’ (200:30). This research involved different people, roles and institutions, so a case study was inappropriate.

‘Internet search’ and ‘experiment’ are methodologies that have much in common with positivist, scientific and objective views of the world which do not fit with my qualitative interpretation and were therefore eliminated.

For pragmatic reasons (Creswell, 2009), and resource constraints, ‘action research’ and ‘ethnographic research’ were logistically impractical.

Phenomenology has been described as ‘the study of structures of consciousness as experienced from the first-person point of view’ (Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, 2008). Although phenomenological research has been criticised for lacking academic rigour (Rex, 1974; Denscombe, 2006; Cohen *et al*, 2008), it would be congruent with, and does appeal to, my interpretivist position. However, a phenomenological methodology would need the observation of a small number of subjects ‘through extensive and prolonged engagement’ (Creswell, 2009). This was logistically impractical and the reason for eliminating this method.

Grounded theory is a pragmatic methodology and ‘it is neither feasible nor desirable for the researcher to identify prior to the start exactly who or what will be included in the sample’ (Denscombe, 2006:111). This would have been difficult to achieve within the constraints of this project and so this methodology was rejected.

In order to research, probe and come to know ‘lived lives’ (Inman, 2009) I was influenced towards a methodology that will more easily lend itself to a subjectively-

focussed method and interpretation. This is in accord with my personal, interpretivist construct of the world (Creswell, 2009) (see p.9).

This was designed as a short-term, small-scale research project. Access to respondents was relatively straightforward since I enjoy personal contact with all the MET training institutions in the UK and ‘real-world observations’ (Denscombe, 2006: 27) would be collected, resulting in rich, qualitative data.

So from this review, and in order to best meet the intended purpose of the research in a realistic and pragmatic way, survey became the chosen methodology. Some (Creswell, 2009; Skelton, 2009) maintain that surveys are associated solely with quantitative approaches. However this position is not universally accepted (Denscombe, 2006; Lagor, 2007; Cohen *et al*, 2008.) and this, together with the accompanying, and complementary method, justifies interview survey as an appropriate methodology.

The next section introduces method.

Method

Several possible methods, consistent with an interpretivist approach, of collecting data were considered. These included questionnaires, focus groups, observations, examination of documentary evidence and interviews. This section sets out the reasons for choosing one and discarding the others.

Response rates to questionnaires can be as low as 20% (Denscombe, 2006). Given the size of the total population (about sixty in total across the UK) this method was not guaranteed to produce a meaningful data set. It was felt also that questionnaires would not provide the personal data essential in a project which addresses leadership and its

development. For these reasons questionnaires as a primary source of data were rejected.

The selected institutions are separated by considerable geographic distance so focus groups would have been difficult and costly to arrange. For this reason focus groups were eliminated as a choice of method.

With regard to the evidence I intended to collect, I wanted to hear the ‘stories’ of the respondents and be able to probe where appropriate. This would not be congruent with observational or documentary examination as methods, so they too were rejected.

I was seeking a rich source of qualitative data that would record the participants’ thoughts and accounts and reflect the dynamism of human interaction. ‘Interviews’ were identified as being a reliable, practical and effective choice for this task. Furthermore, within logistic and practical constraints, they were realistic and ‘do-able’ (Marshall and Rossman, 2006).

Interviews are more than plain verbal communication; they ‘involve a set of assumptions and understandings about the situation which are not normally associated with a casual conversation’ (Denscombe, 2006:163). Denscombe (2006) also argues that interviewers do not need to develop new skills in order to conduct interviews: a view I challenge. Successful and meaningful interviews in which participants are forthcoming about their lives, experiences, thoughts and feelings will be more likely if participants are relaxed and comfortable with the process. So the interaction has to be orchestrated by the interviewer, and this, I would argue, improves with practice.

The skills embrace interviewing competence and active listening. The interviewer should display empathic awareness and have a sound understanding of the range and

types of secondary and back-up questions to ask, thus filling gaps in the respondents' replies to the primary questions.

These requirements are supported by the author's post-graduate qualification and current practice as an executive coach.

The wording of questions, the language employed, tone of voice and non-verbal language used by the interviewer are all vital components of the communication process. In a useful discussion on this issue Easterby-Smith *et al* (2004) describe several types of interview 'probe' that can be used, for example, the 'basic probe [which] involves repeating the initial question and is useful when the interview seems to be wandering off the point...' (2004:93). The crucial point emphasised by Easterby-Smith *et al* (2004:93) is that probes 'should never lead'. This means that questions should be open and avoid including the answer within the rubric of the question.

After discussing the questions with a focus group consisting of FE lecturers (Haughton, 2008a), the next step in this research project was to conduct a pilot interview in order to test the method and the range of questions (Haughton, 2008b). The respondent was representative of the sample (see p.88) and thus enhanced the validity of the research. The pilot yielded a rich seam of data which was a positive result. On the negative side, it was clear that the question schedule was too 'loose'. This allowed, from time to time, a conversation to develop rather than an interview. So I designed a 'tighter' question schedule, designed to elicit data in an efficient way and to offer consistence across all the interviewees. (Appendix B, p.230).

Data on ages and qualifications are presented in Table 10 (see p. 112) to provide indicators of the variation between respondents.

The importance of having reliable equipment was underlined and, prior to the main schedule of interviews, new digital recording equipment was procured.

My networks are well established across the maritime sector, and I have a professional and personal relationship with staff in most of the institutions, so arranging the interviews was straightforward. Steps were taken to seek the necessary permission from senior management in the selected establishments and subsequently to ‘contract’ with each interviewee. This process was formalised and documented (See Appendix B, p.230).

My own position in the research (see p.81) could bias the results (Denscombe, 2006), either by allowing a subjective perspective to cloud interpretation, or, by allowing questions to become leading. This danger is addressed below.

Sampling

The efficacy, validity and reliability of any research enquiry relies on the sampling techniques used (Cohen *et al*, 2008; Denscombe, 2006). It is usually impossible to survey an entire population and, in any case, as Denscombe points out ‘...adding...to the sample...[does not]...appreciably increase the accuracy of the findings.’ (2006:23).

There are two overarching kinds of sampling techniques known as ‘probability sampling’ and ‘non-probability’ sampling. With the former technique the researcher is acknowledging that their sample will be representative of the whole population under consideration, while in the latter, this is not known.

By definition, the maritime industry is international. There are 170 member states represented at the International Maritime Organization (IMO), an agency of the United Nations, in London (IMO, 2011) and all of them have some form of Maritime Education

and Training provision. So, it is certain that there are many hundreds of institutions worldwide offering MET as part of their curriculum. By extension, the scale of research needed to address even a representative sample of these would be immense and require considerable resource. As a consequence of that fact, a decision was taken to limit the research enquiry to the UK. This pragmatic approach concords with Marshall and Rossman's (2006) view that effective research has to be 'do-able'.

The first step was to devise a 'sampling frame'. This shows the entire population under consideration. In this case, the population are employed across eleven institutions (MNTB, 2012) in England and Scotland. There are no institutions offering STCW CoC qualifications in Wales or Northern Ireland.

Sample frame

The eleven institutions are very different in geographic location, size, educational setting and in cultural disposition. Of these, eight were chosen in which to conduct the research (from locations in the North West, North East, South West, South East and the South of England and from one location in Scotland). Collectively, they comprise a broad representation of the UK's MET provision.

Assuming six to eight leaders in each institution, there are probably between 66 and 88 individuals to whom the criteria, outlined in the following section, applies. Therefore this broad-based sample of twenty middle leaders represents between 22% and 30% of the total MET leadership population in the United Kingdom. They are linked because they are perceived, and perceive themselves, as MET leaders. This may therefore be considered a purposive and representative sample (Denscombe, 2006).

Table 4 (see p.90) lists the types of institution by which the interviewees were employed.

Type of Institution	Number
Departments, schools or faculties within General Colleges of Further Education	4
Departments, schools or faculties within Universities	3
Private training establishments	1
Total	8

Table 4: Types of MET institution

Sample profile

In order to arrive at a guide for the selection of respondent, and building on the definition of leader adopted from the literature (Barker, 1997) on p.25, as well as my empirical and management experience, the following criteria were devised:

- that the individual considers themselves a leader;
- that the individual has, or has had, line management responsibility;
- that the individual is, or has been, responsible for aspects of operational or strategic change;
- that the individual controls, or has controlled, a monetary budget.

The institutions were then asked to invite those individuals who met the criteria to be interviewed which resulted in a sample profile. Each interviewee gave informed

consent to participate in the research. The job titles of the interviewees are shown in Table 5 (p.91).

Job Titles	Number of Interviewees
Assistant Principal	2
Associate Head of School	2
Associate Director	1
Associate Lecturer	1
Business Manager	1
Deputy Principal	1
Director	2
Head of College	1
Head of Department	3
Head of School	4
Principal	1
Programme Manager	1
Total	20

Table 5: Job titles

In order to maintain confidentiality and anonymity the links between interviewees, job titles and institutions are not shown.

The institutions in this study came from a broad geographic, academic and cultural range. The perception of culture will be the author's based on his career's experience. This is open to criticism but is a pragmatic way forward (Creswell, 2009).

On the question of gender: there are no women in UK MET leadership positions. There are women in higher positions of the institutions within which MET departments are

embedded but they have no direct operational leadership role in MET. As a result, the sample interviewees were all male.

Meetings were scheduled and I conducted the research interviews in England and Scotland as described above. In the first instance, permission was sought at senior management level and thereafter permission was sought from every individual and a research 'contract' signed (see Appendix B, p.230).

Being familiar with the culture and individuals being interviewed, together with the essentially subjective nature of semi-structured interviews, may lead to 'bias' (Guba and Lincoln (1989) in Denzin and Lincoln, Eds. 2003). To mitigate this, an interview schedule was produced (see Appendix B, p.230) which was sent to the interviewees in advance. The schedule listed the questions that were going to be posed. Although the participants were encouraged to develop the questions and their answers as they wished, the interviews always returned to the schedule. This provided some consistency between the different interviews and reduced the possibility of bias.

There were fifteen primary questions with the first and last being respectively introductory and conclusory. The interviews lasted on average 60 minutes allowing sufficient time to address the remaining thirteen questions. The questions were designed to produce data to inform the research questions (see p.4).

Research data

The interviews were conducted in the workplaces of the interviewees and digitally recorded. Having sought explicit permission, I also made contemporaneous notes during the process which helped to contextualise the interview and provided data that is not auditory. This included observation of the physical surroundings and ambience.

The recordings were transcribed and then checked for obvious transcription mistakes and omissions. They were then sent to the interviewees for validation. Denscombe (2006:186) argues that this respondent triangulation is a ‘nice safeguard’ that mitigates erroneous information or things that may have been said in the heat of the moment.

The findings were related to the discussion on leadership theory explicated in the second chapter together with the work discovered by the literature search. This helped to promote an iterative and thus effective process.

The process of data analysis began with listening to the interviews while simultaneously reading the transcripts. This was followed by further close reading of the transcripts and the highlighting of recurrent themes and points of interest. This iterative process resulted in a deep understanding of the raw material.

A grid was created with a row for each question and twenty columns, one for each respondent. Using the transcripts as raw data, words and phrases were pasted in the grid. As the data accrued, so the answers and comments against each question grew to form a body of evidence which facilitated synthesis of the significant points. Areas of consensus and conflict became apparent as the matrix became populated with data. A sample of this is shown in Figure 5 (see p.94).

Qu.	Respondent:	A	B	C	D
12	What training or development do you think would be useful for leaders in similar situations as yourself? When should this happen?	So I guess you can have... it would be logical to have training for the leadership of a module, but training for leadership, I guess there are sort of two aspects to it. One is the administrative function of leadership, which is a lot of what's going on as a module leader, you have to administer it in the sense you have to know what students are doing and what the time table is, what the content is and make sure it happens and gets delivered, collate all the results, again that's all administrative stuff. But then there are more abstract leadership aspects which I guess are much more difficult to teach and I think you can teach somebody to do admin and they'll either be good at it or bad at it. But I have the view that teaching someone to become a leader is a more chancy sort of business. (878); So I certainly 'no leadership training explicitly, I've never 'on anything that was called leadership tr and I don't think I'll get that in this or because I'll never get sufficiently '... .. 0000.	... if they've had no leadership experience by the time they're 35, they're set in their ways. And you're never going to teach them leadership. (B611); A I think leadership training should happen quite early in certain people's lives. Training is one thing, but exposure is another. (B1156); A In the sense that first of all I think the younger lecturers have got to decide that they're being looked after and there's a career progression.(B1214); But there's no sort of career progression of where they go. (B1221);	Training for leadership, in my view, starts on day one of any career path. (C694); [training for senior managers]...It's not a formal process, no.(C754); But there's no actual formal structured process to get you from lecturer to being a managing lecturer.(C768);	'Yes, they've all done City and Guilds two levels (this sort of two hours a week for a nine month course and did it en-bloc, as a group. And then we worked gave everybody a break from teaching for a few' Something I would have had

Figure 5: A sample of the raw data grid

In the next stage the responses to each Research Question were merged to create an amalgam of all twenty responses. At each stage, the words and phrases were referenced back to the original source; this allowed a re-reading of the relevant parts of the transcripts if this became necessary. In addition, the respondents' words were colour-coded to assist recognition. A sample is shown in Figure 6 (see p.94).

<p style="text-align: right;">Question 2</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Could you please describe your current position, roles and responsibilities?</p> <p>... look after programme management issues which are very wide and various (A48); research profile relatively light (A54); no budgetary control (A50); they know how to spend, not how to make (A64); Lecturing; supervising (B60); Outside body responsibilities; Government projects (C84); Lecturing, senior member of marine studies team; external responsibilities; I'm able to inform, direct, guide, mentor the team going in the right direction (C98); responsible for the entire operation (D107); I'm responsible for all the time, of course, is maintaining the accreditations and approvals with MNTB, MCA, Nautical Institute, Edexcel, and latterly with our new programmes...(D126); overall oversight (E43); part of the SMT (E46); a significant role (E54); I have a lot of freedom (E60); autonomous and full control of operations and strategic decision-making within institutional structures (E116); setting direction and values (E136); budget control, course development, business development, customer engagement (F36); rebuilding customer confidence (F45); gaining competitive advantage (F50); you're trying to balance all the balls all the time, and particularly when we had this turnaround situation here the personal development did slip by for a bit and I've become very conscious that the whole issue of continuing and updating and reflection in particular and making time for it. And it's been quite good for this programme because fortunately I finally have some time after seven years here of being flat out we're finally getting to a position where there's a little bit of breathing space where you can take stock and look at some of these things.(F563); in charge of the engineering faculty from a strategic and a financial point of view and I've got management responsibility for three people directly and then under them there's approximately 40 other people under that (G13); and educational (G7); I do have some autonomy (G27); Day to day operation (H13); looking after staff; quality of delivery; external liaison (H15); some strategic responsibility (H34); 60/40 split keeping the show on the road/looking to the new (H53); I do spend a lot of time with new members of staff, especially new members of staff, trying to lead them through the minefield that is modern education, whether that's due to quality, or... staff will probably have a teaching qualification as such... .. 0000.</p>
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Figure 6: Extract from data amalgamation

In order to generate evidence in respect of the first research question (which asks whether there is a difference between MET leadership and educational leadership in general), and in addition to recording qualitative data, opportunity was also taken to record relevant statistics concerning age and length of service, which were:

1.	Age at which the seagoing career of MET leaders started
2.	Number of years spent at sea
3.	Highest rank attained at sea
4.	Age on coming ashore
5.	Number of years ashore before entering the teaching profession
6.	Age on entering the teaching profession
7.	Age on attaining a leadership role in MET
8.	Number of years in a MET leadership role at the time of interview
9.	Highest seagoing (STWC) Certificate achieved
10.	Teaching qualifications achieved
11.	Other academic qualifications obtained

Table 6: Quantitative data collected

Validity, reliability and triangulation

Validity refers to the ‘plausability...sturdiness... “confirmability”’(Miles and Huberman, 1994:11) of data. In other words, how certain can the researcher be that data stands up to scrutiny and, importantly, is representative of the population at large? Cohen *et al* (2008:133) go so far as to suggest that ‘invalid research is worthless’. However, they also argue that validation can take many forms and qualitative data can be achieved through ‘honesty, depth, richness and scope’ (2008:133).

Appropriately (for a research programme into maritime education) ‘triangulation’ is a term with its origins in navigation and surveying, where geographic positions are found

by taking compass bearings and measuring angles. However, accurate navigation, as with research in social science, depends on variables which must be allowed for in order to minimise errors. So when Denscombe states ‘...there is an assumption with navigation that there is a single true location which can be discovered using the known properties of triangles’ (2006: 134), this is only partially true. Even when triangulation is used, both the social scientist and the prudent navigator will use the results with caution.

There is a significant case to be made for using triangulation. It increases trustworthiness, while Cohen *et al* argue that ‘exclusive reliance on one method may bias or distort the researcher’s picture of the particular slice of reality being investigated’ (2008:141).

The interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed before being returned, as portable document files to preclude editing, to the interviewees for verification and clarification. This represents a form of respondent triangulation whereby the data is checked and authenticated by the interviewees, based on their recollection of the event.

Conclusion

This chapter has introduced the underpinning theoretical constructs of educational research in terms of ontology, epistemology and methodology. It has framed this specific research endeavour against those theories and used them to expound and justify the methodology and method I have chosen.

The advantages and disadvantages of interview as a method have been explained, along with the ethical, practical and logistical issues that are essential to consider. It has also highlighted some of the shortfalls and acknowledged the potential pitfalls that may be encountered.

The next chapter sets out the findings of the research. Each research question will be used as heading for one of the four main sections.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter sets out the findings from the interviews of twenty MET leaders employed by significant MET providers in the UK. They are presented in response to the research questions and the four concomitant areas of:

- roles, leadership and differences;
- life journeys, influence and chance;
- reflection and style and lastly;
- the professional training and development of leaders.

These findings are illustrated by quotations from the respondents and tables of data.

Two sample transcripts (from interviewees K and S) were selected at random and are included in Appendix D (see p.235). Where they are quoted, page numbers and line references are given.

All respondents had previously indicated their compliance with the criteria that had been set to define leadership in education (see p.90).

The UK's MET provision is a small sub-set of the post-compulsory sector. Unlike, say, the school sector where the terms 'headteacher' and 'principal' are ubiquitous, there is no consistency or convention in the choice of job titles in FE and HE. This inconsistency means it is sometimes possible to identify individuals by their job titles.

Also, individuals can easily be identified from a description of the type of institution, college, university or private training company who employs them. Identifying them

would compromise the confidentiality that was formally contracted with each respondent and is therefore unethical and unacceptable.

So, in order to maintain confidentiality and anonymity, a code letter has been ascribed to each interviewee, ranging from ‘A’ to ‘T’.

The job titles of the interviewees are shown in Table 4 (p. 90) together with a list of their types of institutions (Table 5, p.91). The links to the individuals are not shown for the reasons explained above.

Number of Respondents	%	Descriptors
n = 20	100	all
n = 17 – 19	85 - 95	majority/most
n = 11 – 16	55 - 80	more than half
n = 10	50	half
n = 4 – 9	20 - 45	less than half/few
n = 1 – 3	5 - 15	minority/least
n = 0	0	none

Table 7: Number descriptors

There were twenty respondents. In presenting these findings the convention in Table 7 (p.99) has been adopted. After the findings have been presented they will be discussed in Chapter 6 (see p.189).

Research Question 1: roles, leadership and differences

When asked to what extent they considered themselves to be ‘educational leaders’, and mindful of the fact that they had all previously indicated that they met the criteria above (see p.), most of the interviewees answered ‘yes’, after they had considered the question, indicating a strong extent. This sentiment is reflected clearly in this selection of quotes:

‘I do consider myself an educational leader ...everything that I do...is to do with the strategic direction and operational management of education...’ (Interviewee I);

‘I do consider myself an educational leader... I’ve been in education...for the last nine years... I am immersed in education’ (Interviewee J);

‘Yes I do, both as a micro leader and strategically as developing systems and procedures and processes [to] enhance...maritime education and training.’ (Interviewee L);

‘yeah, I think so. I think since I took the Chair ...that’s been my focus...’ (Interviewee S: p.248, lines 90-92).

However, there were differences of opinion, and some respondents were unsure or were less convinced that their roles included an educational element, with the following quotes indicative of this stance:

‘I’ve never actually described myself as an educational leader...I suppose in a way...’ (Interviewee D);

‘Well, yeah I suppose I do...’ (Interviewee K: p.236, line 75);

‘I suppose yes in the sense that I’m shaping what we want to do here...’ (Interviewee O).

Most strikingly, one interviewee did not relate his task primarily to education and saw himself primarily as a business manager.

In answer to a question asking them to describe their roles it became clear that all the respondents had autonomy over their immediate working environment from an operational perspective in ‘day to day operation’ (Interviewee H), ‘supervising’ (Interviewee B) and ‘[managing] the curriculum, fire-fight[ing] day to day problems (Interviewee K: p.235, lines 10-11). Autonomy over strategic decision-making varied considerably even between individuals sharing identical job titles. One Head of School commented ‘Operational control but less so strategic’ (Interviewee J) while another Head of School said his job was to engage in ‘strategic planning’ (Interviewee T).

Kotter (1990) devised a table setting out his view of what constitutes the main features of leadership and management. Table 8 (p.102) reproduces this work and juxtaposes it with the interviewees’ reported roles and responsibilities.

The table shows that the interviewees report a wide range of responsibilities. Using Kotter’s (1990) taxonomy, under ‘management’ these range from ‘fire-fighting’ day to day problems and challenges, to determining clients’ needs and then planning to meet them.

The leadership responsibilities include strategic planning, influencing others and inspiring students. The last category ‘making decisions’ spans the table since, self-evidently, this cannot be restricted to one side or the other.

	Leadership tasks	Management tasks
Kotter's (1990) classification:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • addresses change • sets direction • aligns people • motivates and inspires 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • addresses complexity • plans and budgets • organises resources and staff • controls and solves problems
Reported roles and responsibilities:	strategic planning	day to day operations
	represent [institution] on Lead Bodies	'fire-fighting'
	[encourages new] course development	responsible for H&S
	[identify] new provision	staffing matters
	make sure students feel wanted	controlling budgets
	encouraging and pushing forward	external duties (PR, marketing)
	shaping what we want to do	time-tabling
	inspired to change [students'] lives	planning
	provide direction	project management
	[leadership is] a 'core element' of [my job]	maintaining approvals
	to lead changes	'balancing all the balls'
	[I] influence what goes on here	monitor assessment processes
	setting directions and values	resource manager
	[I] equip [students] to move on	customer liaison
		teaching
		determining clients' needs
		[perform as a] business leader
	making decisions	

Table 8: MET leaders' roles and responsibilities; (Kotter, 1990. Adapted by Haughton, 2010)

When interviewees were asked the question 'what do you do that defines you as a leader?', more than half the respondents tended to move away from general statements

and became much more specific in their descriptions. For example, Interviewee I was forthright in declaring:

‘You take decisions, make decisions. You don’t sit there and say “will we do this?” and “will we do that?” you say “we’ll do this” not in an off the cuff, off hand way but in a thoughtful way. You look at all sides and you make a decision.’
(Interviewee I).

This sense of decision-making was prevalent across all the respondents, typified by the following remarks:

‘leadership is more about choosing a direction and getting people to come along with you and I think that’s what my leadership role is just now in the main’
(Interviewee G)

and:

‘I basically decide on what we’ve got to do and I then just say, “This is what we’re going to do.” And I think that’s quite a good thing to be able to do is just make a decision. And I’ve got no problems with making a decision’ (Interviewee O).

The responses indicated that activities were perceived on both sides of Kotter’s (1990) management/leadership spectrum. The lack of consistency in answer across the schools, departments and faculties was marked.

The importance of students’ progress and achievement was voiced strongly with one interviewee saying:

‘...my focus [is] to make sure the students...feel wanted, part of a family...have a rounded education...not just being trained...’ (Interviewee S: p.248, lines 92-94).

Differences between MET and other forms of educational leadership

MET departments, faculties and schools who train and educate to the highest level of professional certification usually operate within a larger educational institution, either a College of FE or a University (see Figure 3, p.57). The tension that this produces was palpable. Most interviewees expressed a sense of ‘difference’ (Interviewee G) between

themselves and the wider institution of which they were part. This difference was sometimes a source of pride with Interviewee I saying that ‘MET outshines all other areas of the curriculum with respect to [its] relationship with the [maritime] industry’.

While the majority of respondents reported differences in one form or another, between MET leadership and educational leadership in general, one respondent (Interviewee T) had not given the issue much thought while another, Interviewee P, thought that ‘[he had] the same problem [as other departments] with development of programmes, research, shortage of budget and money [...and...he didn’t...] know that actually there [were] many differences’.

For the majority who did perceive a difference, it manifested itself in numerous and distinct forms. The most fundamental was a difference in management style and approach between MET departments and their host organisations. For instance, in explaining that MET standards were externally set by statute, Interviewee B argued that ‘Universities fail to realise that [the universities are] not dictating the standards’, while Interviewee E felt that his department existed to ‘serve business as well as students...we need a distinctive character and culture’. Interviewee G brought these two issues together when he said:

‘the environment we work in is different because to a certain extent we’ve got more legislation, etc., controlling us, more rules, regulations, more bodies that we report to. If you’re dealing with people who are employed by a company and being paid by a company, you’ve got a duty to both the trainee, the student, and to the shipping company as well and that can create conflicts of interest all the time’.

There was also a feeling that ‘very few’ (Interviewee B) university leaders had leadership skills, reaching their positions by virtue of their ‘academic status’ (Interviewee B). This was in contrast to the way the interviewees reported their own

backgrounds: they felt that their journey to leadership had included much preparatory work in their seagoing or industrial roles. This will be returned to below.

In addition to the pressure exerted by the differences in approach to management, MET leaders work under demands from additional sources, ‘trying to balance all the balls all the time’ (Interviewee F). Some of these sources are outlined in the following section.

Balancing the balls

Firstly, MET leaders have responsibility for generating economic income to their departments, schools and faculties. This is in addition to exploiting the public funding streams that FE and HE involve. Thus they are required to develop commercial acumen alongside their pedagogic and curriculum management skills, or, as Interviewee O says: ‘finding out what the customer wants’. Another commented that his job entailed ‘... [knocking] on doors, [getting and speaking] to contacts, [determining] training needs and [developing] them into courses and...contracts...’ (Interviewee N). An example of this was revealed by Interviewees D and L who described how their departments were investigating, and in one case already meeting the needs of, the renewable energy/offshore sector with regard to training operatives in that field.

Respondents also reported that MET leaders: ‘have to keep an eye on international changes and international markets, which I don’t think... well definitely [other departments in FE] don’t. FE wouldn’t know [an] overseas market [...] if it fell over it’ is how Interviewee M interpreted the difference between his sphere of operation and that of the wider sector; although he did add that ‘HE are better [at recognising international market opportunities].

Secondly, it was reported that UK maritime students are already employed when they arrive in the classroom (Interviewee G). So the leaders must work to satisfy employers' needs as well as those of the students.

Thirdly, since the maritime sector delivers statutory qualifications, (STCW) MET leaders must comply with a legal framework set internationally, enforced through the UK's Maritime and Coastguard Agency (MCA) and other regulatory bodies (Interviewee G). Interviewee D commented that he was 'responsible all the time' for 'maintaining the accreditations with MNTB²⁰, MCA, the Nautical Institute and Edexcel...'.

The fourth perceived difference between MET and their 'parent' organisations (causing tension) was between staff across the institutions. This quote is typical:

'...in maritime we have a hierarchical system...the majority of the staff are mariners. So there is a much more regimented, disciplined...visible structure...I don't see that so much in [*other parts of the institution*]...there is a very different structure in the main college, especially in FE ...which is probably why I get cross with the management here; [*in*] maritime education and training the lecturers are more involved in the overall view of things, they're looking outside more because of the nature of the industry, because the people we're teaching work out there, which is a direct link to what we do, or what we used to do' (Interviewee R). The acceptance of hierarchy and use of positional power by MET staff was also reported on favourably by Interviewee J who said:

'...many of [*the teaching staff*] were Masters, Chief Engineers themselves, in a position of leadership... occasionally I'll just tell them, "You've had your moan, and that's enough."...I couldn't do that to someone [*from other parts of the Institution*]'

The final remaining perceived and positive difference reported by the interviewees was that between MET students and students in their institution's wider community. This was perceived as a positive difference. Interviewee K said that '[*with*] our students...the age difference is...the major difference...they've got their career path planned, they know what they want, we don't have attendance problems, not general[ly]...our

²⁰ MNTB = Merchant Navy Training Board (the UK maritime sector's lead body.)

students, certainly the cadet body are quite disciplined; they have to wear uniform...they have an identity'. (Interviewee K:243 p., lines 398-408).

This perception that MET students were somehow different from other students within an institution was bolstered by Interviewee S who held that:

'The key difference...is that we're blessed with our students (p.256, line 440)...they're almost relieved to get back into some kind of an ordered process where they wear uniforms, where they're encouraged to be responsible, socially responsible (p.256, lines 451-453)...they have got a desire to go to sea and they know that there's a consequence if they don't follow the rules' (p.256, lines 464-466).

This seems to be arguing that the differences are positive and advantageous from a MET perspective. Certainly Interviewee Q was in no doubt on this point when he observed that absentee rates for MET students were lower than in the parent organisation.

Summary

It is clear there is a dominant feeling of 'difference' between how MET leaders perceive themselves and how they perceive their colleagues in mainstream post-compulsory education. Although more than half did perceive themselves as educational leaders (which answers part of the first research question on p.4), this was not explicitly acknowledged and came to light only after questioning. This is despite them having agreed they complied with the criteria on p.90. The differences manifest themselves in terms of their approach to leadership, management and commercial activity. It also embraces differences between the staff and students inside and outside MET.

There is evidence that MET leaders operate on both sides of Kotter's (1990) leadership/management table and that they appreciate the symbiotic relationship that exists between them.

The research then shifted focus to examine how and why MET leaders had arrived in their present positions. Questions were posed which sought to elicit information as to their backgrounds and the influences that they had perceived as having been important.

Research Question 2: life journeys, influence and chance

When asked about early influences, more than half the respondents reported that structured, uniformed organisations (for example, cubs, scouts, sports clubs and Army Cadet Force) during their school days had been influential on their lives and career choices. A majority expressed a self-reported pre-disposition towards a leadership role. This was evident from an early age with one respondent saying he ‘flourished [as a Boy Scout... and was engaged in] leadership every week for years on end’ (Interviewee A). This view is echoed in the following statement:

‘I came from a very under privileged background. So, I got involved with the Cubs as early as five and then I was a Cub leader and then I was in the Scouts and I became the Scout leader and the troop leader and then I went on to be a House Captain so, throughout my school life I held, in some ways small, but important leadership roles... I think [the pressures on me to succeed] were self-imposed because it was my perception of what I thought was necessary, so it was just my perception or what I thought, and that’s not always true.’ (Interviewee L).

One respondent said:

‘I suppose I’m a natural leader and if...there was a group of individuals and I was in that group and things weren’t happening or there was no decisions...I’d want to push, ‘Look, make a decision or...’ and then that’s the way I am. I don’t like indecision, even if it’s a wrong decision well let’s try it and I think that’s...I’m never shy to speak and sometimes it got me into trouble.’

(Interviewee K: p.237, lines 92-99).

while another reported:

‘I’ve always been fairly vocal, right from an early age, and I have always found myself in positions of leadership, whether it’s going back to Cub Scouts as a sixer, patrol leader in Scouts. I became a Scout assistant leader early on; I was chairman of the school council, was head of the student body at school, and it’s been a succession. I’ve always...found myself in the position of leadership really.’ (Interviewee J).

Most had been influenced in their career choice by a family member or close family friend. The connection to uniformed service was marked and is shown in Table 9 (p.109).

Interviewee D said ‘[his] childhood was very much influenced by leadership because my father was a senior army officer...and [at a pre-sea nautical establishment] we wore RNR²¹ cadet uniform from [the age of] 14’.

relationship of family member to respondent	examples of family members’ careers/roles
Mother	Family included a ‘long line of seafarers’.
Father	Royal Navy, Army, Leader in industry, Senior Executive, Academic, Senior Engineer.
Grandfather	Royal Air Force (RAF), Royal Navy.
Uncle	Army, Merchant Navy, Fisherman.

Table 9: Family relationships

The importance of religious faith as a significant influence on leadership style is not supported in this research where only a small minority mentioned this as a positive driving force. This is much less than the 31% in other educational sectors who cited personal faith as an influence (West-Burnham, 2009). One reason for this difference could be that there was no specific question in the schedule that asked about religious faith. This could be rectified in any future research.

²¹ RNR: Royal Naval Reserve

In respect of their early exposure to leadership styles some respondents had experienced and been influenced by leadership behaviours that would be illegal today. This quote from Interviewee D makes this clear:

‘As I grew up at sea and had different captains and senior officers...saw the way that they led...a lot of the things they did were still sort of 1920s/30s stuff. Misbehave you get the rope’s end, corporal punishment. And I hated it at the time. But when I look back, or even before I left, I loved that place. And I’ll always be grateful to those guys, most of them had been in the war at sea and so on, they brought a hell of a lot of experience, and care, to the table and they taught me a hell of a lot’

This sense of affection for the tough conditions exacted in quasi-military organisations was supported by findings in the pilot study (Interviewee 1, 2007.)

‘...I joined this place...when I had just turned fifteen...it was easy to shine [academically] because the rest of the boys – some had been sent there by magistrates...some because there was nothing else [to do]...they were going to go to sea – [being pushed] away to sea... and in there I [had] a teacher who sort of figured – Mr H...[who]...took me under his wing...he was a maths...person. He set me work to do and set me to do an...exam in navigation and maths, and English. And he pushed me a lot...very difficult...if you did that...if you were seen to do extra work, classroom work, you were bullied.’ (Interview 1, 2007).

Career paths - formation

On leaving school, the majority of the respondents went to sea, either in the Merchant or Royal Navy. The ensuing period of sea service and experiential learning was deeply significant to all the respondents. Numerous individuals who were encountered during this period were mentioned as having had significant influence over the interviewees’ lives and subsequent careers.

The research confirmed that at this early period in their working lives, none of the MET leaders had contemplated a future career in education. At some stage an opportunity was taken to come ashore and, later still, to go into education. It is this transition between their sea-going and educational careers that was interesting since, I would

argue, the source of motivation to move into education may be an indicator of an individual's enthusiasm and aptitude for the job. The interview questions asked about the planning that had gone into this process of transition.

The majority of respondents entered the teaching profession following a chance event. These events included '[an unplanned] encounter with a previous Head [of School]' (Interviewee T) and two cases where interviewees failed medical examinations²² and were thus unable to continue their sea-going careers (Interviewee R and Interview 1 (2007)). The following selection of quotes provides more evidence of serendipity:

'But that morning I had no intention of getting into training whatsoever. And it just ((clicks fingers)) happened...and...nearly 16 years from that day, here we [are]...' (Interviewee D)

'...I then [entered teaching] by accident, really...' (Interviewee R)

'This was very much by chance and it was my wife, who basically saw the adverts in the paper for [this job]' (Interviewee O)

'I didn't really think, "Oh, I'll go into education," I don't think that [there] was [ever] that thought...' (Interviewee M).

The length of time all the respondents spent at sea or doing other things gives some indication as to the breadth and depth of maritime and industrial experience they brought into the education sector. This phase of their lives had left deep impressions on them. Therefore these statistics were gathered and are presented in Table 10 (p.157).

The average age at which the respondents went to sea was 18.5 years while the number of years they spent at sea averaged 15. The average age at which MET leaders came ashore was 33.5 years and it was, on average, a further six years before they decided to enter the educational sector. Finally, the research revealed that most MET leaders were 45 years of age before they attained the role of 'educational leader' (using the criteria on

²² People working at sea are required to meet statutory medical standards.

p.90). This contrasts with the compulsory sector where teachers would expect to attain a leadership role while in their thirties (Earley *et al*, 2002).

In order to give a more nuanced interpretation, the statistics were also computed to produce median and modal figures (see Table 10, p.112). These show that most respondents went to sea at the age of 17 and spent only 12 years (against the mean average of 15 years) before coming ashore.

The view that being at sea automatically inculcates leadership behaviour was held by all respondents, evidenced for example, by Interviewee P who said ‘when you’re at sea you’re given a variety of leadership roles [and,] in any case, you automatically assume leadership roles when you’re on a ship’.

	Years (youngest/ fewest)	Years (oldest/ most)	Mean	Median	Mode
Age on going to sea:	16	24	18.5	17.0	17.0
Number of years at sea:	6	30	15.0	13.5	12.0
Age on coming ashore:	25	37	33.5	31.0	30.0
Age on entering the education sector:	28	59	39.6	38.5	38.0
Age on attaining a role as an ‘educational leader’:	31	59	43.7	44.0	45.0
Note: Mean = arithmetic average of the total; Median = the middle value in the set; Mode = the value that appears with the most frequency.					

Table 10: Age statistics for MET leaders in this sample (Haughton, 2009).

Interviewee Q also supported this position, saying ‘the expectation [is] that as a Merchant Navy Officer you were expected to be prepared for a leadership role’.

Educational career progression: accession and incumbency

The findings with regards to accession to MET leadership reveal that more than half respondents reached their positions through apparently chance events or inaction on their part. Interviewee R ‘...[ended] up in [his] position more by osmosis...’ while ‘...it was never part of [his] career path to become Head of Faculty or Assistant Principal’, commented Interviewee G.

There was little evidence of a pre-disposition to embrace the mantle of leadership as the following transcript extracts show:

‘I think if we start right from the beginning I don’t think I ever really had any aspirations to be a leader (Interviewee S: p.249, lines 99-100)...

...even when I came to [*the college*] and worked here, leadership was not really in my mind at all (Interviewee S: p.249, lines 104-105)...

Lending evidence to the view that most decisions seem serendipitous, Interviewee A commented ‘...things have always happened by chance...’.

In respect to their careers, a minority ‘seized an opportunity’ (Interviewees C, J and Q); likewise a minority felt they had planned their leadership accession. Interviewee K argued that:

‘...it was a planned thing and [he hadn’t] ever regretted it. [He] wouldn’t like to teach 20-odd hours a week now and be working downstairs...[he’d] miss the, not the control (that’s the wrong word) but being in a position where [he could] make decisions really...’

(Interviewee K: p.242. lines 375-379).

Interviewee K is an exception, since most of the respondents seem to have come to MET leadership as a consequence of their employment rather than as part of a targeted career plan.

‘Yeah, I’d like to have a go at that role...’ (Interviewee M) and

‘...it just seemed natural that I should keep going up the scale...’ (Interviewee I)

are typical of the comments recorded.

Overall, there was scant evidence of career planning or seeking promotion in their parent FE or HE institutions. The one exception was a respondent who has been recently promoted to the senior management team of their Institution as Vice Principal.

Divestiture

In the same way that more than half respondents arrived in their MET leadership roles almost by accident, they appear similarly relaxed about future career plans. There was a sense of satisfaction with the positions they had reached:

‘At the moment I’m in the right place with the right job...pretty happy to be honest’ (Interviewee J)

‘I don’t want to move upwards or sideways really...I don’t want to relocate...progress. I don’t have the desire, the ambition.’ (Interviewee K: p.245, lines 493-498).

‘So I don’t...have any great ambitions to take over from my boss at the moment...’ (Interviewee S: p.255, lines 382-383).

are typical of the remarks recorded, and, reinforcing this relaxed view of future career planning, Interviewee S (p.255, lines 384-385) went on to say:

‘I’m sure [career advancement] will come within the next year or two, something will knock on the door’.

Middle management MET leaders are, in the main, seemingly content with their positions.

When asked about their future career moves the respondents replied variously: looking forward to retirement; content in current role; seeking promotion; finding alternative activity; thinking about their next career moves. Some of the replies indicated a feeling of resignation at the way the future was unfolding. For instance:

‘...well I’m coming to the conclusion now it’s got be retirement...’ (Interviewee Q) *and*

‘...what is the next phase of my career? No, never thought about it. Am I going to plan it? Probably not. (Interviewee T).

are examples of this.

Summary

A quasi-military ethos has emerged to underpin this section. More than half of the respondents report a disciplined and uniformed childhood which, together with powerful family and peer pressure, led them, seemingly inextricably, towards a uniformed service which, in their cases, was the Merchant or Royal Navies. The one exception has instead enjoyed a long and rewarding career in the RNR. Serendipity appears to have played a large part in career development.

Entry to the educational sector came at a later a career stage when, it is posited, certain leadership styles had already become established. The issue that emerged was whether or not these assumed maritime leadership behaviours had transferred directly into the educational sector. The third RQ addresses this concept of ‘leadership style’.

Research Question 3: reflection and style

This section will provide evidence of respondents' attitudes towards, and self-reported views of, their own leadership styles together with its perceived effectiveness. The idea that leadership style does change was widely supported. It was reported that change in leadership style had happened not only chronologically (which will be expanded below) but also that it changed situationally as well. In other words, the respondents were saying that they modified their individual styles and behaviours depending on the contingent activity.

In respect of the micro-chronological changes (that is, the changes that occur within the respondents' own career cycles): the responses cover three distinct phases during the lives and careers of the respondents: namely, leadership styles practiced whilst still in their sea-going employment; styles adopted on entering the educational sector and lastly, the styles most recently displayed having become leaders in education. In their answers, the respondents often mentioned these phases in a single sentence as though they were intertwined. In sympathy with this empirical approach, the research evidence in this section will not seek to separate the phases where they appear in one quotation or one sentence.

A majority of the respondents thought that their leadership styles had changed over time. This contradicts an earlier observation that MET leaders had not explicitly considered themselves as 'educational leaders'. Only one interviewee reported that '[he didn't] spend a lot of time thinking about [his] leadership style' (Interviewee A), remaining unaware of what it was. It is interesting that even this respondent, although claiming not to reflect, in fact displayed a reflective attitude in his answers. For example, he made a cogent argument in support of 'autocracy with a small 'a'.

The same respondent said ‘when the going gets tough you will...revert to your natural style...a leader has to be autocratic otherwise it isn’t leadership’ (Interviewee A); another respondent was clear when he said ‘sometimes the wagging finger and the more disciplinary system works better (Interviewee R) and Interviewee J clearly thought he was the only one with ideas when he said ‘...most of our staff are seafarers and they’re used to...regulation...where they don’t receive leadership...they’re prone to deviate’.

So it appears that the respondents know intrinsically that reflection can be efficacious, but may not view it as a systemic pillar of leadership.

The change in leadership styles may also be theorised by viewing time from a macro perspective, that is, framed against the wider backcloth of leadership theory. Western’s (2008) (see Figure 1, p.23) model allows this and his first discourse emphasises the leader as controller. There is some evidence (see paragraphs above) that some MET leaders continue to espouse this theory.

In his second paradigm, ‘Leader as Therapist’, Western (2008), includes concepts of situational and transactional leadership. All MET leaders self-report behaviour which would be included within this definition and this supports prior research where FE middle managers perceived themselves ‘bridging the gap’ and acting as doers and ‘enablers’ (Briggs, 2002:69). Using words such as ‘nurturing style’, ‘sympathetic to [others]’ needs’, ‘consensual’, ‘discussive’, ‘consultative and engaging style’, and ‘encouraging [others]’ the respondents appeared to have adopted this style readily, appearing comfortable with these behaviours which they perceive as effective and rewarding. This finding contradicts prior research in one college where a manager saw leadership as ‘taking the king’s shilling and to contemplate leadership is out of the question’ (Briggs, 2005:42).

Western (2008) uses a religious metaphor, that of ‘leader as Messiah’, for his third discourse, in an attempt to portray leadership qualities in terms of vision and transformation. ‘Encouraging and pushing forward new areas’ (Interviewee R), ‘inspired by the ability to change lives’ (Interviewee L) and ‘leadership...is giving people direction...’ (Interviewee G) are the closest that the respondents come to support a transformational interpretation of their leadership style. So only a minority self-report that transformational leadership is being practised and, overall, evidence that MET leaders display these attributes is sparse.

The final discourse is labelled ‘eco-leadership’ (Western, 2008) and refers to an emerging sense of socio-ecological awareness amongst leaders. There is no evidence of MET middle leaders being aware of, or practicing these concepts.

There was frequent reference to styles of leadership that respondents had either used themselves (or been subjected to by others) in their former sea-going roles. This is significant since it is arguable that this experience may have some influence on the style they perceive as being appropriate on entering the teaching profession.

Interviewee I argued that ‘in the Merchant Navy leadership is very dependent on the hierarchical structure that exists on board a ship’ while Interviewee E opined that ‘roles at sea do not demand leadership’ since ‘as an officer you tend to give instructions’.

Interviewee C juxtaposed his self-perceived styles at sea and in college by saying that it was ‘autocratic at sea...and now [at college] it’s much more collegial...prompting, directing, not necessarily instructing...’. Interviewee E agreed with this view and said that ‘the autocratic style just...doesn’t work’.

Interviewee R also supported this theme saying:

‘...at sea it’s a hierarchical system, so if you’ve got four stripes²³ on your shoulder, leadership skills help, but you can get by... whereas education is a fairly sort... of loose establishment, where it seems even those that are supposed to have the power to control are not necessarily leaders themselves and don’t seem to exercise that power...’

Interviewee P thought that leadership changed depending on context arguing that ‘being a leader at sea, being a leader in an industrial environment... and being a leader in education, are different’. He went on to explain that:

‘...at sea [it is]...a hierarchical situation...you’re...expected to obey...people...often without question...because you’re in that kind of pseudo-militaristic style...Academia does not like confrontation - you have to have an inclusive style. [if you] adopted a discussive style...at sea, [as]...you would do...in academia, [that may be seen] as a form of weakness [which] would undermine your authority; in academia there can be grey areas of responsibility where people assume responsibility and if you try and lead through that they’ll say, “But that’s my part of ship, nothing to do with you”, even though it can be.’

Interviewee R gave a graphic account of how his leadership style had shifted between his role at sea and as an educational leader. He described an incident that had happened between him (as ship’s officer) and some deck ratings²⁴:

‘[The ratings] weren’t doing what they were supposed to do...and I just lost it completely and hurled abuse at them and jumped up and down, kicked my cap up the deck somewhere, my hard hat... I just booted it, it went flying off and disappeared somewhere, “kin’ hell, don’t you bastards do what you’re told,” sort of thing. And there was complete silence, jaws sort of down, and one of them came up and he said, “Oh, I’m sorry..., honest, I’m sorry chief, we didn’t mean to offend you,” he said, “I didn’t realise you shout like that.” and they were immaculate after that. So it [direct instruction] does work...used sparingly...I don’t think an autocratic style, especially in education...works terribly well...consensus...is really the way that education works...because if you’re too autocratic people just switch off...it’s not an effective management style.’

Although there was recognition from all the respondents that leadership at sea and at college was in many ways different, the stage at which this awareness was reached differed from person to person. For instance, Interviewee O had become aware early on

²³ ‘Four stripes’ refers to the insignia worn by officers. ‘Four stripes’ signifies a ship’s Master or a Chief Engineer Officer.

²⁴ Deck ratings: crew who are not Officers and, amongst other things, work on the deck of a ship.

in his career saying '[he'd] always paid a lot of attention, not just to the ones [he'd] been leading, but also when others [had been] leading [him]'. On the other hand, Interviewee L had become aware only on moving into education. He experienced problems negotiating this transfer from a sea-going to a shore-based leadership position, saying:

'...my leadership style from the way I was as a Master and as dealing with professionals, to then dealing with people who had been within [college] for 12 and 15 years...I think I was impatient. I was in a hurry to get things done. I was wanting to remove the barriers to progress and I did upset a lot of people'.

Interviewee K was also negotiating these transfer challenges and reported that he was:

'...perhaps...more laid back...than I used to be, and that's [come about] with maturity. Going back to leadership style changing, yeah maybe I've not wanted to change things too quickly, which I might have done, or don't get annoyed about these things, just let it happen and see what transpires.' (p.239, lines 212-218).

There was recognition from Interviewee D that:

'...trying to run a ship, or anything, purely by waving a big stick doesn't work...so I think I've changed from using rules and regulations and perhaps an outdated model and I've gone far more towards example, support, encouragement, guidance, and got the job done probably in a shorter time and more efficiently, with a happy bunch of people...'

Interviewee G 'guess[ed] that everybody's leadership style changes' and reported he had always been interested in self-development. He thought his leadership approach was 'less strident' now that he had embraced an educational leadership role. This position was bolstered by Interviewees I and L, both of whom used the word 'significant' to describe the changes their styles had undergone.

In response to the scheduled question about style, Interviewee S also perceived a 'change'. He observed that his earlier years in a leadership role had not always been successful and was candid in his own self analysis. Talking of his leadership style, he says:

‘Yeah it has changed...(p.251, line 198)...

...the collaborative side of working with people has been the most effective...(p.251, lines 214-215)...

...if I look back over my time here and I look back at those conflicts I mentioned just previously, then they used to affect me quite badly...(p.251, lines 221-223)...

...It’s almost like coming of age if you like where you hit a point where all your experience and all of your dealings with people is starting to level off, where now you can avoid those fumbling mistakes that you’ve made earlier.’ (p.251, lines 226-229).

Another respondent (Interviewee T) was also frank in reporting the perception of his own styles saying that he used to be ‘defensive’ but that now he had left ‘stand up arguments’ behind and went home at most nights in a ‘happier frame of mind’. One respondent (Interviewee J) opined that his attitude had changed on his becoming a Christian, feeling that the tenets espoused by his faith supported his leadership efforts. Linking these observations is the notion that leadership style and personal development are closely linked.

Interviewee H represented this in a different way, but the notion that maturity and experience is the key to change in style resonates strongly in the following extract:

‘I’m far more mellow now, I tend to think about things to a far greater depth before I do something and wherever possible, and I’m dealing with a member of staff and I’m trying to implement change, I try and get them to see how they’ve got to change...it’s trying to get them to, I suppose, look at a bigger picture...’

Interviewee F was of the same view, reporting how he had become ‘less abrasive’ in dealing with the management climate ashore in which people were ‘more likely to question [decisions]’. Some respondents opined that they wanted to work in a structured way. Interviewee Q is happiest when working within what he called a ‘framework’. He argued that he could work ‘through a framework and come out the top’ or, in other

words, reach a successful conclusion to a management issue. In favour of delegation, Interviewee Q also felt that his direct reports benefited from having the same approach:

‘you’ve got to trust them, give them the framework to do and then let them run with it in their particular way, you can’t keep going back to them to say “change this, change that, change this”’

Interviewee L revealed that sometimes managers do not receive the help and support they expect from their senior management teams. In L’s case, when he was appointed, he had been under the impression from his senior management that one of his remits was to ‘make changes and improvements’. On doing just that he was subsequently told ‘not to rock the boat’. This in turn had led to a slowing down of the pace of change that L was trying to instigate. The end result of this on L’s leadership style was that it became ‘pragmatic’ and the changes he sought became ‘micro issues’ rather than anything on a grander scale.

As reported above, only one respondent reported spontaneously that ‘reflection’ was a necessary function of leadership, saying said that he ‘stop[ped] to reflect’ and that he now ‘build[s] in thinking time’ (Interviewee T). Interviewee S, in the following response, indicates that ‘conversation’ is one strategy he adopts:

‘I think [my] early leadership style...was more authoritative...I would direct people to do things and that brought with it...was fraught with conflict. Now, I’m more of a pacifist, I will now go and sit next to somebody and talk it through and the job will get done much quicker and much better. (p.251, lines 198-202).’

However, this is flimsy evidence to justify an extrapolation of ‘conversation’ to include ‘listening’ and, by further extension, ‘reflection’. Thus, Interviewee T remains the sole spontaneous proponent of highlighting thinking and reflection as explicit leadership activities.

Some respondents eschewed reflection as a desirable quality. Interviewee E said:

‘what I’m not good at, now anyway, is attention to detail. I get impatient with it...I don’t do patience terribly well and...I don’t do detail terribly well, I want a succinct...I don’t want people to tell me what the problem is, I want them to tell me this is the situation, this is what we’re proposing to do and why, so I’m not terribly good with that [*patience*]’ (Interviewee E).

The concept of leadership style adapting to situation was supported by most respondents in this sample. Interviewee K thought that ‘...it changes; it can change depending on the situation that’s happening.’ (p.238, lines 149-150). Interviewee O thought his style had been unchanged over time but that he ‘adapted’ it according to circumstance.

The respondents were asked how effective they thought their styles were in terms of leadership impact. The following section records their comments.

The perceived effectiveness of leadership styles

More than half the respondents commented on the effectiveness of their own leadership style while the remainder skirted the question. They replied instead with a descriptive account of their own style (seen from their perspective) or, in some cases, a defence of their style, while at the same time, avoiding any rationale or critique.

For instance, Interviewee B argued that he had ‘had to be professionally very good...and listen to people’. He thought that applying judicious pressure on people achieved results, saying:

‘you can’t push people 100% all the time. Knowing when to put the pressure on and knowing when to back off...you can back off to 80% and then push them to 120% and then back off to 80%.’

While being descriptive of a specific approach, this comment falls short of a critique of effectiveness. Another example was provided by Interviewee D who argued that ‘you can be the leader but you’ve got to take everybody with you by supporting them,

encouraging them, giving them good feedback, being positive with them'. Again, there is no indication as to how effective this strategy has been.

A notable exception was Interviewee H who gathered feedback from his staff on the effectiveness of his performance:

'I've got two very, very senior members of staff...who will reflect for me at times, you know they will come up and tell me "you're going about that in the wrong way", whatever. And I've got some of the middle management staff...and they will sit down and tell me, you know "you could have done that better" or "maybe you could have approached it this way" or whatever.'

He argues that a 'consensual style' is effective and that 'delegation' is a good strategy to achieve leadership and management goals.

Interviewee M felt that effectiveness of style 'changes with time' and that what was effective in one year might not be in another. His conclusion was that leaders 'need[ed] to change [their] leadership style'. However he then contradicted this position by saying:

'I'm always a little bit reluctant to do too much [change] because I think it confuses people more than it may assist them. People get used to working with somebody, working relationship with things, and so if suddenly one day you go in and you're all shouting and screaming, next you're all nice to somebody I think that just completely freaks someone out.'

Interviewee N observed that sometimes he was the leader and sometimes he was led. He had noticed that 'people weren't doing things for [him] with enthusiasm'. This realisation led him to modify his 'authoritarian style' and adopt a more 'nurturing' style. He explained this further, saying he liked to 'identify individuals with...potential and help them move up the ladder'.

There was a sense that 'subtlety' was important for educational leaders: Interviewee M argued that he had had to become much more 'subtle' in his 'approach' at college from

his previous role at sea. This concept of subtleness was shared by Interviewee P also, who also said '[he] subtly [had] to change'.

Only one respondent introduced an objective input to his self-perception of his own leadership effectiveness. Interviewee S (p.249, line 113) said he had had 'a lot of successes' and stated how the department's financial turnover had increased over the years he had been in charge. While recognising that it had been a 'team effort' he did allow himself some of the credit saying the increase in turnover was 'an indicator that we're doing it right'. It is assumed the use of the plural 'we' was a linguistic strategy to maintain modesty.

Summary

It is evident that, where it has been reported by respondents in this sample, reflection on leadership style is generally not framed against academic or theoretical constructs. Instead, most respondents appear to have reached their conclusions through the observation of empirical evidence, experiential learning and an approach to leadership which has more to do with trial and error than any defined strategy of management or appreciation of leadership theory. This finding will be important in designing possible leadership development interventions.

The following section will present evidence of management and leadership development that has been undertaken by the respondents and may explain some of the comments in the preceding paragraph.

Research Question 4: professional training and development

The fourth research question was concerned about professional training and development in leadership and management. This was further nuanced by asking firstly,

what development they had received themselves pre- and post-appointment and secondly, what development did they perceive was necessary or desirable for people aspiring to MET leadership positions.

There is a distinction between, firstly, ‘what’ leaders need to achieve in any role and, secondly, the management strategy, sometimes referred to as the ‘how’, required to realise objectives. Arguably, both these concepts demand some form of development on the part of the individual. In broad terms, the former category would imply a form of technical, vocational and academic development, while the latter would entail development in leadership and management.

Recording the work done in respect of their leadership and management development is problematic: the reason for that is that some leadership and management development work is *ad hoc*, un-prescribed, un-accredited and therefore, in objective terms, more difficult to measure. Some respondents have, of course, obtained formal management qualifications and this fact is reflected below.

In addressing leadership and management development therefore, respondents were first asked about their personal development and training.

Table 11 (see p.130) shows the measure of development work undertaken pre- and post-accession to leadership. It is impossible to measure the content, effect and value of the disparate courses and programmes followed by the respondents; therefore the values ascribed (in the table) are necessarily arbitrary and subjective. Notwithstanding these flaws, I would contend that the data allows an overview of respondents’ achievements.

The lower end of the scale is straightforward with a zero indicating no development.

Choosing criteria for the upper end of an ‘achievement or exposure to development’ scale is more challenging since there is no recognised or definitive scale in use. It was decided (by the author) to select a Master’s level qualification to be the highest on a scale, valued at 10 points, with lesser qualifications being graded subjectively, on a sliding scale.

The rationale is that the Association of Masters in Business Administration (AMBA) includes ‘Leadership and Change Management’ as one of the curriculum areas to be covered (AMBA, 2010) and it is reasonable to assume that this topic would have been included in any accredited Masters in Business Administration, or management qualification.

So, in summary, the ascribed values in Table 11 (see p.130) reflect a scale where:

0 = no training or development, and

10 = a Masters level recognised and accredited development programme.

Addressing the pre-appointment column in Table 11 (p.130), 11 of the respondents did not receive any form of management development prior to their succession to a leadership role in education. The ones who reported effective development, reported that this, in the main, had occurred in other organisations before they entered the education sector. The remaining nine respondents have experienced a variety of interventions, which were ascribed values of between 2 and 7 points.

In total, the respondents scored 32 out of a possible 200 (16%) as a measure of their exposure to pre-appointment development.

The post-appointment measurement of involvement in leadership development courses was rendered similarly. It shows an increased score of 90 out of a possible 200 (45%).

This represents a three-fold increase in comparison to the pre-appointment development. However there remain six respondents who report no formal or structured development despite having been promoted to positions of educational leadership.

This analysis gives a broad *indication* of levels of activity pre- and post-appointment, across the sample; it is self-reported, subjective and does not purport to reveal the efficacy or value of that activity.

Having asked the respondents about their own development, the enquiry then asked them about the leadership training and development they deemed useful for those aspiring to MET leadership roles.

There was unanimous agreement when the respondents were asked if there should be leadership training and development for aspiring MET leaders. The range of subjects was wide and reflected the mix of operational and strategic demands placed on MET leaders.

At one end of the operational/strategic continuum some respondents wanted training in classroom management and administration. From one perspective this is an astonishing request for a group of aspiring educational leaders who, it might have been assumed, would already be equipped with these skills. However it highlights the almost random way in which some educational leaders reach their positions.

At the other end of the continuum were requests for leadership training, finance and budgeting.

When asked ‘when should training or development happen?’ less than half felt that the development should be started during the early part of an educational leader’s career and continued throughout. The following quotes are indicative of this position:

... if they've had no leadership experience by the time they're 35, they're set in their ways...and you're never going to teach them leadership...leadership training should happen quite early in certain people's lives.(Interviewee B).

'Training for leadership, in my view, starts on day one of any career path'. (Interviewee C).

'I didn't know what to do, I didn't know what the process was or anything like that. So, I think the earlier you get the training the better'. (Interviewee T).

Leadership and Management development and training: experience and qualifications undertaken: each row indicates a respondent			
Pre-Appointment	Ascribed Value	Post-Appointment	Ascribed Value
None	0	Short courses on, for example, appraisals, interview panels	3
Some in a previous job	2	None	0
3 x 1 week management courses in previous job	3	None	0
Numerous courses in previous jobs	6	Level 3 management qualification	6
Continuous development	7	MBA; Masters in Training Management	10
Some development in a previous job	2	MBA; Leadership development programme.	10
None	0	6 x ½ day sessions	5
None	0	Senior management training course	6
None	0	MBA	10
Various courses in previous job	2	Management skills development course	6
None	0	None	0
None	0	Management development programme	6
None	0	Management development programme	6
None	0	4 x 1 week development courses	4
Sustained development with another organisation	6	None	0
Some (<i>ad hoc</i>)	2	None	0
None	0	MSc; Management training programme.	10
Some courses in a previous job.	2	Nothing formal or structured.	0
None	0	Certificate in Management Studies (CMS)	6
None	0	Course on interview techniques	2
Totals	32/200 (16%)		90/200 (45%)

Table 11: Leadership development and training: experience and qualifications awarded (the numerical values are arbitrary and subjective and therefore indicative only). (Haughton, 2011)

A similar number held an opposing view. For example, Interviewee E declared he was ‘no great fan of leadership training at too early an age’ while Interviewee G, arguing that age and maturity were separate entities, thought there was ‘a danger these days...of trying to introduce leadership concepts and training too early at a stage in some peoples’ careers’.

Of the remaining respondents, one felt that leadership development should start at the time a person assumes a leadership role while one did not offer an opinion on when it should occur.

According to Kotter, a Leader:	Respondents’ suggestions for development*	According to Kotter, a Manager:	Respondents’ suggestions for development*
• addresses change;	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • leadership training (B, C, G,); • leadership (P); • educational leadership (S); • ‘abstract aspects of leadership’ (A); • understand human beings (N). 	• addresses complexity;	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • how the organisation operates (R); • commercial training (F); • finance, budgets and balance sheets (G); • administrative function of leadership (A); • City and Guilds Management Course (D); • MBA (I); • classroom skills (H); • teacher training (P,S); • regular management training (L, O, S,); • conflict management (T); • job shadowing (M, Q, E); • mentoring (K, J).
• sets direction;		• plans and budgets;	
• aligns people;		• organises resources and staff;	
• motivates and inspires.		• controls and solves problems.	

**The capital letters following each suggestion identify the respondent making that suggestion.*

Table 12: What leaders and managers do (Kotter, 1990; extended by Haughton, 2011)

So, it was evident everyone thought there should be some sort of intervention. Arguably this was a predictable outcome, given that the respondents are in the business of education, and would therefore presumably support continuing personal, and professional, development.

The more interesting findings came when the respondents were asked what training or development did they think would be useful for those aspiring to MET leadership. There was little consensus over this or what was implied by 'leadership training and development'. The responses were diverse and covered a range of options from 'conflict management training' (Interviewee T) to finance and accounting (Interviewee G).

In order to synthesise this raw data more effectively, the respondents' suggestions were mapped against Kotter's (1990) table of what leaders and managers do (Table 12, p.131).

Some respondents offered no suggestions as to the form of the training and development, but were still insistent that there should be something.

Interviewee E did not suggest actual curriculum content but nevertheless felt that it should be facilitated by a form of 'secondment or understudying'. In a similar vein, Interviewee J suggested that a mentoring type process' would be appropriate. This opinion was supported by Interviewee K who suggested that the mentoring process should be '[ideally] six months' (p.244, line 447). Interviewee M used the word 'shadowing' to portray a similar intervention but was sceptical about there being effective training for leadership. He said:

'So can you be trained for it? [leadership] I think that's a bit... I'm not sure that you can actually learn experiences because you look upon yourselves as you've been in total control as a leader; in reality you're with a group of people and it's those relationships that cause the issues...I think the easiest way is [by work]

shadowing. I think there's no substitute for somebody shadowing somebody...I think also [there should be] a development programme as well'

This quote reveals a contradictory stance as, on the one hand, Interviewee M supports the idea of a 'development programme' while, on the other, he remains sceptical about its efficacy.

Interviewee I was reticent to articulate a curriculum but felt that there should be 'some sort of formal training in education like an MBA type course'.

This apparent ambivalence between wanting something while, at the same time, not being sure of what 'it' is, was articulated explicitly by Interviewee N who said:

'One could benefit, perhaps, with less experience but more training, but exactly the nature of that training I wouldn't really like to sort of pin down. You can go on various management courses, perhaps someone that did management as part of their degree, if not a full degree, or certainly some study of human nature, you know human behaviour, so that you understand why we as human beings do the things that we do.'

As the evidence above suggests, there was a dearth of knowledge about what management and leadership training and development might consist of. The following extracts from interview transcripts augment this observation:

'But then there are more abstract leadership aspects which I guess are much more difficult to teach and I think you can teach somebody to do admin and they'll either be good at it or bad at it. But I have the view that teaching someone to become a leader is a more chancy sort of business.' (Interviewee A);

'...there's no actual formal structured process to get you from lecturer to being a managing lecturer.' (Interviewee C);

'...anybody who's in [a] managerial [position], junior manager, middle...even at senior [level] should...take part in fairly regular management training leadership development events...This does not happen with an educational context' (Interviewee O);

'I've no idea what courses are available or that sort of thing, but within the college system...if you're going to put somebody into a leadership position you've got to give them a good basic training in how the organisation operates, and where the rules come from.' (Interviewee R);

‘The same thing applies to our training in these jobs, you’re promoted into a position where there is no formal training and you go by your gut instinct, you go by informed decision, you go by whatever it might be and I think that for me anyway, it’s been a gradual but progressive process’ (Interviewee S: p.249, lines 132-136).

Summary

This section of the findings has presented data in respect to the fourth research question. It also enquired about the personal leadership and management development considered necessary for those aspiring to leadership roles in MET.

Pre-appointment development appears limited with more than half the sample saying they had received none whatsoever, while more than a quarter of the respondents reported no development even post-appointment.

Less than half thought leadership development should be early in an individual’s career while the remainder felt the opposite or didn’t have a view.

All the respondents supported the concept of development for those aspiring to MET leadership roles. However most were unable to articulate with any clarity what that might consist of, what form it might take or when it might happen. One preliminary conclusion is that leadership and management development for MET leaders is *ad hoc* and inconsistent. Another possible explanation is that an interview may not have allowed the respondents sufficient opportunity to reflect a considered answer.

Concluding summary

This chapter has presented the findings of the twenty interviews with leaders of MET institutions across the UK. It has focused on the context of that leadership and, in particular, how forms and styles of leadership transfer from an industrial, and professional maritime sector, into an educational setting. It has also sought to establish

the impact of significant people, events and critical incidents that may have influenced MET leaders. It has enquired about the professional training and development experienced by the leaders as well as that perceived as necessary for those aspiring to roles in MET leadership. It is apparent that despite the strong common themes across this sample's experience there are differences in the way these are perceived and acted upon. Table 13 (pp.136 -138) provides a succinct summary of the findings.

Table 13: A summary of the research findings. (Haughton, 2011)

Criteria	Findings
Research Question 1: roles, leadership and differences	
Current roles and responsibilities:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • administering; • being a business leader; • complying with statutes; • coping with bureaucracy; • developing new courses; • encouraging and pushing forward; • enhancing learning; • exercising budgetary control; • finding new business; • fire fighting day-to-day operational problems; • inspiring to change lives; • liaising with customers; • making decisions; • managing differences between MET and mainstream education • managing physical resources; • managing staff; • planning strategically; • planning; • shaping the future; • time-tabling; • contributing to national bodies; • being responsible for quality; • observing staff; • designing curricula;
Research Question 2: life journeys, influence and chance	
Formation Formative years:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • structured; • uniformed; • quasi-military; • family influence; • following family footsteps; • status.
Accession Career paths – maritime:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • vocational calling; • structured; • planned; • inevitable; • peer pressure.

Career paths – educational:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • sector transfer from maritime industry to maritime education; • largely serendipitous; • planned and unplanned; • chance.
Respondents’ ages at critical times (see Table 10. p112.)	
median age on going to sea:	17.0 yrs
median age on coming ashore:	33.5 yrs
median age on entering education:	39.6 yrs
median age on attaining a MET leadership role:	43.7 yrs
Divestiture. Future aspirations:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a career outside education; • leave; • maintain status quo; • no ambition; • not planned; • retirement; • unknown; • want to do something totally different;
Critical Incidents:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • conversation with work colleague; • death of a close friend; • being subjected to corporal punishment; • seeing local industrial lay-offs.
Significant people. Formative years:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • church leaders; • friends; • parents and grandparents; • scout and other uniformed leaders; • siblings; • teachers.
Professional lives:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • college Principal; • company director; • partners; • sea-going captains and officers; • uniformed leaders; • youth leaders.
Research Question 3: reflection and style	
Incumbency 1. at sea:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • autocratic; • automatic; • commanding and controlling; • hierarchical; • quasi-military; • unthinking.
Incumbency 2. in education:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ‘loose’ control; • collaborative; • collegiate;

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • complex; • consensual; • distributed; • less strident; • mellow; • reflective; • subtle; • trusting.
Research Question 4: professional training and development	
Pre-appointment to an educational leadership role:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • comprehensive vocational and professional qualifications; • appropriate academic qualifications; • no leadership and management development available or acquired; • leadership training acquired in other organisations.
Post-appointment to an educational leader role:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • some management and leadership development; • learning on the job; • mentors; • self-taught; • experience.
Perceived training needs for those aspiring MET leadership roles:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • administrative functions of a leader; • budgeting; • classroom skills; • commercial training; • conflict management; • educational leadership; • how to understand human beings; • leadership training; • management training; • organisational awareness; • teacher training.

Table 13: A summary of the research findings (Haughton 2011)

Having summarised the findings and presented the evidence in response to the research questions and interview schedule, it is now possible to relate them to the literature search. This process of theorisation, using the findings as my evidential base, will shed light on why and how leaders of MET came to be in that position; which influences have been important and who (or what) has had impact in shaping their career paths.

This takes the analysis from a straightforward description of events onto a higher theoretical plane where the fundamental questions of 'how' and 'why' leaders have taken on their roles in their personal leadership journeys will be explored and the research questions (p.4) answered.

Critical discussion will reveal how the research contributes new knowledge and if there are implications for the current theory and practice of leadership in this sector. It will also point to further work required.

With specific reference to this sector of post-compulsory education, the analysis will reveal if modification to the models of leader formation posited by Gronn (1999) and Ribbins (2003) is appropriate. Following on from that, it may be possible to identify areas where the development of leaders in this field can be improved. This would have beneficial impact for individuals aspiring to a role in MET leadership as well as those responsible for their development.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter consists of an analysis of the findings in Chapter 4. The research questions are addressed sequentially and discussed against the backcloth of new evidence, in addition to the theoretical and methodological issues and themes identified in the literature review and design chapters.

The overall aim (see p.2) is to create a theoretical framework, informed by the new knowledge, which will have positive impact on the maritime educational sector. This will benefit those leading MET, those aspiring to leadership roles within MET, and those responsible for MET leader development programmes.

Research Question 1: roles, leadership and differences

The first research question asked: ‘how do MET leaders define their roles and to what extent do they consider themselves ‘educational leaders’; are there differences between MET leadership and educational leadership in general?’

In advance of the discussion on that and the other research questions, it is necessary to reflect on an assumption made earlier: which was that the terms ‘leader’ and ‘manager’ should be addressed synonymously. Using Kotter’s (1990) delineation between the activities of ‘leaders’ and ‘managers’ it is evident that the MET practitioners in this study firmly straddle the divide. This is shown clearly in Table 12 (p.131) where the reported activities and behaviours of the leaders are juxtaposed with Kotter’s model. So from this, it is deemed justifiable that the terms may indeed be used synonymously.

The research revealed a range of roles and tasks undertaken by the respondents. There were considerable differences between the ‘maritime leadership demands’ which had

exercised respondents at sea in the past, and their current leadership demands in the education sector.

While most of the respondents did indeed consider themselves to be educational leaders, it is apparent that, even when they shared the same job title, they had very different perspectives on the actual work that this entails.

The extensive list of duties, roles and responsibilities in Table 8 (p.102) provides supporting evidence for this. Combining that data with that in Table 12 (p.131) enables a synthesis of competing tensions that MET leaders feel have to be managed, and over which they are expected to exert some form of leadership. This generated two fundamental observations.

Firstly, the findings show that MET leaders are required to predict and react to the demands of an extraordinarily wide range of stakeholders. By stakeholder, I mean anyone who has an interest or concern in their organisation. The recognition that it is crucial to pay attention to stakeholders is certainly supported in the literature (Knight and Trowler, 2001; Briggs, 2005; Iszatt-White, 2009; Brundrett and Rhodes, 2011) where the complexity of educational leadership practice, which includes stakeholder management, is recognised.

In particular, the point was made repeatedly that students' employers are major stakeholders in the operational success, or otherwise of the department; their needs and requirements must be met. 'We are very customer focused and...whatever the customer wants, we deliver...' (Interviewee O).

The expected relationship (see Figure 7, p.99) in education between student and teacher is traditionally a dyadic one. If students are under the age of 18 this relationship may be complicated by the inclusion of parents or carers.

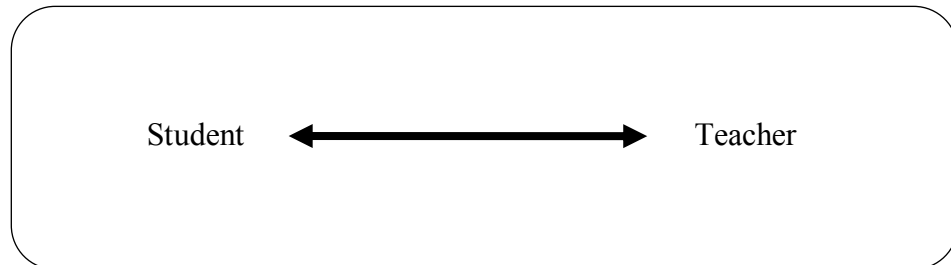


Figure 7: The dyadic relationship

But in MET, the college or institution is also the student's place of work where the student's employer is the fee-payer and, as such, has a degree of leverage. This influences the dynamic so that the relationship now becomes triadic, illustrated in Figure 8 (see p.142).

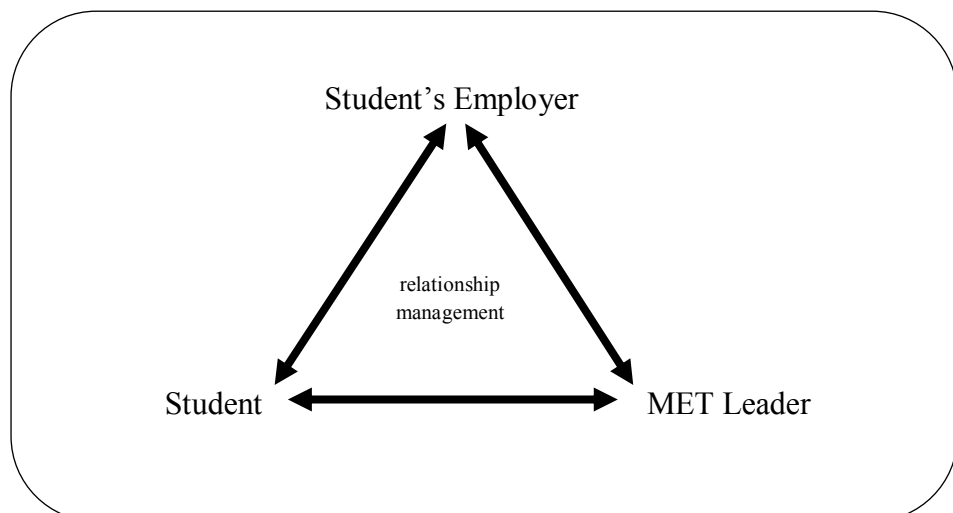


Figure 8: The triadic relationship

Now the MET leader must keep the interests of the employer in mind in all matters concerning the student: administrative, academic and pastoral (Interviewee F). This is not a pressure usually encountered in the compulsory sector (Brundrett and Rhodes, 2011).

Secondly, it was apparent that there is no standardisation of management responsibilities, structures, policies and procedures across the MET institutions in the sample. This is also reflected in the literature (Briggs, 2001a, 2001b, Knight and Trowler, 2001; Bush, 2003; Leader, 2004) which finds this applies elsewhere in the FE and HE sectors.

It also accords with work (Bush, 2003, Iszatt-White, 2009) revealing lack of standardisation in HE evidenced by sub-cultures that develop within HE organisations. In FE these tensions have also been observed (Briggs, 2005) to exist in middle management roles.

Because MET leaders' jobs and roles are defined by their relationship with stakeholders it is important to identify these to determine their influence and potential sway over performance. First, I will justify my use of 'internal' and 'external' stakeholder as a framework to further discussion.

Stakeholders

Various criteria might be used to differentiate 'internal' and 'external' stakeholders: for instance, whether or not the stakeholder has a strategic influence over the MET leader; whether or not the stakeholder is on the pay-roll of the college; or whether the stakeholders have the locus of their operation inside or outside the immediate work boundary of the academic department or school.

I have chosen to use the latter since it reflects the practical criterion of ‘location’ and so is uncomplicated to identify. This contrived criterion is open to challenge, but whatever measure of division is used would not clarify the complexity of the findings.

Internal stakeholders

Internal stakeholders comprise students and staff. The findings show that MET leaders are mindful of their core responsibilities in facilitating the learning of their students and helping them to acquire qualifications. The research showed that MET leaders report that they put their students’ development and achievements at the top of their agenda. This reflects the argument that Bush and Glover (2003) put forward that learners’ needs should be dominant.

In respect of their direct reports, respondents displayed great concern for the management, care and concern for the staff they lead. This supports the ‘notion of professionalism’ (Drodge, 2002 cited in Briggs, 2005:29) where vocational education leaders ‘manage boundaries...[and]...provid[e] personal leadership’.

External stakeholders

The external stakeholders comprise: parent institutions, represented by the boards of governors and senior management teams of colleges or universities or, in the case of private training establishments, boards of directors; government departments and regulatory bodies who inspect and audit MET provision; educational bodies who accredit and approve courses and who also have an inspection and auditing role; and finally, commercial clients who send cohorts of students *en bloc* to institutions.

Institutions who concentrate solely on meeting the demands of external agencies become ‘managerialist’ and ‘successful management requires a clear link between aims,

strategy and operational management’ (Bush, 2003:2). This implies that MET leaders would be advised to maintain a conscious balance between internal and external considerations.

Operational and Strategic Roles

MET leaders’ work clearly reflects Gunter’s hypothesis that educational leaders are concerned with issues she has labelled ‘close to practice’ (2010:520). The research also supports Gleeson and Shain’s (1999) findings that argue that FE leaders and managers faced ambiguity in their jobs: whether to focus on strategic objectives or concentrate on tactical considerations. For some, duties were prescribed by teaching timetables and day-to-day management tasks, while others, with identical job titles, found themselves in a more strategic role, having to set direction.

The majority of respondents described the quasi-military, hierarchical nature of management as the norm at sea and how that had shaped the ways in which they had learned to lead and, significantly, which they had brought ashore with them. Typical of this observation was Interviewee I, who commented that when he had still been at sea his influence had been ‘totally reliant on “I am the Captain and you will do what I say”’. He went on to say that ‘this approach just can’t work’ (Interviewee I) in an educational institution. This led him, and most of the other respondents, to address their leadership styles. This informs the third research question, discussed below.

At this juncture, however, and in addressing the second part of the first research question, (which asked ‘is MET leadership different to mainstream education?’) it is the *transition* from one form of leadership paradigm (i.e. maritime) to another (i.e. educational) which is important to theorise, explain and understand. This is addressed below.

The possibility that individuals undergo some form of identity transformation as they move from an industrial to educational sector is intriguing; but the hypothesis is supported by the literature (Knight and Trowler, 2001; Gunter, 2002; Browne-Ferrigo, 2003 and Inman, 2007).

Gordon and Rosen's (1981) and Hill's (1984) research, conducted within a full military setting (the closest parallel to this study available) also indicates transition challenge. The current research was conducted within a civilian/quasi-military environment but nevertheless supports their finding that transition from one sector to another is not straightforward.

It is apparent that some respondents found cross-sector transition difficult to negotiate and problematic. With hindsight, the fact that they brought with them the leadership styles practiced at sea was deemed inappropriate by most of them. This is a new finding within MET and indicative of the contribution to knowledge this research has made.

Returning to the tensions inherent in MET leaders' jobs, I have adapted a two axis model from Inman (2007) (see Figure 9, p.150) in which the horizontal axis represents the operational/strategic continuum and the vertical axis represents the continuum between internal and external stakeholders. The following section addresses the dynamic tension produced in each quadrant of the model.

Internal stakeholders/operational management

It was reported by all the MET leaders that their routine day-to-day management activities encompass a wide range of tasks which is time-consuming. MET leaders have many professional roles to perform and some also have teaching timetables.

The practical realities of everyday operations carry great responsibility, reflected by the contents of the upper left quadrant of Figure 9 (see p.150). An example of this is where student activity carries considerable risk (practical fire-fighting and sea survival training for example) and the burden of responsibility for health and safety rests with the MET leaders (Interviewee T).

Their followers (i.e., teaching staff) are always highly experienced, qualified in their vocational fields (Interviewee H), and have all been leaders in previous careers. So, unlike their counterparts in compulsory education, where there will be a range of junior and senior staff, MET leaders' are required to manage individuals who have been used to managing themselves and others. This can be challenging as evidenced by Interview J who said '...if you don't lead them they will try and lead you...'.

Internal stakeholders/strategic management

The MET leaders in this study mostly work within larger institutions whose overarching missions encompass their individual departments' work. Despite reporting a degree of local autonomy over their schools or departments, the MET leaders in the sample are obliged to follow the rules and policies dictated to them by their parent bodies. It is part of a MET leader's role to interpret these requirements and ensure that there is synergy and a correlation between the MET department and the parent body, which they do by setting priorities and direction. They will be responsible for meeting the Institution's targets with regards to enrolment, retention and student achievement. This is shown in the upper right quadrant of Figure 9 (see p.150).

External stakeholders/operational management

MET leaders, in common with leaders in other academic sectors, are responsible for the delivery of accredited programmes of study. This is represented in the lower left quadrant of Figure 9 (see p.150). As such they can expect oversight from academic bodies. This is supported in the literature (Gunter, 2002; Knight and Trowler, 2001; Bush, 2003) where there are similar findings in HE.

However, MET leaders are expected to take this to another level by also sharing responsibility for the design of national training programmes and curricula through their interaction with the Maritime Skills Alliance (MSA), the industry lead body, the Merchant Navy Training Board (MNTB) and MCA.

Another source of pressure is that the qualifications their students seek are the basis for statutory awards. Because of this, their departments are scrutinised and assessed by the MCA. This translates into an ever-present threat of unannounced inspection and audit which keeps the leaders under continual and sustained pressure (Interviewee D).

‘...the MCA can walk in here at any time totally unannounced with anything they like, no-one else has that kind of pressure on them...’ (Interviewee H)

These findings add layers of complexity to MET leaders’ work; there is no evidence of this unrelenting pressure in other educational sectors, though this does not preclude its existence.

Another demand is commercial, and stems from the fact that MET students are usually employed while they are studying. Thus the college or university is the students’ place of work as well as a learning institution. Students’ employers could remove entire cohorts of students from colleges with little notice. It may be surmised that this would have a debilitating effect on the financial viability of a department and is therefore a

constant source of subliminal tension. MET also includes 'full cost recovery' work which, to be successful, requires business acumen and customer relationship management skills.

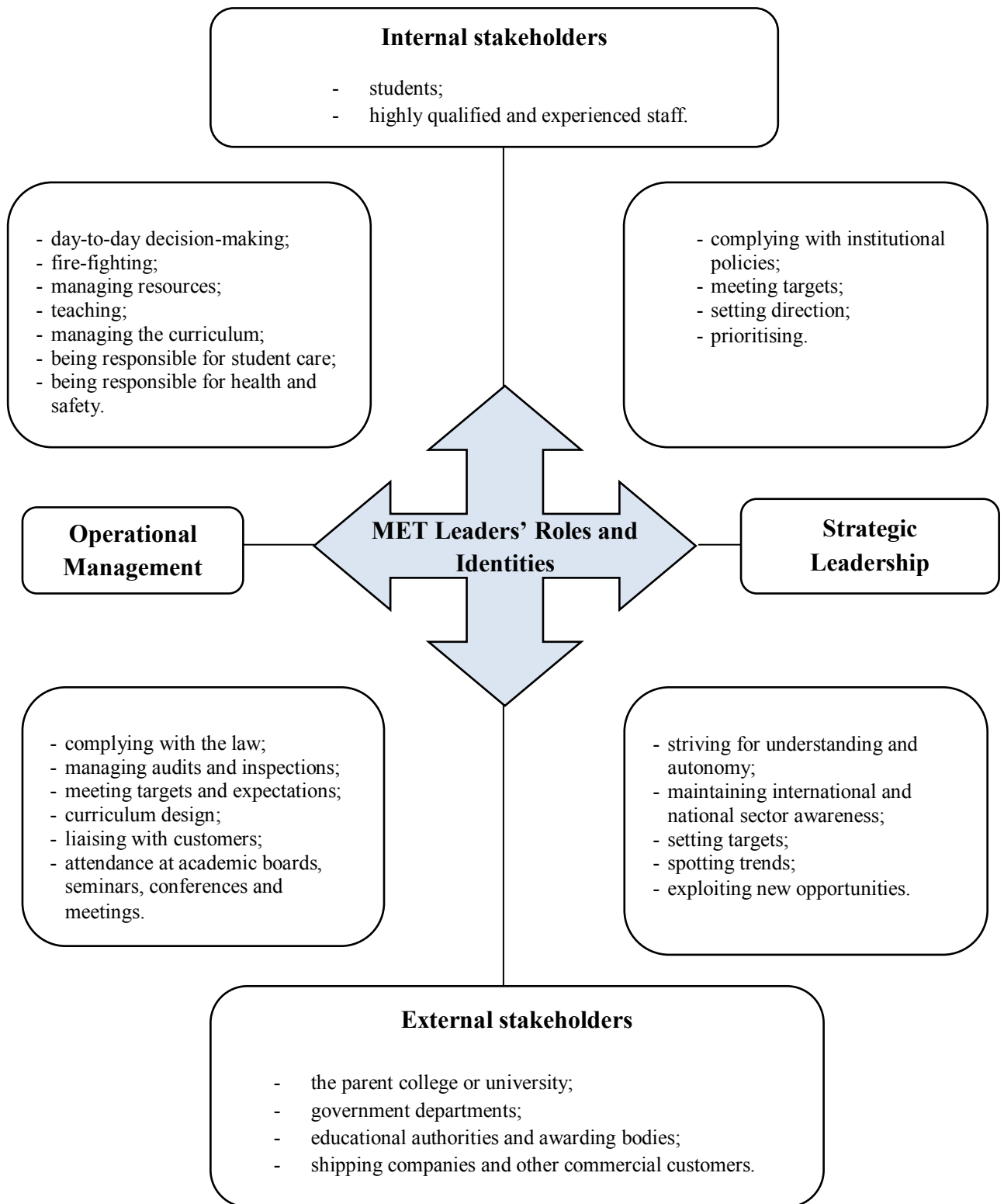


Figure 9: The reported diversity and dynamic tension of a MET leader's role portrayed as elements contributing towards identity. (Adapted from Inman, 2007)

External stakeholders and strategic management

MET leaders sometimes felt misunderstood or mistrusted by some of their senior management teams. This in turn gave rise to a strategic objective, on the part of MET leaders, which was to gain trust and a degree of autonomy within the institution.

Interestingly, in the MET departments where full cost recovery work generated cash for the institution and was thus considered successful, there was less concern exhibited by senior management teams about the direction of the department. So, in order to reinforce this state of affairs, MET leaders spend time seeking new partners and alliances, and trend-spotting new avenues for development. Entrepreneurialism is considered part of the job.

Summary

In summary, this research has found that MET leaders have a multi-role existence, the totality of which probably exceeds that observed in other sectors of education. For while leaders in other educational sectors have been observed to encounter separately all the issues outlined above (Gleeson and Shain, 1999; Gronn, 1999; Bush, 2003, 2008a; Briggs, 2004, 2005), the literature suggests that they will have to cope with only a limited number of them at any one time.

So for example, primary school leaders may have curriculum and parental demands with which to cope, but will rarely have to answer to corporate organisations; and staff working in HE may undergo rigorous academic inspections but will rarely have to manage unannounced governmental audits and spot checks together with third-party client pressure.

My findings indicate that MET leaders deal routinely with these issues simultaneously, the intensity of which ebbs and flows depending on operational circumstance. The respondents' comments are striking, and reveal the relentless pressure that *all* these forces exert on the MET leaders, at least to some extent, in a consistent and permanent way. This, I would argue, sets them apart from leaders in other educational sectors and suggests a clear development opportunity, which is returned to below (see p.175).

Juxtaposing these findings against the discussion on identity transformation (see p. 45) leaves open the question as to whether MET leaders perceive themselves foremost as seafarers in a foreign environment, or as educational leaders creating a new identity.

There is evidence that there are cultural and operational differences between the MET departments or faculties and the institutions within which they operate. Some respondents appear to have resolved these differences, acquired an appropriate level of autonomy, and have a clear strategic and transformational vision of their department's destiny. Others, on the other hand, report tension in the relationships they have with their parent institutions and display a more transactional style.

It was outside the scope of this enquiry to elicit and analyse the views of the senior management teams at the highest levels in the institutions; however this would be worth pursuing in future research as it would test my hypothesis that there are strong links between senior management style and that displayed by the MET leaders themselves.

Returning to the gender issue, first introduced in Chapter 3 (p.91) it is interesting to observe that none of the respondents thought to reflect on the male-ness of their domain. The consequences (if any) on MET leadership are outside the scope of this research project. However, in passing, it is reiterated that there were no females in this study. My enquiries across the whole of the UK's maritime provision indicate there are no women

in positions of MET leadership. However, there are female MET lecturers so it is reasonable to anticipate female MET leaders will emerge at some future point.

It may be postulated that the dominance of males fulfilling MET leadership roles is a consequence of the bias in the wider maritime sector in favour of males. Seagoing has been traditionally a male occupation though that position is being consistently challenged by women entering the profession. That there remain strong feelings on this subject is evidenced by the following quote involving an erstwhile MET lecturer:

‘...he [a new MET lecturer] immediately laid into these girls [female Cadet Officers], how dare they consider a career at sea? It’s a man’s world, and all this...he spent an hour giving these girls a real hard time about choosing a career at sea as an officer...he was violently against it. Well, 20 minutes later he was leaving my office and out the door.’ (Interviewee D).

The male bias in the MET sector is not reflected in the wider educational sector where teaching is ‘highly feminised’ (Drudy, 2008:319). Plainly, this is an area that may merit further research.

One reason respondents failed to mention this issue may be that the interview schedule (Appendix B, p.230) failed to ask an explicit question on the topic, a fact noted by the researcher.

The model in Figure 9 (see p.150) portrays the inter-relationship of the pertinent factors and their diversity. This information is important and helpful for currently working in MET and who may be contemplating advancing into a leadership role. For those still at sea and contemplating a career in MET, it will make them more aware of the challenges that lie before them and so to develop the skills and competencies which can exploit their management and leadership talents.

Finally, the findings will be important to those responsible for designing and implementing management and leadership development programmes. It is posited that

existing generic leadership training programmes may not be sufficiently refined to meet the cultural expectations in the MET sector and there is no discrete provision for MET practitioners coming ashore. Neither will existing programmes satisfactorily address the management of the transition that all MET leaders have to negotiate in their journey from a sea-going role into an educational one. So, the creation of a bespoke MET leadership programme, addressing, *inter alia*, socialisation and identity transformation, would be desirable.

Research Question 2: life journeys, influence and chance

This section discusses the second research question: ‘what influences do MET leaders perceive as having been important in reaching their current positions?’ and its subsidiary: ‘what parts did ‘chance’ and ‘planning’ take in the development of their careers?’

The study has confirmed the view (Grint, 1995, 2005; Gronn, 1993; Storey, 2004; Bush, 2003; Ribbins, 2003) that leaders carry forward values and concepts that were forged from their earliest experiences. Taking this into account it is clear that it is the work of Day and Bakioğlu (1996), Gronn (1999), Ribbins (2003) and the NFER/NCLSC (2007, 2011) which provides an effective starting point for theoretical reference. In Table 2 (p.48) these periods are shown together with Day and Bakioğlu’s (1996) model and the additions of the NFER (2007) and NCLSC (2011) frameworks.

Figure 10 (p.157) illustrates the voyage to MET leadership experienced by the respondents and will be used to ground the theory expounded in Chapter 3. It also suggests an adaptation of Gronn’s (1996) and Ribbins’ (2003) model.

Most respondents began their careers at sea. Some went straight from that phase into MET while others had other jobs first. It is significant that MET practitioners (and thus ultimately MET leaders) have experienced, on average, almost half their working careers in a completely different cultural setting before assuming an educational role. This contrasts greatly with the compulsory sector, where only some teachers will have had a previous career prior to entering education. In MET establishments, *all* lecturers and leaders will have had an alternative career before teaching. Thus one of the main differences between career-educationalists in the school sector and post-compulsory practitioners in the vocational field is in the activities they engage in *before* entering the educational arena.

Given that most of the MET leaders in this sample reached positions serendipitously it could be argued that exposure to an array of experiences *before* that stage is reached would arguably prepare them for the multitude of challenges they may face. This translates into new career advice for aspiring educationalists to the effect that they should try not to specialise early in their careers but rather seek opportunities to widen their experience.

From the findings it is evident that these early experiences heavily influence MET leaders in their educational career roles and that the period was the crucible in which their ideas about leadership were forged. The following section discusses the first of Gronn's (1999) stages on the path to leadership.

Formation

The socialising influences posited by Gronn (1993) and Ribbins (2003) as part of their 'formation' were found to be significantly instrumental in the career paths of MET leaders. In Figure 10 (p.157) this period is represented by the time *before* Node A.

Strong family values, shaped by close militaristic or quasi-militaristic backgrounds led most of the MET leaders into similar boyhood (there were no women in this study) and school-based institutions. Leadership was either bestowed upon them (in Cubs, Scouts, other uniformed youth groups and at school) or they sought it out in their relationships with peers. More than half grew up surrounded by and immersed in various forms of 'leadership' and, from that perspective, it may be argued that their future leadership aspirations were, to some extent, not remarkable.

Much emphasis is placed on the early and childhood period in a person's life constituting 'formation' (Gronn, 1996; Ribbins, 2003), beginning with ascription (see p. 44). My research suggests strongly that the respondents' leadership development, i.e. formation, extended well beyond this period of childhood. Their experience *before and up to* the time when they embarked on an educational career, influenced the ease, or otherwise, with which they adapted to an educational environment and thence to MET leadership.

It is my contention, therefore, that the 'formation' period extends to include this first-career period indicated in Figure 10 (p.157). Seafarers have already 'accessed' one career and need support as they access another, with implications for staff development programmes. Institutions may wish to recruit managers who have assimilated an educational culture and so it may also impact on succession management and the supply of future MET leaders.

In further support of this argument: Gronn (1996) observes that the three fundamental institutions shaping individual characters are families, schooling and peer groups (1996: 34). It was during this early phase of MET leaders' lives that these external, influencing forces were structural and significant. Some of the interviewees suggested that this

social influence was so strong that their choice of career was almost assumed. These observations accord with Bass who found that ‘leadership was more likely to be displayed by elementary school boys whose parents instilled high standards...’ (1990: 810). Certainly the experiences of all respondents confirm the importance of parental and other role model influence.

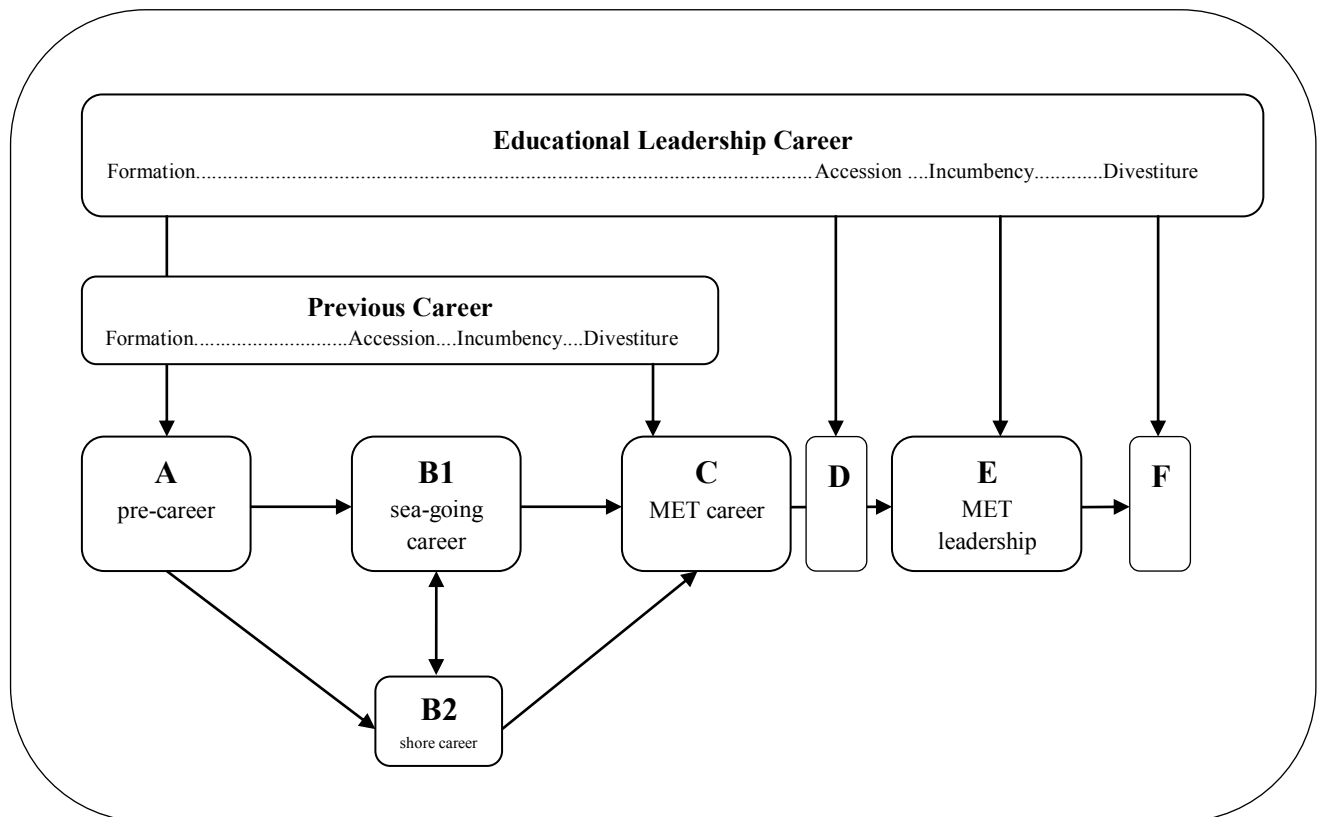


Figure 10: The paths to MET leadership: a simplified view with Gronn (1996, adapted by Haughton, 2011), superimposed. See also Table 14, p.158.

In Figure 10 (p.157) Node B1 represents the time at which the majority of individuals embarked on their initial career at sea. Node B2 represents the one respondent who commenced his career ashore.

My research has shown that MET leaders continue to be influenced by peer association (in particular) well beyond these years. Moreover, when individuals switch employment sector (Node C in Figure 10) there is evidence to suggest that leadership behaviours are

re-formulated. Ribbins (2003) says these influences ‘shape the personality of [...] future headteacher[s] by generating a conception of self, along with the rudiments of a work *style, attitude and outlook*’ (Ribbins, 2003:63) (added emphasis). It is the last three attributes of ‘style, attitude and outlook’ that change radically when seafarers enter the educational sector.

Node on Fig. 14	Gronn (1996) & Ribbins (2003)	Adaptation of the model(2011)		The path to MET Leadership	Median Age
A	Formation	<div>↑ Formation ↓</div>		Pre-career	n/a
B1	Accession	<div>↓ Accession ↑</div>	Accession	Went to sea.	17.0 yrs
				FE/HE/shore career.	16+ yrs
B2				Came/continued ashore.	33.5 yrs
C				Entered the MET profession.	39.6 yrs
D				Accession to MET leadership role.	43.7 yrs
E	Incumbency	Incumbency		In a MET leadership role	n/a
F	Divestiture	Divestiture		Future plans	not available

Table 14: A career model of MET leadership: Gronn (1996) and Ribbins (2003) adapted by Haughton (2011). See also, Fig 10, p.155).

Gronn (1996) makes a passing reference to this important and critical transition when he cites Mealyea (1988) who says that those experiencing a ‘career switch and organizational relocation [may find that] the tension and dislocation for one’s sense of self and domestic lifestyle can be profound’ (Gronn, 1996:27). Evidence in support of this is abundant in this research in the way respondents describe that transition between maritime and educational leadership which leads me to concur strongly with Gronn’s

(1996) assertion. The implication of this lends support to the notion that MET practitioners need bespoke development programmes to assist them through this critical period.

It is during the transition that these new styles, attitudes and outlooks are encountered, embraced and, to a lesser or greater degree, assimilated. Therefore, it is legitimate to extend the ‘formation’ period well beyond early years, to embrace this transition to a new employment sector. The transition from formation to accession is far from linear and the boundary between them is fluid and indistinct. This is reflected in Figure 10 (p.157) and also in Table 14 (p.158) which accompanies it. The implications of this are explored below.

In her study of the compulsory educational sector, Gunter (2002) discusses leadership in education in terms of ‘knowledge production’ (2002:5) and introduces the concept of ‘agency’. She argues that, fundamentally, individuals may choose and determine the path of their life journey through the exercise of free will. To reiterate a point made earlier, ‘identity is not homogenous and static, but is about identities that can shift within time and space, and can complement or contradict...identity is not just the product of the individual but is a socialised and socialising process in which identities can be received as well as shaped’. (Gunter, 2002:5). This latter concept – or ‘structure’ – can ‘enhance, moderate or stifle’ agency.

My research indicates that isolating structure *or* agency as prime movers in leaders’ development is too simplistic. Rather, it appears that a blend of these concepts is present – with each being influential at a particular phase of career and, at times, simultaneously. Throughout their childhood, family influence was strong and most MET leaders had close relations either at sea or in one of the uniformed services.

(Table 9, p.109). An ethos, first experienced in the home and then at sea, of strong values of service, honesty and hard work was reflected by the respondents. These values, reinforced and supported, in all cases, by strong parental or close-relative commitment and influence, were strongly significant in shaping the respondents' choice of careers.

So, while the respondents were still sea-going officers, 'formation' gave way chronologically to 'accession'; their ideas of leadership having been formulated within a seagoing maritime culture, and shaped by maritime mores.

When the opportunity came to enter MET, accession to maritime leadership gave way to a new phase of formation, within a new cultural setting of education. The maritime 'achievement' (see p.45) in Gronn's (1999) formation model has been overwhelmed by reversion to educational 'ascription'.

There is evidence of 'new' theory being espoused alongside 'old' so Western's (2008) theory, that leadership styles linger over time, appears valid. By reflecting on these findings, leaders may discover new leadership paradigms that impact positively on their own leadership performance: this has implication for the design and content of development programmes.

The following section analyses the respondents' behaviours during the educational accession period.

Accession

Accession describes that 'stage of grooming or anticipation in which 'candidates...rehearse or test their potential capacity to lead...' (Gronn, 1996:34). This

of course is contextualised and, as discussed above, ‘accession’ in one sector can revert to ‘formation’ in another.

Much of the educational literature from the compulsory, FE and HE sectors (Knight and Trowler, 2001; Briggs, 2001a, 2001b, 2004; Gunter, 2002; Leader, 2004; Bush, 2008a; Davies and Dunnill, 2008; Peeke, 2003) roots its leadership analysis within an educational setting; in other words, there is an assumption that people have learned how to lead while actually practising teaching. In the case of MET leaders, that is demonstrably contradicted since, as outlined above, all start their careers in other domains and their mental maps of leadership – how they make sense of their world (Grint, 2005) and construct meanings - are very different.

After an initial career period the respondents had an opportunity to enter the MET sector, indicated by Node C in Figure 10, p.157. This point in time is significant since there were three other possible options available to them: they could have (a) remained at sea; (b) come ashore, but into the non-MET maritime sector; or lastly, (c) chosen to leave the maritime sector altogether. It is worth re-iterating that at the start of their careers none of the respondents had thought of education as a career let alone attaining a leadership role within it.

It is now that the respondents begin to make life-changing decisions. And, having made their career moves, it is clearly evident that MET leaders, in this sample at least, shifted their thinking and behaviours on from trait and charismatic theory and practice, which they experienced at sea, towards a more distributed, consensual style in education.

There are echoes of the former style still in use, as predicted by Western (2008) but, at the same time, they have discovered empirically that these previously used styles are, in

the main, not effective within an educational setting and so have adopted the new methods to manage and lead.

Age and maturity play a part in this process. The median age at which seafarers (and others) enter MET is nearly 40 (see Table 10, p. 111) and the age at which MET leadership is attained is nearly 44. This is older than the HE sector where, in her work with HE leaders, Inman found that ‘at a relatively young age...they had [been] appointed into positions of considerable prestige and responsibility...’ (2011:8), citing a 34 year old Reader and 38 year old Chair in HE.

In the primary sector at the opposite end of educational provision, the same pattern is seen; 13% of successful applicants are under 35 and a further 24% are under 40 years of age (NCLSCS, 2010b). In the 11 – 16 sector, Earley and Weindling (2007), citing research from the 1980s, found secondary heads’ average age on succession was 42.1. This is represented by Node D in Figure 10 (p.157).

So, it is only in secondary education that the ages approach those seen in MET. However, there is scant evidence that many secondary heads have ever worked outside education. So even here, where succession ages are comparable, there are major differences between vocational MET leaders and other educational professionals.

This evidence shows that, using these parameters of age and experience, MET leaders are strikingly different from educational leaders in other sectors. So it is questionable whether all the facets of research carried out in those environments will have immediate validity in MET. This finding boosts the justification for this project (see p.6).

The role of chance

During the period of ‘accession’, career and life-changing decisions are made (Day and Bakioğlu, 1996). This in turn implies that there is a decision-making process used by the respondents. Despite the discussion above, it appears that ‘agency’ is more apparent at this stage thus confirming Gunter’s (2002) assertion about agency’s dynamism.

Countering this however, is the apparent causal effect of chance and serendipity.

Serendipitous events that were reported included chance encounters with significant people (sometime referred to as change agents), illnesses, domestic crises and other family events.

Evidence of the significant role chance was perceived to play in the respondents’ comments was abundant: ‘things have always happened by chance’ (Interviewee A); ‘..but that morning I had no intention of getting into training...it just happened’ (Interviewee D); ‘...there wasn’t a plan to come into education...that just happened...’ (Interviewee N) are some examples.

One conclusion from this work is that chance and serendipity are unpredictable, unreliable and ultimately atheoretical. However, adopting the word ‘happenstance’ – a conflation of ‘happening’ and ‘circumstance’ – rather than ‘chance’, Miller (1983) changes the concept semantically and suggests that structure (i.e., circumstance) has a part to play in an individual’s career choice. Within this paradigm it can be argued that career decisions, far from being random events, are actually predictable conclusions to the sets of circumstances in which an individual finds him or herself (Hancock, 2009).

So, accepting this element of determinism, it may be tentatively suggested that the widely pervasive maritime culture evident in British society between the end of the Second World War and the beginning of the respondents’ careers (Woodman, 2010)

was partly influential in their career paths. Maritime culture is significantly less prominent today (Woodman, 2010), so together, these points suggest that the traditional pool from which MET leaders emerge will become shallower. There is a clear implication for succession planning and staff development needs since MET institutions will not be able to rely on the traditional supply of educational leaders.

Turning once more to this research, the respondents do not appear to have reflected on a structuralist explanation of their own choices. Without exception they ascribe to chance and serendipity, and to some extent, agency as the fundamental decision-making drivers in their lives. However, seen from a structuralist perspective it is reasonable to suggest that MET leaders' life and career choices were indeed, at least to some extent, determined by context, family background, job availability and other situational factors as well as agency-driven causes.

In Gronn's (1999) career model of leadership, accession gives way to 'incumbency' which is the next section's focus.

Incumbency

The respondents indicate clearly the significant cultural, operational and leadership differences between maritime and educational sectors. This is indicated by Node E in Figure 10 (p.157). For that reason I have labelled the Leadership Style boxes 'Incumbency 1' and 'Incumbency 2' in the summary of research findings (Table 13, p.136). This serves to highlight the paradigm shift as the respondents moved from one environment to another and it reinforces the notion that MET leaders, in many cases, had to remodel their identity and conception of leadership.

The respondents in this study consistently described their task focus and ‘busy-ness’. It is very much a form of transactional leadership. For example, ‘I observe the teaching staff...[and] carry out...performance reviews...’ (Interviewee K. Lines 16-18); ‘trying to balance all of the balls all of the time’ (Interviewee F). So this in turn means that their capacity, or motivation, for thinking in strategic terms about their leadership role (as opposed to the strategic direction of their schools or departments) is perhaps less developed than leaders in the compulsory sector.

One respondent did say about his own personal development: ‘...I finally have some time after seven years...of being flat out...[to get]...a little bit of breathing space...to take stock and look at some of these things...(Interviewee F), but this was exceptional. Most of the interviewed leaders appeared not to reflect overly on the higher order attainment implied by the research described above.

The interesting and tentative conclusion to be drawn from this is that incumbent MET leaders take insufficient time to reflect on the reality of their own leadership position. Moon (2002), building on a rich history of reflective literature (Dewey, 1910; Habermas, 1971; Kolb, 1974; Hargreaves and Goodson, 1996), draws attention to the importance of reflection as an intrinsic part of learning and its provenance is accepted by most thinkers as a pre-requisite to effective performance. It is clear that there are barriers preventing MET leaders from engaging in this process. Their sheer ‘busy-ness’ appears to be one reason; this is shared by others in the teaching profession as Wildman and Niles found, observing that ‘schools are busy places that do not allow much time for reflection’ (1987:28) and complementing earlier research (Earley and Fletcher-Campbell, 1989) where it was found that faculty heads felt their days were so busy, it always felt like juggling balls and there was no time to reflect.

It may also be true that acceptance of the ‘teacher-as-reflective-practitioner will not just happen simply because it is a good or even compelling idea’ (Wildman and Niles, 1987:29). These findings, supported by literature, indicate a clear developmental need for MET leaders and will be carried forward to the recommendations.

Divestiture

The fourth element of leadership development has been termed ‘divestiture’ (Gronn, 1999), indicated diagrammatically as Node F in Figure 10 (p.112). This is the time when, owing to many possible reasons, leaders have to ‘divest themselves of leadership by releasing their psychological grip’ (Gronn, 1999:39). The period from accession to retirement (or any other exit from MET leadership), as discussed above, has been further divided (Day and Bakioğlu, 1996) into discrete phases: initiation, development, autonomy and disenchantment, and enchantment (Ribbins, 2003).

There is little consistency across the sample, and clearly different personalities (agency) will dictate different circumstances, but a tentative conclusion can be made that MET leaders, in general, spend little time in reflecting on future moves. There is a perception of insouciance detectable in the responses, a feeling that ‘something will knock on the door’ (Interviewee S: p.255, line 385.) It may be that MET leaders wait to be told what to do, a hangover from their previous, prescriptive days at sea.

This reinforces the previous conclusion that personal career planning by MET leaders is not considered by them to be a high priority while instead chance and serendipity are relied on. So those in parent institutions responsible for retention of staff, talent management and succession planning need to be aware of this potential reticence in their managers. MET leaders might also benefit from encouragement: an aspect that could be addressed by staff development.

Some of the MET leaders did report their satisfaction with the status quo. This concurs with findings from the HE sector which found that leaders there ‘wanted to continue with what they enjoy doing’. (Inman, 2011:11). The leaders in that report argued that promotion would take them away from what had attracted them into education in the first place, which was to teach. This is a point of view shared by one of the MET leaders who said:

‘What is becoming more and more clear to me within the next stage of going into senior management is more about the systemic issues and not about the teaching and learning...’ (Interviewee L).

Summary

The proposition that, in the case of MET leaders, leadership ‘formation’ may be extensive and prolonged over half a lifetime, is significant in that it allows a greater time for non-education sector norms to be assimilated. This research suggests that the simple elegance of the Gronn (1996) and Ribbins (2003) models which follow linear patterns of formation, accession, incumbency and divestiture are insufficiently nuanced to explain the career paths of MET leaders.

Taking an overview of the routes to MET leadership, there is commonality in the waypoints that led to that position. Most of the respondents started their careers at sea (and the one who didn’t enjoys a successful career in the RNR).

The evidence gathered here shows a cadre of educational leaders who have emerged rather by accident than design but who have nevertheless, and pragmatically, developed thinking and practical skills in order to cope with the stresses, strains and pressures of the job. This reinforces previous work (Bennett, 1995) which theorised the manager’s ‘assumptive world’ or ‘theory in use’ (cited in Briggs, 2002:77). Briggs again (2004) is useful here, since her work in describing how college managers combine focus on

external business and client issues with that on education, teaching and learning, is congruent with the evidence presented here and strengthens its validity.

Overall the respondents displayed little appetite to seek promotion outside the MET sector with only two of the sample having reached the senior management team of their institutions.

The awareness (or otherwise) of a personal leadership style was probed by the third research question which will be discussed in the next section.

Research Question 3: reflection and style

The third research question asked ‘to what extent do MET leaders reflect on their own styles of leadership and which do they exhibit?’ and, as a subsidiary to this, ‘which styles are perceived to be effective and which less so?’

This section will discuss the findings in a general sense before addressing the issue of styles in terms of the theoretical frameworks which were introduced in the literature search.

Interviewee A’s reply to the question of reflection was illuminating and typical when he said ‘I don’t spend a lot of time thinking about my leadership style’. It exposed a common thread which was that the *concept* of reflection was not widely espoused by the respondents. However, when asked specifically to think about and comment on their own leadership styles, the respondents were indeed able to ‘step back, review [and] reflect’ (MacBeath, 2011:115). The respondents then became effusive in the descriptions of their own self-perceived leadership styles and how they had changed over time (or not, in one case).

So it is clear that there is an ability, willingness and keenness to discuss the concept of ‘reflection’, but as a discrete activity, it does not appear to be practiced systematically or routinely by MET leaders. This contradicts evidence from other educational sectors (Knight and Trowler, 2001; Muijs *et al*, 2006; Inman, 2009; MacBeath, 2011) that shows educational leaders engaging in and practicing critical reflection and, moreover, gaining personal benefit from so doing. It also contradicts Jameson’s (2006) research, where she found the senior leaders of more successful colleges were exhibiting ‘self-transcendent’ (2006:1) behaviours and attitudes.

The interesting observation from this is that there appears to be a schism in the forms of leadership exhibited – and possibly expected – by the senior leaders of successful institutions, when compared to the leadership styles espoused and exhibited by many of the (mostly) middle management MET leaders in this study. Further research would be useful to explore this.

Prior research (Jameson, 2006) also found that leaders of successful colleges, when asked to describe their leadership in metaphorical terms, used examples that implied nurture and growth, such as the tending of gardens. It was concluded that this indicated a transformational leadership style which transcended the mere transactional.

In contrast to the transformational metaphor above, many of the MET leaders used metaphorical terms such as ‘fire-fighting’ (Interviewee K), ‘cascading [information]’ (Interviewee O), ‘driving things through’ (Interviewee D) and ‘herding cats’ (Interviewee C) which, using Johnson’s (2006) taxonomy, would indicate a more transactional style of leadership. However, this was not unanimous, with some MET leaders employing nurturing metaphors such as ‘plant the seed...encourage late bloomers...’ (Interview L) and metaphors indicative of a distributed leadership stance

such as ‘sometimes I’ll take a back seat and let others get on with it’ (Interviewee O). It is too simplistic to argue that one leader displays a transactional leadership style while another displays a transformative one. The evidence suggests that all the leaders chose to behave in ways which reflect both styles and this depended on the range of factors discussed above: personal background, context, situation and task.

Prior experience

The study shows strong links between MET leaders’ current styles and their prior experience. So, arguably, this needs to be taken into account when reviewing their current educational leadership style. Gronn’s (1999) theory of leadership formation, discussed in the previous section, is relevant but insufficiently nuanced to take sector transfer into account. Hence the extension of the formation period in my adaptation of Gronn’s (1999) model (see Figure 10, p.157).

Most of their close, and in some cases extended, families were involved in one or more of the uniformed services and this influence is probably significant. During their careers at sea or in the RNR, the respondents were trained to lead by employing specific styles. This equates to a first ‘customization’ phase (Gronn, 1999) (See Figure 2.p 45) where leadership models were based on a hierarchical ‘command and control’ model (Jones and Gosling, 2005:204) underpinned by centuries of tradition and the law (MacLachlan, 2004). There was an unquestioning obedience from direct reports, an acceptance of orders from above acted upon with no challenge, and little or no theorising about leadership models. At that time in their careers, there appears to have been little reflection on the leadership styles in use.

Once the respondents were immersed in the educational sector they discovered empirically that a different leadership style was required. This period of transition was

uncomfortable for all the respondents and demanded a period of assimilation into the new educational culture. For most of the leaders this involved a significant shift in behaviours from the command and control model in the preceding paragraph to those which were ‘less strident’, (Interviewee G), consensual and distributive. This was a seminal transition in terms of leadership styles, attitudes and behaviours and represents a second ‘customization’ (Gronn, 1999) phase. It presents a potential barrier for individuals who may find this transition daunting and highlights a development need.

The findings in Gleeson and Shain’s (1999) research (carried out at a time when FE Colleges had recently been incorporated and experienced profound changes in governance) indicated that middle leaders in FE felt that they were leading ‘double identities...[brokering] materiality and meaning...’ (1999:462). It is indicative of how far ideas have shifted in the intervening years that this position, at least in MET, has become normalised. Today’s MET leaders view a commercial awareness as a necessity and as almost the *raison d’être* of their position, underlined by the comments such as those from Interviewee N when he said ‘I respond to invitations to tenders [from commercial customers]’ and Interviewee E who argued he was ‘primarily a business leader’. The remarkable thing about those quotes is the exclusion of teaching and learning from the respondent’s vocabulary which runs counter to the findings of Brundrett and Rhodes who note the ‘emergence of terms such as ‘leadership for learning’ and ‘learning-centred leadership’ (2011:66).

It seems that managerialism and the language of business (Gleeson and Shain, 1999) is very much embedded in the culture of MET leaders’ departments and schools, with the focus (for some) shifting away from teaching and learning. This is a move away from what, arguably, comprises the essential mission of educators.

Today's MET leaders, as Gleeson and Shane reported (1999) in their study on FE, still feel that they are sandwiched in the middle, between the strategic demands of their line managers and the operational pressures imposed from below. It is this tension that was discussed above and which is represented diagrammatically in Figure 9 (see p.150).

There appears little progress in making attempts to analyse or ameliorate the prevailing situation. MET leaders appear to tolerate the status quo saying '...this is what we've got to do [so] let's just get on and do it...' (Interviewee O).

Research supports the view that 'leading from the middle is no easy task' (Briggs, 2005:29) in FE colleges, borne out by comments such as: '[my] major responsibility is to ensure...staff...conform to college policies' (Interviewee Q). It also supports the notion of the middle manager's role being an 'intuitive' one (Briggs, 2002) which returns the discussion to that earlier (see p.56) on the different roles carried out by middle managers in FE generally and MET leaders in particular.

In the discussion above it was revealed that the MET leaders in this study have shifted empirically (during their careers) from a well-defined transactional outlook towards a more transformational style. This idea may be represented by a continuum joining the two extremes of leadership, with autocratic and didactic transactional styles at one end and facilitative, democratic and transformational towards the other. There seems to be no predictable pattern as to how far each of the respondents may have travelled along the continuum. However, one hypothesis may be that the distance travelled is a function, *inter alia*, of the personal development that each individual has undertaken during their careers and, particularly, since reaching a leadership role in MET. The next section will discuss the findings framed against the theories introduced in Chapter 2, starting with trait theory.

Leadership theory revisited

The findings appear to partially confirm Western's (2008) model (Figure 1, p.23) in which he posits that old theories never completely disappear. According to Western (2008), they may wane in popularity as new theory emerges, but there will always be a residual population of leader/managers who retain the behaviours and attitudes associated with earlier taxonomies and paradigms. This would suggest that some aspirational MET leaders will espouse these former (and largely discarded theories) and bring them to inform their leadership practice in MET.

This is not to suggest that all residual theory is bad or that all new theory is good. As has been argued elsewhere, each of the theories must be evaluated in practice and in context. For instance, 'situational leadership' resonates well in a multicultural environment (as is the maritime sector) since it emphasises the needs of the followers and thus promotes empathy, a positive attribute for leaders to practice (Goleman, 1996).

Western's (2008) model may be tested by comparing each of the leadership discourses illustrated in Figure 1 (p.23) with the findings on the constitution of current leadership style (for MET leaders). If the model is valid, we should observe residual characteristics of each discourse being displayed, while simultaneously, seeing the majority of leadership practices moving on, in time, to new concepts.

It is fashionable to argue that trait theory is unfashionable. Much of the literature would suggest that trait (and, to a lesser extent, charismatic leadership) theory is outdated, ineffective and unused. The findings in this study would tentatively suggest that, in the maritime sector at least, faint traces of trait theory remain. It appears there are at least some MET leaders who believe leadership, to a lesser or greater extent is embodied in

them as a person and that they alone have the leadership powers to make decisions within their spheres of influence.

As well as charisma, there is sometimes a sense of pragmatism in MET leaders' acquired leadership roles. Gleeson and Shain found this in their work with middle managers in education and labelled it 'artful pragmatism' (1999:482) where professional and managerial interests are reconciled. In some cases this translates into a passive acceptance of the status quo. Interviewee L recounts '...[senior management] said to me 'don't rock the boat' and that's what I'm content with now...' while Interviewee G is resigned to the fact that he will not achieve everything he sets out to do saying '...I realise I can't do that any more...'.

Western's (2008) 'therapist discourse' includes issues concerned with behavioural, human relations and transactional leadership; the latter embracing exchange and path-goal models. Most MET leaders in this sample seemed comfortable with this transactional form of leadership which reflects prior research findings (Briggs, 2001; Leader, 2004; Muijs *et al*, 2006).

Evidence in support of 'transformational' leadership was not overwhelming: the findings did include one comment from a respondent who said 'leadership...is giving people direction...' (Interviewee G) which might be interpreted as having visionary, transformational direction. An alternative interpretation of the quote is that it is indicative of the leader setting direction, thus displaying *transactional* leadership.

Those responsible for creating leadership development programmes may wish to challenge this temporal hysteresis (displayed by the few) by designing appropriately differentiated curricula.

Summary

From the evidence in this interpretivist survey it is clear that chance, environment and social upbringing are significant influences on career trajectory. This argument appears to support a structuralist and sometimes random explanation of events: nevertheless there is also evidence that individual respondents took decisions at various points in their careers so the significance of agency must also be recognised. The study therefore points to an amalgam of structure and agency influencing leaders' decisions: the notion of there being a single explanation, chosen from polar opposites, is arguably overly reductionist and not supported.

The transition to a career in education and thence to MET leadership is challenging. This supports the findings of Hill (1984, cited in Bass, 1990) and their analysis of behaviour shift between military and civilian situations. Admittedly, the merchant service is but 'quasi-military'; however it is the closest comparison that can be made from existing literature.

Research Question 4: professional training and development:

This section addresses the fourth research question which asked the respondents first, about the degree of management or leadership training they had experienced themselves prior to taking on a leadership role and secondly, the type of development they felt would benefit others aspiring to a leadership role in MET.

An important point to note is the difference between the compulsory and post-compulsory sectors. The former appears simple and structured while the latter is complex with nine routes to qualification (see Appendix E, p.261). This presents a complex and possibly confusing set of options for anyone entering the post-compulsory sector. Moreover, the initial qualifications are designed, logically, to address teaching,

learning and classroom skills. Educational leadership and management are not addressed.

HE and FE leaders are recruited to their posts initially on the strength of their professional, industrial, academic or vocational qualifications (Gleeson and Shain, 1999). My research showed that most incumbents of MET leadership positions had acquired the highest professional vocational qualification in the maritime sector, i.e. a Class 1 or Unlimited Certificate of Competency either as Master or Chief Engineer prior to entering the educational sector.

The research also revealed that the median age at which the respondents went to sea was 17 while the median age at which they entered the educational sector was 38. (Table 10, p.112). So they had a median average of 21 years' seagoing or industrial experience before coming into MET. This finding lends support to the proposition that the leadership behaviours learned, displayed and required at sea will have become familiar and normalised. These seafarers have arrived in the educational sector with an identity already in place, and with ideas on management and leadership forged in a very different milieu. It is a further six years (Table 10, p.112) before respondents typically attain a leadership role in MET and this interval could be used to at least introduce new MET practitioners to the leadership discourse current in their institutions.

It would, arguably, be beneficial to explore these leadership precepts and encourage reflection on their behaviours as soon as is practicable in their educational career. It is almost certainly inappropriate that leadership as a concept, intellectually, theoretically and pragmatically, fails to receive adequate treatment at this early stage.

Before taking up a leadership position, more than half the sample received no management or leadership training. 'Customization' (Gronn, 1999) is notable by its

absence. On evaluation, and given that the research has found respondents challenged by their roles, this finding points to a less than satisfactory state. However, it does reflect prior research that found only patchy work being undertaken in preparation for the ‘professionalism’ (Briggs, 2004: 598) required by leaders in FE, of which an understanding of leadership is a crucial part. Muijs *et al* found broadly similar figures in their research with 51.4% of the respondents having ‘never engaged in professional development activities focused on leadership’ (2006:97).

Once in the educational sector, nearly all the respondents had acquired additional academic qualifications but these did not necessarily include material or curriculum appertaining to leadership development or management training. Table 11 (p.130) juxtaposes the level of development pre- and post-appointment to a leadership position. The caveat is that the ascribed values are subjective and arbitrary and can only be used indicatively.

Cognisant of the caveat above, it is interesting even so, to observe that the level of engagement post-appointment increases some 300%. This figure is a crude measure of gain (and should be read cautiously) since it reveals nothing of the quality, effectiveness or sustainability of the reported interventions.

Nevertheless, it does show that while institutions may neglect (or fail to promote) formalised development of their MET leaders prior to accession to a leadership role, this is redressed, at least in part, post-accession. It would be useful if future research was undertaken to establish more clearly what the merits and effectiveness of disparate programmes were on pre- and post-appointment development.

Knight and Trowler’s (2001) theory of knowledge domains was formulated for use in HE, however since MET straddles the HE/FE divide it is reasonable to extend the

framework into this study. The theory is based on wide research in the sector, affording a panoramic perspective of the issues involved.

Firstly, Knight and Trowler's (2001) notion that leaders acquire 'control knowledge' from their interaction with significant people is reinforced by the respondents in this study. There was consistency in the colourful reports of influence from family, peers and professional colleagues.

Yet the same is not true of critical incidents. The respondents were specifically asked to describe experiences that may have prepared them for the role of leader. The responses failed to elicit much information save for one example where serious illness changed the course of one person's career. For most, there were almost no accounts of critical incidents. There are three possible reasons for this: firstly, the question was weak and failed to probe sufficiently well the nature and frequency of critical incidents; secondly, there were in fact no critical incidents. This, given the age and experience of the respondents, is unlikely. The third explanation could be that the respondents had indeed experienced incidents that, if observed by a third party, would have been considered critical, but they themselves had not considered them so. Given their backgrounds, upbringing and experience, it may be that their threshold of criticality is high. In other words, what might appear to be a critical incident to others is considered a routine part of the job for MET leaders: as previously observed, one person's gale is another person's breeze (Hancock, 2009).

My hypothesis would be that the cause is a combination of the first and third reasons. It would be informative to refine the question schedule and research this further in order to isolate more precisely the possible effects of critical incidents.

Reflective thinking is another aspect of the first domain assumed to be taking place. This is not overwhelmingly supported by my findings which show that, amongst MET leaders, critical thinking is not frequently engaged in, and, when it is, this is not usually systematic or routine. This corroborates Johnson's (2002) work where she found that 'leader academics'... inability... to articulate what they had learnt... [was]... particularly worrying' (cited in Inman, 2009:427). This finding is not found generally elsewhere in the literature (Briggs, 2002; Muijs *et al*, 2006 ;) where there appears to be an unwarranted assumption that critical reflection is an automatic component of the process. Although Kolb (1974) suggests this has to be the case (if we are to experience effective and sustainable learning), the actuality, at least in this study, suggests otherwise.

All the respondents conferred with Knight and Trowler's (2001) assertion that knowledge of people, the second domain, was crucially important. The MET leaders spoke at length of the importance of the people around them in assisting their own leadership development. Knight and Trowler's (2001) view was that leaders learned about the importance of this from workshops and reading as well as from a collegial process, including mentoring. Given the paucity of formal personal development that was revealed prior to leadership accession, it is not the case for these respondents that reading and workshops carry the weight Knight and Trowler (2001) imply.

In developing this theme, Muijs *et al* (2006) suggest that learning about diverse styles of leadership works better with different types of delivery. So, they argue, transformational leadership is best served by experiential learning; distributed leadership by course-based delivery and finally, transactional leadership by individual forms of learning such as distance learning and private study.

Returning to Knight and Trowler's (2001) work it should be noted that deeper 'understanding[s] [of] human beings' (Interviewee N) and 'abstract aspects of leadership' (Interviewee A) were among the topics suggested for development; this in turn suggests that there is an appetite for a theoretical, workshop-style development programme.

Overall there is some evidence from prior research (Muijs *et al*, 2006) that traditional, linearly designed, programmes are losing popularity amongst managers. Programmes need to be more experiential, and include active learning, job-sharing and -shadowing, and mentoring (Lumby *et al*, 2004; Inman, 2009). Theoretical and underpinning knowledge can be delivered in innovative ways such as webinars, social network sites on the Internet and distance learning. Ensuring strong links between theory and effective practice is vital to complement the pragmatic approach espoused by MET leaders.

Knight and Trowler's (2001) third domain is, arguably, more complex for MET leaders than the first two. It involves knowledge of educational practice. This includes the assimilation of the cultural norms (Schein, 1997; Brown-Ferrigo, 2003) associated with their learning institution and a re-alignment or even re-learning of the cultural, leadership norms that they had experienced before, at sea. Most of the leaders found this transition challenging to navigate and it is the point at which most support would appear needed. This knowledge domain is connected closely and inevitably with Knight and Trowler's (2001) fourth and fifth areas: 'conceptual' and 'process' knowledge respectively.

Referring to Kotter's (1990) model which has been reinforced and extended by these findings, (Table 12, p.131) it is clear that MET leaders want operational and task-based

knowledge in order to function more effectively. For example, MET leaders would appreciate training in financial matters, budget management, and college procedures and personnel management. According to Knight and Trowler (2001) this knowledge is best acquired through formal attendance on development programmes.

This presents a potential dichotomy since, as already established, the efficacy of generic, linear programmes has been questioned (Lumby *et al*, 2004) and therefore Knight and Trowler's (2001) course attendance model may be ineffective. It is perhaps necessary to develop a specific andragogic approach to satisfy the learning of MET leaders.

When they were asked about the timing of development programmes that would help themselves and others aspiring to leadership roles there was no consistency in the responses. Some thought it should start early in a person's career, others thought it should wait until later; some wanted to see task-driven attendance courses while others felt that learning on the job and mentoring was the best way forward. The only thing that people did agree on was that something should be done.

These lacks of consistency - and haphazard findings - suggest that respondents do not systematically evaluate their own continuing professional development (CPD). In parallel with this, the institutions' systems of appraisal and performance review may lack the capacity to produce this sort of nuanced data, and it is questionable whether sufficient reflection (Kolb, 1974; Moon, 2002) is being encouraged.

Prior research (Lumby *et al*, 2004) shows clearly that the effect of collective, experiential forms of CPD far outweighs individual CPD efforts. Furthermore it suggests that tailor-made programmes that build on leaders' prior experience, and that are contextualised within their organisations, will be more effective. This extends

Knight and Trowler's (2001) earlier findings and suggests that the respondents' earlier leadership paradigms could be leveraged to improve current performance.

With regards to the sixth and seventh domains (situational and encompassing), Knight and Trowler (2001) argue that this knowledge will be assimilated through experiential 'on the job' learning. However, learning can never be assumed to take place as a simple consequence of structured or unstructured input, but rather it is the 'active interpretation of the learner' (Inman, 2007:62) that promotes deep and sustainable learning.

This demands learning in a myriad of ways that appeal and make sense to the learner (as opposed to the course designer).

In this regard, Kolb's Learning Cycle (1974) is important. Kolb argues that learners must go through each of four phases (Figure 11, p.130) in a 'learning cycle' in order to learn effectively. This model was extended by Honey and Mumford (1992), superimposed on Figure 11, who suggest learners have preferred 'learning styles'. This translates into them being more or less comfortable in each of the areas of Kolb's cycle.

So, a reasonable conclusion to this is that if learning is to be effective, then it would be beneficial to identify individuals' learning styles and differentiate accordingly within any learning programme.

This predicates against a rigid, prescriptive delivery, model and, instead, leans towards more flexible, learner-centred and contextually relevant learning opportunities that include an academic component, but are not driven by it. In my own management consultancy practice I refer to this as the delivery of theory 'by stealth'. Delegates often eschew theory as a 'waste of time' (which, of course, is a theory in itself) and it is therefore effective to introduce relevant theory in easily digestible form which can be

seen to have some practical application. Active-learning assists in this process and promotes deep, sustainable learning.

However, it may also be argued that the two approaches of person-centred experiential learning and input-driven curriculum learning are not mutually exclusive. Learning to lead may be realised in different ways and chosen from a spectrum of opportunities.

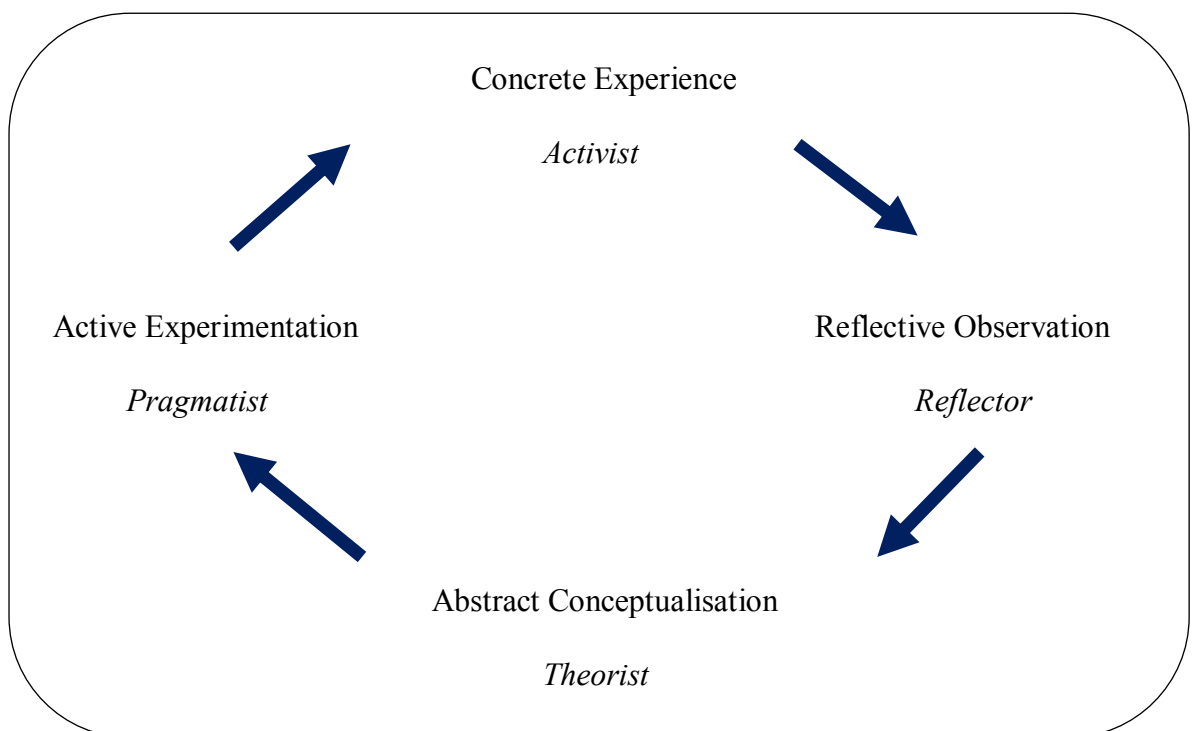


Figure 11: Kolb's Learning Cycle (1974) with Mumford and Honey's Learning Styles (1992) added in italics

Those who choose to learn in prescriptive fashion may tend towards transactional leadership and 'rely on their positional power to achieve compliance' (Inman, 2007) while those who aspire to transformational leadership may wish to look beyond that narrow scope. The linear approach to teacher development, exemplified in the compulsory sector, may be appropriate for younger, undergraduate trainee teachers, but

it fails to satisfy the needs of experienced individuals who become MET practitioners and aspire to leadership positions.

Overall Summary of Chapter 5

This chapter has focused on a discussion of the findings in relation to firstly, the essence of leadership, secondly the journey to leadership experienced by MET leaders, thirdly, the styles of leadership and, lastly, the leadership development of MET leaders.

None of the MET leaders had started their working lives with an educational career in mind. They became educational practitioners and leaders largely through chance, though, as we have seen, there may be an element of prediction in seemingly serendipitous happenings. Before coming into education, they had all acquired a leadership style, appropriate to a different culture, which had to be addressed and modified once they started leading in education.

So it may be said with some certainty that most MET leaders have not planned their career paths, at least in the early stages. As their careers progressed it is apparent that elevation to leadership roles was, in most cases, also unplanned and opportunist.

The study confirms Inman's (2009) prior research in HE where she found that people were promoted into leadership positions simply 'because there was no one else suitable' (2007:173). It also confirms data from the schools' sector (Rhodes and Brundrett, 2006) which found that succession planning was largely unstructured. An initial conclusion would indicate that career paths might be made smoother and enhanced by a measure of planning and reflection, both on the part of institutions as well as individuals.

Knight and Trowler (2001) observe that those who eschew their seven knowledge domains will be less successful in leadership.

Moreover they may resort to positional power in order to achieve their goals. This is supported by my research where one respondent said that when he had started as MET leader he had often resorted to a 'dictatorish style' because that was his 'safety net'. (Interviewee S: p.258, lines 538-539). Overall, there appears to be a predominant transactional leadership style in vogue with residual traces (Western, 2008) of discarded and discredited models, associated with autocracy and trait.

Having reached a position of incumbency, a leader's capacity and will to pause, reflect and analyse their own role, is a significant and positive policy to adopt. This is supported by a growing consensus within the compulsory sector, evidenced by this extract from a Scottish Government publication:

'...[the ways include]...opportunities to step back, review, reflect and develop personal leadership practice in other educational systems and in other organizational contexts' (Scottish Executive Education Department (2006) cited in MacBeath, 2011: 115)

However, it appears evident that this reflective opportunity in general, is not being exploited by some MET leaders. This explains, to some extent, the lack of strategic awareness displayed by the respondents in relation to their own leadership position. Given that the theoretical concept of reflection as part of a learning cycle (Kolb, 1974) has been extant for nearly forty years, it is surprising that the recognition of its importance is not more evident.

Another aspect of strategic leadership that appears to be missing is that of *influencing* external stakeholders by politicking, lobbying, or engaging in discourse and action. Referring to Figure 9 (p.150), it is clear that these activities are conspicuous by their absence. This reflects the essentially transactional nature of MET leadership which is to enact and enable decisions made elsewhere. The power distance (Hofstede, 2001)

between MET leaders and the statutory bodies and the cultural norms that prevail, seem to prevent the leaders from adopting a transformational leadership style which might include visioning the future in their own (and own students') terms rather than the terms of others.

Inman's (2009:428) model showing development methods for leader academics is a useful starting point in devising a plan to bridge the gap between a prescriptive, generic and linear training programme and a laissez-faire approach which has permitted the current generation of MET leaders largely to learn *ad hoc*. The model is process-focussed. In other words, it concentrates almost solely on the 'how' of professional development to the exclusion of the 'what'. It also highlights methods of learning (such as 'coaching' and 'observing';) which, I would argue, are straightforward components of a necessary blend and do not require elucidation. Given that MET leaders are task-focussed and wary of purely theoretical solutions it may be more effective to add a broad indication of 'task' to the model, which is the case in Figure 12. (p.187).

By conflating Knight and Trowler's (2001) knowledge domains and merging them with the findings of my research (Table 13, p.136) it is possible to offer a tentative conclusion that builds on Inman's (2009) model (Figure 12, p.187).

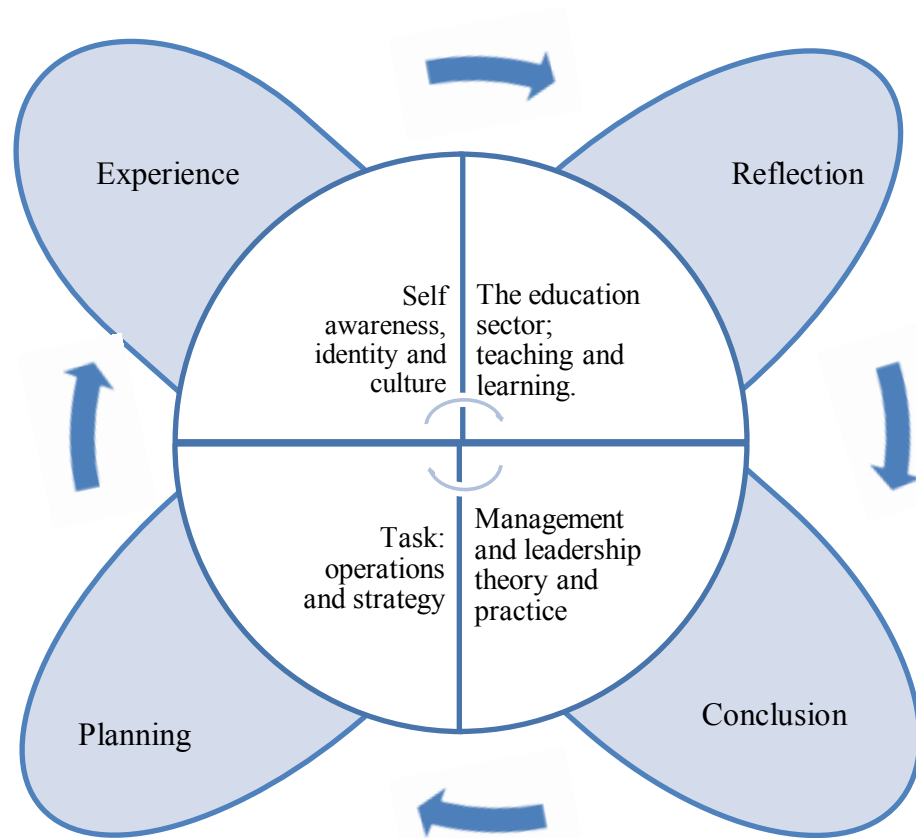


Figure 12 : The propeller model for MET leadership development. (Haughton, 2012; from Kolb (1974), Knight and Trowler (2001) and Inman (2009)).

Each of the quadrants in the centre of the model can be used to design learning objectives, desired outcomes and to contain curricula that will satisfy MET leaders' needs.

The upper left quadrant, concerning self awareness as well as culture would help MET leaders appreciate issues pertaining to role and identity while the lower left quadrant would supply the task needs identified by the respondents. Educational issues would include ‘classroom skills’ and ‘teacher training’. These are topics that educational leaders (in other sectors) may feel unnecessary but are important within the context of MET leadership. Finally, the lower right quadrant would include a theoretical and practical appreciation of leadership and management.

The propeller blades represent Kolb’s (1974) learning cycle and make it clear that, whatever the method of curriculum delivery, the process must be cyclical in order to facilitate deep learning. A range of hydro-dynamic metaphors (such as variable- and fixed pitch blades which would alter the strength and direction of the thrust and; aeration, which would cause a reduction in effect) could be used to illustrate variations.

Delegates would not need to start at any one place on the model but could join wherever they want and wherever it fitted in with their requirements and the constraints of their institution.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

This mainly qualitative survey has explored and theorised the leadership journey undertaken by seafarers and others transiting from a maritime or industrial career into education, and thence to the leadership of maritime education and training. The view that leadership skills and behaviours are grounded in the life experiences of individuals is largely supported. However, the research indicates that experiential learning alone is probably not sufficient to equip MET leaders with the knowledge and understanding required in these new roles, and is almost certainly less than effective in learning to cope with the transition from sea to shore, or from industry into education. So, it would be beneficial for work to be done in the design and delivery of appropriate support programmes before, during and after this transition.

This concluding chapter starts with a recapitulation of the research questions from Chapter 1. It then outlines the contribution to new knowledge, with each question being addressed in turn, suggests potential areas for further research and closes with an overall summary.

The four research questions, with their subsidiaries, were:

1. How do MET leaders define their roles and to what extent do they consider themselves ‘educational leaders’? Are there differences between MET leadership and educational leadership in general?
2. What influences do MET leaders perceive as having been important in reaching their current positions? What parts did ‘chance’ and ‘planning’ take in the development of their careers?

3. To what extent do MET leaders reflect on their own styles of leadership and which do they exhibit? Which styles are perceived to be effective and which less so?
4. What form of training or development would help them do the job more effectively? What development did the leaders themselves receive pre- and post-appointment and what development do they perceive being necessary for those aspiring to MET leadership positions?

Research Question 1: roles, leadership and differences

The newly defined and complex reality of a MET leader's role is captured in Figure 9 (p.150). It paints a picture of operational and strategic challenges which call for leadership (however that may be defined). Two points emerge:

Firstly, while the majority of MET leaders did consider themselves educational leaders (Table 8, p.102), most respondents seemed to be consolidating this in their own minds only during the conduct of the interview. Some were disinclined to consider themselves foremost as educational leaders, but rather as business managers.

So I conclude that, for most respondents, the concept of being an educational leader was not uppermost in their thoughts. Furthermore, since education in its most basic form, is about 'learning' and to a lesser extent, 'teaching', it may be said that the MET leaders in this sample are in contradiction with research (Brundrett and Rhodes, 2011) positing that teaching and learning should be at the apex of an educational leader's agenda. It seems that, for some, the essential focus of educational leadership could be sharper and therefore perhaps more effective.

Secondly, despite the empirical evidence presented in Figure 9 (p.150) the awareness of some respondents concerning the strategic nature of their work was not explicitly recognised. Most of the MET leaders reported being engaged in management tasks, to the exclusion of all else. This mirrors the increase in managerialism that has been noted in this sector in prior research (Gronn, 2003; Thrupp, 2005).

This apparent dichotomy might be explained simply by the possibility that part of their preferred managerialism is, in any case, strategic. Since this arguably involves leadership, the dichotomy is essentially semantic and one of perception rather than actuality.

In further support of this position, and although there is extensive literature on the distinction between 'leadership' and 'management', it is clear from this research enquiry that the two concepts are interwoven. Table 12 (p.131) juxtaposed Kotter's (1990) definitions against the findings which provide strong evidence that MET leaders are operating on both sides of Kotter's (1990) leadership/management 'divide'.

These two points will be returned to under RQ 3, below.

MET leaders are differentiated from their colleagues in the other educational sectors by the extensive range and scope of activities they undertake, coupled with the relentless pressure of audit and inspection from commercial, statutory and educational bodies.

Other sectors may have to face one or two of these but rarely all three. There was a strong impression that MET leaders spend most of their time in coping with this pressure. This explains, to some extent, why some of them feel there is no opportunity to reflect or to nurture the strategic direction and development of their departments.

Inman (2007) also uncovered evidence for this (albeit within HE and therefore with somewhat different parameters) and argues that it may lead to ‘the danger that [departments] will become over-managed and under-led’ (Inman, 2007:180). The same observation is valid in respect of MET leaders.

While there is considerable reported overlap in management activities between the respondents (such as budget control and conducting staff appraisals), there was little overall consistency in the range of MET leaders’ roles and activities between one institution and another, even when respondents had identical job titles. So job descriptions and line management structures are specific to each institution. This has implications for any training or development that may be designed and is significantly different from the compulsory sector where line management is broadly similar from one school to another. This point will be returned to below.

Another difference that has tentative significance is the age at which MET leaders (a) enter the field of education and (b) assume a leadership role in education. The ages are shown in Table 10 (p.112) and reveal that MET leaders are significantly older when they start teaching than many of their counterparts in the compulsory sector.

Furthermore, the research showed that they attain leadership roles at least ten years later than would be expected in schools. The time lag is possibly significant in that it has allowed a much greater period for social identity to be formed with habits, customs and work practices from the maritime sector becoming embedded in the behavioural practices of MET leaders and their followers.

This latter point highlights another difference between MET leadership and educational leadership in general, but is concerned essentially with the development and growth of

their career paths. This is properly the subject of my second research question in the next section.

Research Question 2: life journeys, influence and chance

The literature from across all educational sectors indicates that learning to lead is a continuous process that starts early in life. This strikes to the heart of the debate on agency and structure. In her study of HE leaders Inman argued that leadership was ‘autobiographic in character’ (2007:182) which offers an agency interpretation.

In this study, the process appears less transparent. All the leaders reported that they had taken personal career decisions from time to time but it became apparent also that early family and peer influences were extraordinarily strong in steering individuals towards a uniformed career, especially at sea. The numbers of close relatives with uniformed backgrounds is presented in Table 9 (p.109). Thus it can be argued that strict agency was moderated, at least in part, by structural and contextual influences.

There has been vigorous discussion (Day and Bakioğlu, 1996; Gronn, 1999; NCSL, 2001; Ribbins, 2003; NFER, 2007; NCLSC, 2011) concerning the overall development of leaders (in education) and the various stages which they are said to transit on the way. The chronological development of these models is shown in Figure 1 (p.23).

The new findings in this research reveal a complicated and challenging phase during sector transition and none of the existing models’ variations allow for this; so the model in Figure 10 (p.157) rectifies this omission by including a more complex overlay.

My research supports Gronn’s (1999) and Ribbin’s (2003) findings that early influence from family, friends, peers and other significant people was instrumental in early career decisions. However, although there is some recognition that some HE leaders have

experienced leadership outside education (Ribbins, 2003), the models in Table 2 (p.48) focus on observations of educational leaders,

In this study, the leaders were explicitly and originally *not* setting out on an educational career and thus any ‘stages’ became re-iterative, with the cycle of formation-accession-incumbency (Gronn, 1999; Ribbins, 2003) being repeated in very different cultural and work settings. Table 14 (p.158) shows this by juxtaposing the MET leaders’ progression to leadership against Gronn’s stage of educational leadership development.

Thus, it is tentatively suggested, the models extant of educational leaders’ progression are overly reductive for direct application to this set of educational leaders working within the LSS.

Furthermore, there is also an implicit assumption, in the reviewed educational leadership literature, that a degree of personal planning is inherent in the career development of educational leaders. In a hypothesised contradiction to this (in Chapter 2) it was suggested that none of the MET leaders had planned a career in education, never mind their having had aspirations of educational leadership. This survey supports that hypothesis, finding that all the MET leaders in this study had entered education through a combination of chance and serendipity. Thereafter, there was some planning reported by a few of the respondents; but mostly they found themselves in positions of leadership in the same way they had gone into education in the first place; that is, by luck.

Hancock (2009) argues that chance is not entirely random since people will engineer situations (sometimes subconsciously) that produce a result they desire, meanwhile attributing the cause to luck. In this study, there was some evidence that people had chosen situations (for example, visiting college libraries) that brought them into an

educational environment which, in turn, led to conversations with staff and invitations to teach. However, the links are tenuous and any firm conclusions would require more research.

Once at sea, professional and cultural influences were significant in moulding the behaviours and social identity of individuals. Discipline, together with a command and control leadership style, characterised their environment which fact has enormous significance for their transition into the very different context of education. I will return to this below.

A significant finding from this study is the difficulty most MET leaders had in making the transition from one leadership paradigm to another. Inman also faced this issue but in different sectors. She suggested three phases, ‘experiential...developmental...and ...consolidatory’, (2007:185) within the accession stage to describe the assimilation of educational leadership skills in HE by those who had acquired experience elsewhere.

In finding a way to manage this transition Inman’s (2007) model assumes a degree of reflection, self-awareness and willingness to ‘experiment, develop and consolidate’; a perspective supported by earlier research (Briggs, 2002; Muijs *et al*, 2006) where there is also an assumption that critical reflection is an automatic component of the process, and Kolb (1974) who argues that if we are to experience effective and sustainable learning, reflection has to be part of the process.

The barrier (for some MET leaders) in adopting this theoretical paradigm , is that reflective traits seem less developed in MET leaders and they appear to display less awareness of these areas than Inman’s (2007) sample. This finding will be discussed in the following section on leadership styles and indicates a clear development need which will be addressed below.

Research Question 3: reflection and style

The discussion above relating to the first RQ outlined two points concerning MET leadership. The common thread between them appears to be an underdeveloped capacity on the part of MET leaders for ‘self-awareness’ and ‘reflection’. This aptitude is considered (Goleman, 1996; Knight and Trowler, 2001; Moon, 2002; Peeke, 2003) to be an essential component of leaders’ attributes and findings from prior research in the schools and HE sectors (Gunter, 2002; Busher, 2005; Harris, 2003, 2004, 2006, 2008; Inman, 2008) imply that practitioners there, through engaging in reflective practice, are much more aware of their roles and identity as educational leaders.

The contrast against the paucity of systematic reflection apparently engaged in by most of the MET leaders in this study, complements the evidence that there are measureable differences between MET leadership and educational leadership in general.

This indicates a development need which will be returned to below.

In relation to leadership style, Western’s (2008) model (Figure 1, p.23) provides a useful framework to discuss the shift over time in the perceived efficacy of different leadership styles and theories. Western (2008) argues that leadership styles do not disappear altogether but, rather, have a residual, if attenuated, persistence. This study sustains that position and shows that, for instance, despite a large canon of educational leadership lending support and tacit approval for transformational and distributive styles of leadership, some of the theories that were at their zenith decades ago are still being practiced in MET sector leadership today.

This finding was not exclusive: there was some evidence that MET leaders are adopting different and more contemporary styles involving distributed and dispersed leadership.

There is tentative evidence that MET leaders' identities undergo metamorphosis as they go through this career phase. 'Identity...can be seen as work in progress that weaves together the past, present and future' (Knight and Trowler, 2001:55). With agency and structure both influential in this process, it would be beneficial if the theoretical and practical implications of professional identity and social structure were made more explicit in personal development programmes. This understanding may help to smooth sector transition.

Although focused on MET leaders, there may be wider implication for people elsewhere who make a transition into, or between, different professional and educational sectors.

Another interpretation of this finding is that once-popular leadership styles are adhered to (by some) because they are considered still appropriate for this particular milieu. This would have been inculcated in MET leaders while at sea and brought ashore without consideration. There is some evidence of a 'command and control' culture in the institutions. This is almost always the case in interactions between staff and students, and sometimes the case between staff and staff, suggesting that they are linked to the professional sea-going experiences and previous identity of the leaders.

This accords with the period of 'formation' (Gronn, 1999) discussed above, and is unsurprising. This transactional behaviour relies on the positional power of the leader and, in general, has found to be less effective over time (Goleman, 1996). It also resonates with the underlying concepts of 'situational leadership' (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982) and explains the acceptance of followers' of these styles.

Furthermore, in recalling Figure 8 (p.142) showing the triadic relationship between employer, student and MET leader, it is relevant to note that leaders may be consciously adopting styles intended to appeal to industrial and commercial customers; in other

words, the styles that customers might expect and favour. Research into customers' expectations would shed light on this issue.

Some respondents evidenced a more conciliatory style that relied on facilitation, discussion and negotiation: 'knowing what makes people tick' (Interviewee S; p.255, line 413). These more transformational styles were found to be effective particularly when interacting with other, non-maritime, staff in colleges and institutions.

Most leaders in this study had come to realise the efficacy of the latter styles by experiential learning, trial and error. During the research interviews there was no introduction of any vocabulary (words such as transactional, transformational, situational or distributive leadership) that might be associated with a dialogue on the theoretical underpinning of leadership. So, one conclusion from this is that any exposure to management and leadership development is sparse, not being assimilated or not being exploited to full advantage. Alternatively it may be that any development work undertaken is focussed more on the practical rather than theoretical. This is probably welcome by managers, hence the inclusion of 'task' in the model for MET leadership development (see Figure 12, p.187).

Research Question 4: professional training and development

The relationship between leadership development and improvements in organisational performance is not proven (Muijs *et al*, 2006), yet there is considerable empirical support and encouragement for this type of work in the LSS (LSIS, 2010) which justifies its inclusion in this study.

An analysis of credentials showed that most MET leaders, prior to entering the field of education, had gained high professional qualifications implying subject specialism and

expertise, which is considered important (Briggs, 2001). Teaching qualifications were held by two thirds of the sample and nearly all had been awarded a degree. These qualifications and achievements were not matched in respect of leadership and management where less than half had undergone some form of development - even after being appointed to a leadership role. This is broadly in line with Muijs *et als* (2006) findings which raises questions about the success of LSIS in their efforts to encourage leadership and management development during the intervening five years.

Since MET straddles the FE/HE divide, Knight and Trowler's (2001) seven point taxonomy on 'types of knowledge', introduced above, was useful in explicating the findings. The following paragraphs introduce Knight and Trowler's (2001) domains with their relevance to MET leaders' learning.

The first domain infers learning from interaction with significant people and critical incidents. The findings were inconclusive (see p.178) since significant people featured prominently in the leaders' accounts but critical incidents less so. The possible reasons for this were discussed above and would need to be considered in any future research. In particular perhaps the interview schedule would need to be more incisive in order to elicit data.

The research supports Knight and Trowler's (2001) assertion that leaders learn from people around them. They suggest also that formal learning (by attendance on courses, for instance) is important in acquiring this type of learning. The MET leaders in this study had some clear ideas of the areas they wanted to learn (Table 12, p.131) but were not as forthcoming on the method or andragogy required to deliver the learning.

The third domain (Knight and Trowler, 2001) is concerned with gaining educational knowledge and an awareness of context. This is greatly significant for the leaders in this

study since they have undergone a transition from one cultural milieu to another. The study revealed strong evidence suggesting most MET leaders found this transition challenging and difficult. The absorption of a new culture was time consuming and there were implications for self-identity and leadership strategy as styles had to be adjusted to fit the new context.

In reviewing their life histories, MET practitioners had been students themselves where they had been exposed to educational leadership, sometimes decades before (see Table 10, p.112). The leadership styles they were subjected to at that time were invariably transactional and based on autocratic command and control models. These styles were then reinforced at sea and so it is perhaps not surprising that the same styles surface in MET institutions as these individuals re-enter the educational world. It explains, to some extent perhaps, why much MET leadership style reflects the earlier time frames of Western's (2008) model.

MET leaders join a small sub-set of the LSS in different educational institutions, representing FE, HE and private institutions. They are responsible for delivering a relatively small (and little understood) curriculum area. Combining these factors, it is possible to tentatively conclude that they represent layers of uniqueness at every stage in the process. Arguably, it is therefore not surprising that MET leaders feel challenged with regard to their social identity in interactions outside their own domains.

Thus, gaining contextual (educational) knowledge is a crucial phase in a MET leaders' development and this study strongly reinforces Knight and Trowler's (2001) third domain.

The fourth and fifth forms of knowledge include conceptual and process knowledge. The leaders in this study suggested a training need in this area (Table 12, p.131) but

were unsure how it should be delivered. Knight and Trowler's (2001) concern is that a linear course may not be sufficiently differentiated to meet the requirements of a diverse sector. In other words, a prescribed, linear curriculum may be too blunt a delivery instrument. This small-scale research concurs with this analysis since MET provision is far from homogenous across the UK. For instance, leaders with identical job titles will have different roles and responsibilities from one institution to another. Again, it is likely that the outcomes expected from any intervention will be different from one establishment to another.

The sixth and seventh knowledge areas are, according to Knight and Trowler (2001) concerned with situational and tacit learning. They suggest that this is best learned on the job. The leaders in this study shared that view, saying that shadowing and mentoring were effective methods of learning.

The overall conclusion is that any form of development, however delivered, would be more effective if tailor made for MET leaders and delivered discretely. I have developed a model for MET Leadership Development (see Figure 12, p.187) that marries the essential components of curriculum, identified by the leaders themselves and also by Knight and Trowler (2001), while introducing the essence of Kolb's (1974) Learning Cycle.

This could form the framework for a bespoke leadership development programme. Since there is little correlation between institutions with reference to individuals' job titles, roles and functions, generic programmes are unlikely to be effective. This explains why the bespoke element is crucially important.

Implications of the findings to the overall study

Since the creation of CEL in 2002, and its successor the Quality Improvement Agency (QIA) in 2009, there has been an increase in the research and knowledge about leadership in the LSS; however this has been largely generic and so this study represents the first to have specifically researched MET leadership. This is sufficiently important and different from generic LSS leadership to warrant special treatment, as the following paragraphs outline.

Firstly, MET leaders' educational journeys are not conventional as they had all started work in different careers with no aspirations of educational leadership, reaching their positions mainly through chance. So, the degree of altruism and educational vocation may be attenuated in comparison with practitioners in other educational sectors. There are tenuous similarities with the HE sector, where leader/academics are occasionally recruited from outside academia, but almost none with the compulsory education sector (schools) where the career path to educational leadership is well established.

Secondly, MET leaders come under strong and relentless pressure from commercial, educational, institutional, regulatory and statutory bodies. While this may occur in other vocational educational areas it has not come to light in the literature, to the same extent, in other educational sectors.

Thirdly, MET leaders' followers are all highly experienced and qualified, thus presenting leadership challenges.

So, taking these three strands into account, it can be stated with some degree of certainty that MET leadership, at least in this sample, is distinct from educational leadership in general. This finding may be used to positively influence the content and delivery of personal development programmes.

The study has revealed the importance, on their eventual career choice, of leaders' early lives, their upbringing, and the influences that were brought to bear as they grew up. Family values and a strong ethos of uniformed, service tradition epitomise most of the respondents' early lives raising interesting questions over the relative importance of agency and structure.

The first careers of these educational leaders, in some cases measuring many decades, are significantly influential over their behaviours and allow strong social identities to be forged. It may be concluded that current leadership styles and behaviours (in an educational context) borrow considerably from that phase in their lives.

Literature on the way in which leadership skills and behaviours have been acquired (Knight and Trowler, 2001) starts mainly when individuals are already *in* an educational leadership role or at least aspiring to it. This research has shown that it is possible that in the MET sector, this is the wrong starting place, since leadership styles have already become embedded; from this perspective it is important to take whole careers into account as well as early lives.

The research confirms that stages of leadership (Gronn, 1999; Ribbins, 2003) have some relevance to MET leaders but the model is not sufficiently nuanced to take into account these early and first-career activities. I have therefore contextualised Gronn's (1999) model in an attempt to show how the formation and accession stages, in particular, may be iterative as opposed to being a simple linear process.

A significant finding is that MET leaders found the transition difficult from one leadership culture to another. This difficulty may be exacerbated by the reported lack of reflection, since leaders spend little time in asking 'why'. It is posited that if this attitude was encouraged it would improve their sector transferability.

This qualitative study has sought to answer how, where, when and why maritime professionals decided to enter the world of education and thence to positions of educational leadership. The research data comprises the lived reality of the respondents and is therefore authentic and valid.

It has discovered that many decisions seem to have been made by chance and that systematic career planning (with educational leadership as a goal) does not occur. Why this should happen within institutions whose missions include facilitating the career goals of others remains to be discovered, but it reflects to some extent similar findings in the HE sector (Inman, 2007).

Interviews were conducted with twenty MET leaders throughout the UK, representing about a quarter of all MET leaders in the country. This research therefore cannot claim to be entirely generalisable and the evidence cannot be extrapolated to cover the entire population. However, the sample size is large enough to be able to provide tentative answers to the research questions and to provide information that may help others in their quest for leadership and management skills by helping them make better-informed decisions and pursue relevant development opportunities. It will also help MET leaders' institutions design programmes tailor-made to MET leaders' requirements.

The importance of significant people in the leaders' lives was strong though a similar effect from critical incidents was not recorded. This in itself is not evidential that critical incidents were not present but could have been a shortcoming in the interview schedule. Any future research should address this point.

It was apparent that much leadership and management development is experiential and self-taught. Some of it is 'gut instinct' (Interviewee S: p.249, line 134) and leaders have

to relinquish styles of leadership that were appropriate at sea, and find new ones that work in their new educational surroundings.

Little management training or development seems to occur during the phase in MET practitioners' careers when they might reasonably be thinking about promotion and, even post-accession this is still not a significant amount.

Given the difficulty seafarers report in managing the culture shift in coming ashore, it is recommended that institutions should consider recruiting potential MET staff *before* they have decided to leave their sea-going employment. If that were to occur, prospective lecturers could be encouraged to follow a course of study in parallel with their sea-going career which would include cultural awareness. This could be bolstered by part-time teaching in institutions when they are on leave from sea. By the time they are in a position to finally 'come ashore' this process would already have started the assimilation and understanding of the new culture.

The contribution

From this qualitative research we now know how MET leaders in the sample learned to lead and what they find difficult in reaching a position of educational leadership. Four fundamental areas, in answer to the research questions, have been addressed:

- roles, leadership and differences;
- life journeys, influence and chance;
- reflection and style;
- professional training and development.

These have been critiqued against a wide background of educational leadership theory and practice.

It has led to a conceptual framework (see Table 14, p.158) which builds on earlier work (Gronn, 1999; Ribbins, 2003) by explicitly nuancing MET complexities. To address these I have devised a possible model for personal development (see Figure 12, p.187) which conflates previous work (Kolb, 1974; Knight and Trowler, 2001) and which will move towards satisfying the very different development needs of aspiring and incumbent MET leaders. It will also greatly assist curriculum designers and facilitators in creating development programmes for MET leaders.

The research clarified our understanding about:

- the importance of significant people and early experiences in leaders' lives;
- the difficulties in transition from a seagoing career to one in Maritime Education and Training;
- the complexity, range and roles of UK MET leaders together with the lack of consistency in those roles from one institution to another;
- how MET leaders learn to lead, first at sea, and then in education;
- the desirability of in-house bespoke training and development which includes reflection and self-awareness;
- how the model of stages of development (Gronn, 1999; Ribbins, 2003) is insufficiently nuanced for direct applicability in the MET sector.

This will assist and be informative to MET leaders in post; prospective MET leaders including those still at sea who may be contemplating a career in education; MET

students who may gain a deeper appreciation of their teachers and mentors; shipping companies and other clients who send students to institutions; statutory authorities who police and audit maritime institutions; educational bodies who are responsible for ensuring educational standards; institutions' senior management who are responsible for appointing MET leaders and finally, those responsible for designing, delivering and assessing the impact of development interventions.

Further research

Firstly, for logistic and pragmatic reasons this research programme was limited to a sample of UK institutions whose students strive for CoCs. There are other institutions that employ former seafarers and the research could usefully be widened to include them. Broader still, seafarers come ashore into a multitude of non-educational jobs (for example: pilotage, management and law). It would require considerable resource to investigate pathways and transition in these other sectors but nonetheless most worthwhile.

Secondly, the merchant service is international and it would be informative to know if these findings are replicated overseas. Other countries have different educational systems and their MET practitioners may arrive in post through a variety of routes. The author is in contact with maritime institutions in New Zealand, Australia, India and Ireland, and also the World Maritime University (WMU) in Malmö, Sweden, seeking collaboration at an international level.

Thirdly, it is likely that there are other vocational sectors in the UK whose education providers face the same sustained pressure from a wide range of external bodies. It would be informative to approach these sectors (for example mining, health, finance) to discover (a) if the pressures are similar and (b) what strategies they have developed to

cope and (c) whether there are any lessons that can be learned to improve the leadership and management of MET leaders?

Fourthly, it would be useful to follow up any staff development that is designed and delivered as a result of this initiative. As a corollary of this it would be interesting to research why institutions that are responsible for delivering management and leadership training (it is in the syllabus of Merchant Navy Officers) seem not to engage widely in it themselves.

Fifthly, the research has found some evidence to suggest that individuals are influenced by close family members and peers in their choice of career path. It would be interesting to extend the study to include MET leaders' siblings to discover to what extent, if any, these influences permeate families.

Finally, some respondents reported tension between their own departments and other stakeholders within their wider institutions. To explore this further it would probably be useful to include institutions' senior management teams and principals in any further work. This would allow a study to be made of MET leadership from the perspective of those who manage MET leaders. If there is a mismatch in perception between the leaders and led, this future research may assist in understanding it and help to improve management and leadership endeavours.

Final Summary

The broad aim of this research was to explicate the transition of seafarers and other professionals to educational leadership. What has emerged from this qualitative survey of twenty MET leaders in the United Kingdom is the importance of early lives, social identity, significant people encountered and the social mores and values experienced. They began the process of learning to lead at a very early age and it became a life-long endeavour.

The study has also confirmed the apparent absence of any prior research into MET leadership and revealed the gaps between this niche educational sub-set and its counterparts in other educational sectors. Most MET leaders in this sample have arrived in their leadership roles through a combination of serendipity and circumstance and there is scant evidence of career or succession planning.

There are steep challenges facing leaders as they move from a quasi-military culture into the more facilitative, discursive and sometimes arcane world of education. To smooth this process, it is suggested that a combination of bespoke, flexible development programmes, tailored to the specific requirements of individuals and their institutions, including mentoring and an encouragement to develop a reflective mind-set, would be immensely beneficial.

There is, in this sample, an almost complete absence of succession planning and preparation for aspiring leaders. It is suggested these aspirants may also benefit from exposition and intervention. Finally, if this intervention could be targeted at prospective MET teachers, it is hypothesised that it will be a great investment for the future and of significant benefit to individual and institution alike.

Recalling the objectives of this research project (see p.2), it may be tentatively concluded, while accepting the need for further research to validate and extend these findings that the thesis has achieved the objectives it set out to do.

Maritime Education and Training in the United Kingdom is strategically, commercially, socially and educationally important to the students, companies, staff and the wider society who benefit from its existence. By combining reflective awareness of leaders' own lives and a sensitive programme of bespoke intervention, where that is necessary, it is hoped that the sector will continue to grow even stronger in the years to come and improve the transition of those who aspire to go from ships to educational leaderships.

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The International Journal in Leadership in Education
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The Journal of Adult and Continuing Education
The Journal of Education and Work
The Journal of Educational Administration
The Journal of Educational Management Administration and Leadership
The Journal of Education for Teaching
The Journal of Further and Higher Education
The Journal of Management and Governance
The Journal of Management Development
The Journal of Management Education
The Journal of School Leadership
The Journal of School Leadership and Management
The Journal of Teacher Education
The Journal of Vocational Education and Training
The Leadership Quarterly
The Nautical Research Journal

Appendix B

Research interview letters and forms

Form 1: Request for permission to conduct Research Interviews in an Institution

Dear [Principal or equivalent]

I am reading for a Doctorate in Education at the University of Birmingham. The overall theme of my research is 'Educational Leadership' and I'm focusing on Maritime Education and Training (MET). In particular I am researching how and why MET leaders reached their current positions.

The underpinning research questions are:

1. How do MET leaders define their roles and to what extent do they consider themselves 'educational leaders'? Are there differences between MET leadership and educational leadership in general?
2. What influences do MET leaders perceive as having been important in reaching their current positions? What parts did 'chance' and 'planning' take in the development of their careers??
3. To what extent do MET leaders reflect on their own styles of leadership and which do they exhibit? Which styles are perceived to be effective and which less so?
4. What form of training or development would help them do the job more effectively? What development did current leaders receive themselves pre- and post-appointment and what development do they perceive is necessary for those aspiring to MET leadership positions?

I am seeking your formal permission to interview members of your staff who have a leadership role in Maritime Education and Training. I will negotiate with the individuals concerned with respect to times and dates. The interviews will be 'semi-structured' and conducted by me.

The interviews will last about 60 minutes. I will digitally record them and have them transcribed by a professional transcription service. I have a contractual relationship with the transcription service that includes a confidentiality clause. The transcript will be sent to the interviewee for verification. I will also make contemporaneous notes during the interviews which will help me during the analysis.

Interview files and transcripts will be stored on my computers and no one else will have access to them. People's names and the name of your institution will not be used; confidentiality is assured and nothing you say will be attributable to anyone specifically. The exception to this is if I am told about any activity that is harmful or illegal. In that unlikely case I would be obliged to inform the interviewee's line manager and any other appropriate body.

When this research project is complete you may wish to see the results and conclusions. You may choose to receive a summary report or the full doctoral thesis or both. Please indicate below which you would like.

I would be most grateful if you can agree to this and sign below to indicate that permission has been granted. If you need further information please do not hesitate to contact me.

I assent to research interviews being conducted with staff in this College/University

Name (Please print) _____ Signature: _____

Name of College/University: _____ Date: _____

I would like to receive feedback (in electronic format) on the research findings: [please tick]

in summary form: ☐ the complete doctoral thesis: ☐ both: ☐

Thank you
Chris Haughton

Form 2: Interview Request Form

Dear [Interviewee]

Planned Date of Interview: _____ Time: _____ Location: _____

Firstly, many thanks for agreeing to take part in this research project which is part of my Ed Doc programme. The overall theme of my research is 'Educational Leadership' and I'm focussing on Maritime Education and Training (MET). In particular I am researching how and why MET leaders reached their current positions.

Definitions of 'leaders' and 'leadership' are not without controversy. For the sake of this enquiry I have adopted the following criteria which I would ask you to confirm:

Criteria for 'Leader'	Please initial to confirm you meet the criteria
e. that you consider yourself a leader	
f. that you have line management responsibility	
g. that you are, or have been, responsible for aspects of operational or strategic change	
h. that you control a monetary budget	

The underpinning research questions are:

1. How do MET leaders define their roles and to what extent do they consider themselves 'educational leaders'? Are there differences between MET leadership and educational leadership in general?
2. What influences do MET leaders perceive as having been important in reaching their current positions? What parts did 'chance' and 'planning' take in the development of their careers??
3. To what extent do MET leaders reflect on their own styles of leadership and which do they exhibit? Which styles are perceived to be effective and which less so?
4. What form of training or development would help them do the job more effectively? What development did current leaders receive themselves pre- and post-appointment and what development do they perceive is necessary for those aspiring to MET leadership positions?

The interview will be 'semi-structured'. That means that I will have a schedule of questions I will put to you. This is so I can ensure consistency between different interviews. However, it also means that the interview may explore avenues of interest or significance that surface during the course of our conversation.

The interview will last about 60 minutes. I will digitally record it and have the event transcribed by a professional transcription service. I have a contractual relationship with the transcription service that includes a confidentiality clause. The transcript will be sent to you (electronically or hard copy whichever you prefer) for verification. I will also make contemporaneous notes during the interview which will help me during the analysis.

This research is in accordance with BERA²⁸ (2004) guidelines. Interview files and transcripts will be stored on my computers and no one else will have access to them. Your name and the name of your Institution will not be used; confidentiality is assured and nothing you say will be attributable to you specifically. The exception to this is if you tell me about any activity that is harmful or illegal. In that unlikely case I am obliged to inform your line manager and any other appropriate body.

When this research project is complete you may wish to see the results and conclusions. You may choose to receive a summary report or you can have the full doctoral thesis, or both. Please indicate below which you would like.

At the end of this form there is a brief autobiography. This acts by way of introduction and will save time when we meet.

I understand the purpose of the interview and give my informed consent to be interviewed. I understand I may terminate the interview at any stage and withdraw from the process.

²⁸ BERA: British Educational Research Association

Name (Please print) _____ Signature: _____ Date: _____

I would like to receive the transcript of my interview:

by hard copy: ☐ electronically: ☐

I would like to receive feedback (in electronic format) on the research findings:

in summary form: ☐ the complete doctoral thesis: ☐ both: ☐

If you have requested feedback, please insert your contact details:

Address:

Email:

A brief autobiography

[This section comprised a very brief biography of the author]

Finally

Thank you, once again, for agreeing to participate in this research enquiry. I hope the findings will help current and aspiring MET Leaders as well as those still at sea and who may be contemplating their first move ashore into this work.

If you have further questions about the interview or the process, please do not hesitate to contact me at the address below.

Chris Haughton
[address]

Tel: [number]
Mob: [number]
Email: [address]

Form 3: Interview Schedule

To the interviewee: This form is for information only; it shows the plan for the interview and lists the questions to be asked. It will be completed by the researcher and no action is required on your part.

Name of Interviewee: _____ Job Title: _____

Code: _____ Date: _____ Time: _____ Location: _____

Brief description of the interview location and surroundings:

Pre-interview

Thanks; introductions; confirm the process; ensure there is informed consent; check the form is signed; equipment check; agree a finish time.

Interview Questions

1. Are there any questions about this process you would like to ask before we start?
2. Could you please describe your current position, roles and responsibilities?
3. Do you consider yourself an educational leader? Why?
4. Looking back over your life from your earliest memories, what experiences do you think prepared you for the role of leader? (Draw on all spheres including personal, social, educational and professional).
5. Has your leadership style changed over time? If so, how do you know this and why did it happen?
6. In regard to your leadership style, which aspects have been effective and which less so? How do you know this?
7. Can you think of individuals who have had (or still have) significant influence over your career path? What did/do they do or say to have this affect?
8. What (pre- and post- appointment) formal leadership training or development have you had?
9. When and why did you decide to become an educational leader? Was your accession to a leadership role part of a planned process on your part? Have things ever happened by chance?
10. What do you do that defines you as a leader?
11. What are the similarities and differences between MET leadership and mainstream FE/HE provision?
12. What training or development do you think would be useful for leaders in similar situations as yourself? When should this happen?
13. Have you thought about the next phase of your career and how you might plan that?
14. Do you enjoy your role?
15. In addition to the information we have exchanged, is there anything more about your leadership role, and your career leading up to it, that you would like to mention?

Thank you!

Post-interview

Next step

Appendix C

Leadership labels and descriptors

As the research, writing and theorising on leadership continues to grow, so does the number and variety of labels and descriptors. This table lists the ones currently (2012) in vogue. There may be more.

Action-centred	Participative
Adaptive	Patriarchal
Authoritarian	Post-modern
Autocratic	Post-heroic
Collaborative	Post-transformational
Collective	Primal emotional
Command and control	Principle-centred
Consensual	Relational
Connected	Shared
Contingency	Servant-leader
Charismatic	Situated
Democratic	Spiritual
Dictatorial	Strategic
Dispersed	Technical
Distributed	Theory 'U'
Eco-leadership	Thought leaders
Emergent	Toxic
Expert	Trait-based
Feminised	Transactional
Great Man (<i>sic</i>)	Transformational
Instructional	Values-based
Matriarchal	Vulnerability-based
Networked	

Original source: Western, S. (2008:24). Additions by the author (2010).

Appendix D

Sample Interview Transcript: Interviewee K

- 1 Q1 Are there any questions about the process that are not clear and that you
2 need further clarification on?
- 3 A No, no.
- 4 Q Could you just say your name and your job title?
- 5 A Yep, it's [name] and my job title is Head of Department in the Senior
6 Marine Deck position at [institution].
- 7 Q2 Could you please describe your current position, roles and
8 responsibilities?
- 9 A Well I suppose I'm a head of department, which is most difficult to
10 describe. I do some teaching; I manage the curriculum, fire-fight day to
11 day problems. It could be individual student problems, staff problems.
12 Timetabling plays a big part of the management and ensuring that the
13 curriculum is delivered as per awarding body specifications. Through a
14 part of that I monitor assessment processes and as part of the
15 timetabling I look at the delivery, how many hours are allocated to each
16 subject. I observe the teaching staff, I do that once a year as part of the
17 college processes – I should do more dip-ins but it's a time issue – I
18 also carry out staff, individual performance reviews on an annual basis
19 and monitor that. I liaise closely with the staff in keeping everything
20 together, we have a good team. I have to take part in college
21 responsibilities as well. We have a College Quality Improvement
22 Forum, I'm a member of that, I get asked to attend various sub
23 committees if needed – what else do I do? Interview staff, recruitment
24 as well is something I'm involved with, meet the companies on
25 occasion, I do trips abroad and internally to meet with other clients, I'm
26 also a member of [name] where we discuss MET issues that affect
27 mainly the national issues around the syllabus and changes to the
28 syllabus, exam results are discussed. I don't know how much further
29 you want me to go.
- 30 Q Well we'll probably address some of them as we go through.
- 31 A Yes, you know when I'm asked 'What is your job?' it's very difficult
32 to...because it changes from day to day. No two days are the same.
- 33 Q What is your teaching timetable then?
- 34 A Well it varies.
- 35 Q What are you expected to do over a year say?
- 36 A I mean this week I'm not teaching at all but I tend to teach about ten to
37 12 hours a week, so it's about 300 hours. It's higher than what it should
38 be. That tends to be because of staffing shortages. We have a lot of
39 difficulty getting staff. I mean I mentioned the recruitment and that's
40 sort of ongoing but as soon as you feel you've got sufficient staff
41 someone else leaves or something. I do enjoy the teaching though and I
42 wouldn't like to give it up. I tend to teach Chief Mate navigation and
43 we had the exams this week and I get a bit of a buzz when I see that

44 I've taught them correctly, well we've done that. I get to this point and
 45 if they don't answer the questions like we've taught them that in class
 46 and I also I like to teach the other end of the spectrum as well because
 47 I've mentioned that we look at the curriculum and syllabus and we've
 48 just introduced a new curriculum for new entrants into the Merchant
 49 Navy straight from school, trainees, and I was involved in the
 50 development of the programme through IAMI and I was keen to teach
 51 on it as well to see the results of the work I suppose.

52 Q **Is that a foundation degree?**

53 A No I also teach on that but no previous to that there is a foundation
 54 degree as well but now this is the national certificate which we've
 55 started in September. Yeah the foundation degree we've had running
 56 now for three years. I was very heavily involved with that, I wrote, I
 57 literally wrote all the units I think (or modules should we call them?)
 58 for that, with consultation with the other members of staff of course. It
 59 just had to be done and with the foundation degree we're in isolation,
 60 unlike the other qualification we could share it around other institutions.

61 Q **How many staff do you manage?**

62 A Well I don't manage all of the staff in nautical studies but I've got – I
 63 don't know how many I've got – I've got about ten I think. Yeah it
 64 could vary, eight to ten, it depends on who is here but I do become
 65 involved with some of the other staff. I'm seen as the senior head of
 66 department amongst the four nautical departments and obviously I'm
 67 older and so I've been in post longer I think and [name] certainly sees
 68 me as the nautical knowledge. We had a restructuring four years ago
 69 when [name] left, so we had a Head of Faculty, he wasn't replaced but I
 70 was given the sort of seniority in a couple of increments. I don't know
 71 whether it was to keep me happy or just to say yeah well you haven't
 72 got a Head anymore but then they made [name] the [position] because
 73 they had a faculty and the two became one.

74 Q3 **Do you consider yourself an educational leader and if you do, why?**

75 A Well, yeah I suppose I do and I saw that question was coming up.
 76 Through just the experience become, I don't like to use the word expert,
 77 but in writing foundation degrees and in the past I've written HND
 78 units and I've written now national certificates units, so yeah just
 79 through experience of how students learn and what's worked in the past
 80 to what hasn't worked. Yeah, just through being here for 20 years it
 81 has...And people will ask me my opinion because of that so I suppose
 82 yes, but it's just from experience. I've not been on a course and it's
 83 learning from others before me. There has been an awful lot of good
 84 experience in the faculty before me and I've been able to draw on that. I
 85 think it's quite fortunate I was able to work with people like [names]
 86 who sort of mentored me, not formerly, but I was with them and I learnt
 87 a tremendous amount from them. Yeah, people will ask me my opinion
 88 on how this should be taught as well, so yeah; well I am, yeah.

89 Q4 **Looking back over your life, from your earliest memories, what
 90 experiences do you think prepared you for the role of leader? Draw on
 91 everything from personal, social, professional spheres.**

92 A I don't know. I suppose I'm a natural leader and if, for example, I can't
 93 think of a particular example here but if there was a group of
 94 individuals and I was in that group and things weren't happening or
 95 there was no decisions made and they can have a meeting and people
 96 are sitting there aren't they, I'd want to push, 'Look, make a decision
 97 or...' and then that's the way I am. I don't like indecision, even if it's a
 98 wrong decision well let's try it and I think that's...I'm never shy to
 99 speak and sometimes it got me into trouble.

100 Q **Have you any examples of that?**

101 A Well yeah, well one of the earliest ones I remember I was on a ship, I
 102 was second ship cadet, it was a cadet ship actually, and we were all two
 103 hours early for a standby in the middle of the night and I got a bit
 104 annoyed that someone had made that bad decision and it was on my
 105 form ultimately about not being to accept constructive criticism as well.

106 Q **OK.**

107 A Yeah but I felt someone had made a mistake and, yeah. That was weird,
 108 yeah I don't know why that stuck with me that one there but no, yeah
 109 I'm not...I get frustrated if decisions can't be made. I was in a meeting
 110 here a couple of weeks ago and they just couldn't make a decision on
 111 enrolment, it wasn't to do with my students but when students enrolled
 112 they had to bring their results or they shouldn't be enrolled and no one
 113 would say 'Right, in future, we will not enrol them unless they bring
 114 their results in' and at the meeting I was just so frustrated. I think that's
 115 the sort of person I am but with regard to coming into this particular
 116 job, I mean when I started teaching and working here in 1989 I never
 117 thought I'd end up where I...I didn't know where I was going to end up.
 118 I was young I suppose and was not really concerned and when the
 119 opportunity came along I was very, I think the wife persuaded me more
 120 than...I mean she, we talked it over quite a bit and whether I would go
 121 for it and like all jobs you're a little bit out of your depth at the start, I
 122 think, but with support of other people, like I mentioned earlier, you're
 123 able to...But you make mistakes and you learn from those mistakes but I
 124 can't think of anything else that prepared me for leadership really. It
 125 just happened, evolved.

126 Q **Who did you go to sea with?**

127 A [*company*]

128 Q **What prompted you to do that, to go to sea in the first place?**

129 A I wanted to leave home, I wanted to leave school. My father wanted me
 130 to go to university and I didn't really want to go. I wasn't enjoying sixth
 131 form.

132 Q **Are you local?**

133 A No, no. No this was in the [*region of the UK*], you know a long way
 134 from the sea, and I saw an advert in the paper and telling me Dad I
 135 fancied doing this. There was a couple of lads at school who'd gone
 136 who I'd heard about. There was a lad in the village who'd gone and
 137 he'd joined [*company*] and there was a couple of other lads at school
 138 had gone as well. I just fancied getting away, so I went, and once my

139 Father realised... 'That's okay'. You know he's always the same, you
 140 know, and 'Oh yeah' with prospects and off I toddled. Just like that.

141 Q **How old were you?**

142 A Seventeen. I was sixteen, just turned seventeen. It was probably the
 143 May and I was seventeen in the June, yeah, so I just went.

144 Q5 **Has your leadership style changed over time? And if so, how do you
 145 know this and why did it happen?**

146 A Mm. I think probably I've become more – I don't know. I don't know
 147 what style of leadership I've got, I've done these questionnaires on
 148 leadership styles, I mean I've got it in there if you wanted to have a
 149 look at it. I think it changes; it can change depending on the situation
 150 that's happening. I'm very hands off, I think – I think. I like people to
 151 take on their own responsibilities and go with their own ideas and the
 152 staff tend to like that. I don't think it's because they've been at sea but
 153 they like to be, well not left alone but they like to use their own ideas
 154 and have their own responsibility and I'm just happy for them to get on
 155 with it. I think I've always been like that I think. I'm not one of these,
 156 you know, it seems to be in our department. This is my second
 157 department I've been head of, I started off with the cadets, which I was
 158 familiar with because that's where I was teaching at the time as Senior
 159 Lecturer, I don't know how many years ago now, about eight, no less
 160 than that, six years ago, I was put into senior marine. They had a
 161 restructure and initially I didn't change anything, I just let it go. I didn't
 162 want to go in, I wasn't one of these, 'Right, let's look at all your
 163 paperwork'. If it wasn't broken I wasn't going to try and fix it and, of
 164 course, there were people there who were a bit thorny (shall we say?),
 165 older than me, been here longer than me, more experienced in that
 166 department so I think they were expecting – well I don't know what
 167 they were expecting – but for first six months I just let things...and then
 168 gradually introduced changes because it was needed rather than do it all
 169 at once. I don't mind change and I'll listen to people who want things to
 170 change. Yeah I mean I suppose I change things more for other people
 171 rather than I want to do them because if they're the practitioners, the
 172 teacher 'This isn't working' I say, 'Fine, let's try it that way. Have you
 173 got your ideas?' and then...I do change things if they don't work and I
 174 know they're not working and it affects me but I'm quite happy to let
 175 them try things and talk to me and let's go with it. Just simple things
 176 like modularising part of the curriculum or something like that, 'Let's
 177 try teaching this early and that late', 'Yeah, we'll go for it'.

178 Q **This is a question really that's linked to the first part of the interview,
 179 do you have a strategic responsibility for the way your department is
 180 heading? Would you say you have a strategic role as well as an
 181 operational role?**

182 A No not really; the strategy is whatever the MCA, MNTB decide I
 183 suppose. I think if you asked the staff, 'What is your job?' 'Our job is to
 184 get seafarers certificates of competence'. Whether that's through a HNC
 185 or a foundation degree is really beyond our role. Even when I attend
 186 MNTB or whatever to discuss the delivery it's often a done deal

187 because the government will now give funding for this so we are now
 188 going to have a foundation degree so then what do we do? I mean we
 189 go through these consultations as you know but often it's a done deal.

190 Q **Do you think that ever leads to any sort of tension?**

191 A Yes well hopefully; I would like to and we try but it's like any
 192 committee that makes a decision, it's often a hotchpotch and we wanted
 193 to change things. For example, as educationalists I suppose, as people
 194 who know, one of the classic examples was in the new scheme was the
 195 timing of when the SQA examination is done. Is it done at the end or is
 196 it done after they've delivered...? As educationalists I think it should be
 197 delivered after they've received the training or the academic content as
 198 opposed to 12 months later when it's been forgotten. With the
 199 foundation degree there was a decision made that they would not have
 200 to do any further educational training towards Chief Mate and Master
 201 and personally I don't agree with that and I think other people might not
 202 but the decision's made by people who know better. Well, [they] think
 203 they know better, and sometimes I feel decisions are made to achieve
 204 funding or to satisfy other parties without really thinking about the
 205 long-term effects. We've seen that with all qualifications, they all go
 206 around and come around. We've had NVQs, I can't believe now that
 207 people are crying about the loss of NVQs because I was around all the
 208 furore when they came in. I don't let it worry me because, you know
 209 like you said about the stress, well what's the point? Huh! I've got...you
 210 can say what you feel but I'm not one of these who'll bang the table
 211 because what's the point? Life's too short. It's pointless getting upset
 212 about that and we'll go with it. Perhaps I'm more laid back like that
 213 than I used to be, and that's with maturity. I've got young guys
 214 downstairs who want to change the world and I say 'Yeah I'd love to do
 215 it' but that's what you learn. Going back to leadership style changing,
 216 yeah maybe I've not wanted to change things too quickly, which I
 217 might have done, or don't get annoyed about these things, just let it
 218 happen and see what transpires.

219 Q6 **In regard to that style you've described, which aspects have been
 220 effective and which less so, and how do you know this?**

221 A I think, I suppose I've got a certain amount of respect so I suppose my
 222 style must be effective. I don't say I'm liked but I say respect. I think
 223 whether people like you or not if they respect you I think that means
 224 I'm effective. I mean I meet other Heads and I think some of them,
 225 because of their styles, don't have that relationship with the staff and I
 226 think without that, if your staff are working against you, ultimately it'll
 227 effect the student experience – results etc – and the client's experience
 228 as well, the customer who maybe sends people here. That's very
 229 important to me that the college or nautical studies side of it is seen to
 230 the outside world as efficient and a place where they want to send
 231 people; our reputation to me is very important. I can't affect all of it of
 232 course but – I think I've gone off on a tangent there but – if we started
 233 to lose students I think that would be less effective and we're not. Even
 234 though our pass rates are not great, which is to say nationally of course,

235 on the external examinations, students still want to come here and that's
 236 very important to me. We don't advertise at all, we don't need to; they
 237 want to come here because people at sea have told other people at sea.
 238 I'm not trying to say it's down to leadership but I think it's a big part of
 239 it. I think my leadership affects the staff and I suppose you could say
 240 that yes it must and if they're satisfied with what I'm doing they'll work
 241 better and we're not working against each other. I think if we were
 242 there'd be problems. But as to the aspects I don't know, they might say
 243 it's not effective, yeah.

244 Q **Do you ever take time out to reflect on your leadership style?**
 245 A We did a leadership style survey a couple of years ago, part of the
 246 college, and I can't remember if you'll remember...I mean I can show it
 247 if you want to have a look at it.

248 Q **That might be useful, perhaps after the interview.**
 249 A I think if I did the survey now I might have a different style. At the time
 250 things were very stressful. We'd gone through a lot of change, the
 251 college was in deep financial trouble about five years ago and then the
 252 Principal left and then people came in and told us we were rubbish,
 253 consultants and they produced a thick booklet then took the money and
 254 went away. We had a new Principal came in and he's just gone. He
 255 wanted change. He was one of the leaders who changed it, you know
 256 unlike how I've just described myself I suppose. We've got a new
 257 Principal now and it seems a lot quieter, a bit too quiet, but it's what
 258 we've been used to after four years and you know you're waiting for
 259 the big bang but it might not be like that.

260 Q **How long has the new Principal been here?**
 261 A Just since [time].

262 Q Early days.

263 A Well yes but when the other guy came in there was more movement and
 264 there were dictats coming out left, right and centre where that's not
 265 happened now; that's maybe her style, it's different. There was the
 266 restructure I mentioned with [name] taking over and then I think I was
 267 going through staffing problems, losing them that was – not just
 268 through leaving but natural wastage. It was...I can do one survey one
 269 day and then two weeks do the same survey with different answers
 270 because of your mood and emotions at the time can affect it but I can't
 271 remember, I wasn't across the middle, I was very direct. I can't
 272 remember the...I'll show you afterwards.

273 Q **Was it situational leadership?**
 274 A Yeah I think it was people now. I think I've still got the stuff.

275 Q7 **Okay, let's move onto our seventh question which was about people
 276 that may have had influence over you. Can you think of individuals
 277 who've had, or still have, significant influence over your career path?
 278 Now, what did they do – or what do they do – to influence...?**
 279 A Yeah, yeah, yeah; I mentioned the individuals who mentored me earlier
 280 and I think one I didn't mention was [name], who I worked very closely
 281 with and he, once again not on a formal...when I was teaching in cadets
 282 he was the Head of Department and I suppose he groomed me in some

283 respects, maybe subconsciously. I was his right hand man and I've
 284 already described what I'm like and I think he liked that I was helping
 285 him. I wasn't a formal number two, I think far from it, but I was keen to
 286 get on and I would always volunteer for jobs because that's who I am
 287 and if things were wrong I wanted to change them and I wanted to do
 288 stuff and improve things. I mean, for example, in the summer he would
 289 phone me at home when he got back from holiday and he was in for a
 290 week in August and I said to the wife 'I bet that's [name] on the phone'
 291 you know, 'Can you come and...?' and then I got the job and he moved
 292 into senior marine and so he taught me a lot and I learnt a lot just from
 293 watching his relaxed style I suppose. There was never raised voices –
 294 I've only raised mine a couple of times – but no it was, yeah, it was
 295 him. And then he retired and [name] was...I was quite close with [name]
 296 but less so as a major influence, less so. Yeah, I think it was with
 297 [name]. I mean for quite a few years as Senior Lecturer he was HoD
 298 and then we sat next to each other and if I had a problem I would ask
 299 him, 'How do I deal with this?' and he taught me a lot about dealing
 300 with shipping companies and difficult characters and things like that,
 301 when I'd made mistakes and he would help me clean them up as well,
 302 you know.

303 Q Was there anybody from an earlier phase, perhaps from the seagoing
 304 phase or even the school phase, that influenced where you went?

305 A Um no not really, well I don't know why I came into teaching. I left the
 306 sea, I didn't come straight into teaching when I came off the sea, I did a
 307 few years marine surveying in [location] but that job was going
 308 nowhere. It was only a small firm and I was spending a lot of time not
 309 earning money for them. I was sort of doing the sums because I knew
 310 how much we were charging for the work I was doing and it barely met
 311 the salary I was getting from them so I decided to look around for new
 312 jobs and I got this one but there was no one...I don't know why I
 313 fancied teaching and it wasn't...I suppose it was a conscious, I tried a
 314 couple of years to get a job here, unlike these days...I failed at two
 315 interviews and the third time the job was advertised I didn't even apply
 316 and then [name] phoned me up at work and said you haven't applied for
 317 this job, obviously they'd had no one...I said 'You've turned me down
 318 twice so I didn't think I was any good' but it was just the way things
 319 were in the late 80s. They were bursting with applicants so I came for
 320 an interview and got the job but no, I mean I can think of teachers at
 321 school who I thought were, you know I liked but no I don't think; it's
 322 happened by chance more than...

323 Q8 What pre- and post-appointment formal leadership training or
 324 development, if any, have you had?

325 A Eh none. Well I suppose, I mean I'm doing the BEds and CertEds
 326 there's always leadership modules isn't there and management modules
 327 so that's really, that's all.

328 Q So what qualifications have you got other than your professional ones?

329 A Cert Ed and B Ed that's all. I'm not one for...Well what I haven't, I
 330 needed to get a degree, we're all encouraged, you know obviously for

331 the job we're in. I mean I didn't even do the honours; I got so fed up
332 with it. It was during that time I went through a divorce and got re-
333 married and had more children – so that was a long course wasn't it –
334 but I had a young family, again, and it was interfering with that so-to-
335 speak and it was a means to an end. I thought I could leave with a
336 degree and you had to do a viva for 30 points and another module and I
337 thought oh I've just had enough of this. The City & Guilds was one
338 year, the Cert Ed was two years so it was five years and during that time
339 I'd worked here for a year before I started on the programme and then
340 getting divorced and re-married in that time and I had more kids so it
341 was a bit of a...the last thing I needed was more education.

342 Q A busy time.

343 A Yeah it was.

344 Q9 When and why did you decide to become an educational leader? Was
345 your accession to a leadership role part of a planned process on your
346 part? Have things ever happened by chance?

347 A I'd been here six years and I was promoted to Senior Lecturer; that took
348 a long time as well. Then I was a Senior lecturer for three and a half,
349 four years and I think I was reaching the point where the job was too
350 easy, there wasn't the challenge. I wasn't getting challenged, I wasn't
351 getting stretched; I was getting a bit bored. Things were becoming
352 mundane and I knew roles were coming up here because I knew people
353 were due for retirement and there was much discussion, with me wife
354 actually. We used to sit on a Saturday evening with a bottle of wine and
355 'Should I? Shouldn't I?' and she said 'Well of course you should'.

356 Q OK

357 A And I don't think she was just thinking about the money, I think she
358 probably knows me better than I do – they usually do don't they? You
359 know, 'Go for it', I says, 'Oh it'll be hard work and I'll lose holiday and
360 I'll have to do this...' and she said, 'Go, go' and I did so that was...It
361 wasn't really by chance, it was a decision I made to apply for it. I've
362 never been fortunate enough, like you hear some people to be, offered a
363 job without going through all that, I don't know how that ever happens
364 to anybody. I've always, as I said, I had to get...it took me three times to
365 get interviewed for here in the first place, I had three interviews before I
366 got a Senior Lecturers job and I only had two interviews for the role of
367 Head of Department. There were two jobs come up very quickly, the
368 first one I didn't get and I didn't expect to and it wasn't the Head of
369 Department's job I wanted. Things happened those days (I don't think it
370 would happen so much now) on seniority, 'He's been here the longest';
371 it wasn't a meritocracy, which I would like to think it is a bit more now.
372 People were appointed because 'You know, he's been here four years
373 now, it's time he was Senior Lecturer' or whatever. Things are certainly
374 not like now, we haven't got many people that have been here that long
375 who aren't Senior Lecturers already for example. So, yeah, it was a
376 planned thing and I don't think I've ever regretted it. I wouldn't like to
377 teach 20-odd hours a week now and be working downstairs; I suppose
378 it's what you get used to. I think I'd miss the, not the control (that's the

379 wrong word) but being in a position where I can make decisions really,
 380 to within a certain extent.

381 Q10 What do you do then that defines you as a leader?

382 A Well I suppose I'm the one that people come to with the questions. I'm
 383 the one, 'We need this doing', I'm the one who asks people to get
 384 things fixed, be it IT or student enrolments and I'm the one who they
 385 come to with the problems because they know I can fix it, or if I can't
 386 fix it I'll try and find someone who does. People look to me for
 387 guidance in other areas, you know 'This is going to happen next term,
 388 what are we going to do about it?' and I think that I suppose is...yeah. I
 389 don't know how you describe that. Mr Fix It.

390 Q You obviously mix with people from the other parts of college from
 391 time to time...

392 A No.

393 Q11 What differences or similarities do you see between MET Leadership,
 394 Maritime Education Training Leadership and mainstream FE/HE
 395 provision?

396 A Mm. I think the difference is the student body. Our students,
 397 because...Well the age difference is quite, is the major difference.
 398 We've got very few 16 to 19 year olds and all of our students, well
 399 perhaps that's the wrong word; they've all been in employment or are
 400 currently in employment and know where they're going when they
 401 finish with us. They've got their career path planned, they know what
 402 they want, we don't have attendance problems, not general. We don't
 403 have to...I mean occasionally we do, of course, but we don't have
 404 parental problems. We have the company issue, which is a big
 405 difference obviously, dealing with industry but our students, certainly
 406 the cadet body are quite disciplined; they have to wear uniform, mind
 407 the hairdresser's wear uniform, it's not dissimilar in that respect but
 408 they have an identity. So, yeah, the student body's different, which I
 409 think makes a difference between us and the other departments.

410 Q Does that make your job any easier or more difficult, compared to your
 411 colleagues elsewhere?

412 A Well it's easier in some respects but it's harder in other aspects. I mean
 413 dealing with companies is never ...it depends who they are. That used to
 414 cause me a lot more stress, the companies, when I was with cadets.
 415 We've had a restructuring since then, we've actually got someone who
 416 deals with the companies now, on an admin side. In the past you learn
 417 by your mistakes but if a cadet is struggling or failing and you fail to
 418 tell the company soon enough, one of the balls has dropped that you've
 419 been juggling and then you sometimes get the consequences 'Oh will
 420 they take their cadets away, have I lost business?' I mean we don't have
 421 recruitment problems of students. We don't have to go out and get
 422 students, I mentioned earlier, we have open days but I mean the amount
 423 of cadets we get in compared with the rest, I mean this year we took on,
 424 brand new, 40-something cadets but that's just a drop in the ocean of
 425 the other couple of hundred that are here doing the officer of the watch
 426 and are Mates on the Masters courses. The rest, they have to go and find

427 business. I mean we do go out to school, I don't personally, but we do
428 that side of it, whether we get many in from local schools – well we
429 don't is the answer. I mentioned earlier again, the funding is something
430 that we don't have to worry about too much. With the student body
431 we've got very few, or relatively few, funded students and they all pay,
432 even if they're partially funded they'll pay a certain proportion but we
433 still get, like my colleagues, we still get hammered when results are
434 down and we have to be accountable because statistics rule and that is
435 how we are judged on our performance of course so we still have that
436 similarity. I mean our exams are different, as you're aware. The
437 professional exams are slightly different in that aspect although there
438 are different issues with that. I think the whole MET structure, I
439 mentioned already, the MNTB and the MCA and that aspect I think is
440 quite unique. I believe it's quite unique. I mean it's good and bad, I
441 mean as I've already said, we can (and hopefully I can) try have some
442 influence on the curriculum but on the other side of it if someone says
443 no from the MCA that's where we stop, but which we accept, so.

444 Q12 What training or development do you think would be useful for leaders
445 in similar situations as yourself and when should this happen?

446 A Well from my own experiences it's that mentoring side of it, I think. I
447 mean it's always a resource issue isn't it? Ideally you'd have six
448 month's running with someone else. [Name's] leaving us at the end of
449 the year so we'll get someone new in and I'll ensure that that person
450 uses me as a mentor. Going back in some respects to what I said about
451 the reputation, you know, I don't want them to make a big cock-up that
452 reflects on us. Okay, I'll allow them to make mistakes, which they will
453 because they wouldn't ask me about everything, but on certain I will
454 say 'Well look, don't act in isolation.' It's simple things like letters that
455 you're sending out or reports that you're writing that's going to a third
456 party. It's going back to the likes of [name] and it's attention to detail
457 and I will pay attention, I don't want people to send things out which
458 are not right. But yeah, I mean they'll have to learn themselves but I
459 think mentoring is important.

460 Q Do you think any formal form of leadership development at any stage in
461 somebody's career would be useful, for this role?

462 A Well I didn't need it – well perhaps I do and perhaps you don't want me
463 to say that. It depends on the individual I suppose because they may not
464 be a born leader but presumably though they've gone through the same
465 process that we've discussed that I'd gone through and must have felt
466 that they wanted to do it. I mean they are obviously going to be some
467 people who would not even dream of applying for the job and I know of
468 one who's applied who I think 'Yeah' and I can see a bit of me in him
469 and I think, 'Yeah, you'd, with a bit of...', he's the one that wants to
470 change the world tomorrow. But with a bit of reining in and 'Yeah you
471 can't change it that quickly but what you can do is chip away and this is
472 a better approach than go barging in' but yeah, it's funny, he's very
473 much like me. I think he'll do well but he will need...And I don't know
474 if I needed to be reined in because by the mentoring I suppose I was, I

475 mean I can't remember that far back, whether I wanted to...I think I was
 476 not too scared, there were a lot more people around me then than there
 477 will be around a new person in the role. But formal, I mean I don't
 478 know what formal training there is and I don't know...It would depend
 479 who delivered the training. If it's from the book, I don't think anyone's
 480 written a book about the job. I couldn't write a book about the job
 481 because I mean I've had trouble describing what I do here. I think that's
 482 the trouble with courses, there is 'This is what you do when this
 483 happens', and it isn't. It's very much experience and remembering how
 484 you dealt with that the last time and 'Did you deal with it badly? 'Yes'.
 485 'Well this time I'll do it differently'. You've got to learn by your
 486 mistakes; well if you don't you wouldn't be a good leader I don't think.
 487 Q13 Have you thought about the next phase of your career and how you
 488 might plan that?
 489 A Yeah but it'll not be 'til 60, which will be to do something different,
 490 which doesn't involve being a leader perhaps. Reflecting a little bit on
 491 what we were saying this morning I may not like being led. I don't
 492 know. It's too far away. I can't, I'm not going to retire early. I don't
 493 want to move upwards or sideways really. MET is a very small pool I
 494 suppose and I don't, it would mean moving probably, which I don't
 495 want to do. I don't want to relocate, I mean the children are going to be
 496 leaving school over the next few years but I'll be mid-fifties then and
 497 I'm not...and I don't want to progress. I don't have the desire, the
 498 ambition. I get enough challenge here, which I suppose is good that the
 499 job is so varied and things change so much that I don't want to. I mean
 500 if I, the only way I can move here, in the institution, because we're so
 501 specialised and I don't know enough about mainstream FE provision,
 502 which would stop me or preclude me from Vice Principals or whatever
 503 and I haven't got the interest either, in that. It doesn't...what interests
 504 me is training seafarers I suppose and still teaching. I don't want to not
 505 teach, as I said earlier. If [name] was to leave presumably there would
 506 be a Head of Faculty job there but that would mean taking on the
 507 engineering as well and I don't know if I've got the will there; I see lots
 508 of problems there, which are too deep rooted and deep seated to change
 509 without a lot more will and would upset a lot of people and I don't want
 510 to go there really. As I say, I'm not that ambitious. A few years ago
 511 there was a Vice Principal role at [location] and I considered it but I
 512 don't want to live in [location] and the money was more, obviously, but
 513 I just thought no. The next phase of my life career would be, yeah,
 514 retire and do something different. Well not retire but leave but not stop
 515 work, I'd like to...I mean I want to do something totally different. I
 516 haven't got the desire to stay and be a part-time teacher, I'd want a
 517 clean break because I'd have had enough by then I think so I don't
 518 know what I'd do. Something outside but I don't know; it's too far
 519 away to actually plan really but I'm quite happy doing what I'm doing.
 520 I mean sometimes I'm not happy but, it's coming near the end of term
 521 and it's quite a good time perhaps to be interviewing me. If you'd
 522 interviewed me in the first week of October or September we wouldn't

523 be sitting here so relaxed. Timetables around and all that sort of thing
524 and it's, yeah, and that's what I'm saying about when you do a survey
525 or an interview, things are different depending on what's happening
526 around you. I mean this morning, one of the students, it's his last day of
527 his course he says 'I can't get on the internet' so I had to go and speak
528 to the manager of the information system and said 'Is the data right?'
529 'Yeah' and I says "Well he can't get on today" 'Oh right, well he's got
530 to go over there and...' and I thought 'Oh!' why can't you just push a
531 button or something like that? Because the systems they frustrate me a
532 lot but we've got to have them, apparently. Sorry, so sometimes...

533 Q14 **Do you enjoy your role?**

534 A I suppose yes, I mean if I didn't I don't suppose I would do it. Though I
535 suppose I don't know what else I'd do but I mean I'm sure if I said to
536 the management 'I don't want to be a leader anymore I just want to be a
537 teacher' I'm sure they wouldn't say no. But I don't know if I want to do
538 that, well I don't want to do that, I'm happy at the minute, yeah.

539 Q15 **So, the last question is, in addition to the information we've exchanged,**
540 **is there anything more about your teaching role, your career leading up**
541 **to it or are there any questions I haven't asked which I should have**
542 **asked that you'd like to bring in now?**

543 A I don't think so. Do you categorise leadership styles? I mean once again
544 they're from books aren't they? I suppose it's off the subject here but
545 just out of interest, if you interview five and six people do you pigeon
546 hole them or is that...?

547 Q **That's not really the purpose.**

548 A No it's just we're on about style, the style, I mean I suppose people
549 write books and say this is yours..I think one thing; I mean if you look
550 back further, I think the way things have changed within education I
551 think had affected the way people have had to lead. I mean I used to be
552 five of us up here and now there's two, you know and that approach and
553 that was historic, I don't know how long, but I mean I don't if other
554 institutions have had had restructuring and change and due to
555 economics basically, I mean economics drive education more now more
556 than what they used to perhaps, although money's always been a side of
557 it.

558 Q **It just remains to say thank you very much indeed for your time.**

559 A No problem

Sample Interview Transcript: Interviewee S

1 Q For the purposes of the tape, would you state your name and your
2 job title please?

3 A I'm [name] and I'm the [job title] of [name of Institution].

4 Q1 Thank you very much. Right, it's in connection with my Ed Doc
5 which you know. The first question, it's a semi structured interview
6 which means that there is a framework of questions which we'll
7 work down, in the interests of consistency. I would like to contract
8 confidentiality up front. Everything you tell me will be
9 anonymised; names of institutions and names of individuals will be
10 taken out. You might recognise comments but nobody else would
11 know that they came from you, they wouldn't be attributable. Are
12 there any questions about this process you would like to ask before
13 we start

14 A No

15 Q2 Could you please describe your current position, roles and
16 responsibilities?

17 A Okay well I'm currently I'm Head of [name] which is one of the
18 two schools based at the campus. [name] deals with school leavers
19 embarking on a career at sea and encompasses all the stages and
20 ensure courses from that inception to Master Mariner. My
21 responsibilities within the campus are to ensure that we have
22 strategic direction, also to monitor and self assess the performance
23 of the school against national and school, college criteria. I have
24 budgets to work to and staffing to maintain. I think mainly day to
25 day running, would be to make sure that the unit is running
26 smoothly, with all the aspects that impinge upon the unit which
27 could range anything from the accommodation through to
28 certification processes. On a monthly, yearly basis to make sure
29 that the colleges have balance between, or the campus has a
30 balance across the range of portfolio subjects and areas that we
31 teach on. So there would be a balance of overseas students to home
32 students, a balance of Master Mariners and Chief Mates to Officer
33 of the Watch and cadets, and a balance of foundation degree
34 students against alternative routes.

35 Q Okay. So would you say your role is both strategic and operational?

36 A Yeah.

37 Q And would you be able to give any sort of rough split as to how
38 much do you spend on what against the other?

39 A Operational I would say that it's probably about 90 per cent
40 because it's important to keep the train on the track and ten per cent
41 on strategy. But the strategy depends upon the constraints within
42 the college and also the direction of the Government and the
43 Merchant Navy Training Board.

44 Q So would you, within that then, would you say you have relative
45 autonomy within the school, to decide direction of the school?

46 A Yeah.

47 Q Within the college constraints?

48 A Yes very much so.

49 Q And how much do they want to get involved in that? The college as

50 a whole?

51 A Very little.

52 Q Right.

53 A It's a question of if it ain't broke don't fix it.

54 Q Right. Do you have a role outside the school, do you have a cross

55 college or...?

56 A I have a number of roles outside of the school. If we look within

57 the college itself, I sit on the [name], I sit on the [name], I sit on the

58 [name] and I also work with new technologies, there's a strategic

59 team for that as well, but that's within the college, outside of the

60 college I sit on [name] and I sit on the [outside body].

61 Q So it sounds as though there's an externally facing responsibility as

62 well as an internally one, internal facing responsibility.

63 A Yeah.

64 Q And do you still have a teaching timetable?

65 A I don't have a formal timetable set, but step in as and when

66 required.

67 Q Would you be able to give any sort of annual figure on the hours

68 you might put in?

69 A It's somewhere between 50 and 100 hours I would say. It's also

70 worth mentioning that I'm the lead lesson observer for the campus

71 as well, or for the school, in that I will partake probably about

72 60/65 per cent of all lesson observations that happen in the campus.

73 Q Is that an important part of your strategic or your operational role?

74 A I think both, it fits both criteria. For operational I feel I need to

75 know at what standard my colleagues are at so from an operational

76 point of view. From a strategic point of view, I can help guide my

77 colleagues as to where the college is going, particularly with

78 regards to audits and inspections. Because the framework is

79 changing constantly, particularly Ofsted. Their focus for their

80 inspectors, as I say, it's constantly changing from what was

81 exceptional 12 months ago and is now the norm.

82 Q3 Do you consider yourself an educational leader and, if so, why?

83 A Yeah I do. I believe that you can look at the job, this job that we do

84 in two ways, you can look at it as imparting information or you can

85 make it a worthwhile and enjoyable experience. So whenever, if

86 you put that down, if you turn around and say there's a syllabus,

87 there's a timetable, you deliver it in that time, then you fulfil that

88 part of the deal. On the other hand from my point of view where I

89 sit, I think I'd like to see that the educational exposure, the

90 educational experience is more than a nine to five process. So yeah

91 I think so. I think since I took the Chair seven and a half years ago,

92 that's been my focus, to make sure that the students that come

93 through feel wanted, part of a family, that they have a rounded
94 education, and not just being trained.

95 Q4 Looking back over your life, from earliest memories, what
96 experiences do you think prepared you for the role of leader and
97 please draw on all spheres including personal, social, educational
98 and professional.

99 A I think if we start right from the beginning I don't think I ever
100 really had any aspirations to be a leader. I think I just wanted to
101 enjoy what I did, provided that I always had it in my mind that if I
102 didn't enjoy it I wouldn't do it. I enjoyed my life at sea, I enjoyed
103 what happened there. With regards to the leadership side, it never
104 really emerged, it never came out. Even when I came to [*the*
105 *college*] and worked here, leadership was not really in my mind at
106 all. All I wanted to do was do the job the best that I could and enjoy
107 doing it, that was the top and bottom of it really. What formed my
108 role at the moment, how I got here, was ambition I think to see a
109 change. I would see things happening that I was being directed to
110 do and I would think 'mmm, I think I would like to try that a
111 different way, thank you very much' And so by going through
112 promotion it allowed me to do that, it allowed me to try ways. And
113 touch wood, it's worked quite well. I've had a lot of successes I
114 think, I believe, I'm sure of it. I mean if you look at the college at
115 the moment, if you look at the way it's risen over the last seven
116 years, I'm not saying it's all my doing because you know we're a
117 team at the end of the day, but we've risen from £xx turnover,
118 seven years ago to £xx last, so that's an incredible change, with
119 very few hiccoughs along the way, which to me is an indicator that
120 we're doing it right. And I say we in the broadest possible meaning,
121 because everybody is involved in this, all my job is, is to make sure
122 if that's the track that I believe we should be on and that's informed
123 by the external bodies, it's formed by work with my colleagues
124 from other colleges, if that's the track we should be on, let's try it
125 and if it's working, let's add to it and add to it and just keep tapping
126 it back online so aspirations to be a leader, I never had them. Have
127 I got them? I'd like to think so, I'd like to think that people look up
128 to things that I've done, I'd like to believe that they recognise what
129 I've done. People are very quick to, well I say people, I'm
130 generalising now, but I find that often you'll be told you've done
131 something wrong but very rarely told you've done something right.
132 The same thing applies to our training in these jobs, you're
133 promoted into a position where there is no formal training and you
134 go by your gut instinct, you go by informed decision, you go by
135 whatever it might be and I think that for me anyway, it's been a
136 gradual but progressive process and I think at the moment, we're in
137 a very good position and I'd like to think that I've had a hand in
138 that.

139 Q How old were you when you went to sea?
140 A 17.

141 Q And how many years at sea before coming ashore?
 142 A 14.
 143 Q And then how many years, sort of serving your apprenticeship here
 144 before you took on a leadership role?
 145 A I had an interim period between leaving sea and coming here. I was
 146 seven years in [name] which is a [type of] company.
 147 Q OK.
 148 A And again that, I started there as an under manager and I was with
 149 [name] for three years before the manager left and then I had four
 150 years on my own. But that wasn't a very pleasant experience, it
 151 wasn't a very, what's the word? It didn't formulate me at all, it was
 152 a question of there's your office, there's your budget, get on with it.
 153 And you had to make your own decisions without any direction. A
 154 little anecdote, I once got to a position where I could see we were
 155 having problems and the industry was on the way down, I went to
 156 one of the directors, my directors and said "excuse me, can I come
 157 and see you?" "Yes". Went across and I said "look we're running
 158 into a bit of a problem here". I could see it coming up in the next
 159 12 months, "there's going to be a problem. I really don't have the
 160 knowledge to direct the office in the right direction, I have ideas, I
 161 wonder if you could direct me and help me" That's how I believed
 162 it and I was basically told to get on with it and you know live or die
 163 by your own sword sort of thing. As it turned out we got through
 164 that patch but so the seven years there, coming here, back to your
 165 question, how long was it before I took a leadership role? I would
 166 say probably three years, two to three years.
 167 Q And what prompted you to go to sea?
 168 A A good question. I've always fallen back on the idea that I'd
 169 finished, I had no real direction, I didn't know what I wanted to do,
 170 I had different ideas at school. And I waited to see what results I
 171 had, there was no, I didn't do the subjects with a goal in mind, I
 172 took the subjects because I enjoyed them and then when I passed
 173 them, I looked, where does this fit? And I remember distinctly I
 174 was looking in the [local newspaper] and it said 'Have you got five
 175 GCEs? And I said yeah. And it said ring this number. So I rang that
 176 number and it was the British Shipping Federation.
 177 Q And here you are...
 178 A And here I am. And it's as simple as that but I've got to say there
 179 is a background though. Because my grandfather was in the Navy,
 180 his brother was in the Navy, my father had a great friend from
 181 [place] called [name] who was in the Navy and I can remember my
 182 dad taking me down the docks and meeting [name] off the ship and
 183 so I think somewhere down the line there, there is a, the seeds were
 184 planted very early in my life.
 185 Q Yeah?
 186 A Yeah so. Coming from [place] there's a pretty strong tradition
 187 there...you looked down our street and all the ships were at the
 188 bottom of the road. They were just there and you'd see them going

189 backwards and forwards. I think my earliest memory was the smell
 190 of the seaweed and the diesel oil or the fuel oil I could smell from
 191 the ships as they were alongside and this guy [name] telling me
 192 about his voyages.

193 Q So were you drawn...?

194 A Yeah, I think if I'm honest it was a little bit of both, a little bit of
 195 fortune, I had the qualifications and I had the background there.

196 Q5 Has your leadership style changed over time and, if so, how do you
 197 know this and why did it happen?

198 A Yeah it has changed. I think the early leadership style that I had
 199 was more authoritative. And I would direct people to do things and
 200 that brought with it, was fraught with conflict. Now, I'm more of a
 201 pacifist, I will now go and sit next to somebody and talk it through
 202 and the job will get done much quicker and much better. Does that
 203 make sense?

204 Q When did that happen and what prompted it?

205 A I think it happened when I actually took this role on here. The role
 206 I'm in at the moment because prior to that I'd been directed by
 207 somebody above. And I'd put my ideas in and I'd say "this is what
 208 I think we should do" and very much supported by my previous
 209 bosses, if you like, but when I took this role I was very much on
 210 my own and there's a question of how can I make this work? And
 211 that seems to work.

212 Q6 In regard to that style, then, which aspects have been effective and
 213 which less so and how do you know this?

214 A The collaborative side of working with people has been the most
 215 effective. Being able to bring somebody on board as a true team
 216 member and for them to do the job for the right reasons, to do the
 217 task for the right reasons, to understand without giving all of the
 218 detail away, but to understand the reason and purpose behind what
 219 we're doing. There's also a level of trust, people will say "I've
 220 been asked to do this, I know this man, I trust him we're going to
 221 do it". How do I know it's working? Well, if I look back over my
 222 time here and I look back at those conflicts I mentioned just
 223 previously, then they used to affect me quite badly. Nobody likes to
 224 be challenged in a conflict way. Now I find that people will come
 225 and ask my opinion and say "What do you think about this? What
 226 do you think about that? Is that okay?" It's almost like coming of
 227 age if you like where you hit a point where all your experience and
 228 all of your dealings with people is starting to level off, where now
 229 you can avoid those fumbling mistakes that you've made earlier.
 230 That's a good way of putting it I think.

231 Q Can you remember any specifics where it didn't go right and where
 232 you think, that's got to change, have you got an example where it
 233 has gone right? You don't have to mention names of course.

234 A Okay. Well if I think about one particular person who works here
 235 with me, I can remember being quite disturbed by their work
 236 ethics. The man did a good job, still does, does a very good job, but

237 not the way I like it to be done. Two different people. And I sort of
238 took it upon myself to turn round and say “look this is the way I
239 really want it to work, you know at the end of the day it’s my head
240 on the block, it’s my bottom in this seat, I want you to do it this
241 way” which brought conflict because the chap felt he was being
242 directed, well he was being directed to do that job, because that’s
243 the way I want it to go and that’s the way I felt it should go. Now,
244 the same person is still here but now what I do is I’ll sit him down,
245 give him a cup of coffee and say “right okay, this is an issue I’ve
246 got to solve, what do you think?” and I’ve already had the idea in
247 my head of where it should go and I’ll give him the reasons what
248 I’m thinking and how I’m going and what do you think? And by
249 and large that same person now will make the same decision but
250 voluntarily. So there’s an example. But there’s also, and you will
251 come across it yourself, there are people who refused to be
252 managed and that is, I really don’t know how to handle that,
253 particularly if they’re in authority, next level down for instance
254 where somebody just absolutely refuses to be managed. That’s a
255 difficult problem; I never did really solve that one to be honest.

256 Q7 Can you think of individuals who’ve had or still have a significant
257 influence over your career path? What did they do, or what did they
258 say to have this effect?

259 A People that had an influence on my career path, here at college?

260 Q Anywhere, right through your development, can you think of
261 individuals who’ve had significant influence over your career path?
262 So they might still be having significant influence or they might
263 have had it in the past...

264 A Okay. Let’s see, when I first started off, one of my very close
265 friends was killed, and I sort of had it in my head at a young age
266 that I was going to carry on and complete. I was sad to see him go
267 but I said “well no, I’m going to carry on and do this” so that
268 influenced me, I wanted to show him that I could do it. And that
269 was one of the things. Who else? When I got into sea going mode,
270 there was a chap who when I was doing my [course] who was in
271 the same class as me, who influenced me to come on the coast
272 rather than go deep sea. And he influenced me by telling me that
273 well you are only doing one month or two months away and you
274 can phone home every night and you invariably tie up over night,
275 you can go and have a beer or have a meal and I was used to doing
276 nine months at sea with [name] so there was that, that influenced
277 me. And it wasn’t a bad move; you know I saw a lot of different
278 ships and a lot of different parts of the life. Who else? Moving on
279 to when I got my [grade] certificate, there was a [rank] I’d sailed
280 with, I was [a rank] and he showed me process, I’d been a bit
281 scatter brained before then but he showed me process and how to
282 do [tasks] and that influenced me and whilst we didn’t get on
283 particularly well, I appreciated that. We are talking career aren’t
284 we? In the [name] industry, there was one person, the director I

285 mentioned earlier, that influenced me incredibly in a negative way,
 286 because he was an absolute out and out one person that you just
 287 didn't want to know. I didn't think... he had no morals at all in my
 288 opinion. And it had a reverse effect in that I thought I'll never let
 289 that happen to anybody that I'm working with so I picked the bad
 290 points that he'd done and decided it wasn't going to happen whilst I
 291 was there. At my college here, whilst I've been here, who's
 292 influenced me here? [name] did. [name] may not have realised it
 293 but they did. They had an incredible influence on me when they
 294 were here. I had a lot of respect for the things that they did and the
 295 way they went about them and the way they thought about them
 296 logically. I didn't always agree with everything but having said that
 297 I mean they did. And I'm saying that honestly. Other people here,
 298 well my current boss [name] he influences me in a different way,
 299 puts a cooling feeling on it, reassures... I'm a very process driven
 300 person, I like to see things black and white, I like to see them in
 301 boxes, if I've got a concern, I'll deliberate it, I'll angst over it.
 302 [name] will come along and put a soothing balm over it and say
 303 "don't worry about it, it's okay, it's fine, nobody's going to die, it
 304 doesn't matter" and you need that little bit of a calming influence.
 305 So yeah, here now I think that's about it really. Of the ones, the
 306 major players in my life, I think from sea to there, they're the ones
 307 that have ...I observe and draw strength from seeing how other
 308 people operate and you pick and choose from that what you think is
 309 effective...I mean people say to me, and it's not just one or two
 310 passing comments, I've had people come up to me here and say
 311 "you're very..." and people, counsellors, [name], he's quite an
 312 experienced counsellor, he turned around to me, he said, "one of
 313 the greatest strengths that you've got is your ability to sit somebody
 314 down, talk them through something and calm the situation, get to
 315 the root cause of the problem and solve it". He said "that's one of
 316 the biggest strengths that you've got" he said "you're wonderful at
 317 it". And I've heard a couple of people say similar things. I don't
 318 lose my temper very often and that's always a good thing I think. I
 319 try not to let people get under my skin, they do but ...yeah. I do
 320 reflect on what people do. I also pick up what I don't like and try
 321 not to do that too.

322 Q8 What pre- and post-appointment formal leadership training or
 323 development have you had?

324 A Well, in terms of leadership training, the only ...I feel short on this
 325 to be honest, to be frank. Let's not forget where we came from, our
 326 roots are from the Navy where we had a very measured way, where
 327 you had a boss he had a boss he had a boss, it was very much
 328 where the Captain says "you do", come hell or high water there
 329 was no arguing with it and so you became, I felt I became, I
 330 shouldn't talk in general terms but I became somebody who was
 331 compliant, my boss told me to do it and I would do it because I
 332 respected his abilities, his knowledge, his experience and he's been

333 there before. I'd learnt from that. What team work or leadership did
 334 I get? Very little. If you think about Bridge Team Management I
 335 did that yeah, and I taught it for a long time so that informed me.
 336 And just coming back to your comment a minute ago there where
 337 you said you take from people, when I think about the biggest
 338 enjoyment I got working in the simulation unit was that you'd get
 339 these people with different experiences and different ways of
 340 dealing with ...and you could suck off little bits, you know draw
 341 down, I liked that, that worked, that's good and so there was that, it
 342 was sort of...in the college itself it's always been a bone of
 343 contention for me that you're promoted into a position and you're
 344 not given the training to do that job. Now okay you've been
 345 promoted up there because you've shown the right attributes,
 346 you've shown the right direction, the right ideas perhaps or maybe
 347 your face fits or maybe it's just that you're saying the right things
 348 that fit within the corporate image, I'm not sure. But one thing
 349 that's always bothered me is that you're then let go to do this job
 350 without any formal training and that worries me a little bit because
 351 there are going to be people that will turn round and say "I need a
 352 hand with this" but there will be people that don't. And I think
 353 that's a mistake. I think there should be something there so
 354 leadership, not an awful lot to be honest, but I'd like to think that
 355 through natural progression, it's developed. That's what I think.

356 Q In addition to your Master's Certificate what qualifications do you
 357 have?

358 A Well I've got a BSc Hons in Education and Training and I've got a
 359 certificate in Management Studies CMS, I couldn't finish the DMS
 360 off because I took over this post, this role and I had to chop that
 361 course out. And I've got an ONC which I got when I did my
 362 Second Mates whether that counts.

363 Q Cert Ed?

364 A Cert Ed yeah.

365 Q9 When and why did you decide to become an educational leader?
 366 Was your accession to a leadership role part of a planned process
 367 on your part or have things happened by chance?

368 A I think it's by chance to be honest, if I'm truthful. I never had any
 369 great ambition to be [job title], that was never my ambition, but the
 370 way things unfolded in the unit, when you look at a position of
 371 authority coming up whether it's curriculum leader or a curriculum
 372 manager or whatever it might be and I looked sideways and I think
 373 well if I don't do it who is going to do it and I would rather be there
 374 than having somebody else telling me what to do, to be honest.
 375 When I look at who those peers might be and I think to myself 'no
 376 I don't think so'. And so that's why I put myself forward for it and
 377 that's just gathered along. And the most recent one, into [job title]
 378 was almost by default, the head left, we were going through serious
 379 problems with regards to racism and the college turned round and
 380 said "we can't think of anybody better, will you take on the role?"

381 There were no formal interviews, nothing, just straight in, so that
 382 was it and that's what happened. So I don't even have any great
 383 ambitions to take over from my boss at the moment to be honest
 384 with you, but I'm sure it will come within the next year or two,
 385 something will knock on the door.

386 Q10 What do you do that defines you as a leader?

387 A If I interpret that as being what are the qualities that I think makes
 388 me a leader, would that do?

389 Q You can define it in any way you want really. I'm trying to get to
 390 the nub of what you think you do.

391 A That makes it work.

392 Q That gives you that leadership.

393 A Okay. I think that leading by example is important. I think that I try
 394 and lead by example, I wouldn't do anything that I don't expect my
 395 staff to do, not to do if you know what I mean. I challenge people
 396 who step outside of the norm and I don't have a problem with that.
 397 I remember turning round to somebody the other day, just in a
 398 conversation like this and saying "you know I have to wear two
 399 heads, I have to wear a friend head and I have to wear a manager
 400 head and I could talk to you as a friend now but you know when we
 401 need to do things that are for the good of this unit and everybody
 402 within it, whether it's the students, the staff, the support staff,
 403 whatever it might be, I'm sorry but that friend head comes off and
 404 the manager's head goes on and that's where the true decisions are
 405 made and you have to understand that that's done for the right
 406 reasons". So what makes me, what do I think makes leadership, for
 407 me, it's the example. I like to think it's fair, no favours one above
 408 the other. I like to think that I can listen to somebody's reasons, the
 409 door is always open, they can come in and ask. Anybody can come
 410 in and talk things through with me. I like to think that I'm
 411 observant; I like to think that I do a little bit of management by
 412 walking about, seeing what people are about, see where they're at.
 413 Personalities, knowing what makes people tick, identifying that,
 414 know what makes them not tick, is equally important. Getting your
 415 point across without losing your temper, getting your point across
 416 so that people understand where you're trying to get to. And I think
 417 for me, key, absolute key here is that anybody that is working
 418 within this atmosphere is part of a family. And I say it on many
 419 times, we're all here doing a job, it's just that other people have a
 420 bit more responsibility than everybody else, we're all the same,
 421 everybody is. The students that come through this door, we have to
 422 embrace them and say "come on in" arm around the shoulder and
 423 say "we're here to help you get from A to B". And if we can foster
 424 that throughout the campus and we do, every person that comes
 425 here, and I mean everyone, turns round and says "oh what a lovely
 426 atmosphere, how friendly, how open, how welcoming" we all are.
 427 And I think that is something I set my heart on seven and a half
 428 years ago. And I said that it won't be a nine to five education and if

429 I think, if I try and attribute that to one thing that I've done that is
 430 one of the key things I think I've done, I've brought in an
 431 enrichment officer and made the students see that there's more to it
 432 than just nine to five study. And I'm very proud of that, I think it
 433 works very well. I'm not saying it didn't happen before, but I think
 434 it's formulated it.

435 Q11 What are the similarities and differences, do you think, between
 436 MET leadership and mainstream FE/HE?

437 A What's the main differences?

438 Q Differences and similarities between what you do and what your
 439 peers do perhaps in the rest of the college?

440 A The key difference in my opinion is that we're blessed with our
 441 students. If you compare usual FE/HE students that are recruited by
 442 the college, they're having to convince the students individually
 443 that this is the place to come to whereas from our side of things we
 444 have to convince the company that it's the right thing to do and the
 445 students will follow. So we're not having to sell ourselves to the
 446 students, we have to show the companies that we have the integrity
 447 and the professionalism to do what they want for their companies.
 448 There's one key difference. The second thing that we have is that
 449 with that sponsored student responsibility and I'm only talking
 450 about the cadets at the moment, with those students, they are, this is
 451 going to sound daft this, they're almost relieved to get back into
 452 some kind of an ordered process where they wear uniforms, where
 453 they're encouraged to be responsible, socially responsible, they're
 454 encouraged to be sociable with their colleagues and peers. I think
 455 that that is key, where everybody is on the same level playing field
 456 but we still have that sponsor if you like as, not a threat but we
 457 have the ability to go up to their sponsor and say "look now this
 458 isn't working". If we look at our colleagues that are working down
 459 in other campuses then they're encouraging the students in and
 460 they're having to live with the disobedience, they're having to live
 461 with the attitudes, all the different mindsets, they're all individuals
 462 on ... I know all students are individuals but at least we know that
 463 here, with our students that we've got students that have met a
 464 qualification criteria, they have met an attitude interview, they have
 465 got a desire to go to sea and they know that there's a consequence
 466 if they don't follow the rules. So we're blessed and we can build on
 467 that and I think that's a wonderful situation to be in because you
 468 can't beat that. You get these youngsters coming in and they've got
 469 the educational tools, they've got the knowledge, they've got the
 470 attitude, they've got the aptitude and then all we need to do then is
 471 just, I wouldn't say, mould is the wrong word, but facilitate their
 472 blossoming, if that's the word, it sounds a bit flowery I know but
 473 that's what I mean, you know. Whereas I don't know it's just the
 474 caring side, so what's the difference; well the difference is that
 475 we're blessed with our students. Where's the similarities? Well,
 476 we've still got funding to think about, we've still got HE courses to

477 think about, we've still got qualifications to think about, we've still
478 got Ofsted to think about, we've still got HEFCE, QAA, audits to
479 think about. So there's a lot of similarities down that front. Is that
480 enough?

481 Q Yes, thank you. Why are students relieved do you think to be
482 coming into a uniformed environment?

483 A I think that and it's my opinion, that if you go into a university,
484 let's say for instance, or another higher education establishment,
485 then what we have is we have the students trying to become
486 individuals, or bringing out their individuality and so you can see
487 different styles, hair, clothes, attitudes, cliques, mixing with people
488 that they're close to, that they want to be with. And so what
489 happens is that it's almost like going into small groups of people of
490 like minds. Here I think that by going into uniform then you're
491 exposing the guys and girls to all people, they get a mix and have
492 to mix with all people and I think that makes them a better and
493 rounded person from that, that's what I think. One of the key things
494 that we do I think is the team building weekend. Can you imagine
495 the class there sitting in the class where you've got 17 year olds,
496 we've got a 43 year old at the moment on cadetship, we've got
497 those sitting there and you turn round and say "right guys, we're
498 going camping next Saturday" and they'll go "oh no" but inside,
499 the little child going "oh yes please I like that idea" ((laughs)). And
500 I don't take that lightly because it's borne out when we ask them to
501 do a two sided hand written appraisal of their weekend and to a
502 person it will say how much they enjoyed it, how they're tired out
503 and we ask them what did they really enjoy doing? They really
504 enjoyed doing the fun things. I mean one of the first tasks that the
505 enrichment officer does with the new students is he stands them all
506 up one at a time and said "right I want you to be honest, these are
507 your mates, you've got to trust these guys at the end of the day, if
508 you were on a ship and you're in trouble, these are the ones you're
509 going to trust, tell me what are your good points and what are your
510 bad points?" or points that you'd like to get better at should I say.
511 And this honesty comes out and these guys think, they've never
512 known each other, they've never met each other before and all of a
513 sudden you've got this honesty between students. And it's almost
514 like bearing of the soul almost. And that sort of forms the very
515 foundation to their lifelong friendships and I think that's important.

516 Q And do you think that's not happening in other peer groups ...

517 A No I don't think so. I think there's an effort being made. In my
518 opinion, we've been doing this now for seven and a half years and
519 if you could knock it in the first week it works and it works very
520 well, if you leave it for two weeks it's too late, the groups have
521 already been formed and you can't break that down. Not that you
522 want to break it down but you can't. And you end up with a
523 dysfunctional class, occasionally it's happened that way. It works
524 here.

525 Q12 What training or development do you think would be useful for
526 leaders in similar situations as yourself and when should this
527 happen?

528 A I think that on promotion you should be given training to that level.
529 I think it should be almost compulsory. I mean if we bring people
530 in here to teach and the first thing we do is give them a teaching
531 qualification so they've got the tools for the job. If you're going to
532 promote somebody up into a curriculum leader or a curriculum
533 manager or a head's role, give them that training before they do the
534 job. Don't let them live and die on their own merits, give them that
535 first. And then there should be a support group behind that, there
536 should be support so that if things, I mean I would have loved to
537 have turned round at the start when you said to me "what have you
538 changed?" and I said "well when I first started I was more
539 dictatorish" because that was my safety net, that was my well I'm
540 in this position you know don't challenge it, rightly or wrongly,
541 probably wrongly to be honest, looking back. But I had no other
542 tools in my armoury. So if you had somebody, let's say, I don't
543 know a two week residential, a way of teaching leadership skills
544 within an education environment, these are the tools you can use,
545 these are the strategies you can employ. That would have been
546 fantastic, that would have been absolutely fantastic. By no means
547 the be all and end all, but it would have given something. And then
548 have a support group for 12 months let's say.

549 Q Does mentoring come into that?

550 A Mentoring, in an ideal world yes. But a proper mentor because if
551 we're honest here, mentor is just a name on a piece of paper.

552 Q So there's no coaching offered in the true sense of the word?

553 A No.

554 Q13 Have you thought about the next phase of your career and how you
555 might plan that?

556 A No. The next natural step of course is when my immediate boss
557 goes and how that will pan out. I'm very much ...it depends on
558 where that goes, if I'm honest I have looked around and I have
559 thought about it and still do, I'm not one for sitting still. But having
560 said that now, looking at my age, I'm [*gives age*] next birthday,
561 have I a desire to go and start learning things new? Have I a desire
562 to go off in a complete new tangent? And I don't think I have to be
563 honest. I think the job that I do is rewarding enough, I think that the
564 job that I do is challenging. There are a lot of new ideas in my head
565 that I want to go for. I've worked out a five year strategy for the
566 unit, I know where I want to take it. So have I thought it through?
567 Yeah I have. And it will depend on where the college sees that role,
568 but I don't see it outside the college at the moment, it doesn't mean
569 it's not going to be there but I don't see it at the moment.

570 Q14 Do you enjoy your role?

571 A I love it. Love it to bits. I absolutely love it to bits, the job that I do,
572 the people I meet, the people I work with, the students that I see

573 coming through from 17 and taking their orals in eight, nine, ten
574 years time, I mean it's wonderful. It is a wonderful, wonderful job
575 and I love it to bits. But I have a problem, my problem is that I
576 worry too much about these things and if something isn't quite
577 right then sleepless nights are on, mate you know. And I can't
578 crack that yet, I don't know how to work that one. Once I've got
579 that cracked it will be brilliant, it will be, nothing better really,
580 yeah.

581 Q15 Thank you. Well we're at the end, so the last question really is in
582 addition to the information we've exchanged is there anything
583 more about your leadership role and your career to it that you'd like
584 to mention, bring in or are there any questions I should have asked
585 but I haven't asked?

586 A I think we all go through change, I don't want to be philosophical
587 but we all go through change. Through life, we grow and mature,
588 we have more experience and I think that if in terms of leadership, I
589 think you hit the nail on the head for me when you said what
590 you've done is you've analysed people or you've drawn bits off
591 that you see that work and you've sort of rejected things that you
592 know won't work for you, but at the end of the day it's down to
593 individual personalities, it doesn't work for everybody. It goes
594 down to your make up, I'll just mention that now, your make up in
595 if you worry about things or if you're flippant about it. I know the
596 college has done a survey on all managers to see where they sit; I
597 can't remember what it was called. And some are finishers, some
598 are starters, some are just flippant if you like, some are steady
599 eddies and they just run all the way through. One of the things that
600 we've got here is we've got quite a good balance between myself
601 and my line manager, he's very much a don't worry about it, it will
602 all be fine, that's okay, you want to do that fine, I'll sort that out for
603 you and you've got a lot of support there but no finishing, there's
604 no deep support if you know what I mean. There's a lot of surface
605 support. I think from a manager's point of view, from a leader's
606 point of view, we should be able to recognise the weaknesses in the
607 people that we work with and just give them that pat on the back
608 now and again and say "you're doing alright here" and that doesn't
609 happen often enough for me here. I'd like to do reinforcement. And
610 I will walk into somebody's office and say "I saw the job that you
611 did yesterday, fabulous, well done thank you for that" and walk off.
612 And to them it's a lot and to me it's a lot because I know they've
613 done that job. It's not a fault, but it doesn't seem to come down
614 from the top. And that, I don't know...

615 Q What can you do to influence that?

616 A You discuss it informally. And it is recognised but nothing much
617 happens. One thing I have found and maybe you can answer the
618 question, you've done a lot more of these things. You know I said
619 earlier, there are two heads, there's the personal head and then
620 there's the business head isn't there, the manager's head. I try and

621 work with people on a personal basis and very rarely refer back to
622 the business head, I try and make it work using personality, humour
623 perhaps to do that. But what I struggle with is that a lot of my
624 directors, my senior management team, don't appear to have that
625 personal head, they only have the management head, and I find that
626 hard to deal with at times and I don't really know how to do it, it
627 feels almost personal when they're not personal with me, does that
628 make sense?

629 Q Yeah.

630 A You know you go out of your way to say "Good morning how are
631 you? how's things" I genuinely mean it but you get a sort of cut
632 and dried straight business answer back. It's a desire I want maybe
633 not a desire that they want. Or maybe they see it as good strategy
634 for making sure that they don't get drawn into a personal
635 relationship so that if anything does go wrong in the future, they
636 can act on it without worrying about it too much, I don't know.
637 That's one concern that I have, is how I'm sure there's a place, we
638 all know what our responsibility is but I'm sure there's a place
639 where you know there could be that sort of friendliness and still be
640 businesslike.

641 Q That is something that we could talk about perhaps outside this...is
642 there anything else that you would like to input before we call a
643 halt?

644 A No I don't think so. I think we've touched on most of the things
645 you asked me, who most influenced me, I've told you, there are
646 also the negatives sides, the people that have done things and you
647 think that's really switched me off that, you know. So I think it's a
648 two-way thing. No I think I've said pretty much everything that I
649 need to say.

650 Q Thank you very much indeed for your time.

651 A You're welcome. Thank you

Appendix E

The complexity of qualifications for teachers, tutors, trainers, lecturers and instructors in the FE sector in England.

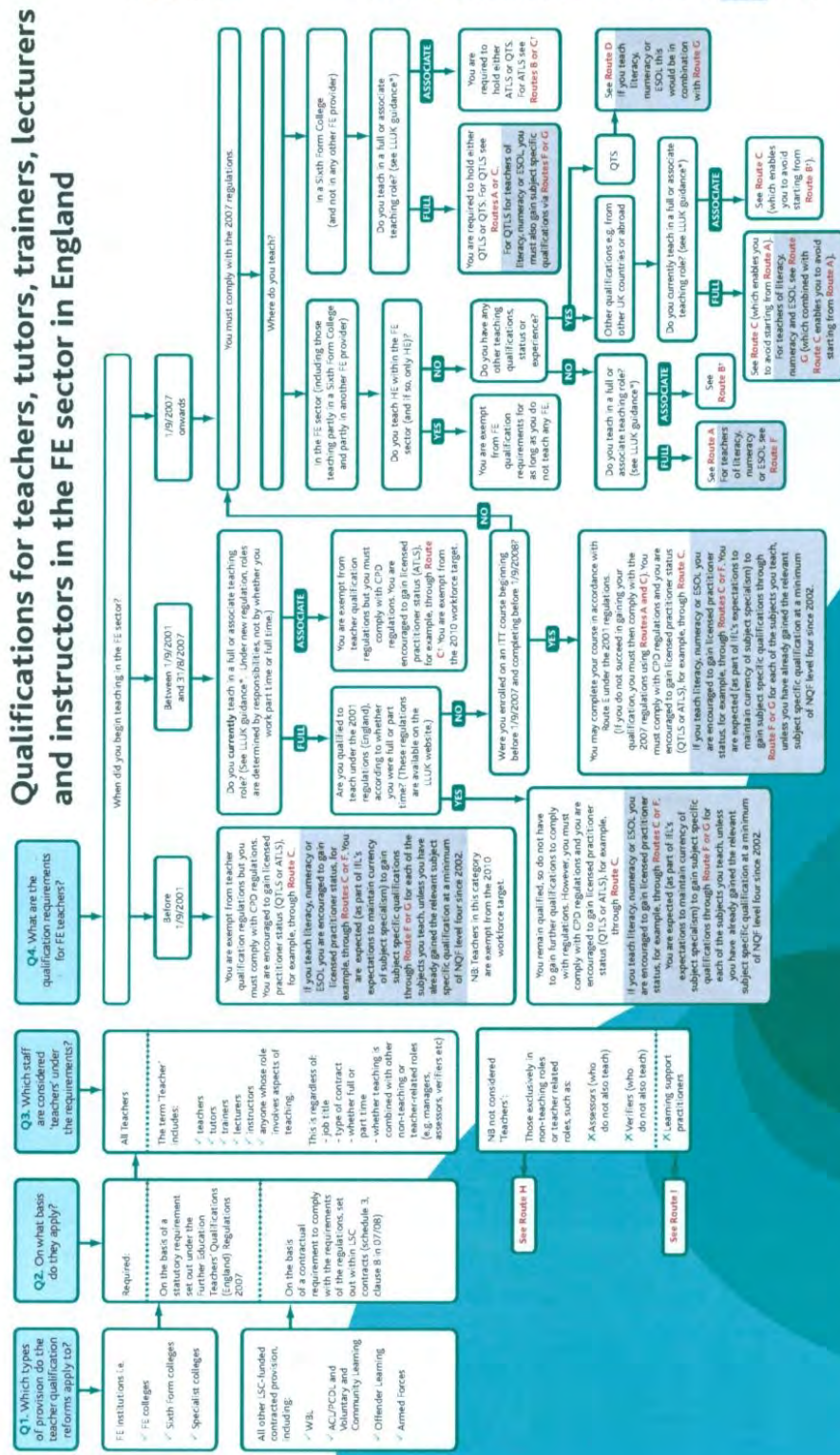
The information on the following page is a chart produced by Lifelong Learning UK (since superseded by the Learning and Skills Improvement Service (LSIS)).

Source of Diagram:

http://www.google.co.uk/#sclient=psy&hl=en&source=hp&q=FEWCHART1007010&aq=f&aqi=&aql=f&oq=&pbx=1&bav=on.2,or.r_gc.r_pw.&fp=eb847c1bda400d6d&biw=1348&bih=554 [accessed 4-6-11]

[a short cut to this diagram is obtained by entering FEWCHART1007010 into an internet search engine].

Qualifications for teachers, tutors, trainers, lecturers and instructors in the FE sector in England



The difference between 'qualifications' and 'licensed practitioner status' (QTLS, ATLS)

Qualifications are one part of gaining licensed practitioner status (i.e. QTLS or ATLS). You can only be awarded QTLS or ATLS once you have:

- a) gained appropriate qualifications, (or alternative recognition), which for teachers of literacy, ESOL or numeracy must also include subject specific qualifications, and;

- b) completed a process of professional formation according to Institute for Learning (IfL) criteria, to demonstrate that you are in good professional standing and can apply the skills learnt in initial teacher training (ITT) to practical teaching.

Another distinction is that qualifications, once awarded, cannot be taken away, whereas a licence to practise must be maintained throughout

Please note:

Skills for Life teachers are advised to pay close attention to the areas shaded in grey in this chart.

All teachers must register with IfL and comply with the CPD requirements, regardless of how the ITT regulations apply to them. IfL guidance clarifies where ITT and professional formation can count towards the CPD requirement.

Timescales within the routes below are applicable only where gaining qualifications/QTLS/ATLS is a requirement.

Where PTLLS, CTLLS and DTLLS are mentioned, HEI equivalent qualifications by different titles are also valid.

Your start date in the sector refers to the first time you taught in FE, regardless of whether or not you have been teaching continuously since then.

* The associate teacher role does not apply to teachers of literacy, numeracy and ESOL. These teachers are deemed to be in a full teacher role.

* See LLUK's 'Guidance for awarding institutions on teacher roles and initial teacher training qualifications' available online at www.lluk.org/feworkforcereforms

www.lluk.org/fewworkforcereforms

ROUTE A
Qualifications requirements:
PTLLS & DTLLS
Status required: QTLS following
professional formation
Timescale: within 5 years

ROUTE B
Qualifications requirements:
PTLLS & CTLLS
Status required: ATLS, following
professional formation
Timescale: within 5 years

ROUTE C

Qualifications requirement
Gaining recognition of prior experience and qualifications equivalent to being part of fully qualified, i.e. through APL, for inclusion in the database of Legacy Qualification (TLQ), Professional Recognition Schemes, or through EU APL, for recognition in conjunction with directive 2005/36/EC. Supported by top-up CPD, if required, to equivalence to being fully qualified.

Status required: QTLS or ATLS following professional formation

Timescale: within 5 years

ROUTE D

Qualifications required: No further qualifications required on top of but mandatory CVD must be around orientation to the sector required.

Status required: QTLIS following professional in (which applies unless N inducement has been completed in the IT sector)

Timescale: within 2 years

ROUTE E
Qualifications required: Completion of pre-Stage 3 Qualification equivalent. This must be an approved subject, an approved subject teaching certificate, numeracy or ESQ.

Status required: (although Q15 is an optional qualification for professional forms) Timescale: course assessment complete by 31st August 2015

Requirements:
Sept 2007
or HEI
be a
be a
specialist
or literacy

Requirements: In Teaching in the Education Sector combined with Numeracy or ESOL qualification
Qualification: Further integrated longer additional C separate Routes C
Status: already format relation those all exempt format
Qualification: Timescale

G rade 1000
Qualifications requirements:
Specific literacy:
and/or ESL teaching
experience through an
approved ESO, teaching
qualification route
qualified QTLS (if not
already with QTLS are
needed). Professional
experience only in
teaching QTLS, i.e.
only with QTLS are
allowed to further professional
experience within 5 years

TECHNICAL REQUIREMENTS:

For more information and advice visit www.itl.ac.uk

Information and advice visit www.itl.ac.uk and contact us on 01787 884087 or email sales@itl.ac.uk

For information and advice visit www.lluk.org/fias or call 020 7936 5798 between 9am and 5.30 pm, Monday – Friday. Additional copies of this summary sheet can be obtained from LLUK publications on 01787 884087 ref: FEWCHART1007010.

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