

PROFESSIONALISM AND PRACTICE: THE  
DEVELOPMENT OF SITUATIONAL VOCATIONAL  
PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY AMONGST UK ARMY  
RESERVE INSTRUCTORS

JOHN DYNES

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## **ABSTRACT**

This study addresses the concept of developing professionalism and its association with instructional practice. It was conducted against a backdrop of political change affecting the military and the vocational education sector between 2006 and 2014. The political decision to revitalise the Army Reserve will place the organisation under greater levels of scrutiny and is likely to result in an increased focus on professionalism. This may be directed at both individual and organisational levels thus understanding the perceptions from a practitioner level can inform future training and support.

A phenomenological framework was used to explore the perceptions individuals held about their professionalism. The study, conducted within the area of recruit training in the Army Reserve involved 8 participants who provided data through interviews and observations. Thematic analysis was used to explore the relationship between the role of the instructor and the controlling influences of the organisation. This relationship was considered in terms of the impact it may have on individual professional identity. The data provided an insight into personal constructions of professional identity viewed through a lens of social constructivism.

Emerging themes were drawn upon to create a representation of the concept of situational vocational professionalism where the different forces that influence the development of professional identity were identified. The investigation identified three interlinked areas of influence in developing individual concepts of professionalism, its meaning and how it is demonstrated through action. These areas contribute to a model of situational vocational professionalism.

The model suggests that it is insufficient to describe professionalism as a responsibility of the individual without understanding the impact that employers, sectorial governing bodies, and other stakeholders have on the opportunity for developing professional behaviour. The study has identified gaps between situational vocational professionalism and some of the published professional standards in education while drawing attention to the plurality of occupational experiences that may influence perceptions of professionalism.

Key words: Professionalism, Government policy, Army Reserve/Territorial Army, Professional Standards, Interpretive analysis.

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## GLOSSARY

Abbreviation	Title
AGAI	Army General Administrative Instruction
AOR	Area of Responsibility
Army Reserve	The rebranded title for the Territorial Army (TA). This title came into force in 2013, thus some interviews will refer to the previous title of TA or Territorial Army
ASPEC	Assessment Specifications. Documents defining how a subject is assessed. These documents are typically created through subject matter experts in the respective Technical Support Agency (TSA)
ARC	Army Reserve Centre (formally known as a TA Centre. This is the parade location for Army Reserve troops.
ATRA	Army Training and Recruitment Agency.
ATC	Army Training Centre (more than one ATR collocated)
ATR	Army Training Regiment
ATU	Army Training Unit (the Reserve equivalent of an ATR) [previously, ATUs were known by the mnemonic RTC]
CDRILS	The Army values is linked to standards (LABTOP) CRDILS stands for: Courage; Respect for others; Discipline; Integrity; Loyalty; Selfless commitment
DIN	Defence Instructional Notice
DIT course	Defence Instructional Techniques course [all instructors]
DTTT course	Defence Train the Trainer course [phase-1 instructors]
DSAT	Defence Systems Approach to Training

ETS	Education Training Services. A branch of the military with specific focus on education.
Field Army	Active units that form part of the UK deployable army strength
ISPEC	Instructional Specifications. Documents defining how a subject is to be taught. They can be stand-alone documents or contained within instructional pamphlets. These documents are typically created through subject matter experts in the respective Technical Support Agency (TSA)
ITC <sup>1</sup>	Infantry Training Centre
ITC <sup>2</sup>	Initial Training Company (a term used at the ATU)
JNCO	Junior non commissioned officer
JSP	Joint Service Publication
LABTOP	The Army standards are linked to vales (CDRILS) LABTOP stands for Legality, Appropriate behaviour, Total professionalism
MATT	Mandatory Annual Training Test
MTD	Man Training Days
MS	Manning and Service – the ‘HR’ department of the army
OR	Other Rank
Phase-1	Initial recruit training
Phase-2	Recruit continuation training
Phase-3	Trained soldier - specialist skills training
Posting	Describe a specific position that a soldier will fulfil – e.g. ‘completed a three year posting as Education Officer’

RMA	Royal Military Academy (RMA Sandhurst is the home of officer training in the British Army)
RTC	Regional Training Centre [ATUs were previously known by this mnemonic]
RSM	Regimental Sergeant Major [WO1]
SNCO	Senior non commissioned officer
SOTR	Statement of Training Requirement
TA	Territorial Army - rebranded Army Reserve
TAC	Territorial Army Centre
TDA	Training Delivery Authority
TSA	Technical Support Agency
TRA	Training Requirement Authority
UKSF(R)	United Kingdom Special Forces (Reserve)
VBL	Value Based Leadership
VI	Visiting Instructor
WO2	Warrant Officer [2 <sup>nd</sup> class]
WO1	Warrant Officer [1 <sup>st</sup> class - RSM]

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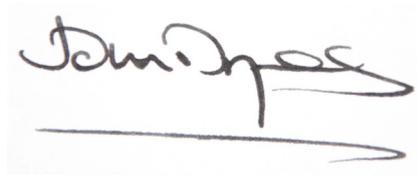
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## DECLARATION

I declare that the research contained in this thesis, unless otherwise formally indicated within the text, is the original work of the author. The thesis has not been previously submitted to this or any other university for a degree, and does not incorporate any material already submitted for a degree.

Signed

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'D. M. Jones', with a long horizontal flourish underneath.

Dated 2<sup>nd</sup> November 2014

# Chapter 1 - Introduction

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The British Army is a large and complex organisation consisting of a General Staff with a deployable Field Army, and a range of forces created to support it. There can be Joint Elements working with the Royal Navy (RN) and Royal Air Force (RAF). The Army's Regular forces and their part-time counterparts belong to a single organisation, the 'Whole Army'<sup>1</sup> (Parker, 2008). However, within this thesis the part-time (Territorial Army) element is described by the recently rebranded (2013) title of Army Reserve and the Regular element by the title of Regular Army; the term Army represents both Regular and Reserve elements. This is intended to help differentiate between elements of the single organisation.

The Army, in conjunction with the RN and RAF, has adopted Joint Service Publication (JSP 822, 2008) as the controlling policy for training and standards. JSP 822 part 4 describes the Defence System Approach to Training (DSAT) policy by which all military instructors are governed and are trained to adhere to the requirements set out within it. Combined, JSP 822 and DSAT describe the approach, conduct, delivery and assessment processes adopted by the military. Within this thesis, I have termed the approach the *military pedagogy*. At a most basic level all officers and non commissioned officers (NCOs) will at some stage take up the role of instructor by delivering core skills to those under their command; thus JSP 822 is a major influence within the army. However, for the purpose of this research, the focus is limited to Army Reserve instructors with responsibility for instruction during the first stage of recruit training, a task known as phase-1 training.

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<sup>1</sup> Since starting this research, the 'one army' approach has been relabelled as the 'whole army' concept.

## **1.1. Research focus**

This thesis uses the lens of social constructivism to explore the concept of professionalism and professional identity within the Army Reserve. The two-year research activity was conducted in the largest of ten Army Training Units (ATUs) with responsibility for conducting phase-1 training in the Army Reserve.

To satisfy their Statement of Training Requirements (SOTR), ATUs are staffed with Army Reserve personnel whose main effort is the support and delivery of phase-1 training. A small complement of full time staff act in an administrative or support function within the ATU, and it is typically supported by at least one Regular Army Sergeant Major. In meeting the organisational objectives, ATUs are supported by Visiting Instructors (VI); these are instructors who have been sent by parent units to support training activities. Ideally, ATU staff and VIs will have attended a Defence Instructional Techniques (DIT) course and other qualifying instructor courses. Typical examples include: Skill at Arms (SAA), Battlefield Casualty Drills Trainer (BCDT), Physical Training Instructor (PTI), or Range Management Qualification (RMQ). These qualifications are obtained through attending, and passing, the relevant course at an ATU or phase-3 (specialist trade training) Army Training Centre.

All staff operating in a phase-1 training establishment must attend the Defence Train the Trainer (DTTT) course (JSP 822) and are the subject of an enhanced Disclosure and Barring Service (DBS) check.

### ***Current practice***

The ATU has a series of internal policies in place to accommodate instructor monitoring and 'voice of the customer' analysis. The current practice is for instructors to be observed by a member of the internal validation team. As a minimum, ATU instructors are observed on an annual basis, the results of which can inform their annual appraisal; this

approach is in line with requirements defined within JSP 822. All new VIs are observed to ensure they meet the standards required, whilst other VIs are observed on the same routine basis as the ATU instructional staff.

Observations can also be carried out as a result of '*voice of the customer*' feedback. This feedback is obtained through questionnaires completed at the mid and endpoint during the standard 6-weekend course. The data is analysed for individual course performance and trend analysis over the previous 13 courses. The analysis feeds back to the instructional teams through the Chain of Command (CofC). In this respect, instructors receive an extrinsic perception of performance although this may be insufficient to guide performance improvement. However, the combined approach feeds data into a continual development action plan within the ATU.

After any observation, instructors are asked for their immediate reflections on how the lesson progressed and any potential future improvements. The observing instructor then provides feedback on the lesson standard. Whilst this approach is in line with the DSAT protocol, Ofsted (2011) identified it as likely to focus attention solely on the instructor rather than the whole learning experience.

The situation described suggests that the local CofC has attempted to meet its obligations in terms of appropriately qualified and vetted personnel. It has, however, as a matter of expediency, used a Commander's risk assessment to enable it to function without a fully compliant workforce in terms of DTTT-qualified or DBS-vetted VI instructors. The situation is exacerbated as VIs come under functional command of individual units and only under ATU operational command when physically present at the ATU. The ATU Commanding Officer (CO) has no process for ensuring that VIs are appropriately qualified or vetted and no authority to ensure the parent units fulfil this requirement. The instructor-monitoring activities provide some risk mitigation as well as providing a vehicle for instructional quality improvement.

**The issue**

The training team delivers prescribed training using information supplied by the course owners, Initial Training Group (ITG), to a standard timetable over which it has no control and cannot change. It delivers this training using instructors who are technically qualified through a specific skill set (SAA / BCDT, etc.) but may not have completed the DTTT course.

The training cycle operates on a cadre basis with recruits attending on a weekend on / weekend off basis; at peak training times, each weekend could have had 2 platoons of 3 sections present for training. During the 'non training' weekends ATU staff will complete essential administrative duties, lesson preparation, etc. Without prior agreement from ITG, the weekend training programme cannot be changed although the training team can reschedule lessons within a training weekend cycle.

Cse.	Weekend dates (training is conducted every two weeks)											
1	WE 1	WE 2	WE 3	WE 4	WE 5	WE 6						
2			WE 1	WE 2	WE 3	WE 4	WE 5	WE 6				
3					WE 1	WE 2	WE 3	WE 4	WE 5	WE 6		
4							WE 1	WE 2	WE 3	WE 4	WE 5	WE 6

Table 1.1 - Training cycle representative phase-1 weekend training cycle

In many subjects, lessons must be taught in a strict order. This is to lead the recruit through the logical stages of developing the skill in the appropriate sequence; some subjects such as Skill at Arms cannot be taught out of order with the sequence. This ensures the recruit receives the information in a clear, logical order to help them assimilate knowledge and develop dexterity with the skills. However, for an instructor working on a cyclical basis as described in table 1.1, they could potentially teach the same lessons between 3 to 6 times on a given weekend and have to cope with teaching lessons out of the sequential order. For example, an instructor could teach Rifle Lesson 1 to a Section on weekend 1, then

teach Rifle Practice 3 to a Section on weekend 3, reteach Rifle lesson 1 to a different Section on weekend 1, etc.

Additionally, ATU staff attendance is significantly greater than the minimum Army Reserve annual commitment in terms of man training days (MTD). Instructors operating in this highly concentrated manner will teach the same lessons many more times than would normally be expected of an instructor. For example, a Skill at Arms (SAA) Instructor working through an ATU may teach Rifle Lesson 1 between 50 and 60 times per year compared to a Unit SAA instructor potentially teaching the lesson twice in a year. In effect, these instructors can become highly skilled at delivering particular lessons; however, there is also a higher level of focus on student attainment and therefore on instructor performance than would be the case for instructors not working at an ATU.

### ***The research purpose***

I was interested in understanding how instructors viewed themselves and their practice in light of such high levels of focus and attention. While the military training approach (JSP 822) has been developed to encourage a transformational approach (ASLS, 2008) to training within the context of developing the military pedagogy, I was interested in understanding if, and to what extent, the approach had influenced individual instructors' perspectives on their professionalism and if it had impacted on their instructional approach.

Professionalism, as will be explored within this thesis, is a concept that can mean different things to different people. Whilst this did not help to rationalise the concept of the professionalism of army instructors, Eraut's (1994) consideration of professionalism as an ideology led me to think of professionalism as a separate entity from a 'profession'. I was interested in the ideas instructors might attribute to their own instructional professionalism rather than their role of professional soldier.

The purpose of this research was therefore to develop an insight into how instructors viewed themselves and the organisation. This insight may then be used to inform others seeking to develop effective personal development practices. This led to the development of the following core research objectives.

***Research objectives:***

- Explore perceptions of professionalism.
- Explore the impact of military pedagogy on instructional performance.
- Explore instructor reflections on individual practices.

Through these objectives, further layers of perceptions of professional practice are exposed in terms of the relationship between an individual's professional identity and the level of autonomy allowed within instructional practice. This relationship is considered with respect to the level of control that can be exerted over instructional practice in the Army Reserve.

The concept of professionalism is often linked with the importance of reflection and reflective practice. However, I believe that instructors delivering the same lessons on a daily basis, with materials that have been prepared for them, to troops they have not developed a relationship with, for courses they do not own, may find the process of development through personal reflection alone an almost impossible challenge.

Furthermore, when working in an environment in which time is limited and instruction is constant, the likelihood of action coming out of personal reflection may be minimal.

Whilst data from the monitoring and evaluation process may encourage dialogue, I do not believe it sufficient to encourage the development of changed practices. It is my assertion that, for development to occur, some form of catalyst for change must be present. The catalyst must be sufficiently motivational to overcome any barriers to change that may be

present. Within the framework of this research, the development may be related to personal concepts of professionalism as an entity, or in its relationships with instructional practice or reflective activities.

In working towards its aim, my research captured the beliefs and experiences of 8 instructors in relation to their professional status and its relationship with their instructional practice. While the general focus is from the individual participant perspective, these perspectives are interpreted with reference to the wider context of professional identity and its congruence with the professional standards for teachers in the lifelong learning sector.

## **1.2. Participation**

The thesis reports the results of a qualitative investigation into the practice of 8 individuals within a single Army Reserve training team in England. These individuals, comprising a mixture of officers, senior non commissioned officers (SNCOs), and a junior non commissioned officer (JNCO) were interviewed, and observed during their teaching practice. Follow up interviews provided an opportunity to reflect on the observed instructional practice. In addition to this level of intervention, the participants were freely able to discuss any further points or observations they made on their teaching practice throughout the period of the research investigation. Two of the participants performed administrative functions within the training team and were excluded from the observation and reflection element of the cycle although they did discuss their reflections on their civilian training activities. The remaining six participants went through one complete 'interview – observation – reflection' cycle, with 4 participants repeating the process again and finally two participants going through the process for a third time. Typically, a 3-month timeframe between each observation provided participants with opportunities to change practices in light of previous discussions and reflections. Details of this analysis are in Chapter 3 (section 3.4) where the research design is discussed in depth.

Table 1.2 describes the total number of formal interventions with the selected participants. The table does not detail any informal discussions that also took place during the investigative period of the research. A more detailed breakdown of individual participant involvement with the research intervention cycles is provided within the introduction to Chapter 4 where the research results are formally discussed.

Participant	Interview	Observation	Follow up interview
Total	14	12	12

Table 1.2 - Research intervention cycles

The results of the data obtained through the intervention cycles was analysed, reviewed and reduced to identify 6 core emerging themes, with a common theme underpinning the core themes. Through these 7 themes, an image of individual and organisational influence began to emerge from the data. This image, through drawing upon the emerging themes, helped to develop the model of Situational Vocational Professional Identity (SVPI).

This model extends our understanding of the influence employers and key stakeholders in the employment sector can bring to bear upon the development of individual professional identity. Whilst the development considered the forces of influence present within the Army Reserve, the resultant model may be pertinent to many other occupational sectors.

### **1.3. Professional identity and the Army Reserve**

The area of professionalism and professional identity has been the subject of a number of investigations over the past decade, resulting in a range of published articles (Boreham, 2007, Crowther, 2014, Dainton, 2005, Evans, 2008). These investigations have tended to focus on graduate level occupations, and in many cases, on the development of professional identity through the process of knowledge acquisition during training.

There is very limited research with respect to the military and none with respect to the niche area of vocational professional identity as it develops through membership of a part-time organisation such as the Army Reserve or its predecessor, the Territorial Army.

Conducting research into professionalism and practice within the Army Reserve is both timely and appropriate in the current climate of change and restructure facing both the Regular and Reserve forces. The Regular and Reserve elements of the Army both face the same 2 core drivers to change. To aid discussion throughout this thesis, these drivers have been termed the 'political' and 'training' imperatives. The political imperative is summed up as an apparent drive to restructure the Armed Forces and the resultant extension to the use of the Army Reserve to support Regular forces on operational and homeland deployments. This driver is described through Future Army 2020 policy (FR 2020, 2011). The training imperative is the result of investigations into the approach towards recruit training within the Regular Army. The changes were driven through as part of the DHALI-B report.

### ***The political imperative***

Army 2020 (2013) is an update to the Army's response to the government's Strategic Defence and Security Review (SDSR) published in 2010. This report describes the intention to create an integrated force that will see the use of Army Reserve as a routine rather than exceptional event; the routine use will be for operational requirements including overseas deployments, extended stabilisation activities and to support homeland civil emergencies.

This thesis does not promulgate any discussion on the political drive behind the restructuring involved with FR Army 2020 (2011) but notes it as influencing the importance of professionalism within the Army Reserve. Table 1.3 identifies the key elements of the Regular Army and its supporting organisation, the Army Reserve; the picture described herein is

correct at time of writing but will change as the Army moves towards satisfying its Army 2020 restructuring approach.

Asset	Army Strength	Army Reserve Strength
Armour	10 Regiments	4 Regiments
Royal Artillery	15 Regiments	7 Regiments
Royal Engineers	11 Regiments	5 Regiments
Infantry	36 Battalions	36 Battalions
Army Air Corps	5 Regiments	-
Signals	12 Regiments	11 Regiments
Equipment Support	7 Battalions	4 Battalions
Logistics	17 Regiments	16 Regiments
Medical / Field Hospital	8 Major Units	11 hospitals, 4 Field Ambulance, 2 Regiments
Generally, Regiments / Battalions are commanded by Lt Colonel with a strength of between 500 and 800 personnel		UK MoD figures in 2008 show overall Reserve requirement as 42,000, strength was 35,020.

Table 1.3 - Comparative capability of Regular and Reserve Forces

(Details are correct at 2009 [(www.armedforces.co.uk)])

While the restructure is intended to balance the need for an agile and flexible Armed Force, it has not been without its detractors. A Commons Select Committee report (HC576, 2014) described ‘concerns’ about the approach to change being financially driven by the Government and that the reduction in Regular Army manpower may reduce the capability of the army until such time as sufficient Army Reserve personnel have been recruited and trained to fill the short fall. However, the report also recognised the benefit of addressing the role of the Army Reserve to help ‘*resolve the current disconnect between the Armed Forces and the general public*’ (HC576, 2014; p62); this point highlights the potential for greater levels of scrutiny for the Army Reserve.

***The training imperative***

In December 2002, Adam Ingram (Armed Forces Minister) announced terms of reference for a review into the death of soldiers at Deepcut Barracks between 1995 and 2002. The report, released in 2006 and known colloquially as DHALI-B, suggested that the Army had systemic failings in its training strategy (Blake, 2006). DHALI-B encouraged the Army to look inwardly at its practices and reflect on its professionalism as a training organisation. Although the Deepcut incidents involved Regular soldiers, the outcome of DHALI-B is applied across the Regular and Reserve force; my interest rests with the Reserve element.

The mantra ‘Be the Best’ is prevalent throughout Army advertising strategies (www.army.com). This type of mantra can project a driving image of personal status and achievement within individuals belonging to the Army; this concept of personal status is the basis for the thoughts behind the research investigation. To support the ‘Be the Best’ approach, the Army has concisely described its Values and Standards (HQAG, 2008). All soldiers are expected to adhere to, and are required to attend annual training related to the Values and Standards. They are summarised through the mnemonics CDRILS & LABTOP

Values – CDRILS	Standards – LABTOP
<b><u>C</u>ourage</b>	<b><u>L</u>egal</b>
<b><u>D</u>iscipline</b>	<b><u>A</u>ppropriate <b><u>b</u>ehaviour</b></b>
<b><u>R</u>espect for others</b>	<b><u>T</u>otal <b><u>P</u>rofessionalism</b></b>
<b><u>I</u>ntegrity</b>	
<b><u>L</u>oyalty</b>	
<b><u>S</u>elfless commitment</b>	

Table 1.4 - Values and Standards of the British Army

A search for the term(s) professional/professionalism on the Army’s public-facing website (www.army.mod.uk) provided many examples related to the

previously stated values and standards. The examples include comments about the wider organisation, individual units, and individual soldiers although the examples tend to focus on the core role of the Army rather than its instructional activities. My interest in the values was specifically related to the concept of Total Professionalism: how it is demonstrated through the medium of training; what it means to the individual; how individuals believe they demonstrate it; how it links to the military concept of Value Based Leadership (VBL) and trainers as leaders (Neame, 2009). Regrettably, the Army provided no clear and consistent definition for its understanding and application of the term 'professionalism' or 'professional'. It appears that it is left to the individual to determine a personal approach.

Whilst codifying its values and standards, the Army began reviewing the training methodology; the impact of DHALI-B resulted in a desire to shift from a transactional (Weber, 1947) model of leadership towards Burn's (1978) model of transformational leadership and the Army model identifies a clear link between leadership and instruction (ASLS, 2008). The training focus is on leadership, especially under demanding, often hazardous, conditions. The intention is to prepare all soldiers for active service in any field of conflict. The training focus may develop for different operational requirements but the overall theme is one of leadership at all levels. This training concept is developed through military instructional staff who are generally believed to be well-trained 'experts', some of whom have responsibilities for training others for service in 'training' units whilst other personnel conduct training within 'field' units.

### ***Developing training approaches***

The Army has developed a training course that is mandatory for all instructors working in phase-1 training establishments with responsibility for teaching recruits. The Defence Train the Trainer (DTTT) course introduces instructors to additional techniques to help in delivering inclusive training; an existing instructor qualification (typically DIT) is an

entry requirement to DTTT. One of the key techniques developed through DTTT is the application of coaching for performance improvement and the application of the GROW (Whitemore, 1992) model in different situations. The approach supports the four key components of Burns' approach to transformational leadership (Warrilow, 2009), the fourth component being:

‘... the degree to which the leader attends to each individual follower's needs and acts as a mentor or coach and gives respect to and appreciation of the individual's contribution to the team...’  
(Warrilow, 2009, p1)

### ***A personal perspective***

After having personally completed DTTT, my initial reflection on the course was that it was a good idea but I had some doubts about its potential to deliver a lasting change in the basic instructional techniques employed by Army instructors. These doubts were based on my premise that the majority of people do not change unless there is some external pressure applied to coerce them into change, and that for the change to be permanent, there needs to be some process in place to prevent a return to the original position.

I believed that instructors were creatures of habit. They would have had experiences of delivering lessons in a specific manner and would probably be quite happy to continue using their tried and trusted methods; the planning, preparation, training aids and lesson plans, etcetera, would all have been previously created. Instructors having previously taught particular lessons may have been confident in their ability to deliver the necessary learning objectives within the time allocation. Furthermore, I believed that instructors have a high regard for their ability to delivery ‘quality’ instruction; my assumption is that instructors would not intentionally deliver ‘bad’ instruction and that the ability to deliver ‘good’ lessons links to a sense of professionalism. Whilst these are sweeping, all-encompassing assumptions I believed they ‘hold true’ in the majority of

cases. In addition to previous research investigations (Dynes, 2009) conducted as part of my EdD programme, these assumptions took me towards a conclusion that, without a catalyst for change, it would be unlikely that simply attending courses would lead to permanent changes in teaching practices. To change practice means changing habits and as Baekdal points out, habits become counterproductive when we are trying to deal with change (Baekdal et al, 2006).

To challenge my assumptions, I began reflecting on the levels of experience and whether this would make a difference to the likelihood of movement towards a transformational teaching approach. Would 'new' instructors find it easier to apply a transformational approach? Would their attempts inadvertently be stifled by older, more experienced, instructors, possibly acting in a mentoring capacity but with a more natural alignment towards the transactional approach? Would more experienced instructors be willing to try out new approaches? I wanted to explore how individuals dealt with the concept of accommodating a transformational approach to instruction and any impacts on the perception the individual had of their professional identity.

#### **1.4. Contextualising the research environment**

The Army is hierarchical and autocratic in nature, relying heavily on a rank structure to coordinate and conduct activities. The rank, broadly speaking, defines a soldier's role and responsibilities ([www.army.mod.uk](http://www.army.mod.uk)) and the organisation is culturally aligned to a general deference to rank. Whilst a range of terms can be used (dependent upon the nature of the asset) to describe the structure, I have chosen to present it in the terminology of the infantry; where other terms are used within the thesis, they are explained in their relationship to the infantry organisation. An explanation of the basic 'Infantry' organisational structure, rank and appropriate salutation is provided at Appendix 8.1.

### ***Training functions and responsibilities***

Basic-level training for the Army Reserve is a split responsibility between Army Reserve's Army Training Units (ATUs), the Regular Army Training Regiment (ATR) or Infantry Training Centre (ITC), Army Training Centre and the parent Army Reserve unit. At the time of the investigation, there were 10 ATUs with primary responsibility for the delivery of phase-1 training and, in some cases, phase-2 training (continuation training) under licence and support from an ATR or ITC, although this would more generally be conducted by the Regular Army training teams; some ATUs offer phase-3 training for specialist courses.

The organisational responsibility for initial training of Army Reserve soldiers is outlined in table 1.5.

Organisation	Training responsibility	Typical duration
ATU	Recruit selection	1 day
	Phase-1 Initial recruit training (Alpha cse.)	6 weekends
	Phase-1 Initial recruit training (infantry)	3 weekends (infantry only)
	Phase-3 Trained Soldier (franchised courses)	2 weekends
ATR	Phase-2 Recruit trade training (bravo cse.)	15 days (all Corps not Inf.)
ITC	Phase-2 Recruit trade training (Combat Infantry course)	15 days (Infantry only)
Training Centre	Phase-3 courses	15 days
Parent Unit	11 Regiments	On going

Table 1.5 - Overview of responsibilities

### ***Typical ATU roles and functions***

The ATU organisational structure is similar to the structure employed within the Infantry (Appendix 8.1). However, the ATU teams typically have many more Sergeant Majors (WO2) and Colour Sergeants (CSgt) fulfilling

instructional roles than would normally be the case in Regular Army phase-1 training establishments; here instructional duties would primarily be completed by JNCOs. This research does not investigate the impact that this may have on the success of the training but does note that the relationship between instructor and soldier may be different.

Rank	Abbrv.	Typical primary function
Lieutenant Colonel	Lt. Col.	Commanding Officer (CO)
Major	Maj.	Second in Command
Major	Maj.	Sub-unit Officer Commanding (OC)
*Captain	Capt.	Staff duties or Cadre Officer
**Lieutenant	Lt.	Cadre Officer
**2 <sup>nd</sup> Lieutenant	2Lt.	Cadre Officer Instructor
Regimental Sergeant Major	WO1/RSM	Discipline
^Sergeant Major	WO2	Sub-unit discipline / Instructor
**^^Colour Sergeant	CSgt	Instructor / admin support
**2 <sup>nd</sup> Sergeant	Sgt	Instructor
**Corporal	Cpl	Instructor
**Lance Corporal	LCpl	Instructor
***Private	Pte	General support duties
<p>All team members are expected to fulfil the role of Instructor</p> <p>*Officers may be delegated responsibility for other, in some cases additional, activities such as Welfare, Planning, Education, and Validation, etc.</p> <p>** These ranks tend to have the most focus on instructional duties, especially in connection with phase-1 and phase-2 training.</p> <p>*** The training teams are not typically scaled for this rank; these are fulfilled from within the VI role.</p> <p>^ The rank is Warrant Officer (class 2) and known as Sergeant Major. One key appointment is Company Sergeant Major (CSM).</p> <p>^^ The equivalent rank in a non-infantry organisation is a Staff Sergeant.</p>		

Table 1.6 - Summary of typical rank and role within an ATU

While the wider organisation provides governance and control through the rules, doctrine and policy of the Army, rank can provide a sense of understanding concerning who does what, and how much responsibility, authority and autonomy they may have. In this way, rank may also seem

<sup>2</sup> In the Light Division, the spelling for the rank of Sergeant / Colour Sergeant is Serjeant / Colour Serjeant.

to be an indicator to the level of experience an individual may have although, this may not be the case in actuality. In the general environment, rank when used in an authoritative mode can mean that soldiers will do what they are expected to do. In a training environment this may mean an acceptance that soldiers will arrive on time and generally react to the commands given in the class; in my experience, comments like, *“don’t shout out an answer, wait till I nominate”* will be obeyed and discipline in the classroom is apparent. This level of class control may be different from the methods employed, and standards accepted, in civilian teaching environments. For phase-1 recruits, this introduction to basic military etiquette provides the basis for obedience to future orders, some of which may be in life-threatening conditions. Thus, the rank structure is integral to the Army way of life. It is a constant in virtually every military establishment and can facilitate the smooth functioning of the organisation.

### ***Concluding statement***

This research focuses on professionalism from the perspective of the individual. In this case, the fieldwork/data collection took place over a 2-year period (2011 - 2013) and explicitly drew upon the opinions of 8 members of the Army Reserve who operated in a phase-1 initial recruit-training establishment during that time. The research focus is pertinent to the Army Reserve as it is likely to face greater public scrutiny given the increased role it will play within the Army 2020 plans.

## Chapter 2 – Investigating the Literature

## **2. INVESTIGATING THE LITERATURE**

To provide the reader with a background to training within the military, the review starts by examining the issues that have driven the development of the military pedagogy. It then considers the academic and vocational perspectives on professionalism followed by a short review of the political influences that have had an impact on education and training from a military and civilian perspective. Whilst conducting this review, it became apparent to me that we really are living in changing times and that much of these changes have their roots in various governmental policies and directives. To reflect this, the political period between the years of the new Labour Government (1997 – 2010) and Coalition towards the end of the (2010 – 2015) Government that was formed following the 2010 General Election has provided a timeframe within which the review has tended to focus.

### ***A time of change***

The military is undergoing a major restructure and realignment of tasks and activities in line with a reduction of approximately 8% of spending on UK Defence announced in 2010 (Barry, 2013). Future Army 2020 strategy involves reducing the Regular component of the army by 20% whilst increasing the capability of the Army Reserve. The Army Reserve has been through a rebranding exercise during 2013 where the name changed from Territorial Army to Army Reserve. The purpose of the rebranding exercise was part of an update to the existing force in line with the government's strategic defence review and Army 2020 vision, the objective being to create a vision and identity of a single cohesive organisation – the 'Whole Army' concept – that reflects the capability, skill and professionalism of both the Regular and Reserve forces.

It is not my intention to review the impact that these changes, reductions, enlargements, rerolling, and re-tasking will have on either the Regular or

Reserve forces. Although I do believe it will have an impact, some of which will be positive and some of which may have negative connotations. I do suggest that these changes may mean an increase in reliance on the Army Reserve soldier and might result in their performance and professionalism coming under increased scrutiny in the future.

The military is not the only organisational sector in a time of flux and change. In education, we see changes in a number of areas including: the increase and development of academies; the restructuring of GCE and GCSE standards (Smith, 2014), the redevelopment of vocational qualifications (Wolf, 2011; DfE, 2013); the development of new apprenticeships (Richard, 2014); the move toward linear assessment in both academic and vocational subjects (Smith, 2014). The moves by the current<sup>3</sup> Education Secretary, Michael Gove, have not always been popular (Bousted, 2013).

The education sector has also seen the demise of the organisations of governance. Created in 2007, New Labour's Qualification Curriculum Development Agency (QCDA) was abolished by the Coalition in 2012 when it created the Teaching Agency and the Standards and Testing Agency to absorb the functions of the QCDA. Other changes have included a switch of responsibility for professional standards from the Institute for Learning (IfL) to the Learning and Skills Improvement Service (LSIS), and onwards with the introduction of the Education and Training Foundation (ETF), to provide some form of governance for the FE sector.

Many other examples of political influence resulting in change, and in some cases, counter-change could be cited. I do not intend to review the impacts but recognise that the sector is in a state of flux and that different

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<sup>3</sup> Nicola Anne Morgan replaced Michael Gove as Education Secretary in July 2014 as part of a Prime Ministerial reshuffle.

aspects of teacher professionalism are now coming to the fore again; it is enough at this point to say that we do live in a time of constant change.

## **2.1. Military perspectives**

In 2006, the report into soldier deaths at Deepcut Barracks between 1995 and 2002 was released. The report, known colloquially as DHALI-B, suggested that the Army had systemic failings in its training strategy (Blake, 2006). DHALI-B encouraged the Army to look inwardly at its practices and reflect on its professionalism as a training organisation. Although the Deepcut incidents involved Regular soldiers, the output of DHALI-B affected the entire Regular and Reserve force.

### ***DHALI-B and associated impacts***

The key outcomes from DHALI-B concerned recommendations to improve the welfare, training and supervision of recruits, and the selection and training of instructors. Blake (QC), when conducting his review, recognised that the intense nature of military training meant that close relationships form between trainers and trainees, and that young recruits, *'can develop a sense of awe and hero worship which goes beyond professional respect and admiration'*. He further commented that *'Instructors must recognise this and not allow their egos to be inflated which might lead to an unhealthy abuse of their authority or the trainee taking advantage of the situation'* (Blake, 2006, p90).

The case of Sergeant B highlighted this potential for abuse of power with his 'two personalities' (ibid, p124); terms such as 'hard but professional' and 'firm but fair' were used to describe Sergeant B. He explained that he actively cultivated a 'twin brother' to help him cope with the stresses of his position. His 'twin brother' was the disciplinarian and through this alter ego, he could unleash verbal assaults that were so severe they caused other NCOs to question his overall professionalism (ibid, p311). Interestingly, within the data from student feedback questionnaires

completed between 2009 and 2013 at the ATU where my research was conducted, terms such as 'hard but professional' and 'firm but fair' are still being used to describe the individual recruit impressions about instructors.

Blake (2006, p311) recognised that poor leadership played an important part in the downward trend of instructional behaviour when discussing the death of Geoff Grey: Regimental Sergeant Major Z appeared to suggest that issues started at the very top of the organisation and flowed through every level (ibid, p220). In all, the Blake report identified 34 key recommendations of which 3 are particularly pertinent my research enquiry:

- Recommendation 11 - Instructors must receive essential training in how they are to achieve the tasks they are to meet before they take up their post. A tour in a training regiment should be recognised as a difficult and demanding job, leading to enhanced career prospects (Blake, 2006, p393).
- Recommendation 12 - Instructors should be vetted for their suitability to work with young people, applying standards that are no less rigorous than those that are applied to civilian establishments educating or training people under 18 (Blake, 2006, p393).
- Recommendation 15 - The standards set by the ATRA Code of Practice (Crown, 2008) for Instructors should be enforced by formal disciplinary sanctions. Training regiments should adopt standing orders that require adherence to the Code of Practice to enable charges under the Army Act (Blake, 2006, p395).

Within the military, it is typical that a soldier is 'posted' into a position normally to complete a three-year tour of duty. The Blake enquiry

recommended extending tours of duty for staff undertaking duty at a phase-1 training establishment with extensions applied to instructors and commanders operating in these establishments. The DHALI-B report has had a significant impact on the approach and management of military training.

### ***The Army and Ofsted***

The third Ofsted report (Ofsted, 2011) into the Care and Welfare of Trainees, focussing entirely on Regular Army establishments, demonstrated that the overall provision across eight training establishments between 2010 and 2011 was typically seen as either good or satisfactory across three areas of: overall effectiveness; capacity to improve; self assessment. Table 2.1 is extracted from the third Ofsted report although details of RN and RAF establishments are removed from the extract.

<b>Establishment</b>	<b>Overall effectiveness</b>	<b>Capacity to improve</b>	<b>Self-assessment</b>
ATR, Winchester	Good	Good	Good
ATR, Bassingbourne	Good	Good	Good
ATC, Pirbright	Good	Good	Good
Defence College, Policing & Guarding	Good	Good	Satisfactory
11 Signal Regiment	Satisfactory	Good	Good
25 Training Regiment, Deepcut	Satisfactory	Good	Satisfactory
ITC, Catterick	Satisfactory	Satisfactory	Satisfactory
RMA, Sandhurst	Satisfactory	Satisfactory	Satisfactory

Table 2.1 - Summary of overall inspection judgements

[Adapted from the 3rd Ofsted report into care and welfare of trainees in the military]

In reporting their findings, the Ofsted inspectors were clear that provision had either improved, in some cases from inadequate, or remained the same since the previous inspection. The report showed that instructors were generally vetted prior to taking up their post but that there are still improvements to be made in meeting Recommendation 12 of the Blake (2006) Report. Furthermore, it showed some movement towards meeting Recommendation 11 through effective induction programmes across the different inspected sites, and that the tour of duty in a phase-1 or phase-2 training establishment was generally seen as a career enhancement. There was also progress towards meeting the requirements of Recommendation 15 with, in the majority of cases, instructors completing the Defence Train the Trainer (DTTT) course before their posting.

The Ofsted report noted that many instructors had completed a course in coaching and mentoring; this is an optional online learning opportunity resulting in a Level 3 ILM qualification, which is available on successful completion of the DTTT. It identified that any on-going instructor training and development had scope for improvement, especially in its planning phase and that observations of teaching and learning tended to '*frequently place too much emphasis on the teaching with an inadequate focus on promoting and reinforcing the resultant learning*' (Ofsted, 2011, p17). This issue was identified during inspections of Regular establishments although my research suggests that the issue is also apparent within the Army Reserve.

In the opinion of the inspectors, there was a general lack of appropriate instructor improvement programmes, especially in the area of developing the skills required to effectively assess the impact of training in relation to the actual recruit and trainee achievements. It explained that '*only one establishment had developed a very effective coaching and mentoring programme*' (Ofsted, 2011, p10).

### ***Doctrine and Joint Service Publications***

Joint Service Publications (JSPs) are used to create consistent policy and approach across armed forces whilst Army Briefing Notes (ABNs) can augment communication for the army. Of particular note within this research is JSP 822, which is the MoD's reference for all individual training across the defence organisation. JSP 822 parts 1 and 2 introduce the policy (part 1) and a glossary of terms and definitions (part 2) to provide consistency across the defence sector. JSP 822 part-3 is concerned with the training management policy, its implementation, and the monitoring and reporting process. In terms of this research, Part 3: Chapter 4 Training Management Policy (JSP 822) is of specific interest and, with support of the other chapters, describes the direction that has been provided in the '*post Blake*' era. The JSP applies to civilian and military instructors who are engaged in training activities for an average of 5 hours per week or more (JSP 822, 2008, p3-4-3) and describes four underpinning principles, two of which focus on the individual whilst two more generally align towards an organisational responsibility.

From an organisational perspective, responsibility for selecting suitable and appropriate people, providing them with sufficient training and then monitoring their activities against the key competencies is described within the JSP. The requirement to attend specific instructional courses (Defence Instructional Techniques (DIT) [or a range of approved legacy courses] and DTTT) before employment is defined within JSP 822 (Part 3, Chapter 4, 2008).

From an individual perspective, training delivery staff needing to be *sufficiently knowledgeable in their subject* demonstrates some convergence with civilian education dialogue where it can be considered in terms of pedagogy and subject specialism (Fisher, 2007; Avis, 2011). This is similar to the military requirement for instructors to attend courses such as SAA before teaching soldiers those subjects. Furthermore, there

is a requirement to remain competent through *on-going Continual Professional Development*. The requirement to remain current is stated and potential CPD examples are provided although there is no defined requirement to record, or report on, any CPD activities; this lack of mandate to record or report may reduce the scale of CPD performed. Adherence to JSP 822 is a *Commanding Officer* responsibility. It requires commanders to ensure appropriate procedures are in place to meet its demands (Part 3, Chapter 4, 2008). The approach described and adopted through JSP 822 can clearly be seen as a method of trying to satisfy the requirements identified in the Blake Report (2006).

### ***Policy driven success***

The Recruit Trainee Survey (RTS, 2013) covering January 2012 – December 2012 focuses on the Regular trainee experience; its only reference to the Army Reserve is in one question where it asks respondents if they had previously served in any of the Reserve service organisations. However, this report does serve to demonstrate that, typically, overall satisfaction with the level of support, the standards of training and the appropriate behaviour of instructional staff had increased since the periods covering 2007 – 2010 (RTS, 2013). This may suggest that significant improvements have been made, and that the policy-driven approach in the *'post Blake'* era is effective. However, the report also explained that *'of the 10,303 Phase-1 recruits surveyed, 11% said that they had been badly or unfairly treated'*; 7% felt that this inappropriate treatment had been at the hands of the staff (RTS, 2013, p7).

The failure to investigate the Army Reserve experience suggests a gap in knowledge that could indicate a disparity between the *'Whole Army'* as a concept and a practical reality.

### ***Army Education and Training capability***

Professionalism has been the subject of numerous investigations, research activities, speculation, and discussions including the importance of critical reflection in education (McCabe et. al., 2009). These activities have been described by a plethora of authors and cover many different interpretations of the words professionalism, professional identity, and professionalism. The interpretations can be for a range of areas of employment and/or interactions.

No specific research was identified as investigating the particular case of the development of professional practice of military instructors especially when they are members of the part-time Army Reserve.

As with many organisations, the Army has a number of different functional roles. In the context of this research, my interests sat within areas connected to training and education. The civilian education system is set out in a series of progressive levels: primary education – secondary education – further education – higher education. The Army education and training approach has its own structure following the typical lines of – Junior Leader – phase-1 (basic training) – phase-2 (recruit trade training) – phase-3 (specialist skills training) – training – officer education – Command Leadership Management (CLM – mandatory OR promotion).

It makes use of training establishments or 'schools' including but not limited to:

- Sandhurst Military Academy for Officer Training;
- Harrogate Military College for Junior Leaders;
- Army Training Regiments (ATR) for Regular phase-1 and some phase-2 training including phase-2 Army Reserve forces;
- Corps specific depots for some phase-2 training;

- a range of specialist training establishments for phase-3 training;
- Army Education Centres (AEC) for basic education such as literacy and numeracy, amongst other learning opportunities
- contracted-out educational activities through college provision.

It then has the Army Reserve to consider. Here, we typically see phase-1 training completed through an Army Training Unit (ATU) with phase-2 generally completed at the Regular establishments. Phase-3 training can be conducted in Regular establishments and ATUs.

Chapter 1 introduced the concept of the 'military pedagogy' as an adherence to the instructional approach defined within JSP 822, DSAT, and the DIT handbook (Crown, 2006). The techniques appear to be rooted in a neo-behaviourist approach to instruction where lessons are planned in great detail and follow one of three formats: a) Theory - facts based lessons; b) Skills - basic skill lessons; c) Tech skills - complex (equipment based) skill lessons. Irrespective of the format, the lessons are planned and conducted in three distinct stages (Introduction, Development, Consolidation) with specific guidance provided (Crown, 2006) on content of each stage and the instructional approach that should be adopted. It includes guidance on instructional techniques in relation to both asking and answering questions to and from the class.

The resultant didactic approach is one that may become instructor-centric with a focus on skill and technique rather than student learning. Within this review, I am concerned with literature relating to the phase-1 through to phase-3 skills training provision although, it is recognised that Army policy (JSP 822) would have been developed to encompass all aspects of military training.

Merriam-Webster (On Line, n.d.) describes a number of alternative definitions for teaching, including: *to cause to know how to; impart*

*knowledge; guide studies; instruct by precept, example, or experience.*

The verb use of train is defined as: *form by instruction, disciple, or drill;*

*teach and make fit, qualified, or proficient; make prepared for a test of skill.*

Meanwhile Pollice (2003, p1) suggests that training is associated with

short-term exercises, *'repeated until we get the skills... - until they become*

*almost second nature'*; this contrasts with teaching, which involves *'deeper*

*knowledge and a longer timeframe'*.

Phase-1 training appears to align with Pollice's (2003) definition of training as opposed to teaching for deeper knowledge over a longer timeframe.

This suggests that the Army Reserve instructors are definitely involved in

the training process; repetition to develop autonomous skills is one of the

cornerstones of military training and development and is exemplified by

the Army *'skills'* teaching approach of Explanation – Demonstration –

Imitation – Practice (EDIP) with 50% of the time allocated to the *'practice'*

phase (Crown, 2006). The limited application of *'coaching for*

*performance'* as taught on the DTTT may lead us to question if the

development of practice is truly an autonomous process. This thought

could further be extended to whether there is a requirement to support

instructors through coaching and mentoring to help them achieve

organisational and individual goals; an approach such as this could help

underpin the requirements for CPD as identified on page 27.

The Army has recently (internally) published its policy on Literacy and

Numeracy policy including capability requirements for promotion for the

successful completion of the appropriate Command Leadership and

Management (CLM) course. The policy includes the Army Reserve

although it recognises that a CLM course designed to satisfy the needs of

the Army Reserve is currently undeveloped. Furthermore, there is no

current provision for delivery to the Army Reserve since they are not

entitled to attend the Regular Army course. At the time of writing, the

Army had not implemented the Literacy and Numeracy policy on the Army

Reserve and had no facility in place to support individual development in these areas. Anecdotally, it has been suggested that this is an individual responsibility and Reserve personnel could organise and complete qualifications to attain the required standard of Literacy and Numeracy through a local college. This may be a further example of the disparity between Regular and Reserve forces and might act to contradict the 'Whole Army' concept.

With such a wide educational (and training) governance remit, the Army has to provide appropriately trained, qualified and skilled personnel to support its educational and training requirements. Governance for training development, support and education is coordinated through Directorate Education Capability (DEd. Cap). Within this Directorate, the Army has two basic approaches to its educational staffing.

The first strand is education related, and is delivered through the Education Training Services (ETS); ETS personnel were traditionally recruited from Regular officers but since 2013, officers from the Army Reserve have been eligible to apply for selection. These officers are typically teachers holding civilian teaching qualifications such as B.Ed. and / or PGCE level qualifications. Reserve officers must be qualified on entry; however, Regular officers can apply to join ETS and achieve their PGCE during their first tour of duty. The ETS provides formal education and support through the AECs, including the technical delivery of CLM.

The second strand of training delivery is skills training and development. This route is open to all ranks, typically from Lance Corporal through to Sergeant Major. This training provision happens at ATRs (Regular Army), Specialist training establishments, ATUs (Army Reserve) and in Unit (Regular and Reserve) barracks.

All NCOs will attend an instructional techniques course as part of the CLM process. The current basic Army instructional course is the Defence

Instructional Techniques (DIT) course. Individuals who are employed at an ATR or an ATU, and have a responsibility for teaching phase-1 recruits must also attend the Defence Train the Trainer (DTTT) course. The requirement for DIT and DTTT is applicable to both the Regular and Reserve instructors.

### ***Army and educational opportunities***

There are opportunities for Regular soldiers, typically officers and Warrant Officers, to achieve formal qualifications such as B.Ed. and PGCE although very limited provision exists for the Army Reserve to achieve similar levels of qualification. The development of Troops to Teachers (TtT) has provided a potential developmental opportunity for Regular Army service leavers seeking to move into a civilian teaching role upon leaving the services; qualifying criteria (University of Brighton, 2014) exist. It is unclear whether any consideration for extending this opportunity to appropriately experienced members of the Army Reserve has been considered.

During the timeframe of the research, all personnel attending the DIT course had been given the opportunity to achieve the 6-credit PTLLS qualification. This opportunity was removed from the DIT course when the qualification structure changed to the 9-credit structure; there is no longer any accreditation opportunities available through DIT. Army policy (JSP 822 Chapter 3, Part 4, 2008) mandated that all personnel employed in a phase-1 training establishment (Regular or Reserve) must complete the CTLLS qualification as part of their DTTT course; the Army did not require personnel to complete the Professional Formation process in order to achieve ATLS status. This was updated to accommodate the change from CTLLS to the 9-credit PTLLS qualification. The Army manages curriculums tightly and uses 'Instructional Specifications' (ISpecs), Assessment Specifications (ASpecs), and 'Course Folders' to define the preparation, management, and delivery of instructional packages,

especially those related to phase-1 training (JSP 822, 2008). In light of this, is it possible for the instructor to fully develop their autonomous skills? The discussion section of this thesis questions whether autonomy is actually a requirement of professional behaviour within highly controlled and centralised organisations such as the Army.

### ***Professionalism, reflection and the Army***

Within the DIT course, students are encouraged to consider their assessed teaching practice during a 'hot' debrief (DIT, 2008); in addition reflection forms a key component of the PTLLS (CTLLS)/DTTT requirement. The process for a 'hot' debrief is to provide an opportunity for the instructor to consider their performance and how it may be improved for future practices.

This 'hot' debrief typically takes the form of a Q&A session, conducted in front of the class, where the assessor asks the instructor questions such as:

- How do you think that went?
- What went well?
- What helped you here?
- What didn't go well?
- Why was that?
- What could you do to improve next time?

(Adapted from Crown, 2008)

It can often also result in the assessor providing a summary of performance against the key criteria for a successful DIT format lesson (DIT, 2008).

This approach can lead to a focus on instructor performance rather than a consideration of the student learning experience. Additionally, while some

people may feel comfortable in answering this type of question in front of their peers, others may prefer time to consider the experience; a natural reaction to the way different people view different situations. Yet, can an individual working in a highly structured, formalised and standardised training establishment actually develop their practice through such a process? Furthermore, the use of this style of questioning may directly lead to comments connected with instructor delivery rather than the student learning experience; this point was identified within Ofsted's (2011) report and might be pertinent to instructor behaviour in the Army Reserve.

The ATU at the centre of my research has, as with many similar organisations, a series of internal policies that have been designed to accommodate instructor monitoring and '*voice of the customer*' analysis. Instructors are observed during their instructional practice and encouraged to discuss their perceptions through a 'hot' debrief on their performance. This is in line with the current approach accommodated within the Defence Systems Approach to Training (DSAT). Records of observations are maintained and the instructor is provided with a copy of the record, a copy of which is also made available to their immediate line management if requested.

Student feedback (*voice of the customer*) is obtained through questionnaires at the mid point and end point during the standard 6-weekend course; a third questionnaire is used during the Infantry course which has an additional 3-weekend requirement. The data is analysed for individual course performance and trend analysis over the previous 13 courses; the analysis feeds back to the instructional teams through the Chain of Command. In this respect, an instructor at the ATU receives an extrinsic perception of performance but this may not be sufficient to identify potential individual improvements, or to act as a driver for overall improvement. Possessing data will not improve performance but it may

act as an indicator to some improvement opportunities. However, action is required to develop individual and organisational practice.

Dainton (2005) explained that in, in her opinion, using someone else's thoughts, ideas, strategies, and lesson plans was not applicable to the concept of informed professionalism. This link to the need for judgement and decisions rooted in expertise can separate the craft activity from the professional activity. It could also be argued that professionalism relates to the ability of the individual to physically perform the craft or task.

Dainton's point on materials preparation may be related to the current trend of online materials being prepared by Awarding Bodies for use by teachers in a classroom and thus her concern may be related to the knowledge required by a teacher to prepare rather than the pedagogical skill and ability to deliver. Her point may also reflect practice within the Army Reserve, especially in relation to instructors' individual concepts of professionalism and that of the organisational professionalism within a phase-1 training establishment.

### ***Army and craft skills***

Joss and Jones (1995) discuss models of professionalism as forms of social constructivism. From their perspective, the nature of professional work relates to the complexity of the task rather than a notion of performance and underpinned by knowledge. In describing the professional worker, it is suggested that the ability to be able to deal with unique situations and to apply discretion and judgment to determine appropriate 'situational' solutions is a key element of professionalism. Jones and Joss identify the role of individual perception and self-image as facets of professional identity, these facets being underpinned through values and shared practices. They describe different forms that professionalism can adopt:

- the Craft Professional having a self-image as a craftsman who has developed skills and knowledge through practical experience;
- the Technical Expert having a self image of technical expertise and ability underpinned by empirical knowledge;
- the Managerial Expert, similar to the Technical Expert but with a managerial rather than technical expertise skillset;
- the Reflective Practitioner, where development is through reflection on experience to help develop new courses of action.

It could be argued that Jones and Joss, in differentiating between different types of professional worker, may have opened the way for arguing against Dainton's concern about people using materials that have been prepared by others. The similarities to Jones and Joss' (1995) Craft Professionalism and Technical Expert forms are considered within my results discussion.

Although there is a range of papers presented on the topic of professionalism within the Army, these papers concentrate on the professionalism related to overall soldiering skills rather than instructional skills. However, Jones and Joss's (1995) use of terms such as 'Craft Professional' and, to a degree, the 'Technical Expert' appears to describe the skills of the Army instructor and demonstrates homogeneity with civilian teaching skills. Their suggestion is that professional knowledge is something that can be gained, post priori, through experience and practice, as an individual develops the necessary skill and expertise, is to my mind pertinent to the on-going professional development of the Army instructor.

Jones and Joss were using the concept of the vocational trainer to explain how an individual may have professional knowledge and skills in one area and develop these in another area. An example here is a bricklayer who uses the basic craft skills and tacit knowledge as a further education

teacher. In consideration of the 'Reserve' instructor, in many instances, these individuals have already developed their professional image or professional knowledge in their civilian career and can bring this experience into their Army Reserve service. Alternatively, some Reserve service personnel have previously spent time in the Regular forces. Wallace's (2004, p64) point that professional values are not exclusive to teaching supports the case with Reserve instructors and the skills, knowledge and experience they bring into the organisation from their previous military and civilian experiences. This suggests that a relationship exists between the military organisation and an individual's civilian organisation and that this relationship may act to influence an individual's perspective on their professionalism.

### ***A personal perspective***

My belief is that instructors who deliver the same lessons on an almost daily basis, with materials that have been prepared for them, to troops they have not '*developed a relationship*' with, for courses they do not '*own*', may find the process of development through personal reflection alone an almost impossible challenge. Furthermore, when working in an environment in which time is limited and instruction is constant, the likelihood of action coming out of personal reflection is, I believe, minimal.

In the context of professional identity and its importance within this research, it is my contention that while some Army Reserve instructors may demonstrate professionalism through subject knowledge, behaviour, attitude, and judgement, their ability to do so links with the organisation and how it develops soldiers into the role of instructor. The individual instructor's ability to reflect, adapt and develop is limited by the centralised and controlled approach adopted by the military in the training of their instructors, the practices individual instructors follow within their functional roles, and the level of autonomy they are afforded by the key organisational influencers.

## 2.2. Academic perspectives

During the process of reviewing the literature, I initially explored the sociology of professionalism, what it means, and who may be considered as a professional. Whilst detail is not included in the review, it did suggest that the concept of teaching as a profession (Lester, 2007), especially in the lifelong learning sector, is a relatively modern concept. In addition to which, Johnson (1972) had previously discussed developments that had seen many other occupations aspire to a status as a 'profession'; a point agreed by Shulman (2005) with his inclusion of *engineering* as a profession, and more emphatically by Crook (2008) in his paper on historical contexts on professionalism. Crook concluded that professionalism is an ever changing and developing arena where we can all be professionals if we '*conduct ourselves in a manner that seems to be professional*' (Crook, 2008, p23).

Whilst Crook's observation says much about the concept of professionalism in recent times, it does not further our understanding of the meaning of *being a professional*, or what *professionalism* means. Lunt (n.d.) considered this as an ethical dilemma suggesting that personal professional values develop against a background of cultural, social and political norms. In very broad terms, this may suggest that professionalism appears to be a component of the relationship between the employing organisation, the individual, the level of expertise of the practitioners and the social importance of the occupation within which they operate. The thesis data analysis and discussion chapters explore this link.

My primary interests relate to the individual practitioner and what they consider professional behaviour to be. It also considers how individuals believe they demonstrate this pattern of behaviour, and how they develop their practice in line with their beliefs. In supporting this line of investigation, the impact an organisation has on the development of

individual professional identity is also of interest. To that end, there are links with the general literature surrounding the practice of teaching, training, and education, although my particular interest is in military training with specific attention on the development of the part-time Army Reserve instructor. The focus of this review centres on the process of professionalising education and how that influences personal perspectives of individual trainers. Through this focus, we can begin to see gaps in understanding in relation to the 'situated' nature of professionalism and the influences that may affect it.

### ***Education, professionalism and the importance of qualifications***

The area of teacher qualifications has been raised by Robson (2006) who discussed the range of qualifications available to people working in post-compulsory educational establishments and the complexity in the range, standard and level of teacher qualifications available. She considered teacher professionalism from the perspective of further and higher education practitioners rather than the more typical reviews that had centred on the compulsory sector (Robson, 2006, p10).

Although now slightly dated, Robson's discussion concerning the requirement for professional qualifications in an FE environment is still worthy of consideration. In it she explains that there is a general perception that, *'to teach well it is often assumed, one needs little more than knowledge of the relevant subject – and common sense'* (Robson 2006, p25); Robson goes on to dispute the perception. This concept (Robson, 2006) is in conjunction with her earlier assertion that teachers actually put their subject knowledge ahead of any pedagogical skills; Wolf (2011) has essentially suggested following the same path that Robson had earlier tried to discredit. Robson aligned her definitions to Becker (1970) where the term 'profession' is an umbrella term for grouping concepts together rather than relating it to specific organisations. The link between vocational expertise and pedagogy is made within the ideas promulgated

by, amongst others, Joss and Jones (1995), Robson (2006), Unwin (2007), Fisher and Webb (2007), and Evans (2008).

Furlong et al (2000) linked the concepts of qualifications together to present a picture suggesting that, due to the complexities contained with the professional decision-making process, specialised knowledge that is applied ethically should provide an individual with the ability to make effective professional judgements. He further suggested that knowledge, autonomy and responsibility must co-exist and that appropriate values develop collectively (Furlong, 2000). However, with the increasing standardisation of curriculums and assessment criteria, the ability of the teacher to make professional judgements on what to teach may reduce (Dainton, 2005); this may in turn actually impinge on the perception of professionalism within the individual. Alternatively, with a standard curriculum, we may see a shift in professional judgement moving from what to teach into the concept of how to teach; in effect, a review of our pedagogical perspectives. If this is the case, it may also demonstrate an alternative concept of professionalism as teachers can concentrate their efforts on identifying the most appropriate method of satisfying the learning process without the added responsibility of determining the content of a course. In effect, this puts pedagogy at the forefront of professionalism in this sector.

### ***Organisations and professionalism***

Johnson (1972) discussed the professions and professionalism in terms of organisations and occupations to highlight the emergence of new professions, professional status and professional practice. He proposed that two fundamental questions provided the basis for the sociology of professionalism: the level of uniqueness of the occupation in the sociological division of labour and whether the occupation performs a special functional role in specific areas of society, such as industrial, economic or social (Johnson, 1972, p10). Johnson considered

professional development as essentially a three-fold process: a term relating to an occupation and its associated governing bodies; the attributes displayed and recognised as the core of professionalism; the 'end state' achieved when the previous characteristics have been completely satisfied (Johnson, 1972, p21-23). McDonald (1995) further discussed the sociology of the professions, citing authors such as Freidson (1970) with a concern for '*professional prestige*', and Larson (1977) with a focus on the marketisation of specialised knowledge and skills, in addition to the development of professional bodies and the codification of behaviour and practice.

Runté (1995), supporting Johnson's position, explained his belief that the two sociological approaches, trait models (Greenwood 1965) and structural-functionalism (Durkheim, 1957), erroneously form the general basis for most people's concept of a profession. The concept supporting the trait approach is that all professions will contain certain characteristics that define professionalism. This often results in a list that is used to define the key characteristics of occupational or practitioner behaviours. Prime examples of these exist in standards created by the Education and Training Foundation (ETF), the former Institute for Learning (IfL), and the former Teaching Agency and the Army Values and Standards. Whilst lists may be a useful method of creating parameters for behaviour, my research suggests that the very bodies creating the lists also create influence on an individual and organisational level.

Structural-functionalism is concerned with the gathering and control of exclusive knowledge contained within the function. Functional analysis is used to investigate, review and develop competency-based standards for occupations to produce a description of practice (Lester, 2007). This provides a focus on the activity rather than the training and education required to perform the activity; prime examples of this can be found in various National Occupational Standards (NOS) although many of these

are now being redrafted, partly to accommodate changes within the requirements of the recent apprenticeship programmes resulting from the Richard Review in 2013. Lester (2007) points out that recent developments have seen the descriptions of practice begin to move from the functional model towards a competency-based model *'more in keeping with the idea of a capable practitioner able to apply a repertoire of abilities in roles and situations that cannot all be envisaged in advance'* (Lester, 2007, p6). This is a similar approach to Jones and Joss's Craft Professional and Technical Expert concept.

As Jones and Joss (1995) point out, there is no agreement on the validity of either the *'trait'* or *'structural-functionalist'* approach. They did identify a number of alternative models of professionalism relating to performance and capability (Jones and Joss, 1995). Hoyle (1975) may have preferred the use of the term 'professionalism' as he used this word to describe art, skill and techniques applied by practitioners in the process of teaching whilst I have likened Hoyle's professionalism to professional identity. He reserved the term 'professionalism' to describe the application of strategies to improve status and occupational conditions.

McDonald linked the professions to work and professional life through a process that he called jurisdiction. He went on to explain that *'to analyse professional development is to analyse how the link is created in work and how it is anchored in formal and informal social structures'* (McDonald, 1995, p15). McDonald's point on professional development and its link with social issues is further supported by considerations on the ethics of professionalism (Lunt, n.d.) and how they are defined through the political and social arena. The social perspective on concepts of professionalism may be rooted in cultural or religious beliefs. This can form through family and peer group considerations (Lunt, n.d.); these considerations may also act in a cumulative manner. The idea that the concept of professionalism is rooted in cultural beliefs may support the idea of professionalism within

the military, with its very clearly defined society with a social structure that is controlled through its rank hierarchy. In addition to which, it may be possible to make the case for developing the professional ability of the military instructor through attendance on the DTTT course; instructors are encouraged to develop their skills, and those of their trainees, through the application of coaching techniques although there may be limited support available within an ATU for this form of development. However, my research also suggests that the organisation can inadvertently create barriers to individual professional development through its policies, procedures and culture.

### ***Professional prestige***

Shon (2006, p4), whilst looking at the concept of professional prestige, cited the Pratte and Rury (1991) definition of professionalism as *'an ideal to which individuals and occupational groups aspire, in order to distinguish themselves from other workers'*, explaining that the characteristics of a profession provide status for the professional. These characteristics are concerned with a definitive body of knowledge, developed through a controlled membership to provide a commitment to client welfare. This is perhaps an example of the structural-functionalism approach that is identifiable within the DSAT approach to instructor management. From this definition, it is very easy to see how different occupational areas can be considered as having professional status; paradoxically, it could be argued that lawyers might not be considered as professionals since their controlled membership may not be one that is derived from a consideration of 'client welfare'. The question posed here relates to whether the *'client'* is the legislature and the lawyer upholds the law, or is the *'client'* the individual (or corporation) who engages the lawyer to perform a service and use the law to obtain the best outcome. Shon (2006) does, however, appear to link back to Johnson (1972) through a combination of trait model and structural-functionalism.

The key point at this stage is that there is no clear definition or consistent understanding concerning professionalism; there are, however, many similarities within the different perspectives people have considered. As Fox (1992, p2) succinctly put it, '*Professionalism means different things to different people*'; it may also mean different things in different settings. A number of papers and discussions explore questions concerning the very nature of teaching as a profession, or a semi-profession (Whitty, 2006). I do not intend to perpetuate this discussion but have explored the relationship between organisations and individuals in terms of professional identity.

### ***Connotations of professionalism***

Although 'professionalism' is widely used within the academic, vocational and governing areas of education, it does not always have the same connotations. Eraut (1994, p102) suggested that '*many areas of professional knowledge and judgement have not been codified and it is increasingly recognised that experts often cannot explain the nature of their own expertise*'. Following on from Eraut's statement, if experts cannot explain the nature of their own expertise, it may be equally likely that individuals may have difficulty in describing the nature of their professional identity. Thus, we may have a theoretical concept of what it is to be a professional, albeit one that does not necessarily match the concept of the individual practitioner.

Hoyle and John (1995) present '*professionalism*' in the form of three central concepts: Autonomy, Knowledge, Responsibility – an approach adopted by Robson (2006) within her review on professionalism in the further (FE) and higher education (HE) sectors.

While addressing the concept of professional knowledge and how it is codified, Robson (2006, p14) explained that, unlike many other '*professions*', teachers in the FE sector will have previously obtained their

professional knowledge in their individual field of expertise and then develop the knowledge of how to teach it. This may be appropriate for teachers who have had previous 'vocational' careers but does not accommodate people who move into the FE sector as a first career choice. Robson's position is likely to be the case for the Regular soldier although the Reserve soldier may have already developed a career before joining the Army Reserve, or whilst they have been serving members. It is feasible that members of the Army Reserve may teach subjects related to their civilian area of professional expertise, an obvious example of this being a mechanic joining the Royal Electrical and Mechanical Engineers (REME).

Robson draws together the thoughts of numerous authors and researchers to conclude that there is *'little consensus about how the knowledge of teaching should be represented'* (2006, p16) and that *'a coherent and systematic professional knowledge for teachers in the post-school phase is lacking'* (2006, p19). From an organisational perspective, the military has tried to satisfy this potential gap through a combination of JSP 822 and DSAT; this again suggests a relationship may exist between individual belief and organisational governance.

### ***Autonomy***

In her discussion on autonomy, Robson identifies the contrast between the ideal and actual status. Autonomy is fundamental (Robson, 2006, p13) to the concept of professionalism. Yet the introduction of competency-based qualifications where standards and curriculum are controlled and coordinated through Sector Skills Councils, especially in further education, may mean that practitioners have little or no autonomy in what they teach or how it is assessed. The tightly controlled curriculums within the Army leave the instructor with limited room for manoeuvre within the lesson content or assessment vehicle. In light of this, it may not be possible for the Army instructor to develop autonomous skills, leading us to question

whether autonomy is a requirement of professional behaviour within such highly controlled and centralised organisations.

Pitt (n.d.) (cited in Stengel, 2010, p19) discussed the '*impossible profession*' and how the concept of autonomy may actually be a limiting factor in the development of professionalism. Although it has been suggested that autonomy has increased, the suggestion is coupled with the notion that the FE sector is also under a more stringent control regime (Shain, 1999). These controls may act against the freedom that is the basis of autonomous practice.

### ***Responsibility***

Responsibility is linked to the concept of accountability. Furlong (2000) saw it as a direct link to a practitioner's need to use their professional knowledge to evaluate and make judgment-based decisions in accordance with their professional values (Robson, 2006). The FE practitioner has a professional responsibility to a number of different stakeholder groups. These groups include: students, and in some cases, parents of students; employers for work-based learners; college or training organisation; Awarding Bodies and other stakeholders. The military instructor likewise has a professional responsibility to stakeholder groups: parent units and wider army groups, recruits, the chain of command, governance from groups such as Initial Training Group (ITG) and Technical Support Agencies (TSA). Both the FE practitioner and the Army instructor could be considered as clients thus linking this strand to Shon's (2006) approach, although my research suggests that a potential exists for these groups to influence individual professional identity.

Some research suggests teachers see professionalism in terms of their commitment to their students (Clow, 2001) and to protecting the standards of subject knowledge expertise (Robson, 2006, p21). Lester (2007, p2) draws on Hoyle and John (1995) to conclude his thoughts on the linked

characteristics of specialist knowledge, autonomy and judgement. He explains that the professional practitioner has a responsibility to their clients and wider society to '*voluntarily commit to a set of principles*' and that the characteristics can apply to both the individual practitioner and the professional organisation. This is particularly pertinent to the Army instructor, especially when working in a phase-1 training establishment: dress, bearing, turnout and behaviour are expected to be of an exemplary standard as the instructors are the face of the Army to new recruits and have a responsibility to set the correct tone whilst introducing the recruit to military training.

### ***The relationship between the organisation and the individual***

Hoyle had explained professionalism in terms of the strategies and rhetoric employed by members of an occupation to enhance their terms, conditions and status (Hoyle, 1975, p315, cited in Evans, 2008). Freidson (1994, p10, cited in Evans, 2008) extended this through an interpretation that considered a profession as an occupation with control over its own work and governance by a '*special set of institutions*' sustained by ideology, expertise, and service. By extension, his use of the term professionalism relates to that ideology and the institutions of governance; this concept appeared to be very pertinent when considering the military approach.

Evans has encapsulated both approaches concisely within her definition for professionalism:

*'An ideologically-, attitudinally-, intellectually-, and epistemologically-based stance on the part of an individual, in relation to the practice of the profession to which s/he belongs, and which influences her/his professional practice'. (Evans, 2002, p6-7)*

Evans creates links to Hoyle's 1975 work and the twin concepts of professionalism and professionalism. Professionalism, she suggests, relates to status and the organisational aspects of teacher activities whilst professionalism aligns with personal development, skills and attributes of the individual (Evans, 2008). She further suggests (citing Hoyle and Wallace, 2005) that the concept of autonomy has given way to accountability (Lunt, n.d.) and that this in part is driven by the need for professionals to work collaboratively (Boreham, 2007). The point here is that accountability specifically relates to the notion of teacher professionalism and the effect teachers have on their own development (Hargreaves and Goodson, 1996). Maintaining the concept of autonomy may impact on the current drive towards coordinated continual professional development (CPD), especially if CPD were to become accountable as an area of an individual's professional status and ultimately their identity.

It is possible that this move towards accountability is encouraged through processes such as targets and achievement rates. Avis (2006) explored the literature surrounding teacher identity in the FE sector and identified a number of themes, including loss of control with increased levels of administration and a greater emphasis on measurable performance indicators. He explained that the longer teachers have been in the profession, the less likely they were to see these changes in a positive manner (ibid). This reaction may be connected with increased accountability and responsibility for student attainment, or a perceived attack on the individual's perception of their own professionalism, although it was argued that the changes were driven by a need to improve standards in education (Machin & Vignoles, 2005).

Evans (2008) also argued that professional culture and professionalism are intertwined and related to some processes that '*define and articulate the quality and character of people's actions within the group*' (Evans,

2008, p6). Her assertion is that a professional culture is a collective attitudinal response of people towards the functional activities they perform, in other words, their professionalism. This prompts the question of the impact the culture of an organisation has on the professionalism or professional identity of its members; this point is considered in the data analysis and discussion chapters in the thesis.

There are however blurred lines of responsibility between managerial and practitioner roles (Gleeson & James, 2007, p452) that can result in combined and potentially contradictory pressures in relation to practice. Four organisational types (Tharp, n.d.) exist, each of which may impact on the people working within them; of the four types, the controlling organisational type is pertinent to this discussion. From the perspective of power and influence, there are different internal organisational influencers (Mintzberg, 1983), who may exert authority and power. These influencers include different levels of management and expert operators. Although Mintzberg is discussing industry, his '*influencers*' can be recognised within military organisations.

### **2.3. Vocational perspectives**

Much of the literature pertinent to the concept of vocational professionalism appears to have been presented from the perspective of graduate-level entry into professions and is typically written from the perspective of the influences affecting the development of the individual within the vocational field.

Rogers and Scott (n.d.), while discussing teacher education, provide some clarity to the concept of identity with their premise that 4 basic assumptions associated with identity are pertinent. These are that identity is a) formed as a result of inputs from social, cultural, political and historical influences; b) formed through emotional relationships with others; c) constructed of many different and changing facets; d) evolves

over time. Elements of these points are suggested as pertinent to the 'situated' nature of professional identity as described through this research.

In summarising professional learning and development from a 'teacher' perspective, Timperley (2009) also identified a number of core principles related to development. She argued that there is a need to create conditions that are suited to development, suggesting that these conditions include providing the opportunities for the development of practices that encourage skill and knowledge integration on an on-going basis, thus linking to the fourth point made by Rogers and Scott (n.d.). She further explained that this included providing the support to allow teachers to challenge their previously held assumptions and beliefs. This links with the third element of Robson's (2006) discussion, that of responsibility on the part of the organisation to provide the right conditions for development and on the part of the individual to use those opportunities in a constructive manner. Within the current Army approach, there appears to be limited opportunities for instructors to develop apart, from their delivery technique.

Whilst no literature pertaining to the development of professional identity of instructors within a military environment has been identified, this is not the case in the healthcare sector where the concept of 'identities under construction' has been reviewed from different perspectives. The basic concept can be identified in McElhinney (2008) where she describes professional identity from the perspective of individuals moving through a requisite training programme (Clinical Psychology) to identify the relationship the individual has with the role they are training to take on and how that may alter with time. She identifies the link between professionalism and role competence while at the same time suggesting that the formal status of the role can be a key component of a sense of professional development. In effect, self-perception is a key element of an

individual's developing professional identity; this concept of 'role identity' (Sweitzer, 2009) is also apparent in the development of professional identity of students studying at doctoral level.

The relationship between work role and professional status is discussed in the context of 'work identity' (Pratt et al, 2006) from the perspective of three groups of medical practitioners. Here, time and socialisation are again identified as key factors in identity development. However, this research suggests that work tasks performed influence change and development, leading the researchers to speculate that further research is required to consider the characteristics of the individual practitioner.

Jones and Joss's (1995) use of the terms 'Craft Professional' and 'Technical Expert' suggest that professional knowledge is something that can be gained through experience and practice as an individual develops the necessary skill and expertise. Brint (1994) might have seen this as a development from elitist professionalism to expert professionalism; his interpretation of expert professional being one that encapsulated the skills, knowledge and experience to make appropriate decisions; a skill that he felt was highly desirable in a marketplace (ibid, p40). This may be likened to the Army instructor. An example may be the Skill at Arms (SAA) instructor who will attend a two-week course learning the basics of the weapon system and the prescribed approach to teaching the system; they are then tested and '*licensed to practise*' as a SAA instructor. The instructor then develops their skill and expertise at delivering the subject matter over time.

It might also be related to the indeterminacy of professional judgement concept (Jamous and Peloille, 1970), an idea explored by Traynor et al (2010) in their paper on nursing professionalism. Traynor et al found that a number of their research participants used professional judgement during decision-making, recognising the role of intuition and instinct as

aids to the process whilst being aware that this type of insight could also lead them to an incorrect conclusion.

The ideas behind the Craft Professional and the Technical Expert are not disassociated from the benefits of theoretical study and the role of professional knowledge (Eraut, 1992). This may be extended to include the importance of self-image and how it can support professional development (Jones and Levi, 1983) and the concept of dual professionalism; in this instance, the links between vocational expertise and pedagogy are considered from the FE practitioner perspective (Crowther, 2014). I believe that this begins to form a picture supporting the experiential nature of professional development and a relationship to self-image and self-perception.

Wallace (2004, p64), in discussing the concept of the teacher professional, explained that 'professional values' are not exclusively related to the act of teaching. She says they inform the way in which people interact with colleagues, other professionals, the subject, the students and the institute in which they teach. In support of this, Göransson's (2004) examination of learning experiences of Swedish fire fighters considers how they responded to different approaches in vocational training. Identifying that learners adamantly believe in the importance of 'trainer' professional competency (ibid, p105), she concluded that written and unwritten workplace rules follow students into the learning space to influence learning.

The inference, as discussed within my research, is that professionalism may be related as much to peer perception as it is to capability; axiomatically, the position may also be reversed in that individual capability may be one of the main drivers to inform peer perception, even if the individual does not perceive their own level of professionalism.

### ***Consolidating thought***

These papers, and many others not referenced within this review, suggest that individual professional identity is an evolving rather than stable concept and that it is related to the social context within which the individual performs their role. Within this context, it is possible to suggest that the Army Reserve instructor's personal perspective on their professional identity may be influenced by their operational environment. This consideration has resulted in the development of a model for considering situational vocational professional identity (SVPI) that brings the individual, the employer(s) and the sectorial stakeholders together.

### ***Coaching***

As a slight aside, the concept of transformational learning is one that the Army has tried to develop through its DTTT course. Here, the activity of transformational learning links to the concept of coaching and mentoring. The approach has definite links to Whitmore's (1992) *Coaching for Performance* approach although Brockbank and McGill (2006) may recognise it as a *functionalist* coaching approach.

Both approaches agree that one of the key skills in the development of coaching is in the art of listening with, Brockbank and McGill explaining that coaches are *made* rather than *born* to the task, although the coach will have a degree of experience coupled with the development of people skills (Brockbank and McGill, 2006, p173). I believe that, although the military as an organisation has bought into coaching as an aid to individual development, the challenge of its instructional staff fully realising the benefits and applying the techniques may take time to become embedded within the culture of the organisation. This is especially pertinent when considering the actions, behaviours and skills of the Army Reserve instructor since they may have had limited opportunity and support in developing these skills in a 'live' situation; the limitation is due to the

condensed nature of training and reduced developmental opportunities rather than a reflection on personal levels of skill and ability.

### ***Reflection***

In her discussion on reflection, Moon (2004) focused on the differences between surface and deep learning. The basic concept that reflection becomes more important to the individual as they develop their practice is explored within the main body of the research. Hillier (2005, p8) added to the debate during her review of the reflective practitioner. Of particular interest to me is her explanation of reflection and its role in understanding significant events. This approach of using '*episodes of practice*' to describe, inform and interpret events and then review the events with colleagues is, I believe, fundamental to developing effective reflection.

However, I do not believe there is a linear relationship between reflection and professional development; for the relationship to exist, the individual must have to recognise and understand their experiences (Hillier, 2005) and find the time and confidence to move their reflections forward into action (Jaworski, 1993). Indeed, McArdle and Coutts (2010) have argued that reflection, as a developmental activity, has been seen on too narrow a front and that for it to be truly beneficial it needs to be seen in the context of a *communities of learning* style of development. Their central premise is that the original concept of reflective thinking (Schön, 1983) is flawed in that it did not accommodate the impact of social discourse and shared practice; this point is supported by Brookfield (1995) when he challenges the notion of sufficient criticality within teacher reflections.

Key to my considerations is that critical reflection is important and for it to be beneficial there needs to be a direct link to learning and development. My concern is where the approach is promulgated by the organisation but the practitioner does not feel empowered to develop their practice; this was a key point drawn out through numerous discussions whilst

conducting this research. Whilst the opportunities to alter curriculum, content and timing may not be available to the individual instructor, their approach to delivery remains within their control – yet does the pressure to deliver the standard training package limit individual and group thoughts?

One way that the process of converting reflection into action may be encouraged is through coaching and mentoring. Research reported by McGivern (2009, p33) categorically states that there is a *'clear link between supervision (of coaching) and continual professional development'*. The IfL took this up as part of their drive towards their *'professional formulation'* process; in their documentation, IfL (2010, p21) state that, *'... research shows that critical reflection on professional learning and activities improves practice and demonstrates continuous development'*. IfL provided guidelines for what may constitute CPD, how to record it, and the need for reflection to have taken place. They appear to concentrate their area of interest on the outcome rather than the process itself; this is similar to the concern identified by the Ofsted (2011) report in relation to the instructor monitoring and evaluation approach employed within the inspected (Regular) sites.

In effect, members are asked to reflect on their practice and identify changes made through the reflection but no support or guidance for the process of reflection is provided. ETF guidelines (2014b) describe reflection in terms of case study vignettes exploring the importance of the concept, but as with IfL, limited further support is available. This may be a moot point since reflection is a personal activity, yet for the inexperienced teacher, support and guidance may be welcomed.

Reflection can link to the related yet independent aspect of evaluation. Hillier (2005) demonstrates the link through an explanation of the benefits of formal and informal evaluation in the form of written or verbal activities, of obtaining *'voice of the customer'* feedback and the application of self-evaluation. A short quote summarises the link:

*'Evaluation is necessary to inform reflection. It provides information and judgments about this information that can then lead to the searching and questioning that critical reflection demands'. (Hillier, 2005, p209)*

Roffey-Barensten and Malthouse (2008) discuss intrinsic and extrinsic reasons for reflection and the extrinsic link is made to the need for critical reflection as part of the IfL requirement for 30 hours annual CPD. The military did not commit to the rules and regulations put forward through IfL; therefore, for the instructor, the benefit of reflection must surely be found in intrinsic practices. Despite the range of texts and authorities on the concept of professionalism and the development of individual professional identity, there appears to be a general agreement that reflection and reflective practices form part of the professional's personal development toolbox. This is reflected in the content of teacher training courses such as the Preparing to Teach in the Lifelong Learning Sector (PTLLS) and the Diploma in Teaching in the Lifelong Learning Sector (DTLLS) courses and other forms of Initial Teacher Training (McCabe et al, 2009). In these courses, students create written reflections on both their written work and teaching practices.

So how do reflections link to professional practice and the development of professional knowledge? Eraut (1994, p143) goes back to Donald Schön to provide a summary of the *'key defensible points of the thesis'* in two conceptual statements:

- *'professionals are engaged in a number of ill-defined situations requiring an ability to solve complex problems; and*
- *professionals intuitively draw on previous personal experience whilst simultaneously reflecting on what they are doing'.*

The concept of reflecting in action and / or on action is recognised as a key element of professional development (AS-4) within the IfL guidance notes. IfL documentation presented the need for reflection and self-evaluation as a key professional value (IfL, 2006), describing it as a key professional skill (AP-4). They do not provide any real guidance on how this reflection and self-evaluation may be conducted; similar issues and points are apparent within the ETF standards on professionalism and specifically identified within the sections on Professional values and attributes and Professional knowledge and understanding (2014a); they can also be identified within JSP 822 and DSAT from a military perspective.

Whilst IfL and ETF consider reflection from the perspective of the 'Standards', Moon (2004, p85) provides a link between the act of reflection and the activity of learning. Her approach is to utilise the Structure of Observed Learning Outcome (SOLO) taxonomy (Biggs and Collins, 1982) to identify where reflection starts to take effect and the level of reflection that may become apparent. Using the terms *Noticing*, *Making sense*, *Making meaning*, *Working with meaning*, *Transformative learning*, she explains that the act of reflection becomes more apparent as a person moves through the hierarchy. During the *noticing* stage, virtually no reflective activities occur whilst the *transformative learning* stage has a bias toward the reflective practitioner; in effect, I believe Moon is suggesting that as an individual develops through the hierarchy, their ability to use reflection as a developmental tool is enhanced. This may suggest individuals are not professional until they have progressed through the stages. However, this should be considered from the perspective of organisational barriers and constraints that impact on an individual's ability to develop practice through reflection. It may be possible to accept that reflection and reflective practices have different levels of importance at an individual level. This may lead to the

suggestion that rather than reflective practice being considered as a definitive characteristic of professional behaviour, it is considered as a tool an individual can call upon to support their professional development.

## **2.4. Political influence and occupational standards**

### ***New Labour reforms***

New Labour came into power in 1997 and, with the mantra, '*Education, Education, Education*' (Hill, 1999), provided a focus on professional development in relation to the functional role of teaching. This development included the four strands of New Professionalism: Professional Standards (PS); Performance Management (PM); Continual Professional Development (CPD); Induction (Walker et al 2011). Whilst these strands were aimed at lifting standards and tackling workloads in the compulsory education sector (Walker et al, 2011), the concepts have been applied in further educational establishments and, I believe, in phase-1 training establishments. This is demonstrated by the Army standards of Total Professionalism, Legality and Appropriate Behaviour, which in part, were an outcome of the work conducted after the DHALI-B reports.

In his review on Tony Blair's New Professionalism, Whitty (2006) summarised the points raised in connection with a 1998 Green Paper, *Teachers meeting the challenge of change* (HMSO, 1998). He extracted a series of points connected with professionalism, including concepts such as '*high expectations and accountability*', and, more pertinently to my mind, described the need for '*personal and collective responsibility in improving skills and subject knowledge*'. In effect, this appears to suggest that professionalism is a blend of organisational and individual responsibilities. Lord Leitch was commissioned in 2006 to investigate and report on skill levels in the United Kingdom. Colloquially known as the 'Leitch Report', it investigated the areas of concern in developing world-class skills and reviewed the disparity in post-compulsory educational

standards between the United Kingdom and many developed (western world) countries. This report (Leitch, 2006) made recommendations that would guide educational policy; aspects included the need to develop literacy and numeracy skills, and the potential to develop leadership and management skills in industry. In line with this drive for improvement, the 2007 regulations concerning qualifications to teach in the FE sector were introduced and the status of Associate Teacher Learning and Skills (ATLS) was introduced in addition to the Qualified Teacher Learning and Skills (QTLS) status.

New Labour's reforms in teacher education in the post-compulsory sector resulted in new three new qualifications. The threshold award Preparing to Teach in the Lifelong Learning Sector (PTLLS) provides a basic introduction to teaching for new entrants into the sector. The Certificate in Teaching in the Lifelong Learning Sector (CTLLS) could be used as a route to achieving ATLS status. The Diploma in Teaching in the Lifelong Learning Sector (DTLLS) was instrumental in people achieving QTLS status. The rationale was to develop a professionally qualified and professionally recognised FE teaching staff and the IfL was intended to become the professional body for FE teaching staff.

### ***Coalition reforms***

In 2010, Michael Gove (Secretary of State for Education) commissioned Professor Wolf to review the provision of vocational education. Wolf's review established links between levels of literacy and numeracy, low-value vocational qualifications and opportunities for young people to obtain meaningful employment. She also introduced the notion of compatibility between the staff working in the compulsory and post-compulsory sectors. She explained that '*at present teachers with QTS can teach in FE colleges; the FE equivalent – QTLS – should be recognised in schools, which is currently not the case* (Wolf, 2011, p127). The intention here was to enable schools to employ appropriately *qualified* vocational

*professionals to teach courses at school level.* Amongst the many recommendations made within the Wolf report, she promulgated the idea of using vocational professionals without teaching qualifications to demonstrate and potentially teach parts of courses within the school curriculum (Wolf, 2011, p127) and explained that the responsibility for education (compulsory) may rest with both schools and colleges. Schools needed to develop better vocational education offerings, with colleges being allowed to enrol students from the age of 14 (Wolf, 2011, p129). In 2013, the qualifications required to teach in the lifelong learning sector were redeveloped with the existing qualifications being replaced by a Level 3 Award, a Level 4 Certificate, and a Level 5 Diploma in Education and Training.

### ***The impact of political influence***

Lord Lingfield, commissioned by the Department for Business, Innovation and Skill (BIS), published two reports on professionalism in the FE sector. The interim report (Lingfield, 2012a) suggested the abolition of the 2007 regulations for further education teacher qualifications, with a further review (Lingfield, 2012a :p5), to be led by the Learning and Skills Improvement Service (LSIS), to consider the need for a new suite of initial teacher qualifications, albeit at a higher level than under the 2007 regulations. It also suggested that the QTLS licence to practise approach had not been successful. It cited low numbers of recently qualified FE lecturers completing the final phase of supervised practice following the Diploma course and a misunderstanding of the concept of the associate teacher [ATLS] role (Lingfield, 2012a).

The interim report identified LSIS as being the primary vehicle for supporting the development of professionalism (Lingfield, 2012a, p24) within the FE sector. With the gradual demise of the IfL, Lingfield's final report discussed the Guild for Further Education, being developed by the Department for Business, Innovation and Skills (BIS). The Guild would

assume the mantle of developing professionalism within the sector as an employer-led partnership (BIS, 2012); the Guild was rebranded as the Education Training Foundation (ETF).

Within Lingfield’s final report, a discussion on what constitutes professionalism explained that *‘there is no hard and fast interpretation of the word’* (Lingfield, 2012b) but presented a set of criteria that underpinned professionalism. In accepting that opinion may be divided Linfield suggested that all points are observable in professional groups (Lingfield, 2012b, p22). The points raised can be considered in two areas. The first relates to the development of personal skills including public accountability for capability and conduct. The second recognises the concept of professionals from a group perspective rather than the individual; it suggests that the group has a responsibility to society for its actions and that society should recognise and reward its members appropriately.

***Professional bodies – professional standards***

The IfL had created a code of behaviour with six core elements, as does the Army ‘values’. Both organisations describe key characteristics that members are expected to demonstrate within their normal functioning roles; additional to the six values, the Army has three standards. These standards may link to the earlier concept of Trait Theory described by Runté (1995).

Institute for Learning	Army Values	Army Standards
Integrity	Integrity	-
Respect	Respect for others	-
Care	Selfless Commitment	-
Responsibility	Loyalty	Total professionalism
Practice	Courage	Appropriate Behaviour
Disclosure	Discipline	Legality

Table 2.2 - Comparison between IfL and Army Values and Standards

Table 2.2 demonstrates the similarities of expectations between civilian and military governing bodies. It is my opinion that both use terms relating to standards of behaviour and performance expected from individual practitioners (professional practice; total professionalism) without necessarily providing suitable support and guidance on their achievement. The table does however reflect the influence that key sector stakeholders may have with respect to the development of individual professional identity.

The need for Continual Professional Development (CPD) was identified through a 1998 Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) activity known as *skills foresight*; the focus being on the skills required for different occupational sectors. The key NTO of the time, the Further Education National Training Organisation (FENTO) (1999 – 2001), described the essential functions of professional development as evaluation, planning, and development; these areas are still considered essential although they may be recognised as reflection and professional development (ETF 2014a). Of particular interest are the notions of evaluation and the practice of reflection to critically review one's own performance and seek out opportunities for development based on self-observation. The FENTO protocols gave guidance on how an individual may self evaluate and it identified, amongst other areas, the importance of a teacher conducting a *critical evaluation of their own teaching by eliciting, valuing and using feedback from learners, other teachers, managers and external evaluators* (Gray, 2000, p223, citing FENTO standards, 1999).

With the demise of FENTO (2001), the Institute for Learning (IfL) was created to act as a professional body for teachers in further education in 2002; this body perpetuated the notion that reflection forms a key component of professional development (IfL, 2009). The role of policy makers and institutes such as IfL are considered in Jameson & Hillier's

(2008) paper where they discuss the specific case of the part-time teacher in further education and adult community learning (ACL). Calling on the works of Robson (2006), Clow (2001), Spenceley (2006) and others, they present the case for the part-time teacher and ask how IfL may support their professional development. A later consideration by Crowther (2014) described the approach being developed as a 'thin' professionalism and that it could only portray what the practitioner 'ought to look like'. Crowther (2014, p3) explains that this style of '*regulated professionalism is imposed on practitioners*'.

As with its predecessors, the Institute provided guidance notes to support professional development, including a set of characteristics to which the professional should adhere. It made no allowance for the challenges faced by the part-time teachers, nor the complexity of relationships between part-time staff, full-time staff, and managerial activities. Although not written with the Army, or Army Reserve in mind, this paper (IfL 2009) may provide insight into the challenges faced by Reserve instructors as they grapple with courses designed for the Regular Army instructor to deliver to Regular soldiers; I believe that organisational conflicts must surely exist here. Potentially, these characteristics and behaviours (part-time or full time) link to the earlier concept of 'Trait Theory' discussed by Runté (1995).

### ***Education and Training Foundation developments***

In 2013, the Education and Training Foundation was created to provide a focus for the development of professional standards, qualifications, and codes of behaviour within the lifelong learning sector. Despite the significant levels of research that exist in terms of professionalism as a concept, and how a professional is expected to act, they commissioned research into professional standards for teachers and trainers explaining that the current standards had not been reviewed since 2007. The intention was to provide an updated framework for professional behaviour.

Their 2013 report provides a concise review of approaches to professional standards across a range of countries and identifies the different approaches taken. This review acted as a precursor to their research into professional standards within which they have used opinion surveys and focus groups to gather data; the military were included within the focus group activities. The standards were published in May 2014.

The standards describe professional teachers and trainers in the FE sector as being reflective critical thinkers who consider contemporary research as part of '*evidence-based practice*' (ETF, 2014a, p7). They move on to explain about a duality of professionalism where vocational and pedagogic expertise is required. The standards are structured to reflect three areas: Professional Skills; Professional Values and Attributes; Professional Knowledge and Understanding. A series of underpinning statements for each area is provided. As with the Lingfield (2012b) and UCU (2013) reports, the standard does not present '*new*' information. However, the information is packaged as a statement of requirements the professional practitioner should aspire to meet. Furthermore, there is only a limited recognition of the role of the employer, and no recognition of the impact that sectorial stakeholders have in the development of individual professional identity.

The professional standards presented by ETF (2014a) describe 20 aspirational statements split across three core areas. The military, in the form of the Ministry of Defence (MoD) were represented within the focus groups although my initial reflection on the released standards is that they would be most beneficial to members of the Education and Training Services (ETS) element of the Army. I believe they will probably have less impact on phase-1 instructors where the focus is primarily on the application of technique rather than a wider-ranging development of practice from the learner perspective. This focus may be a result of

trainers striving to adhere to the military pedagogical approach and the tightly constrained training detail resulting from the provided Instructor Specifications (ISPEC) and Assessment Specifications (ASPEC).

## **2.5. Concluding thoughts on the key aspects**

The following summary provides an overview of areas of key research and development between 1972 and the launch of the current standards. From an academic perspective, Johnson (1972) saw professional development as a term to connect an occupation and its associated governing body. Pratte and Rury (1991) extended the idea of professionalism to the individual operating within a professional occupation. A further development was provided by the basic definition of a profession as occupation with control over its own work and governance by a *'special set of institutions'* sustained by ideology, expertise, and service (Freidson, 1994). The three central concepts of Autonomy, Knowledge, Responsibility (Hoyle and John, 1995) again drew in the relationship of the individual and the aspects of practical skills were considered in terms of professionalism through terms such as 'Craft Professional' and 'Technical Expert' (Jones and Joss, 1995). Judgement (Furlong, 2000) and the importance of accountability in place of autonomy (Evans, 2008) further link the concept of professionalism to the characteristics and behaviours of the individual whilst Lester (2007) draws us back to the relationship between the individual, the organisation and a set of core values that should be voluntarily committed to.

Professionalism as a more widespread social concept (Crook, 2008) suggests that the concept is related to standards of behaviour, in addition to educational levels and the social importance of particular occupations. It is related to some process that *'defines and articulates the quality and character of people's actions within the group'* (Evans, 2008, p6).

Occupational and professional standards (FENTO, 2001; LLUK, 2007; ETF, 2014) describe the behaviours and characteristics expected of individuals working in the lifelong learning sector. They include ideas such as reflection and understanding the impact of one's own behaviour; the need to continually develop and to maintain a record of personal development; appropriate behaviour; sharing good practice and having a range of methods to achieve tasks; the importance of organisational support and reconciling potential conflict between institution; professional values and standards whilst recognising the legality of situations and acting appropriately; work within codes of practice. Many of these points are identifiable within JSP 822 and DSAT. The IfL code of practice contained many similarities with the Army's Values. Both contain words such as 'Respect' and 'Integrity' whilst the IfL use of 'Responsibility' might be considered to contain the same sentiment as a combination of 'Courage' and 'Discipline' when applied in terms of 'moral courage' to take the appropriate course of action and discipline to complete it.

Recent reports by Lingfield (2012) and UCU (2013) have presented characteristics of professionalism in the vocational sector. These characteristics provide an 'up to date' idea of the concept of professionalism from a sectorial perspective. The lists include the relationship between specialist knowledge, practical skills, educational standards and applied knowledge. Autonomy, accountability, trustworthiness and integrity tend to feature on many lists and descriptions of professionalism, as does the need to remain occupationally current; values, standards and codes of conduct feature in most descriptions.

ETF published their Professional Standards in 2014. The standards are presented as a series of aspirational statements based on three core areas. Despite the MoD being involved in the development of these standards, I believe it unlikely they will have any major impact on the instructor performance and capabilities in phase-1 training establishments

since this would require a major rethink on the nature of the military pedagogy. Successive governments have been drawn towards developing the capability of front-line teaching staff working in the FE sector. This has been pursued through the development of governing bodies to oversee standards and qualifications of those teaching in the sector. There has been some difference in philosophical approach with the (1997 – 2010) Labour government using a regulated approach and the (2010 – 2015) Coalition government applying a more deregulated model. There does appear to have been some consistency with a drive to developing professionalism within the sector.

Based on a level of appreciation for the complexity in professional studies, I have considered the concept of individual professionalism within the post-compulsory and vocational teaching sectors in addition to military training. There are striking similarities between the sectors, standards have been created, specialist knowledge is required, skills are maintained and updated, and responsibility, judgement and accountability are pertinent in both sectors. However, despite these many similarities, there is one marked difference: within a phase-1 training establishment the military instructor has limited, if any, authority to develop their own teaching materials or develop curriculum changes. Given this constraint, a question arises about the perception of professionalism within the Army instructor group. Does this deficit in what is usually regarded as professional teaching impinge on the professional identity of the military instructor?

In the past, there has been a tendency to consider professionalism and professional behaviour in terms of graduate-level occupations with little research into the professional identity of individuals who do not fall into these categories. This research will provide some insight into this issue through an investigation into the nature of professional identity and behaviour from a situational perspective. Furthermore, it provides an

understanding of the influences that an organisation and other key sectorial stakeholders can have on behaviour as viewed from the individual perspective.

## Chapter 3 - Methodology

### **3. METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1. The research objectives**

In chapter 1, the purpose of the research was introduced as an opportunity to develop an insight into how instructors viewed themselves, their practice, and their organisations. The aim was to use this insight to help explain the concept of personal professional identity within the Army Reserve and to use that knowledge to inform others who seek to develop effective personal development practices. In combination with this general purpose and the review of literature, the following research question was addressed.

#### ***Research question***

Within the context of a phase-1 training establishment, how do Army Reserve instructors define their professional identity and how is this influenced by situational factors pertinent to the individual?

#### ***Core objectives***

To satisfy this research question, the three core research objectives are identified for exploration:

- perceptions of professionalism;
- impact of the military pedagogy on instructional performance;
- instructor reflections on individual practices.

My research objectives immediately suggested that I would find the best approach to be a qualitative rather than quantitative approach. This belief is centred on the choice of words I have used to express my objectives. Phrases such as ‘explore the perceptions of...’ and ‘explore ... reflections on ...’ suggest that the ideal approach would involve spending time listening to people subjectively speak about their experiences. However,

phrases such as ‘explore the impacts of ... on instructional performance’ may suggest some form of activity that could be objectively measured in terms of changes in results. This phrase may also be considered in a more subjective sense of individual perceptions of pedagogical issues. To take appropriate decisions related to the research design meant considering the type of research that would be most effective and supportive of those objectives. My initial expectation was that a qualitative and subjective approach to the research would be most effective. This approach is best confirmed by considering my beliefs, expectations, and requirements as a researcher, in parallel to consideration of the environment and type of organisation in which the research would be conducted. This provided four considerations to be satisfied in order to agree an approach that:

- the organisation could accept;
- the participants would feel able to engage within;
- I as the researcher would be comfortable operating in; and
- could support the overall research aims.

To satisfy these considerations necessitated an understanding about me as a researcher, and the organisation as a research environment.

### **3.2. Ontological and epistemological considerations**

Creswell (1998) discussed a well-trodden path to exploring basic qualitative approaches although he did not differentiate or make any accommodation for the impact of organisational or societal perspectives and their relationship with the researcher and their research activities; researchers (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003) have previously used the concept of ‘perspectives’ to explain attitudes and behaviours of parts of society. In investigating cultural groupings, researchers have applied terms such as feminist studies (Lather, 1992); queer theory (de Lauretis, 1991); racial

studies and critical race theory (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003, citing Grossenberg and Pollock, 1998), etc.

These theories have been used to describe characteristics particular to homogeneous cultural groups and have been sub-divided to ever smaller societal groupings as different researchers attempt to explore particular aspects of society. Denzin and Lincoln (2003, p248) point out that this complexity has problematized the researcher – participant relationship. For example, Wise (1983) suggests that feminism and associated studies derive from the basic tenet that women are treated unequally within society. Whilst Wadsworth (2001, p2) commented that *'Feminism, like all "new paradigm science" starts from the personal experience of unease about a difference between the way things are and the way we might prefer them to be, whether in our `private' lives at home or at work'*. de Lauretis (1991, piv) initially coined the phrase queer theory (QT) to describe research into sexuality, lesbianism and homosexuality and the *'culture of the closet'*. She moved away from the term as it became established and accepted by mainstream institutions (Jagose, 1996), however, Halperin (1995) described QT as *'identity under construction'*. I found the concept of an identity under construction as particularly interesting and potentially applicable to the cultural grouping of the Army Reserve as it is required to develop in line with the challenges set out under the Future Army 2020 (FR 2020).

Although theories such as QT and Feminism had no impact on the investigation into professionalism in the Army Reserve, they did create awareness that, sometimes, a society needs to be considered from a different viewpoint. As part of the research design process, I needed to understand and articulate my personal understanding about knowledge and use this to help formulate a suitable approach for the research activity.

Denzin and Lincoln (2003, p245) describe paradigms as a *'basic set of beliefs that guide action'*. They furthered this discussion through the concepts of perspectives, explaining that perspectives may take the form of a uniform homogeneous characteristic, but one that may not be as well formed or solidified as a paradigm. Within the context of this research, there were two separate and distinct perspectives that needed to be appreciated. The first centred on the organisation in which the research took place whilst the second relates to the adopted research approach; perspectives were important in helping me explain the symbolic complexity of the organisation at a local level.

### ***The organisational perspective***

I contend that it is possible to consider the Army as a community. Members of this community are public servants; they have a visible public face; and, at certain times, can attract much media attention. The organisation provides health care, welfare support, housing, and education to its members and their immediate family; the Army Reserve does not receive many of these benefits. However, for the majority of people without a military background, the soldier's world may be an unknown domain.

There are obvious comparisons between the Regular and Reserve elements, as indeed is intimated by the 'Whole Army' concept. This concept definitively presents Regular and Reserve forces as part of the same organisation:

*'... it is difficult to imagine how the Regular Army could meet its present commitments without the combat capacity and professional support provided by Territorial soldiers. This fact underpins what is called the 'One Army' philosophy, under which TA soldiers are trained, equipped and supported on exactly the same terms as their Regular colleagues...'* (Wallace Lt Col (Retd.), 2008)

By investing in this concept the intention may have been to draw the elements together: for the Regular Army to recognise the benefits and support it gets from the Army Reserve, and for the Army Reserve to feel that it is a welcome and important part of the wider organisation. The organisations have the same hierarchical structure and autocratic nature, and the same training methodology doctrine and policy, all of which describes many of the similarities between the two component parts. Furthermore, there is a developing interchangeability between individuals albeit more typically moving from Regular to Reserve service. There are, however, some potentially important differences as well; these differences could be considered as the 'Reserve' perspective.

Within the context of this particular piece of research, that perspective is further clouded since the research participants are members of at least two different societies, i.e. military and civilian. Additionally, the organisation within which the research is conducted is a part-time organisation but with some of its staff working on a full-time basis, it also has some full-time Regular Army members. A further consideration is that this type of unit has a higher commitment than would normally be expected of Army Reserve personnel.

Although the Army Reserve is part of the homogeneous mass that is the British Army, its members may have substantially different experiences, skills and qualities that may or may not help them fulfil their function. In essence it is asserted that the Army Reserve and, in particular, its ATUs form a complex society that does not necessarily conform fully to the societal rules of either a Regular military establishment, a more typical Reserve military establishment, or the world of the civilian. Reserve soldiers, like their Regular counterparts, are drawn from all sectors of society. However, unlike their Regular counterparts, the Army Reserve soldier is likely to have a full-time occupation in addition to Reserve duties; these occupations can range across the spectrum of personal and professional achievement.

The challenge here is to apply an appropriate research framework that would be acceptable to the Army Reserve, and specifically to the Commanding Officer of the training team in question. Any framework and research approach must also be acceptable to potential participants who will engage with the process. The approach must accommodate the complexity of the organisation and the potential individuality of the participant.

### ***The researcher perspective***

From a personal perspective, I believed I was inclined towards the constructivist-interpretive approach to research (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003, p33). The assumption at the outset was that participants would have their own understandings and beliefs, and that these would be real, true, and individual to them. It was these beliefs and feelings that I wanted to expose, and for them to be interpreted as experiences from an individual's perspective leading to an investigation of common themes (Bassey, 1992) that may occur. Through these interpretations, the aim was to describe what professionalism meant to the individual and how it might link to a wider appreciation of different teaching strategies.

A number of approaches could have been developed to provide an insight from a specific perspective. For example, had my intention been to solely understand the organisational approach, a review of documentation, training standards and policy might have sufficed. This could have been supported by face-to-face interviews with Commanding Officers and other elements of the Chain of Command to determine how the policy has been, or is being, implemented at a 'grass roots' level. While these combined approaches might have added to my understanding of the application of the policy, they would not have facilitated a greater understanding of the impact it has had upon individual members of the organisation. To do this meant working with the very people whose function was involved in the area of interest to the investigation. Guba and Lincoln (1994) might have

described this as an ontological issue with my 'real world' being that of the soldier rather than the organisation.

*'What is the form and nature of reality and, therefore, what is there that can be known about it? For example, if a "real" world is assumed, then what can be known about it is "how things really are" and "how things really work". Then only those questions that relate to matters of "real" existence and "real" action are admissible'. (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p108)*

In this research, the important experiences would belong to people who were integral to the training delivery mechanism. As part of this process, the intent was to investigate their beliefs, feelings, understanding, and application of the concepts it demands. The idea was to work in the real world of people and help them to explore their personal belief in how they adhere to the Army values and standards through the concept of professionalism. It was assumed that this could not be achieved without the research activity involving individual participants in some in-depth personal analysis of their own actions. The research design more naturally aligned to a qualitative rather than quantitative approach.

*'What is the nature of the relationship between the knower or would-be knower and what can be known? If a "real" reality is assumed, then the posture of the knower must be one of objective detachment or value freedom in order to be able to discover "how things really are" and "how things really work." Conversely, assumption of an objectivist posture implies the existence of a "real" world to be objective about'. (Guba and Lincoln, 1994)*

When starting out on my EdD journey, it would probably have been appropriate to describe me as *positivist* and a *realist* who would look for

causal links (Robson, 2002b) to explain relationships. In the beginning, I did not even appreciate how the process of asking a question can impact on the potential answer; I believed that any data that was collected could be presented with an objective and unbiased perception (Willig, 2001) and that it was the '*truth*'. In moving forward with this investigation, it might have been easy for me to adopt a pragmatic epistemological stance while trying to garner found knowledge into different models to describe environments; this might have resulted in developing an approach to solving a problem even if no problem actually existed. However, my intention was actually to use any *found* or *developed* knowledge to understand and articulate what it meant to be a professional within the Army Reserve training environment and to use this understanding to help others grasp the complexity of the situation; in effect, the aim was to use knowledge and understanding to inform.

Discussions with my supervising team and the consideration of a range of literature exposed me to a new world of potential understanding. This world was one in which there might not be one *right* answer but that different people might experience their own understanding of what is a *right* answer; all of which could be equally valid but from different perspectives. When beginning to plan the research, I believe I was more open to different concepts. I was more interested in finding out what other people thought rather than trying to use other people's thoughts to validate my own opinion. In light of this, a more relativist and interpretive approach (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003, p33) was adopted; I wanted to interpret data gathered from participants and use this to construct my own meanings and understanding; subsequently these meanings and understandings would be related back to the participant's personal constructs. I set out to try and work in the world of *objective detachment* and investigate the reality of individual accommodation rather than the application of policy itself. Thus, an understanding of the type of data sought, how it could be accessed, and what stories it could tell, all needed addressing.

### **3.3. Insider–Outsider dichotomy**

On starting this educational journey, I was convinced that the capability of the Army Reserve instructor was not fully appreciated. I was satisfied that the military requirement was understood yet felt that there was much more to the Reserve instructor than might be credited within the Army context. As time progressed and I worked through different assignments, I kept a relatively consistent focus to my approach; I investigated the literature surrounding instructional development; I looked at policy and how it was embedded within an organisation; I conducted a small-scale evaluation of the uptake of skills taught on the DTTT training course for phase-1 instructors. On reflection, the three previous activities have underpinned my belief that there is an understanding about the role of the Reserve instructor; however, the capability and professionalism of the individuals might not be fully appreciated within the wider context of the Army.

In taking this forward, I attempted to link these thoughts together to see how and where instructor development may take place outside of the formally recognised course structure operated within the defence organisation; this idea was extended to include the concept of professional identity and its potential relationship with developing instructional practices. One of the consistent issues throughout my journey has been the insider / outsider dichotomy. I have considered this as a position adopted along a continuum rather than as a definitive identity; in effect, as Le Gallais (2003) suggests, a researcher may be able to move along the continuum dependent upon the circumstances in which they find themselves. I believe that this situation must be relative to the relationship between the researcher and the participants. When I considering my research activity, the environment in which it would be conducted and the research participants, I believed I was very much toward the insider end of this continuum. This was primarily for the following reasons:

- I am a member of the Army Reserve and have been for many years.
- I have been conducting research within an organisation that employs me.
- I have been exposed to similar training methods, and course experiences, as my participants.
- I am governed by the same policy and doctrine that governs my participants, and the participating training team.

This in itself raised some questions for reflection:

- How might my insiderness influence my research?
- What impact might my military relationship with any participants have on the research process?
- Might the participant partners view me from the same insider perspective as I viewed myself or could their view(s) differ and to what extent might this impact on any relationships?
- Would my participants abstain from discussing issues in the belief that I would already be fully aware of them?
- Would people subconsciously try to present an organisation in its 'best light'?
- Would people use the opportunity to discuss personal grievances?
- What ethical considerations did my level of insiderness raise and how should I deal with them?
- Would my rank as an officer or my role as someone with responsibility for developing and improving standards inhibit the engagement with individual participants?

It followed then that I should ask whether it would be enough to consider the insiderness from the researcher perspective.

Whilst I could ascribe characteristics to myself and claim to be 'inside', the true test of this position would be related to how participants viewed me. It has been said (Williamson, 1999) that adults entering into groups need to learn and understand the rules and ideas that govern the group and that these may be a mixture of formal and informal rules and ideas. In a military environment, there are many formal rules controlling the organisation and facilitating its operation. Adherence to the rules is mandatory and deviation may be seen in an extremely negative light; it could even be 'career limiting'. However, I suspect that there are many more informal, unrecorded, rules that are equally important and without which the organisation would fail to function in a cohesive manner. These rules may relate to individual and group practices, or organisational practices. They may also relate to particular approaches through the local Chain of Command (CoC).

### ***The benefits of insider status***

In this instance, membership of the Army Reserve provided me with, I believe, an exceptionally privileged position as a researcher. I was already aware of many of the formal and informal rules within this society although there may potentially be many informal rules I had not been party to, which pertain to particular individuals and local practices. Despite this, as Miller and Glassner (1977) explain, my ability to establish a research relationship may have been enhanced and foreshortened through my previous relationship with the participants.

Outsiders looking at the military may have an appreciation of the formal rules. This appreciation could be formed through many different experiences, such as reading fictional or factual novels, narratives or historical writings; watching television and films; listening to/watching news reports; personal experience, etc; it could also be subject to the level of bias present within the method of developing the understanding in the first place. Armed with a minimal level of knowledge and understanding, the

outsider could begin to ask questions and develop a greater understanding and appreciation of the formal governing rules but would they be able to uncover the hidden, informal rules, and how much bearing would this have on the validity and completeness of the research activity? In effect, would the outsider researcher be able to develop the necessary rapport and trust required to encourage participants to express their inner feelings? Alternatively, would the detachment of the outsider researcher provide the most suitable conditions for removing inhibitions?

The insider researcher, in this case, a military person, may have a far greater understanding of the commonly applied formal rules for the organisation; the closer the relationship to the organisation, the greater the understanding of the formal rules. As an insider, I believe I have a reasonable appreciation of the formal and informal processes and rules that are present within the organisation although I may not be aware of the nuance of informal rules at a local or individual level. The question is, to what extent would this help or hinder to my research activities and to what degree would my results be biased through my understanding and thus the approach I had taken for the research.

### ***Insider advantages***

There are three distinct advantages to the insider research approach (Bonner and Tolhurst 2002): understanding group culture; natural interaction within the group; previously established relational intimacy with the group. Taken together, I felt these advantages suggested that the insider would be better positioned to work effectively within the target group. As an insider, I have a shared understanding of the language of a military educational society, its vagaries and nuances, all of which may enable me to interpret and react in a manner which the organisation, and in particular, my participant partners would accept as being 'par for the course'. Breen (2007), whilst recognising these advantages, highlighted the potential for them to turn into disadvantages: familiarity leading to loss

of objectivity, resulting in erroneous assumptions being cited which could increase the potential for taken for granted assumptions going unchallenged (Hockey, 1993).

### ***Words of warning***

Breen (2007) further discusses potential issues insider researchers have in obtaining unbiased and appropriate data through research methods such as interviewing; the difficulty being related to the potential for research participants to assume that the researcher already knows the answers to the questions being asked and the suggestion that this may aggravate the participant (DyLser, 2001). Furthermore, Le Gallais (2003, p5) provided a word of warning that I believed was particularly important to me:

‘With hindsight I realised that my “knowledge” of the location and the research participants was just that – my knowledge’.

It was comforting to know that other insider researchers faced similar issues relating to the assumptions we make on knowledge. I believed this definitely had the potential to impact on my research investigation. It was essential that I was aware of my own assumptions and beliefs, and through this awareness, to avoid leading participants to my conclusions rather than their own. Additionally, when interpreting data, it was essential to ensure that the interpretation reflected participant beliefs rather than my personal opinion.

Reflecting on my pilot study it was obvious that my pilot participant needed encouragement to answer some questions to which he believed I should already know the answer. We did overcome this after a discussion confirming my interest in his perceptions, understanding and feelings rather than some general understandings. I amended my approach to the

participant interaction within the main research in light of this new understanding of participant acceptance.

In discussions with my mentors, it became obvious, that like many organisations, the Army has different abbreviations or acronyms and terms that are used in everyday conversation. Whilst these are generally understood within a military society, they may not be as readily understood by people with limited, or no, military experience. This point exposed another issue related to the insider aspect of the research, that of reporting the findings and constructing an appropriate written record of the research, analysis, and recommendations. With this point in mind, and to support the reader, the Glossary was created and the brief discussion on organisational structures was included within the thesis appendices.

### **3.4. Methodological considerations**

The constructivist approach, with its acceptance of multiple realities (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003; 15), meant that my methodology must encourage dialogue with participants to explore their personal realities and the level of verisimilitude associated with them; a methodology to expose emotional bonds between participants and their constructs was required. The intention was to explore the levels of personal responsibility that participants believed they had in self-development and an adherence to the Army Values and Standards, and through this to develop a greater understanding of the ideas, concepts and strengths that the mix of civilian and military skills brought to the instructional role. The approach to data gathering had to accommodate scope for individual differences between participants and identify any organisational praxis in adopting and adhering to any overarching values and standards. To facilitate this meant that an understanding of the relationship between the researcher and the researched would be valuable; the understanding could then be used as part of the selection process for the research methodology.

The basis for development was an interest in how people thought about their personal and professional development and a belief that a self

perception might be influenced by the social environment in which an individual functions at any given time. This may be a combination of different environments including but not limited to the work environment, the family environment, the social environment, and the cultural environment. To conduct the investigation required an approach that encouraged people to describe their beliefs and to facilitate developing an understanding of the descriptions through appropriate methods.

### ***A consideration of potential methodologies***

Borrowing from Guba and Lincoln (1994), methodology is not simply a matter of a number of methods; the selected methods must be matched to an appropriate methodology. Whilst the methodology describes how a researcher investigates whatever they want to know or understand, to select an appropriate methodology, the researcher must consider ontological and epistemological stances. My interests lay in working at an individual level to explore personal constructs surrounding the concept of professionalism and how this related to a military training environment. Thus to meet the requirements, a methodology had to support a relativist and constructivist approach to facilitate developing an understanding of the different experiences people drew upon for their constructs.

Creswell (1998) presents a comparison between five traditions of qualitative enquiry: Biography; Phenomenology; Grounded Theory; Ethnography; and Case Study. It is accepted that this is not an exhaustive list of qualitative research approaches; however, it did provide the basis for my methodology considerations. Indeed, the five methodologies could all have supported the research intentions. Inadvertently, elements of each methodology have probably been adopted to satisfy the needs as each appeared to link to another with blurred semantic edges; aspects of cultural studies also pervaded the research through a consideration of organisational requirements and participant attitudes.

### ***Biographic approach***

Biographical studies provided an obvious start point for consideration as an appropriate methodology. The interest was, after all, in how individuals understood their reality and biographical studies can be used to '*collect and interpret the lives of others as part of human understanding*' (Roberts, 2002, p24). However, the '*here and now*' rather than the detail of the journey the individual participant took to arrive at this point in time was probably more pertinent to the overall research aims since my interests lay in the experiences that developed the current practice and how practice may change in light of new experiences. Flick (2006, p89) explained that a biographical personal interpretation of '*one's own life is not a representation of factual processes*' but one that is mimetically developed for relating the story. As a researcher, I was interested in the stories the participants used to relate their experiences and wanted these to be the focuses whilst also wanting to draw comparisons from a range of people for the study.

### ***Grounded Theory***

As has previously been suggested, the Army, and more specifically the Army Reserve, can be seen as a special case for study. The culture of the organisation could easily support an investigation related entirely to the question of how a *part-time* training organisation can exist and develop whilst being part of a much larger full-time organisation with rules that are primarily developed to support the full-time staff. In this form, the study could have been used to develop a theoretical approach to either researching similar environments, or, managing and developing similar environments. A Grounded Theory (GT) approach would have provided opportunities to use the data gathered in an iterative cycle of writing, reviewing, coding, categorising, and theoretical sampling (Charmez, 2006) all of which is intended to illuminate developing ideas pertaining to the

data. The process is repeated by looking at the data from different perspectives until a saturation point is reached and a theoretical explanation is developed. GT might provide a framework to help me view the data through the eyes of my participants and thus help to uncover the hidden messages in the data. Charmez (2006) links GT and the rich data it both requires and develops to other methodologies but Creswell (1998) focuses on a key concept that a successful GT approach would have to result in the development of a related theory. This perspective was of concern since I was interested in developing an understanding rather than a theory to explain my understanding.

### ***Ethnographic approach***

At its root, ethnography is related to nineteenth-century western anthropology where a community, or culture, was researched, ethnography being the descriptive account (Creswell, 1998). In exploring the history and complexity of the development of ethnographic studies, Hammersley and Atkinson further identify that there is no clear or standard definition: *'ethnography has been reinterpreted and recontextualised in various ways to deal with particular circumstances'* (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2009, p2). As Hoey (2014, p2) explains, ethnography is where the researcher attempts to generate an understanding of *'culture through representation of what we call an emic perspective, or what might be described as the insider's point of view'*. Creswell (1998) suggests that this approach to research is typically conducted over extended timeframes and that the researcher becomes embedded in the cultural grouping. Whilst I did not need to become embedded within the organisation, my 'insiderness' having already been established, the opportunity to look at the world as it developed around me was quite intriguing.

### ***The case for case studies***

Some authors view case study as a method (Yin, 1984; Stake, 1995) rather than methodology (Merriam, 1988; Feagin et al, 1991); my

interpretation is one where a case study should be considered as a methodology to which a number of different methods may be applied to support the data-gathering activities. However, irrespective of whether the approach is considered as a method or methodology, it is suitable when there is a desire to understand social phenomena and is successful because it allows researchers to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events, such as organisational and managerial processes (Yin 2003, p2). Case studies can be investigations into single cases, multiple cases across single sites, or single cases across multiple sites (Creswell, 1998); in this example, there would be multiple cases across a single site.

If the research were to be developed as a case study, articulating the type of study could be an important first step. Different authors have identified a range of approaches to case study. Yin (1984) for example, described 3 different functions a case study may be developed for: *explanatory purposes* – where the aim is to understand and explain causal relationships in a real world context; *descriptive purposes* – where the intention is to describe the activity under study and the intervention itself; a descriptive study should also contextualise the intervention; *exploratory purposes* – where the researcher considers and investigates situations in which an activity is being evaluated; exploratory case studies have no outcomes (Tellis, 1997). Although typically associated with exploratory purposes, Yin (1984) suggests case studies may actually be more powerful for explanatory purposes because of their ability to answer questions of *how* and *why*. Stake (1995) took these thoughts further with the inclusion of 3 additional characteristics. He suggested that some case studies be:

- intrinsic in that the researcher has an interest in the case under consideration;

- instrumental in situations when there is an intention to develop a greater understanding than what may be obvious to the observer; and that
- collective case study could be applied when a group of case studies are being considered in relationship to each other (Tellis, 1997, citing Stake, 1995).

If this methodology were to be adopted, it would result in an intrinsic, exploratory case study.

### ***Consideration for a phenomenological approach***

Creswell (1998) linked the concept of developing and understanding individual behaviours through biographical studies to the understanding of the meaning of experiences for a similar group of individuals. He provides an historic account of the development of phenomenology from the philosophical approach started by Husserl and picked up by Heidegger, Sartre and Merleau-Ponty (Creswell, 1998) while Smith et al (2009) extended this account by explaining that Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) is an investigation process that is intended to provide a medium for a detailed examination the lived experiences. A research approach grounded as an IPA-based study would be concerned with contextualising the participants in relation to the situation in which they formed their experiences and then conducting a detailed study to explore each case before moving on to more general constructions (Smith et al, 2009, p31-34). Although not entirely sure that my interpretation of the concept of professionalism and instructional development satisfies a basic definition of a phenomenon there was definitely an interest in examining the case from the perspective of the 'lived experience' and this approach would help guide the research. The rationale here was a belief that my research, in relation to the situational context of the study and the desire to expose the 'lived' experiences, would sit most comfortably within a phenomenological framework.

Tichen and Hobson describe two approaches, direct and indirect, to phenomenological studies. The direct approach is where participants are asked to discuss experiences and reflect on meanings during interviews; the researcher then '*interprets these subjective constructions and represents them as objective constructions*' (2005, p122). Through the indirect route, they explain that the researcher uses field notes to record the everyday life and language of the participants and then interprets but does not try to demonstrate any transferability; they explain that judgement is left for the individual to construct their own judgements. The direct approach has its basis in the philosophy put forward by Edmund Husserl whilst the indirect approach is related to the more existential philosophy promulgated by Martin Heidegger; these are a development on the original philosophy.

### ***Selecting a direct phenomenological approach***

In consideration of the phenomena to be investigated, it was assumed that it would be more effective to look at the issue from a more direct approach. I accept that field work observation and general conversation would lead to some very interesting exposure with relation to developing instructional practice although I doubted if the approach would help me understand the construct of individual professional identity. An understanding of my developing methodological approach was beginning to emerge.

Tichen and Hobson (2005, p126) continue their discussion on the essential differences between phenomenological sociology (direct approach) and existential phenomenology (indirect approach) through three, to my mind key, points of observation, questioning, and interpretation. When discussing observation, they point out that the direct approach is not necessarily the key method of data gathering because of the difficulty in accessing the participant's subjective meanings and contexts. If the indirect approach were to be adopted, observation would

form an essential component of the data-gathering process since it would provide the research with access to the individual participant's 'life world'; the researcher would 'capture' the essence of situations through field notes.

Considering one research objective was to explore perceptions of professionalism whilst another involved the exploration of instructor reflections, I doubted if observation would provide appropriate data to support my study. However, observation could provide a rich vein of data for my remaining objective, that of understanding the impact of military pedagogy on instructional performance. Tichen and Hobson (2005) went on to explain that the process of questioning is fundamental to both approaches yet each requires a different researcher position. The direct approach uses open questions to encourage people to consider their typical experiences and to ask the participants to reflect on these experiences in order to help the participants to construct meaning from their reflections; a key point being that the participants are asked direct, specific questions. In explaining the use of questions within the indirect approach, they suggest that the questions that should be used would be contained within normal everyday conversation and would be designed to encourage participants to tell the 'stories that matter'. Given the nature of a military organisation and the likely engagement process with any participants, I believed that framing questions in a direct manner would provide a more effective method for data gathering; this would, however, be supported by my own 'field' observations and general conversations where appropriate and agreed with the individual concerned.

On the third point of interpretation, Tichen and Hobson explain that, within the direct approach, the intention is for the researcher to 'understand the participant's constructs by leaping from objective to subjective meaning' (2005; p126). Whilst in the indirect approach, the researcher uses their own knowledge, senses, emotions intuition, and imagination to understand

the subtleties and nuances embedded in the texts. In describing the differences between the two approaches, Tichen (2005, p124) explains that, within her own research, the approaches are used in complementary ways to help her expose a more complete picture.

For my personal understanding, I have rationalised the essential difference between the approaches as one where within Husserl's sociological phenomenology, the interpretations are made by the researcher on the data whilst with Heidegger's existential phenomenology, the interpretations are made by the researcher about the relationship the researcher has with the data. Given that my interests lay in working with a group of people to understand their individual perspective on professionalism, and to provide them with an opportunity to expose the underlying issues surrounding their working environment and how their practice was affected by it, my approach was more in tune with making interpretations on the data. However, like Tichen, there was a recognition that many interpretations might be biased by my own emotional relationship with the data; this point being especially important given my insider status and personal sense of belonging. This led on to the concept of how to collect data and what data would be sought. In effect, what methods could be used as part of a phenomenological investigation from a constructivist perspective and what data might these different methods yield.

### ***A summary statement***

A direct phenomenological approach was selected as an appropriate framework within which I could design and conduct my research. My objectives were essentially built on working with people to explore their feelings, beliefs, and opinions on their individual professional identity as instructors and how the military pedagogy influenced that identity. I wanted to develop a 'thick' understanding based on the experiences of

different people and to use that to explore common themes across the population.

### **3.5. Research procedure**

#### ***Participant population***

The key approach to meeting the objectives involved gaining access to an appropriate number of participants with similar experiences of the phenomena (professional identity) to be investigated. Hefferon (2011) explained that if a phenomenological study is being undertaken at professional doctorate level, an appropriate number of participants would be between 4 – 10 people and that purposeful sampling should be adopted to ensure the blend of participants is appropriate to the study.

Since this research was about people, their experiences, beliefs and attitudes, it was important to define the type of people with whom I wanted to work. My focus was primarily on the concept of professionalism and how it may be described through the lens of instructional practice, thus participants should be employed within an instructional role; ideally, they would have a minimum of 12 months remaining on their tour of duty with the Army Training Unit (ATU). The selected ATU employed approximately 47 staff of which 35 are primarily focussed on training delivery; this figure does not include the many visiting instructors (VI) who may attend on a regular, occasional, or very occasional basis. Additionally, since the organisation is hierarchical and fully employs the military rank system, a selection of different ranks could be beneficial; ideally, the mix of rank would include officers, SNCOs, and JNCOs to provide a vertical and horizontal perspective. Following Hefferon's (2011) suggestion, a participant base of 5 participants, representing approximately 10% of the population, was considered appropriate.

The phenomenological approach to research puts substantial focus on interaction with participants (Creswell, 1998; Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983), thus the challenge was to identify appropriate methods of participant engagement. To be effective, the data gathered had to be valid and reliable; it was also vital to ensure it was participant data rather than confirmation of any preconceived ideas, bias, or opinions. To provide validity, Yin suggests that six forms of information be used within a case study: documents, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant observations and physical artefacts (Creswell, 1998, citing Yin, 1989); whilst I was not conducting a case study, these six components provided an indicator into the likely data-gathering methods. The suggestion that data gathered from these sources could be triangulated to provide a robust, valid, and reliable picture held sway. Following, but not adhering entirely to this suggestion, I determined to gather participant data from a mixture of interviews, observations, participant critical reflections, and casual conversations; a research diary would be used to record details of casual conversations and initial and reflective thoughts. The participant perspective could potentially be augmented from '*voice of the customer*' survey responses.

### ***Interviews***

Interviews would form a large element of the data-gathering process, thus an appropriate interview style and technique had to be given some consideration; an outline interview plan could then be developed in line with the constructivist / interpretive approach that was being adopted across the research project. To satisfy this approach, the general style of questioning had to be open ended to encourage participant engagement (King & Horrocks, 2010). The interviews were to be 'written up' to enable later narrative analysis. Kohn (1997, citing Yin, 1989) suggests that this activity is unnecessary since the benefit is obtained in the process rather than the recorded evidence. However, the opportunity to review the

written narrative could expose areas for later consideration and might help with analysis.

The interviews were conducted in an informal atmosphere with questions being developed around interviewee responses rather than to any prescribed script although the idea of the meaning behind professionalism and / or the concept of what constituted good instructional practice was present in all conversations. The results of the interviews were digitally recorded, and additional information gained through unplanned conversation was also gathered; where this occurred, the participants were asked if the information could still be used within the research. Where this was the case, the comments were noted down as soon as possible after the instance. The interview process was intended to develop an understanding of:

- individual perceptions on what constituted professionalism and how that may be demonstrated; and
- the different ways their instructional practice may develop and how that related to the sense of individual professionalism.

In addition to the formally recorded engagements, a number of unrecorded conversations took place. The content of these discussions was noted, and where appropriate participants were asked for their agreement to use this detail within the research project. Where agreement was not forthcoming, the data has not been considered.

### ***Observations***

Instructor participants would be observed in that role with observations being recorded for later analysis and reflection. Observations were not limited to classroom-based activity but could cover any training sessions the participant would normally deliver. The range of observations could include areas such as: Skill at Arms training; Counter Improvised

Explosive Device training; Range practices; Drill instruction; and large group lectures. A 'hot debrief' at the end of each observation would be used to capture the instructor's immediate reflections and would be conducted in the style of an informal interview once the students had left the room; these interviews would be captured as part of the session observation recording.

After observations, participants would be given a copy of the recording and asked to critically reflect on it; this reflection was to include their individual concept of professionalism. Supplementary informal interviews (Kvale, 1996) would be conducted after these reflective activities with the intention of capturing the participant's considered thoughts. The intention was to conduct the observation, reflection, review cycle more than once, and thus consider what (if any) changes or developments occurred through the process of a formalised reflective activity. Initially, each activity and participant was considered as a separate entity, although questions and issues arising from activities with one participant were used to prompt thoughts and considerations from subsequent participants; King and Horrocks (2010, p20) consider this reflexive practice to be a functionary role of the constructivist researcher.

### ***Analysis methods***

Developing an appropriate method for the analysis of data gathered during the research activities had to be considered carefully. The data would be used to explore the feelings, beliefs and opinions from different people based around a central concept and thus appropriate strategies for the recording, storage, analysis, and review would be required.

Digital recordings of interviews and observations of teaching practices with participant agreement would be stored as password-protected files on a stand alone PC; participants would be provided with a copy of recordings of individual teaching practices for their own reflections. Any casual

conversations pertaining to the study would be noted in a research diary. The data would be retained for the duration of the investigation.

Paraphrasing Hycner (1985), data analysis can be conducted in six steps:

- transcribe;
- bracketing and reduction;
- identifying general meanings and research question impact;
- clustering and determining themes;
- identification of general and unique themes; and
- contextualisation.
- Transcription

Since the purpose of the research approach was to capture individual participant understandings, beliefs and constructions (Tichen, 2005), I felt it was important for interviews to be transcribed as faithful representations of the activity. To achieve this, the transcriptions would be of the complete interview(s) and would include annotations for the para-linguistic conversations such as thinking pauses, change in pitch, volume or engagement and other non-lexical vocables. The interviews were initially transcribed as complete text blocks. The interviewer posed a question (text block 1), the participant answered the question (text block 2). At this stage, no attempt was made to separate the different elements within the transcription. The transcriptions were discussed with the relevant participant to ensure that a) they agreed to the data being used, and b) they agreed that the transcription was a fair and accurate record of the conversation.

### ***Bracketing and reduction***

For me, this area potentially provided the greatest challenge. Hycner (1985) explains that the purpose of this activity is for the researcher to suspend their own concepts and interpretations and try to understand what the participant *meant* rather than what the researcher *expected* them

to say. This process involves re-listening to entire interviews and reviewing transcripts on a number of occasions. The aim of the bracketing and reduction exercise is to separate the researcher assumptions from participant realities.

### ***Identifying general meanings and research question impact***

Moving slightly away from Hycner's (1985) approach, I needed to develop an overall understanding of how the responses had been constructed. To achieve this, a line-by-line review of responses would be performed. The intention was to separate the participant comments out into discrete elements of the narrative; a copy of the data was kept to ensure that original transcriptions, in their complete form, were available for later review if required. Whilst conducting the review of general meanings, side notes and explanations were created to the narrative; the function here was to record researcher thoughts, understandings and developing perceptions of the participant meanings. The line-by-line review was translated into a spreadsheet format to facilitate data sorting and component identification.

### ***Clustering and determining themes***

The next process stage was to consider a) whether any elements from the interview were pertinent to the research question, and b) to consider if any themes, or clusters of data, had begun to emerge. This was performed through notes created in additional columns within the spreadsheet.

Whilst conducting this exercise, the process of coding, simplification and interpretation began:

- Each entry was given an alphanumeric reference specific to the interview, the participant and the location within the interview; for example, reference A43 would refer to the 43<sup>rd</sup> line entry in

interview A. This provided the capability of tracking back to the initial comment during any stage of the developing analysis.

- Simplification was used to reduce long sentences into chunks of data; the simplified comment could be tracked back to its more complete structure through the specific alphanumeric reference.
- Interpretation for themes grouped the simplified comments into common meanings that could then be considered across all participants.

This process was performed on all recorded interviews and discussions with the selected participants. At this stage, all data was maintained as separate, password-protected spreadsheets and stored in a secure project directory.

### ***Identification of general and unique themes***

The coded and simplified data from each interview was copied into a further spreadsheet, created with separate worksheets for each interpreted theme. The intention of structuring the data in this manner was to enable the collation and review all participant reflections and comments across the different themes. During this process, areas of commonality between the simplified statements were structured around the different interpretations. To preserve the opportunity of back tracking to the original statements, the references were grouped. The intention of the process here was to interrogate the data to identify any central themes that describe the essence of the conversations that had taken place. It also provided an opportunity to challenge the individual simplifications made as part of the earlier clustering activities.

### **3.6. Ethics, reliability and validity**

Previous thoughts on ethics have related to a code of ethics incorporating *informed consent, deception, accuracy, privacy & confidentiality*, as

described by Denzin and Lincoln's (2003, p217-219) four cornerstones of ethics. These cornerstones act as guiding principles to ensure the conduct of research is a consensual, unbiased, activity; the principles support researchers and encourage them to apply appropriate consideration to their participants' well being. In this instance, the research was considered as being a phenomenological investigation based in a single environment with the singularity being within the site rather than any individual participant. The study site was an Army Training Unit (ATU) training team located in the England; permission was sought and obtained to conduct the research project at this location. Whilst two training teams were initially considered, the selected site is the largest (by training delivery) of all ten ATUs and draws instructional staff from its own permanently attached Army Reserve instructors and VIs from units within its Area of Responsibility (AOR).

The Economic & Social Research Council (ESRC) has published a framework (ESRC, n.d.) on developing ethical procedures within social research activities. Their framework presents six key principles that provided suitable terms of reference for this research. For the research purpose, these principles are considered as having two main focal points. The first focal point concerns the research design; this would also include the importance of full disclosure about the research, its aims, objectives, methods, risk, and ultimate use to any participants. As part of this disclosure, an understanding about any risks involved should be considered and appropriate actions taken to protect participants from harm; it has been assumed that this courtesy should be extended to the organisation within which my research would be conducted. The ESRC also identifies the connection between interest and preserving the independence of the research. In this case, although exploring instructional practice, the research was actually an external activity to the military and I was not bound by any review agreements therefore the

potential for a clash between interest and independence would be reduced.

The second focal point is related to concepts involving the need to preserve participant and data confidentiality. This, the framework explains, is a key component of ethical research, as is the importance of participants being free from coercion, and willing to participate in a voluntary manner. It was important to ensure that the research was ethically appropriate and to do this necessitated a consideration of the approach to the research, and the existing and developing relationships between the researcher, the participants, and its organisational context. In describing the ethical impacts and controlling actions taken within the research activity, this chapter uses the framework as its basis but does not try to report it in a directly linear manner.

### ***Ethics and research design***

The research design was presented to the University of Brighton for approval. The documentation provided a working title for the overall activity and described, in outline, the structure and intent of the project. The document described ethical considerations in relation to the researcher stance, concerns related to personal and organisation power and how that may influence ethical considerations. Consent, confidentiality, data protection, data anonymity, and risk of harm were all considered within the initial research proposal. The design proposal explained the epistemological perspective of the researcher, moving on to describe the likely methodology and potential methods that could be used within the research itself. In consideration of issues related to quality and integrity, two research supervisors were appointed at the outset; they were kept informed of developments throughout the process and provided with documents and analysis for review on an on-going basis.

### ***Ethics, the organisation and the participants***

One of the key principles outlined by ESRC is that of informed consent. This research would be conducted in a military training establishment and involve military personnel directly as research participants. Some of the research activities would also involve observing the participants interacting with students, while feedback from students in the form of responses to standard surveys conducted at key points within the recruit training cycle could also provide information relative to the overall research aims. In considering the levels of informed consent, it was determined that two aspects of informed consent were required. Initially, an agreement from the organisation to conduct the research, engage with participants, and use appropriate tertiary data to support the research was necessary. The second area of consent involved individual participants who would form the primary research focus. Both aspects required full disclosure in relation to the aims and objectives of the research with the Commanding Officer (CO) providing an overall agreement to conduct the research.

#### ***Organisational consent***

Two teams had initially been identified as being suitable for the research purposes and the Commanding Officer (CO) of the preferred location was approached with an explanation about the research, objectives, and potential outcomes. This initial meeting was used to provide the CO with a brief on the background to the research including the overall aims and objectives. Accessing participants and levels of interference in the 'normal' working patterns were discussed, as was the importance of anonymity and preserving confidentiality with respect to the interactions with the participants.

A participant information pack (Appendix 8.2) detailing the research, its objectives, timescales, and levels of intervention to support potential participant engagement had been prepared in advance of identifying any

participants. A copy of this was provided to the CO in addition to an informed consent form (Appendix 8.3). This informed consent provided the authority for engaging with participants, and conducting the research within the training team. It was duly signed and returned by the CO.

### ***Participant consent***

Initially, the potential participants were not considered as vulnerable people; they were all adults and it was assumed that they did not have any physical or mental impairment that might preclude them from making informed choices. Furthermore, they were soldiers who had achieved rank and status within the Army, and held a responsibility for the safety and care of trainees. Whilst this may seem to be a fair, and true, statement, it does not consider all of the issues of researching from an insider perspective, and provides no consideration of the vulnerability participants may face in connection with the relationship between the researcher and the individual participants.

There is a close link between the need for informed consent and avoiding deception within research, which is described by Lankshear and Knobel (2006, p108) as a crucial element of research ethics; the participants must agree to the 'real' research project. Any form of deception could totally destroy trust and this lost trust would ruin the research and would also have had a major impact on my ability to continue working within the training team in my military role; in a military context, an officer must be seen as being trustworthy in the eyes of those they command. It was also important that participants were aware, and satisfied, that participation would remain separate from their military activities. This meant that relationships with the individual participants might change as the personas of researcher and participant were assumed in addition to normal military relationships.

In planning the data-gathering opportunities, it was intended to provide participants with the opportunity to see the data and be involved in its analysis. This approach was intended to increase the validity of any developing understanding and would enable the participants to confirm or augment any interpretations of the content of conversations that had taken place. Participants would only ever be asked to review data and analysis from their personal interviews, videos, or discussions, and would have no sight of any comments, concerns or issues raised by other participants. To assist in this process, the participants would be provided digital recordings of any of their observed teaching practices and asked to review them prior to any interviews. Transcripts of interviews were to be made available should individual participants wish to peruse them, as would any interpretations that had made of the narratives.

### ***Confidentiality***

The adopted approach to maintaining confidentiality has two aspects. The first related to the data that would be gathered during the research process and how that data was manipulated during its analysis. The second aspect related to trust between the participants and the researcher.

### ***Electronic data***

The electronic data included digital audio and video recordings obtained as part of the interview and observation activities. Other forms of electronic data included written documents such as interview transcriptions, personal reflections, and data analysis. All these forms of electronic information were stored as password-protected files on a stand alone PC. Additionally my PC requires a password to log on and this password would not be shared with other people. To preserve the anonymity individual nicknames for each participant were created and used during data analysis, interview transposition, video discussion, and all written documents connected with the research.

An earlier discussion considered issues relating to position, rank, and authority and considered how this may foster or create power dynamics between the researcher and colleagues as participants (Dynes 2009; Dynes 2010 both unpublished). However, the issues have only been discussed from the 'conscious' level; in effect, the conscious issues relate to the four cornerstones of ethical research that are considered and have been acted on. It is possible that other ethical considerations will only be apparent at a 'sub-conscious' level; would they present a deeper issue in relation to this investigation.

### ***Trust and relationships – researcher, participants, organisation***

Being an officer in the Army Reserve afforded a fantastic opportunity to work with a group of people as they individually discussed the development of their professional practice. It also presented a number of ethical considerations including current position, rank and status of the researcher, the rank and status of the participants, a natural deference to rank, etc, which could all impact on the overall effectiveness of the research. Thus, it was important to ensure that the investigation did not cross any ethical boundaries during the research and upon its completion. This was especially important given that my current responsibilities at the ATU included management and development of standards of training delivery. Furthermore, as an output from a previous research activity (Dynes 2009, unpublished), I was responsible for the creation of a coaching cell; the daily management and administration is now performed by the coaching cell manager.

Since this research involved investigating the professional practice of instructors within my own training team, there was always a potential of a crossover between researcher role and either direct or indirect managerial responsibility for some or all of the participants. Sensitivity to this situation and ethical appreciation were always going to be at the forefront of any investigation and interventions that were developed with the participants.

The initial stance was to explain to each individual participant that the research was not part of a military process and that the data they supplied would not form part of any validation or appraisal process; data was not reviewed by any other military personnel, ATU or otherwise, without the participant's specific permission in writing. Whilst this explanation may satisfy some requirements, it would not necessarily meet all the needs of the participants. They needed to trust the researcher to act in an ethical manner and respect their data as part of the research programme rather than consider it in terms of observations of military practice.

On a positive note, because the participants and researcher came from the same training team the participants would already have developed their own opinions on the trustworthiness, or not, of the researcher as an individual and officer. The assumption here was that people who knew me but did not 'trust' me were unlikely to offer themselves as volunteers for this sort of research investigation.

### ***Assessing and engaging with participants***

The first approach to identifying potential participants was through a general e-mail request to all instructors working within the selected ATU. Through this process, I was fortunate to engage with a number of participants who exceeded my primitive criteria. The potential participants ranged in rank from Cpl to WO2 and two officers, a Major, and a Captain. There was a mix of both male and female instructors and an age range from approximately 25 to 54. Whilst religion was not considered as an important factor in participant selection, one participant was, as they later explained, a lapsed Buddhist.

From a civilian perspective, the pool of participants covered individuals whose civilian job roles included: police officer, marketing director, unemployed, self-employed, faith healer, trainee teacher, senior manager, sewerage worker, plumber, and driving instructor. This range of civilian

occupations demonstrates the wide and varied experiences the participants could bring to the research activity. A key point here is that no functional relationship between civilian occupation and military role is formally used within the Army Reserve.

### ***Guarding against coercion***

Planning how to reach out to potential participants raised an awareness of the researcher position as an officer within the Army Reserve and how that could possibly be used to coerce soldiers into taking part in the study. To try and reduce the likelihood for that to occur, the initial contact with people was through a general e-mail giving a very brief outline of the research objectives and asking that anyone interested in becoming involved in the study should contact me. For those who expressed an interest, we met and discussed the research, including a more detailed explanation about the objectives and general approach to be adopted; anonymity and confidentiality were discussed and it was stressed that the research did not involve any military reporting lines.

After this informal discussion, each potential participant was given a pack of information and asked to sign the informed consent form should they choose to take their interest further; the pack contained details of the research, its aims and objectives, the data-gathering approach, and the involvement required of participants. There was no intention of the research placing the participants or the researcher in any physical danger, nor was the research intended to induce any physical pain, involve physical activities, or involve any physiological procedures. Furthermore, at no stage during the process of reaching out to participants, selecting participants, or conducting the study were any inducements offered to the participants.

### ***The impact of engagement***

The research was conducted 'on site' (Creswell, 1998, p250) and was aimed at allowing participants the maximum opportunity of working in their normal manner. It was recognised that any engagement with individual participants could impact on how they operated when any 'live' data gathering was being conducted; indeed, it was feasible that the thought of a 'live' observation could impact on an individual's preparation for the teaching session. In planning the data-gathering opportunities, I wanted to allow participants the maximum flexibility in where and when observations and interviews would be conducted. I also wanted to give them the opportunity to confirm their agreement with my records. By adopting this process, I hoped to increase the validity of my findings. To assist in this process, participants were provided digital recordings of their observed teaching practices and asked to review them prior to our interviews; interview transcripts of interviews were available to individual participants should they wish to peruse them.

## Chapter 4 – Research Results

## **4. RESEARCH RESULTS**

This research explored individual perceptions of instructor professionalism within the niche area of phase-1 training in the Army Reserve. Taken together the three research objectives provided a journey through individual perceptions and instructional practice within the military training environment including the impact of reflection on instructional techniques within the highly structured approach described through the military pedagogy.

Whilst a number of people contributed to the debate through formal and informal discussion, the interviews from 8 participants, 6 of whom held instructional responsibility and agreed to take part in an observation – reflection – discussion cycle, are analysed in detail. The data gathered through this process was captured in the form of digital recordings of interviews, observations, and reflections. These participants were selected to provide a cross-section of the training team population; the cross-section being based on a combination of factors including current role in the training team, rank, age, sex, previous military service, and ‘cap badge identity’. Between them, the selected participants have accumulated over 170 years of combined Regular and Reserve experience.

To preserve anonymity, each participant was given a pseudonym that is used throughout the following discussions. Whilst the pseudonyms have been used, participant biographies provide some background to each and may provide an additional insight into the data obtained through the interview process. The intention is to provide the reader with an insight into the depth and breadth of experience within the participant group.

## 4.1. Research objectives and the relationship with results

### *Research objectives*

- Explore perceptions of professionalism
- Explore impact of military pedagogy on instructional performance
- Explore instructor reflections on individual practices

Table 4.1 presents the schedule of engagement applied within the research.

Participant	1 <sup>st</sup> interview	Observation	Follow up interview
George	3	3	3
Steve	3	3	3
Fred	2	2	2
Terry	2	2	2
Sarah	1	1	1
Arnold	1	1	1
Julie	1	-	-
Eric	1	-	-
Total	14	12	12

Table 4.1 – Participant engagement breakdown

## 4.2. Introducing the participants and their relationship with the data

### *Participant biographies*

#### *Officers*

#### **Eric – an officer with ‘Command’ responsibility**

Eric is an officer with ‘Command’ responsibility. In his early 40s, he has seen operational service with the Army Reserve. Eric is cap badged ‘Infantry’ and has served with the ATU for approximately 3 years. He has

been in the Army Reserve for over 20 years and, prior to this, had spent approximately four years serving as a Regular soldier in an infantry regiment. In his civilian role, Eric is a senior manager with responsibility for staff and process management. He is interested in taking advantage of some of the accreditation opportunities available to him through professional recognition processes in the military. Eric provides commentary through interviews where he spoke mainly from the ‘*commander*’ perspective. He is concerned about the staffing and performance of the permanent staff, the unit instructors and staff, and the supporting visitor instructors.

### **George – an officer with ‘Instructor’ responsibility**

George is an officer with instructional responsibilities. In his early 50s, he had completed Regular service, some of which included formal instructional duties. George is ‘Corps’ cap badged and has been with the training team for approximately 3 years although his involvement with the military spans over 30 years. While unemployed, George had taken on some work within the training team on an Additional Duty Commitment (ADC) contract; he was looking for a full-time civilian job that was related to training. George is interested in developing his employability by taking advantage of some of the accreditation opportunities being offered: Preparing to Teach in the Lifelong Learning Sector (PTLLS) and Certificate in Teaching in the Lifelong Learning Sector (CTLLS) were of particular interest to him. George provides commentary from interviews and reflections on his teaching practice.

### ***Warrant Officers***

### **Steve – an SNCO with ‘Instructor’ responsibility**

Steve is a Sergeant Major (WO2) with instructional and instructor development responsibilities. He is in his early 50s and had joined the Army as a ‘boy soldier’, going on to complete 22 years Regular military

service. This was followed by a period away from the military before he joined the Army Reserve. He reached the rank of Company Sergeant Major (CSM) as a Regular soldier and gained significant instructional experience in a range of subjects. Steve is 'Infantry' cap badged and has been with the training team for approximately 5 years; he has seen over 30 years' combined Regular and Reserve service. Steve is not involved in training in his civilian life. Within the data analysis, he provides commentary from interviews and reflections on his teaching practice.

### **Julie – an SNCO with 'Administration' responsibility**

Julie is a Sergeant Major (WO2) with administrative duties. She is in her late 40s and has no Regular or operational experience. Julie is 'Corps' cap badged and has been with the training team for approximately 4 years; she has accumulated over 30 years' Reserve service. Julie originally joined the team as an instructor but has taken on a more administrative role during her tour of duty; responsibility for the development, management and updating of lesson packs is amongst some of her many duties. In her civilian role, Julie runs her own training company. Within the data analysis, she provides commentary through interviews.

### ***Senior on commissioned officers***

### **Fred – an SNCO with 'Instructor' responsibility**

Fred is a Colour Sergeant (CSjt<sup>4</sup>) with instructional duties. In his early 40s, he has seen Regular service, some of which involved instructional duties. Fred is 'Infantry' cap badged and has been with the training team for approximately 1 year although he had previously attended as a visiting instructor; he has a combined Regular and Reserve service of over 20 years' experience. In his civilian role, Fred is a weapons instructor within a police force. Fred provides commentary from interviews and reflections

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<sup>4</sup> Serjeant (Sjt) is the rank in the Light Division, the term Sergeant (Sgt) is used in other Divisions.

on his teaching practice; the reflections and observations on teaching were noted during informal conversations rather than as part of a formal interview process but Fred has consented to their being used within the research.

**Sarah – an SNCO with ‘Instructor’ responsibility**

Sarah is a Sergeant (Sgt) with instructional duties, and has no Regular or operational experience. Sarah is ‘Corps’ cap badged and has been with the training team for approximately 8 years. Sarah has worked on recruit training and specialist training within her time at the ATU; she has been in the Army Reserve for over 20 years. In her civilian role, Sarah is a marketing executive and has recently achieved an MBA. Within the data analysis, she provides commentary through interviews and teaching practice reflections.

**Arnold – an SNCO with ‘Instructor’ responsibility**

Arnold is a Sergeant (Sgt) with instructional duties and, although he has no Regular service, he has completed operational tours with the Army Reserve. Arnold is ‘Corps’ cap badged and has been with the training team for approximately 1 year; he has over 15 years’ Reserve service and is in his mid thirties. Arnold initially applied to work on the specialist side of the team but, on posting in, he was selected to work on the recruit training team. Arnold was unemployed but during the research programme was successful in finding work for a civilian training organisation. He has since moved into a teacher-training programme. Within the data analysis, he provides commentary through interviews and teaching practice reflections.

### ***Junior non commissioned officers***

#### **Terry – a JNCO with ‘Instructor’ responsibility**

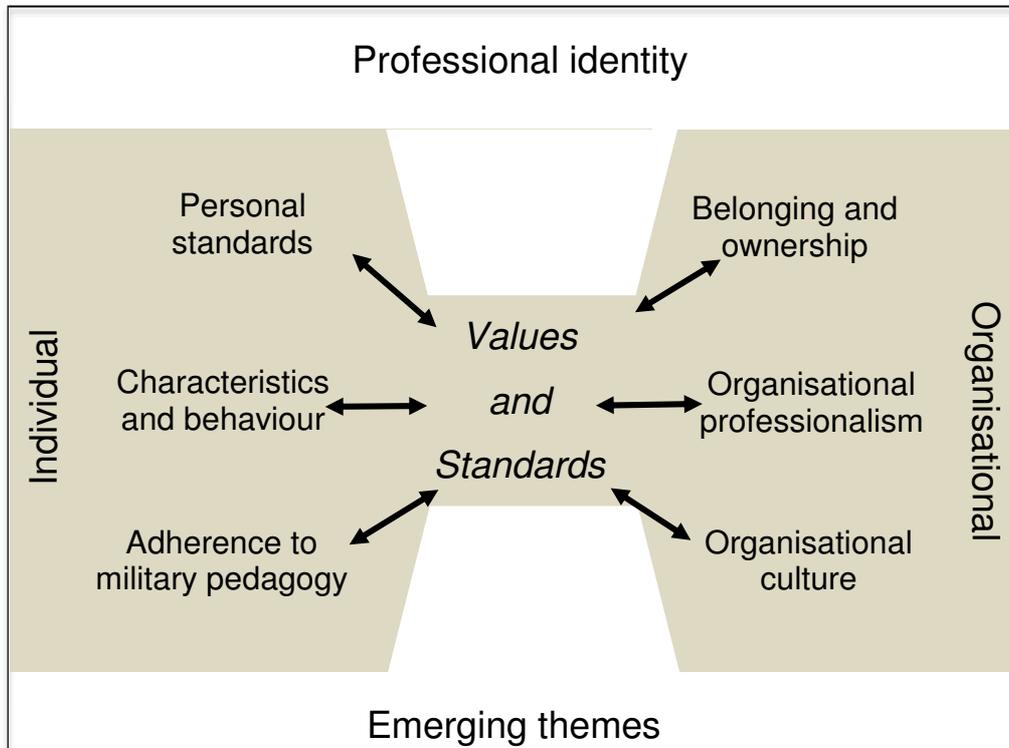
Terry is a Corporal (Cpl) with instructional duties. He has no Regular or operational experience. Terry is ‘Infantry’ cap badged and has been with the training team for approximately 3 years; he has over 5 years’ Reserve experience and is in his early 20s. Whilst unemployed during the research Terry was been employed within the training team on an ADC basis; he is not sure what sort of civilian job he is interested in and has considered enlisting for Regular service. Within the data analysis, he provides commentary through interviews and reflections; Terry has consented to his informal conversations being used within the data analysis.

### **4.3. The emerging themes**

With the exception of Eric and Julie who do not fulfil an instructional role within the training team, participants were given digital recordings of their instructional practice. They were asked to review the recordings and, within this review, consider the term ‘professionalism’ and to reflect on its meaning, how they believed it was demonstrated, and how it related to their own practice; Julie did contribute to reflections on teaching although these were primarily based on her civilian teaching role while Eric spoke of his previous instructional experience. The aim was for individuals to identify areas where they believed their specific practice could have been enhanced and then consider if the improvement could be developed in other aspects of their practice. Within these discussions and observations, we explored aspects of the military approach to instruction and touched on some of the restrictions, barriers, and constraints within the organisation and the available instructional environment, including its facilities, and areas of opportunity for personal development.

Through the process of reduction and interpretation, areas of commonality began to emerge. They are discussed in some detail to demonstrate the

link between individual appreciations of professionalism and aspects of personal and professional development. These 6 emerging themes are bound together through a common theme related to the Army's Values



and Standards. They begin to describe the complex nature of professional identity in terms of the relationship between the individual and the employing organisation. The themes may be considered as having a bias toward the individual or the organisation.

Figure 4.1 - Emerging themes

The central role of Values and Standards and their relative importance to the individual in terms of explaining their professionalism may be related to the focus placed upon them by the military. This focus can be seen within the phase-1 training curriculum. For trained soldiers (Regular and Reserve) one of the Mandatory Annual Training Tests (MATT) assesses an individual's understanding of the Values and Standards.

In terms of the participant discussions, two areas seem to be particularly pertinent to the concept of individual professionalism:

- individual considerations of behaviour, attitude and belief;
- organisational importance at micro, meso and macro levels.

Issues related to personal development were apparent within both the individual and organisationally related themes.

### ***Individual related themes***

When discussing the characteristics of professionalism, common words or ideas such as *bearing* and *appearance*, *standards of dress*, *integrity*, *honesty* and *obeying orders* were used; these terms relate to the concepts described in the ATRA Code of Conduct (Crown, 2008) and are identified within the Army's approach to instructional techniques. A number of comments and concepts were discussed that, although not specifically related to the Army's approach to instruction, appear to be appropriate in any teaching environment.

### ***Organisational related themes***

When discussing the organisation there was a general sense of belonging demonstrated by each of the participants. Typically, the participants discussed the organisation at both macro (wider army) and meso (ATU) levels where positive and negative feelings appeared to be demonstrated. A sense of ownership was apparent in all participants although, on occasions, individual participants appeared to try and distance themselves from certain aspects of organisational strategy.

### ***Relationship to personal development***

When issues such as personal development were discussed, three areas had prominence with the participants, typically suggesting that:

- Attendance on military courses had helped to develop practice;

- the practice of observation of others in instructional situations, in addition to learning by experience, was commonly spoken about;
- the experience gained extended beyond the military environment and developed through the transferability of the military skills and techniques into their civilian occupations.

In discussing how their instructional practice had developed, the majority of participants appeared to relate this to what I have termed the military pedagogy; this pedagogy is embedded within the Defence Systems Approach to Training (DSAT). The focus of individual development, in many instances, appeared to be related to the tools and techniques that are taught on either the Defence Instructional Techniques (DIT) or Defence Train the Trainer (DTTT) courses; emphasis appeared to be on how to improve the use of the tools rather than how to improve the overall learning experience from the learner perspective. This point is in accord with the comments raised by Ofsted (2011) with respect to Regular Army training establishments, suggesting the issue is endemic within the general military approach to instructor development.

#### **4.3.1. Objective 1 – individual professional identity**

##### ***Personal standards***

Despite the range of personal definitions of professionalism, the general consensus within the interviewed participants was that a relationship existed between professionalism and:

- the six core values of the British Army;
  - aspiration to working to high standards;
  - adherence to organisational rules and regulations;
  - a willingness to continually develop instructional practice;
- the relationship the individual and the organisation.

During discussions, 6 of the participants expressed feelings suggesting that their ability to instruct was a type of yardstick measure of their individual professionalism.

Through the process of reviewing interviews and conversations, a number of related aspects began to come to light. These include:

- individual relationships with the Army Reserve;
- a reticence to reflect on personal instructional practice
- a willingness to speak about individual practice from a disassociated perspective;
- discussions related to peer practice.

***Characteristics and behaviour;***

Despite the differing descriptions and definitions of ‘professionalism’ as a concept, there were elements of commonality including:

- some recognition that, as a concept, professionalism is complex, and may be misunderstood/misinterpreted;
- professionalism is some form of ‘measure’ of an individual’s ability to perform their ‘job’;
- a belief that professionalism is related to the Army’s Values and Standards;
- characteristics and traits that can be used to identify professionalism and professional behaviour

Typical expressions of individual professionalism between the participants included terms that have been loosely grouped as relating to soldierly standards, soldierly behaviour, and approaches that are related to general teaching criteria.

<b>Professionalism and soldierly standards</b>	
Appropriate dress	Bearing
Manner	Integrity
Self discipline	Obeying orders
Honour	Pride
Respect for unit, self and others	

Table 4.2 - Professionalism and soldierly standard

<b>Professionalism and soldierly approaches</b>	
Commitment to the agreed task	Meeting aims and objectives in an appropriate manner
Managing mannerisms	Following rules, structure and SOPs
Requirement of high standards in self and others	Doing your best and not being complacent

Table 4.3 - Professionalism and soldierly approaches

<b>Professionalism and general teaching criteria</b>	
Believability	Consistency
Confidence	Approachability
Reliability	Open mindedness
Following own principles	Helping others

Table 4.4 - Professionalism and general teaching criteria

In many ways, the criteria expressed in tables 4.2 and 4.3 can be considered as similar to the Army values (CDRILS<sup>5</sup>) (Crown, 2006) whilst table 4.4 depicts a belief in the importance of working as part of a team and providing a consistent learner experience. These also described the importance of adhering to the rules and governance in place from within the training team and wider Army stakeholders such as Initial Training Group (ITG) and other Technical Support Agencies (TSA) who interact with the team. Some of the points in tables 4.2 – 4.4 can be traced back

<sup>5</sup> Courage, Discipline, Respect for Others, Integrity, Loyalty, Selfless Commitment

to some of the qualities of an instructor as taught on the DIT course, introduced to the participants through the DTTT course and exemplified within the Army Training and Recruitment Agency (ATRA) Code of Conduct (Crown, 2008).

***Adherence to military pedagogy, policy and doctrine***

A number of common areas in relation to the approach individuals have adopted towards their instructional practice emerged during discussions. These areas included:

- the importance of planning and preparation before instruction;
- the importance of effective use of the military instructional tools and techniques;
- reflective activities tend to focus on instructor performance;
- reflective activities tended to lack criticality;
- development activities tend to be local and informal.

Discussions concerning the development of instructional practice tended to group around concepts related to the military pedagogy with some recognition of aspects of other, less military, ideas. The process through which the development of instructional capability may be achieved appears to align with individual experiential development. This was described in terms that incorporated observation of others, experimenting with technique and reflection on experience. Some strands suggested a perception that development may be achieved through education; education in this sense being related to attendance on military instructional techniques courses, although some participants did discuss civilian education in terms of their wider development.

There was some recognition of the potential transferability of skills and experience between military and civilian life. With the exception of Steve, the participants appeared to feel that the civilian world benefitted from their

military experience rather than the military benefitting from civilian experiences; Steve did not see any relationship between his civilian and military roles.

There is common ground between the participants on development from an instructional perspective. Table 4.5 paraphrases some of the common points raised in relation to individual development whilst table 4.6 considers the points that were raised in connection with developing instructional approaches. Within the tables, there are areas of contradiction that have developed between different instructors.

<b>Personal development through education</b>	
Military education through attending courses such as DIT and DTTT	A feeling of professional recognition achieved through the accreditation programme
Civilian education from either a vocational or academic perspective	
<b>Personal development through experience, observation and reflection</b>	
Observing others and reflecting on their practice and how it could be used to enhance own practice	Using previous military skills and experience in different situations
Using military skills in a transferable manner within civilian occupation	

Table 4.5 - Development - education, observation, experience

<b>Development of practice – the military pedagogy</b>	
Teach the implied bit rather than being a slave to the prepared lesson plan	Stick to the lesson plan, ensure consistent delivery throughout
Maintain technical currency, develop lessons to suit the situation	Teach to a good standard, use correct techniques in the correct manner
Break complex stuff down, prepare, rehearse, practice, use right environment	Instructor skills, imagination, enthusiasm, fun, engagement, flexibility, adaptability
Let people think before you debrief them	Questioning technique

<b>Development of practice – the civilian pedagogy</b>	
Develop practice through experience, reflection and knowing what to change	Recognise different learning abilities/learning speeds, use life skills to support learning
Student involvement, engagement, treat all as individuals	

Table 4.6 - Practice development and pedagogy

### ***A sense of belonging***

A number of comments suggest that issues relating to the Army Training Unit (ATU) were important. The comments included themes connected with the idea of the professionalism of the ATU, its culture, and the environment in which it operates. A sense of pride in the ATU and people involved in it also came through in many of the conversations. Whilst there was a generally positive sense of belonging and cohesiveness, some comments suggested that the participants recognised there were areas for development and, in some cases, they sought to distance themselves from some of the decisions, actions or activities that occurred; however, they would typically try to support the unit even when discussing negative aspects about it.

The importance of the relationship between the participants and the Army as an entity emerged through the analysis. Points were raised about cultural aspects of the wider organisation, a sense of pride in belonging to the wider organisation and the professionalism of the organisation as a whole. In this instance, the wider organisation is considered as any part of the Army that is external to the ATU; this could include the Regular and Reserve organisations or the agencies that work with the ATU. As with the ATU, a number of comments expressed the positive aspects of the wider organisation but there was also a sense of discord between the individual and elements of the wider organisation. These themes suggest that the concept of individual professionalism might be related to more

than individual beliefs and practice and thus should include the interaction between the individual, their employer, and wider aspects of governance.

***Organisational professionalism***

A number of comments put forward during the interviews and discussions appeared to focus on the participant’s belief concerning professionalism, the wider Army, and how that is demonstrated within the training team.

Table 4.7 groups the comments related to wider aspects of professionalism within the Army whilst table 4.8 describes the comments related to professionalism at a unit level.

<b>Organisational professionalism</b>	
A professional outlook and professionalism is supported by policies and directives	Organisationally, the Army has high standards
Mobilisation of the TA helps develop TA soldier professionalism	Total professionalism is achieved when all live by CDRILS

Table 4.7 - Organisational professionalism

George, Steve, and Arnold expressed opinions that relate to aspects of professionalism at an organisational or governance level, albeit in quite loose terms. George clearly linked the development and application of the Army’s Values and Standards to the overall concept of a development of professionalism at an organisational level; he did not differentiate between the Reserve and Regular forces on the importance of these concepts. Steve described the importance of appropriate policy and directive from higher echelons of the chain of command as this provides direction for the training team and guidance for the individual on aspects such as appropriate behaviour and adherence to standards. Arnold suggested that time spent with the Regular forces increases the professionalism of the Reserve soldier; in effect, operating in a full-time role will increase the professionalism of the part-time soldier.

While many of the comments at an organisational level tend to be quite general in nature, when comments at a more local, unit level are considered, it is possible to see a combination of positive, negative and non-judgemental comments being made. I believe that these comments have resulted from a greater level of depth and consideration that has occurred because of the closer relationship the individual has with the training team in comparison to the wider military organisation.

<b>Unit professionalism</b>	
<b>Positive aspects</b>	<b>Negative aspects</b>
Common ethos, pride, staff attitude, command leadership and management	Some inappropriate staff behaviour, attitude, inconsistency with CDRILS, complacency
Meets aims, objectives, develops appropriate SOPs, obeys directives	Not adhering to the curriculum, not following procedure
Relaxed and friendly atmosphere	Need to treat people fairly, some aggressive instructors
Integrity maintained through action, bottom-up team development	Poor communication, lots of shouting
Staff development (limited opportunities), coaching ethos	Poor syllabus understanding
<b>Unit professionalism – neutral aspects</b>	
Need to recognise alternative teaching approaches	Might not always succeed at being professional but it does try

Table 4.8 - Unit professionalism

In table 4.8, we begin to identify contradictory messages; in effect, people have different opinions about the professional performance of the training team. All the participants made comments that are related to the concept of unit professionalism with a consensus on the importance of orders and directives in setting standards of professionalism.

George and Steve both commented on individual instructors not adhering to the curriculum or following procedures. However, they also, along with Arnold and Sarah, described how staff behaviour, instructional capability, individual professionalism and personal standards across the team all

contributed to the overall sense of professionalism that they felt was apparent within the training team.

There was some contradiction between participants: George, Steve, Sarah, and Arnold commented on the positive approach and capability of the instructional base within the training team. However, George and Steve also cast a shadow of doubt about the professionalism of some of those who worked within the team. I believe this disparity may in part be the result of a consideration of VIs who may be seen as fulfilling a reduced team commitment and the unit not having overall control of who is available to instruct on any given weekend.

### ***Organisational culture***

A number of points brought forward during the interviews may be related to the overall culture and environment in which the training team operates. It is possible to see positive and negative themes emerging from the discussions although, again, some of these themes appear to contradict each other. The two areas of culture and professionalism are, I believe, interdependent, and, potentially, interchangeable.

Julie and Terry described the training team as the biggest of the 10 UK ATUs and confirmed their belief that it is the best although Julie also explained that she had been told this. Julie did not provide further detail on where the information came from, or who provided it. This may be an example of a participant expecting the insider researcher to 'know' key points – I decided not to pursue the comment as I was aware of the scale of the operation and did not see this as a pertinent line of investigation.

The comments relating to loud or aggressive instructors might initially seem to be very detrimental to effective training delivery although the actual impact may change dependant upon the context of the comment.

Consider two situations:

- a) A classroom lesson where the aim is to teach the rank structure.
- b) A tactics lesson to teach how to assault a position.

In context b) a loud, aggressive approach might be used to engender a sense of realism and adrenaline to help the recruits ‘live’ the experience in a safe environment; it would be essential to have careful and considered planning here whilst ensuring that the activity was appropriately controlled and managed. The negative comments suggest that either this is not always appropriately controlled, or that the technique may be used inappropriately.

Other comments brought out during the interviews, especially by Julie in relation to what she euphemistically called ‘Army humour’, may in other circumstances be considered, at least, as inappropriate. Her use of the term suggests that this type of behaviour is more widespread than just in the training team. When asked if she believed the behaviours she had discussed could be considered as a form of bullying, she defended the unit and whilst not withdrawing her comment, went on to try and defuse the impact it may have had. Fred, a police officer in his civilian occupation, explained that he had never seen bullying in the Army Reserve but had seen it when serving as a Regular soldier.

<b>Unit culture and environment</b>	
<b>Positive aspects</b>	<b>Negative aspects</b>
Team ethos supported by team leaders	Need to see the bigger picture, some people want too much power
The unit meets its aims and objectives	Poor communication
Coaching and support is provided	Females treated with lack of respect
All individuals know what to do and what is expected of them	Lack of respect from command is not conducive to raising issues

The unit wants to be seen as being effective	Time is a constraint and there is no analysis of actions, especially 'fastball' activities
Never seen bullying here (have seen it in the Regular Army)	Loud/aggressive, arrogant attitude, potential for bullying

Table 4.9 - Culture and environment – positive and negative aspects

<b>Unit culture / environment – the neutral aspects</b>	
Accepts off the shelf training	Not encouraged to apply lessons from DTTT
Trainers follow military pedagogy	Need to develop a common approach to all students
A belief that it is the biggest and the best	Too much focus on V&S from ITG

Table 4.10 - Neutral perspectives on unit culture and environment

Table 4.9 presents some of the key positive and negative comments drawn from across the interviews. Here we can see that there is generally a positive feeling about the instructional strategy and by extension the military pedagogy; this is supported by a feeling of pride in being part of the largest ATU. However, there is also a feeling that the military pedagogy may not satisfy the 'learner experience' sufficiently and that the curriculum has potential for development.

***Individual considerations – the participant voices***  
***Professionalism - a complex, misunderstood concept***

George felt that the word 'professionalism' was both overused and misunderstood. He saw it as being related to the approach an individual took towards completing the tasks, activities and functions they had to perform in their working life. He explained that, for his role within the training team, professionalism was a *'combination of achieving the tasks ...and the requirement to follow all our [the Army] values and standards ... and the standards held at the training team'*.

Sarah considered professionalism a *'minefield and that it depended upon people's personal perceptions'* but struggled to describe her own

perception; a point identified by Eraut (1994). She explained her feeling that professionalism was related to both qualification and experience gained in specific settings. This might perhaps indicate that an individual could be professional in one aspect of their life and not another. Her comment that professionalism is a '*big, big word*' was quickly followed by a further comment suggesting that the word held different meaning and interpretation to different people and that it was demonstrated by '*individual personality traits*' as described by Runté (1995).

George and Sarah suggested that qualifications [academic and vocational] were important in defining professionalism. George explained that to be considered professional required periods of '*in-depth study*', likening this to the '*vocational professionalism*' of soldiers by explaining that the act of soldiering required depth of study. In later interviews, George developed his definition of professionalism, linking it to his instructional practice, and began to mirror some of the feelings raised by other participants. Sarah saw the importance of study more from an academic, civilian-work-related perspective, explaining that study, coupled with situational experience, is how someone developed '*levels of professionalism*'.

Fred and Steve provided quick responses without needing time to consider and construct their answers when defining professionalism. The speed of their response and apparent lack of need for time to consider the question may be related to the time spent in the Regular Army; soldiers are taught to evaluate options quickly and respond when asked a question. Their individual perspectives are quite similar in nature with both appearing to view the concept from a perspective of how good the individual is at their job, in this case, instruction.

Fred saw professionalism as being related to the standard of practice, explaining that '*It's making sure you do the best job and in my opinion, effectively getting the best out of the students in the best way you can.*'

Fred's initial explanation is related to the level of skill the instructor has, and how they deploy that skill within the classroom. He later explained that his subject [Skill at Arms] is, in his belief, one of the most important subjects that are taught to recruits and that the subject '*must be taught by the book*'. Fred may be subconsciously demonstrating a belief that '*the book*', and by extension the military pedagogy, is the most effective method of teaching.

Steve considers professionalism to be a '*measure of how good someone is*' and described professionalism as a '*state of mind*'; this may be likened to Crook's (2008) approach to professional states. He explained that an individual with a professional '*state of mind*' would approach tasks in a more effective and professional manner than people with a different outlook; he related professionalism to pride and how that may drive behaviour. Both Fred and Steve implied that professionalism could be seen as a display of personal characteristics such as '*attitude, manner, bearing, honesty, and integrity*'; a view shared by Terry. These qualities can be traced back to the '*qualities of an instructor*' as taught on the Defence Instructional Techniques (DIT) (Crown, 2006) course and are fundamental to the Army's Values and Standards.

Fred and Steve further agreed that their individual professionalism was demonstrated in the way they prepared and delivered their instructional practice. They both explained how thorough preparation, planning, and rehearsals were essential to good instruction; this is a key concept taught on DIT courses. Steve took this point even further by suggesting that an individual's professionalism is a reflection of how they appear to others. He explained that in the Army, the way individuals present themselves is a physical demonstration of their professionalism; this may be particularly pertinent to people working in a 'phase-1' training establishment.

Arnold and Julie both took some time considering the issue but eventually described a belief that professionalism was related to a desire to work to high standards and to always strive for excellence. Julie saw it as being embedded '*in everything you do*' whilst Arnold felt that, in addition to its relationship to an expectation of high standards, the professional would always follow correct rules and procedures. Perhaps taking the less complicated view, Terry saw professionalism as an image, explaining that it linked to soldierly behaviour, manner, and attitude.

Sarah and George struggled with trying to explain their definitions of professionalism as a concept and ended up defining it in more holistic and general terms than the other participants. George's definition is also heavily influenced by the aforementioned Values and Standards.

### ***Professionalism - its relationship to Values and Standards***

George's approach of linking professionalism to the Army's Values and Standards prompted a question about what he felt the Army meant with '*Total Professionalism*' as one of their core standards. He explained his belief that this had been introduced because the Army's hierarchy felt it had a problem with individual behaviours that manifested itself in events such as Camp Breadbasket<sup>6</sup>. George explained:

*'I get the feeling that the hierarchy in the Army has decided, believes that it has got a problem that manifested itself in events such as Camp Breadbasket and the case of the waiter who got captured, beaten up and then died in captivity. And my feeling is that the Army wished to address this. Now it is going to take some time for all this teaching to have an effect. It shouldn't because everybody is getting it every year, but we are still going to have*

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<sup>6</sup> The incident of mistreatment of Iraqi soldiers took place at a humanitarian aid distribution centre near Basra in the south of Iraq. The camp was locally known as 'Camp Breadbasket.' Three British soldiers were jailed and subsequently dismissed from the army. The report by Laue and Lang (2007) recommended a review of policy concerning humanitarian treatment, and training prior to deployment.

*some diehards. I think the Army is looking at this to try and solve problems it has had in the past - Total Professionalism. They really want us to live to the standards of the Super Six<sup>7</sup>.*

George's comment on 'everybody's getting it every year' is related to the Mandatory Annual Training Test (MATT) requirements that all soldiers, irrespective of Regular or Reserve status, have to undertake. I believe his comment on 'diehards' is related to the change process and how some people are reluctant to adopt new changes. This is the point being made by Kiszey's (2007) in his paper on the changing face of warriors and their combat roles, which suggests that the cultural changes will be difficult to achieve whilst some personnel see their role as combat troops. Whilst this may be more pertinent to Regular rather than Reserve personnel, large numbers of Reserve personnel (including members of the training team) have now seen active service with the Army Reserve, in Bosnia, Iraq and Afghanistan. Additionally, the government's aspiration to increase the role and relative importance of the Army Reserve (FR 2020) may have an effect here.

When Julie was asked a similar question regarding the meaning of 'Total Professionalism', she admitted to having heard of it as one of the standards but she did not seem confident in explaining its meaning. This may indicate a training need, especially given the organisation Julie works for, and the importance it places on the Values and Standards within its current training programme. After some time, Julie described it as being about *'treating everybody the same, with respect and working to the ultimate goal that we all want to achieve'*.

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<sup>7</sup> The Super Six was re-branded as CDRILS [Courage, Discipline, Respect for Others, Integrity, Loyalty, Selfless Commitment] although the same words appear in both versions.

### ***Professionalism – a general consensus on characteristics***

In the eyes of the participants, professionalism appears to be related to: external physical characteristics such as image and appearance; cognitive characteristics such as a belief in thorough preparation for the task in hand; emotional characteristics such as social sensitivity towards the way others perceive you. In addition to these characteristics, there are strands suggesting that professionalism is related to skill levels and individual capabilities, especially where these are vocationally relevant and developed experientially. Qualifications, as a form of professional recognition, were discussed but, with the exception of Sarah, appeared to be of limited importance to the majority of participants.

External physical attributes the participants associated with the concept of professionalism, such as bearing, manner, attitude, can be identified as related to the *'qualities of a good instructor'* (Crown, 2006). These attributes are taught on DIT courses whilst integrity and honesty could be identified as belonging to the Army's values (Crown, 2006) although little recognition and understanding of the Army standard of *'Total Professionalism'* was present amongst the participants. Other discussion strands link professionalism to instructional practice and, in some cases, reflect the military approach to instruction as taught on courses such as DIT and the DTTT course; preparation, planning, rehearsals, application of EDIP<sup>8</sup> were referred to regularly. There appears to be a strong link between the individual perception of professionalism and the ethos and culture of the Army acting to focus and shape that perception. This link is even more apparent when it is considered that, despite the differences in background, age, rank, and range of experience, there are many similarities in the stories told by the participants.

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<sup>8</sup> EDIP is a mnemonic used in 'skills' lessons. It stands for Explanation, Demonstration, Imitation, Practise

### **4.3.2. Objective 2 – military pedagogy and performance**

All NCOs, at some stage in their military career, are likely to have to fulfil the role of instructor. This could be upon taking up an instructor position in a training establishment or training troops in their own locations; the situation is the same for both Regular and Reserve service personnel. To satisfy this requirement, soldiers attend the general licence to practise (DIT) course and then attend one of the many specialist courses, Skill at Arms Instructor and Drill Instructor being two examples of these specialist courses. In order to instruct in a phase-1 training establishment, instructors will also have to complete the DTTT course; again, the requirement is the same for both Regular and Reserve service personnel.

In this research, all the participants have completed DIT, DTTT, and at least one subject specialist course. Thus, despite the range of age, rank, split between and Regular / Reserve service, and general experience, there is a common baseline to which all the participants had been exposed. In light of the common ground, it was expected that a degree of similarity would have been present in the themes brought forward in the different interviews. This is typically the case although some key differences did emerge.

#### ***Adherence to the military pedagogy***

At the beginning of the research, I had been very keen to get the participant instructors to observe recordings of their own practice and to use these observations as an opportunity for critical reflection. Whilst I still believe there is benefit in the approach, this belief does not appear to have been validated in practice; this lack of validation may be aligned to the point already raised by Ofsted (2011) in relation to a focus on ‘technical delivery’ skills rather than overall learning experience.

When Arnold, Fred, George and Terry observed their practice, the reflections they were initially willing to share did not identify any deep insight into practice; their focus appeared to be very much on the surface level and, in my opinion, related to environmental issues which were outside their control or related technicalities of adherence to the DIT approach to instruction. Steve appeared to use the recordings as a method of substantiating his own, already developed, reflection on the lesson. George also explained that he found the whole process of being recorded slightly off-putting and that he did not like to see himself on video.

### ***Supporting the technique***

There appears to be a common belief that the military (DIT/DTTT) approach to instruction is the ‘correct’ technique and should be adhered to. The expression of these opinions is based on the participant’s experience of teaching in a phase-1 training establishment, and in some cases previous military instructional experience.

The common themes emerging from this interpretation are contained in table 4.11.

Approaches to developing instruction	
Theme	Comment
Planning and preparation	Key to individual professionalism.
Instructor-centric approach	Reflections focus on instructor performance not student learning.
A belief that the Army approach to instruction is the best method	Belief based on basic instructional techniques approach taught on DIT.
Application of correct military teaching technique	Instructors follow DIT/DTTT approach, a key aspect of the reflections.
Instruction must follow the prescribed and preordained lesson plans	Evidence suggests that whilst people believe this, in reality, they act differently; no policy was identified that substantiated this belief.
Developing technique by learning on the job	Skills are honed by repetition.
Peer perception is important	Preference for discussing performance as abstract, or in terms of others.
High degree of belief in the competence of their peer instructors	Development by observation rather than reflection.
Reserve forces are different to their Regular counterparts	Would different instructional practices be more effective?
Time acts as a barrier and constraint to developing instructional techniques	
Instructors are willing to try new things out to improve lesson effectiveness	Generally, developmental ideas are from a third party rather than an individual instructor. The belief was not fully borne out in reality.
Question technique is perceived as of particular importance in effective teaching	The technique is founded on Pose Pause Pounce (PPP) taught on DIT; this is a key focus in many reflections
Instructor development focuses on technique	The military process encourages focus on technique not individualised development; see Ofsted (2011).

Table 4.11 - Approaches to developing instruction

### ***An instructor-centric approach***

These common aspects describe a situation where the instructor is the focus of attention and developmental activities tend to focus on

improvements in the application of technique rather than any consideration of the impact the lesson has on the learner, or of whether an alternative technique could or should be applied in a given situation. There is a high degree of belief in the concepts underpinning the military pedagogy and an apparent willingness to follow any provided lesson plans, even where there is a belief that the lesson plans may be inaccurate. It might be suggested that the participants have abdicated responsibility toward the student learning experience by focussing their efforts solely on their own performance; this may be a generic problem faced by the Army given the comments made by Ofsted (2011).

### ***Planning, preparation, performance and technique***

Steve, when speaking about instruction, linked it to his concept of the *'professional state of mind'* and how that would dictate his approach. This approach mirrors the approach and techniques he would have been taught when developing his instructional technique; he would have then honed his skills when teaching others during the time he spent as *'head of skill'* for the DIT course. He spoke passionately about the importance of proper preparation and then performing thorough rehearsals; his rehearsals include walk-through talk-through of the lesson content, the use of training aids including when and how they would be introduced and disposed of afterwards (if necessary), the class layout and its appropriateness for the lesson he was rehearsing. This level of rehearsal takes a considerable amount of time that may or may not be available to different instructors depending upon the timetable they are working to on a given weekend; Steve, when observed performing his rehearsals, took over an hour rehearsing for a 40-minute lesson.

However, in describing his approach to preparation, he explained *'I know that after that preparation, providing all my pre-course admin and course admin is done I will be able to roll out the course pretty much faultlessly'*. Steve further said *'I measure my own professionalism on how that course*

*is rolled out* and the perception of the student is paramount to this measure of success. These statements suggest that, to Steve, the instructor's 'performance' is key to the success of a lesson; his focus is on his performance rather than the level of learning achieved by individual students.

Fred spoke of preparation being a central tenet of his professionalism. However, he focussed on the application of technique, in this case the DIT technique used in skills lessons. He explained that the EDIP approach enabled students to *'fully understand and apply'* the skill they were being taught. Fred went on to say that in this training environment, it was essential that the students were *'taught by the book'*; in this, he is referring to the lesson being delivered in the exact format laid out in the relevant instructional pamphlet and by following the provided lesson plan completely. This approach is intended to ensure all recruits going through a training programme, irrespective of where the training is conducted, will receive the same training and perform the skills in the same manner. It is assessed through prescribed *weapon handling tests*, conducted at specific points within the training programme, in which the soldier has to perform the functions and skills exactly as they are laid out in the appropriate Skill at Arms pamphlet.

Fred explained that, in his civilian role, he uses the military approach to weapons instruction rather than following police practice; his rationale here was that the police approach followed an Explain, Demonstrate model that did not allow time for students to imitate the instructor performing the skill in small stages, or sufficient time for students to practise the skill. Fred did say that some of his police colleagues *'think I should be following the party line of the police'* but in his mind, the military approach allowed him time to improve student performance through using his coaching skills as they practised; coaching has recently been introduced through the DTTT course. This approach may suggest that Fred is willing to break police

rules and use techniques he is more comfortable with, and possibly more experienced in using. Although it did not come up in any conversation or observation, Fred's approach here may also suggest that he would ignore military rules and use police approaches should he believe they would be more effective; this may suggest that Fred uses professional judgement (Robson, 2006) to determine his instructional approach.

In discussing their approach to instruction, both Steve and Fred, and to a lesser extent Terry, described how the military instructional approach provided solid foundations for their instructional practice. None of the other participants used this approach to describe their practice although George focussed on the technicalities within the military pedagogy when discussing areas he would like to improve. Common ground between all participants was that 'good' instructors were enthusiastic for their subject; this is a key 'characteristic of good instruction' as described within the Defence Instructional Handbook (Crown, 2006). George and Sarah explained that a sense of fun was important to a successful lesson but all implied that their instructional skill was partly how they demonstrated their vocational professionalism.

### ***Performance and the military model***

There appears to be a clear relationship between participant approaches to instructional practice and the predominant model of military instruction. There was a recognition that attendance on the DTTT course had influenced individual practice, in both a military and, where appropriate, civilian setting. Paradoxically, as Terry explained, the DTTT approach does not appear to have been fully incorporated into some of the training courses NCOs attend to gain their specialist instructional techniques qualifications.

*‘If they were to link DTTT into the actual Skill at Arms and when you start doing other courses, Drill, BCD<sup>9</sup> [Battlefield Casualty Drills], I can’t think of any others at the moment, and then sort of join them together...’*

Terry’s comment suggests that there is a discontinuity within the Army’s instructional development approach and that this discontinuity has the potential to reduce the impact of courses such as DTTT that are intended to develop and broaden individual instructional capabilities.

### ***Drivers for individual development***

During the interviews, the participants spoke about different things they felt had prompted their personal instructional development. From Terry’s perspective, working in the training team had given him an opportunity to develop and hone his skill that would not have been available to him had he remained in a normal ‘infantry’ unit. He explained that although he had completed the DIT course, his first proper instructor course was Skill at Arms. Terry went on to explain that, after completing the course, he started instruction with his *‘Brecon head on, ready to teach it how the book says’*. To clarify the term *Brecon head*, Terry explained that it is a *‘prestigious Infantry Battle School’* that teaches Skill at Arms instructors. He went on to say that, upon completing the course, *‘it is clear that you know your subject, but maybe not as well as you thought you did’*.

### ***The importance of experiential learning***

Terry explained how working in the training team and delivering the same subjects repeatedly had provided an *‘exceptional way’* of helping the instructor move on from the basic knowledge gained on the qualifying courses:

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<sup>9</sup> Battlefield Casualty Drills – a course designed to develop sufficient knowledge for the individual to instruct on basic first aid in a battle environment. All soldiers are currently tested annually on their ability to perform these drills.

*'... once you've got a skill you use that skill so much that you become a better instructor. You end up teaching Skill at Arms from seven o'clock in the morning to seven at night for like weekends on end. And that really did help and did push what I learned and then I was able to develop out of the Brecon head, out of the sort of Brecon idea and start realising that people do learn in different ways. And obviously when you do your courses you always work with trained soldiers who are always up to the same standard or a little bit above or a little bit below you are yourself so it's easy.'*

Two interesting aspects are apparent in Terry's comment. The first point relates to how, as he gained in experience, he began to see people as individuals with different learning needs. This supports Steve's comments on the transition between Regular and Reserve duties where he explained that until he had joined the Army Reserve, nothing would have changed in his instruction:

*'All I used to work on was what I perceived to be the ideal military lesson and programme. I knew what was needed and in actual fact, I wouldn't have changed anything. Every lesson I've done has got a format and it's got an expected outcome, even as far as to say, the people I teach are the same. They are always the same; every Private soldier is a Private soldier; every Corporal is a Corporal. Since I joined the TA that is when I started to change. That is one of the main things that has influenced my teaching. I haven't got in front of me, eight soldiers between the ages of seventeen and nineteen; all with the same sort of background; the same sort of education. I could have a political journalist sitting next to a teacher sitting next to a bin man....'*

George reiterated the difference between the Regular and Reserve soldiers but also implied that some Reserves try to emulate their Regular

counterparts, explaining *'the TA soldier is undoubtedly a different beast to the Regular Army soldier. Now you will get guys who are very similar but a lot of them are very different.'*

The second point connected to Terry's comment is that, during the instructional courses, the skill is developed through working with people who are already trained. Typically, on this type of instructional course, the student's instructional capability is assessed through the delivery of a teaching practice where other members of the cohort act as students for the assessed lessons. Terry's inference is that the development is limited and the instructor actually develops their skills when teaching people who do not know how to perform the tasks. He explained that, on the course, *'nobody ever gets anything wrong whereas when you are working with recruits you will have people who do seriously struggle and you have to start thinking how to help them'*.

Steve considered how he had developed since working with the Army Reserves while Terry, who has no Regular service, felt that the key to his development was through a combination of experience coupled with the confidence he gained as a result of attending the DTTT course. Fred expressed this belief in the developmental aspects of the course when talking about the transferability of skills between military and civilian occupations. He explained *'well, I use the skills that I've learned, particularly on the DTTT that we have spoken about before'* when explaining how he dealt with antipathy towards his use of military training techniques in a police environment. Arnold recognised the benefit of this course as he described how its influence helped to develop professionalism.

### ***Using different learning tools***

Although Sarah did not actually name any course as being fundamental to her development, she did explain how being able to select a teaching

approach that suited particular instances would be beneficial when discussing the different learning needs of individuals. *'I think if people could turn round and say this is your toolbox, pick the one you feel is good for you, good for your subject, good for your students'*. This approach appears to be fundamentally different to the approach currently employed within the ATU, but could sit comfortably within the DIT approach to training and through JSP 822, providing the general rules of military instruction are met. Furthermore, it demonstrates limited instructional autonomy and application of professional judgement.

Steve felt that attending the DTTT course had not actually taught him anything new but had helped to focus his mind on developing wider areas of his practice. This had included the concept of learning styles although he now believed that the speed at which people learn was more pertinent to the overall success of a lesson. He explained:

*'I am aware that people do learn in different ways but that is not the greatest problem. The greatest problem as far as I am concerned is the speed that people learn. Some people pick up things a lot quicker than others. It's important that they all manage to get to the end result because ... they all need to arrive at that point at the same time.'*

Steve's point here is particularly important in the context of short course military training. In military courses such as those delivered within a phase-1 training programme, a topic may be allocated a 40-minute timeframe to cover the key learning points. These learning points may be pertinent to further lessons and instructors would expect students to know them as there would not be time available to re-cover points that should have been previously assimilated. Hence, Steve's point that it is important all the students get to the *'end point at the same time'*.

One commonly recurring theme across all the participants when discussing areas of improvement is the focus on improving their instructional technique to bring it in line with the DIT/DTTT approaches; the focus is on technical delivery from the instructor perspective and there is generally little recognition of the issue from a student perspective. However, the participants do not appear to have appreciated that DIT, and more specifically DTTT, positively encourage reflection and recognition of the importance of the student experience. This may indicate a limited understanding of the depth of the tools and could be indicative of the prevailing monitoring and evaluation policy promulgated through JSP 822 (Chapter 5 part 4) and DSAT.

### ***Development by observation***

The participants alluded to personal development through observing the techniques of other instructors, and in some cases, the experience of working with other individuals. They appeared to be more comfortable talking about development through this process rather than reflecting on their own practice.

George, when talking about developing instructional technique, initially related it to attendance on the DIT course and then extended that thought to observing others:

*'... did the DIT course, lot of good stuff there, also, from other instructors so when I've got the chance, sit in on other lessons ... I will look at something and it's most useful actually, looking at a lesson and thinking, "how would I do that" "can I plagiarise that idea or is there a better approach for it", so sitting in lessons. And the other advantage ... it's almost me preparing myself for giving that lesson later on. I've seen how the lesson comes out, how it unfolds, how it all ties together.'*

As part of his formal duties, Steve is required to observe and appraise other instructors across the training team. However, as he explained, he sees this as an opportunity for self-development as well as the development of others:

*'...I watch everybody else around me, I watch every lesson and every time I sit [in] on a lesson I'm not just listening to the subject matter being put across to me. I'm watching the instructor, I may feel that ... he's not really up to teaching me much about instructional matters so I'll sit there and listen to the information he's passing across but nine times out of ten, ... he will do something and I will think huh, that's a good plan, I could adapt that and make it my own.'*

### **Constraints are an issue**

There was typically a common feeling, with the exception of Steve, that instruction must be delivered in accordance with the pre-prepared lesson plans. Steve explained his belief that the Army lesson-plan was there to provide the skeleton for individual development of each lesson, this lesson planning stage being accompanied by the preparatory work he considered as fundamental to his individual professionalism.

*'I prepare all (emphasis on all) my lessons as a base lesson and then rehearse them perhaps once or twice so that I have the outline of each lesson. Then I practise with the equipment I need for each of those lessons.'*

This level of preparation and planning may not be evident with all instructors working within the training team. George provided an example when discussing a lesson conducted in a dining room that was doubling up as a lecture theatre. Even with the blinds drawn, on a sunny day, George explained that he felt students could not see the PowerPoint

display clearly; to remedy the situation, George had made some blackout curtains. He explained:

*“... the physical environment is a lecture theatre. It's not good. What I have done to change it was to try and black out some of the windows. Unless you do that then the visual aids you are using are very difficult to see in a light room with a lot of light in it even with the blinds down. It made it better and easier to see the visual aids. Made it harder to read the notes but obviously, the more you do a subject the better you are and you tend to use the notes less and less...”*

There are a number of interesting elements to George's comments here. Firstly, he demonstrates a clear consideration for the learner experience and appears to want to ensure that the lesson is taught in the best environment given the limitations he has to work with. To achieve this, he has gone to the trouble of fabricating blackout curtains to help reduce the ambient lighting; this approach has been so successful that, it appears, he could not properly read the notes from his scripted lesson plan. In the time he has been at the training team George would have taught this lesson on a number of occasions and the implication is that he has had to rely on his notes although, paradoxically, he suggests that the more a lesson is conducted, the less the instructor has to rely on their notes. This may indicate that, when provided with notes, there may be a tendency to try to read from them even though the instructor should, and possibly even does, know the subject detail and content.

It might also be suggested that if George had followed Steve's approach (and the Army concept) of rehearsals, it is likely that he would have identified the problem of not being able to read his notes, and may have overcome some of the issues through the rehearsals and planning.

From the above discussion, it may be construed that George has not acted in a *professional* manner since areas of his lesson may not have been fully prepared. However, as Steve explained, time constraints may provide some explanation; his conversation is actually about developing alternative PowerPoint slides for lessons but serves to demonstrate his thinking.

*‘... there is absolutely no way would I stand up and give a presentation and if there was a part of it I wasn't happy, there is no way would I go away, fold up me briefcase, go home and have a couple of beers. Then come back next weekend and do the same thing again. I'm sure they do, but I wouldn't... There is several things it could be time, the time constraint they are not expecting to perhaps take that lesson again they've got lots of other lessons that they are worrying about they've got busy civilian careers so the next time they think about it will be Friday night when they turn up here again. And to be quite honest, if you haven't got the time then ... ‘*

Again, a number of thoughts can be drawn from Steve's comments. They serve to exemplify his approach to preparation whilst acknowledging that, in his mind, others do not apply the same rigour to their preparation. He may consider that they do not have his *'professional state of mind'* ; however, he then recognises the limitations different people may have to the time they can allocate to working for the Reserves; this work may also potentially be unpaid since the lesson plans have already been created and should be used.

### ***Time is an issue***

George considered the issue of time and how it can impact instruction. In this respect, his concern was related to the issue of lessons which over-run and have a rippling effect this had on timetables; this is particularly pertinent when lesson plans are scripted to last for a specific length of time

and cover areas which are only covered within the specific lesson. George's approach is to apply a personal judgement on the key points in the lesson and ensure he covers those:

*'... I'll take a lesson, I will not skip the subject matter but I will remove some of the padding and make sure the lesson finishes in time so they are on time for the next lesson.'*

On the face of it, this would appear to be a very pragmatic approach where an experienced instructor applies a judgement on what is key to student understanding and moderates the scripted lesson plan accordingly. There may however be some other considerations here, namely: what happens when less experienced instructors make similar judgement calls; what happens when students split into sections<sup>10</sup> for lessons and one instructor decides to leave out certain information to finish on time whilst another instructor misses a different element of the lesson. There does not appear to be any process where instructors discuss which elements of lessons have been missed, nor indeed how the system could be improved for future students. When asked about feeding back into the planning team, George explained *'it is all part of [redacted] [Captain] [redacted] great plan and you cannot challenge the plan.'*

### ***A changing attitude towards provided lesson plans***

In a separate discussion, George explained what he felt stopped a lesson being a good lesson. He first confirmed that detailed lesson plans are provided and should be followed. It is George's belief that there is a policy requirement to follow these plans but he appeared to have some concern about their structure and content:

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<sup>10</sup> The term section is derived from the organisational structure of an infantry company. A company is formed of three platoons and a headquarters element. Each platoon is formed of three sections, led by a Corporal. It is used in this instance to describe the situation where a larger group of soldiers is broken down into smaller working groups.

*'...as you know, we have a lesson plan that is pre-set. We are supposed to follow the lesson plan and the visuals directly. Some of them are over repetitive, some do not follow any logical flow whatsoever.'*

George described one particular lesson, the 'Strength in Service' lesson, a lesson he had previously described in our first interview as a *'horrible lesson to give'*, a feeling he suggested was shared by other instructors as he continued, *'we are all agreed that this is quite heavy because you are asking people about very intimate, personal things'*. In our fourth interview, over a year later, George still cited this as an area of concern. He explained:

*'... strength in service is over-repetitive, it goes, what sort of strengths do you need, and then it goes again, what sort of strengths do you need, so you go you need emotional strength, physical strength moral strength mental strength and then it comes again and what sort of strengths do you need...'*

He continued by explaining his belief that other lessons may be factually inaccurate; *'and then one of the injuries lessons, I think it is cold injuries, it's incredibly poorly written, also I think there are some inaccuracies in the lesson'*. However, when asked what steps had been taken to try and rectify the situation, George explained that he had *'raised it, raised it raised it twice, raised it three times, moved on sometimes corrected the lesson and not told anybody'*.

By way of another example of instructional development, George explained that he has used classroom exercises in an attempt at developing engagement with the students and to generate class interaction. In this example, he described an activity where, at the outset of a lesson, the instructor asks all the students to note down, on a scale of

1 – 10, how much they think they understand about a subject. At the end of the lesson, the instructor then asks if a) their initial estimate about their knowledge was correct and b) how much they now know about the subject on a scale of 1 – 10. George explained:

*'I got the idea from someone else. It's a gimmick but they seem to love it, and the thing is with a gimmick if you get them involved it hopefully makes them more receptive.'*

Three points can be considered here:

- Point 1 – through observation, George identified opportunities to develop his own instructional practice and actually tried it out in a *'live environment'*.
- Point 2 – George's comment that it *'hopefully'* makes them more receptive may suggest that George had not considered the impact his development had upon his students, which in turn suggests a limitation on the depth of reflection conducted.
- Point 3 – the activity is described as a gimmick rather than a legitimate technique, which may suggest a limited understanding of techniques for student engagement.

In the fourth interview, George explained how his use of training aids had developed and that he had created flash cards for use as quick quiz exercises within his teaching practice. With some pride, George explained that he had given the cards to a visiting instructor who reported that he had received the same positive response when they had been used. Asked if this approach had been formalised within a lesson plan, George explained that there was no prepared lesson plan for this subject and different instructors had adopted a range of approaches for this subject.

This suggests that instructors are capable of developing instructional approaches and supportive training aids rather than having to solely rely on scripted lesson plans.

### ***Pedagogy development***

During the research, the participants discussed how their instructional techniques had developed; the developments spoken about tended towards how they had tried to improve the technicality of their delivery and how to better align themselves with the skills and techniques taught on the DIT course. Some instructors had also demonstrated an ability to develop other aspects of their approach to teaching although again, this tended towards improving personal technique rather than a consideration of how to improve the lesson from a student perspective. That being said, it appears that if the conditions are appropriate and there is a level of encouragement, the participants were, in some cases, willing and able to try out different approaches within the lesson. Unfortunately, the full benefit of these attempts may not have been realised by either the individual instructor, or the training team as a general organisation.

### ***Perceptions of other instructors***

This investigation was not intended to be a vehicle for one instructor to reflect and comment on the performance of another. However, the participants typically seemed to prefer speaking in terms of their peers rather than reflecting on their own practice, especially where the reflection was against an actual practice rather than a general concept of their practice. These reflections do give an insight into how individuals view their peers, and in some cases, how that perception has changed over time.

George and Arnold described their peers being either very good, or ok; the general feeling was that the majority of their peers fell into the very good category. In supporting this general theme, Terry explained his belief that

the ATU staff *'is amongst the most professional he had ever come across'*. He did recognise that he had only had a limited exposure to other instructors but felt that the team he worked for displayed greater levels of professionalism than the visiting instructors he had been exposed to during his tour of duty.

Julie spoke about other instructors through examples; she described situations where the behaviour she had witnessed might be considered as inappropriate. In one example, whilst explaining the steps she had taken as a Warrant Officer to deal with the situation, she explained that this sort of behaviour was *typical Army humour* but went to some lengths to distance the organisation from the behaviour. Furthermore, she appeared to contradict herself in her attempts to ensure that the organisation was not seen in a negative light because of the behaviours of its members.

#### **4.3.3. Objective 3 – instructional development and reflection**

The participants discussed their experiences in instruction; in some cases, this included the process they went through when considering the effectiveness of their teaching practice.

With the exception of Steve, the participants appeared to be more comfortable talking about their performance in abstract rather than specific terms. George, Arnold and Terry all felt that the majority of instructors, permanently attached<sup>11</sup> or as visiting instructors, were professional in their outlook and knowledgeable in their subjects whilst both Sarah and Julie felt that female instructors brought a different dynamic into the training team experience.

George and Steve adopted different approaches to describing the manner in which they considered their teaching practice and its potential for

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<sup>11</sup> The training team is supported by instructs that transfer into the team for a specific tour of duty, and visiting instructors who are sent by their parent unit to instruct on a weekend-by-weekend basis.

development. Steve was concerned with considering the lesson, or course, as a complete entity and then reflecting upon the different elements within it; he explained that he went through this process after every lesson he taught. George focussed on technicality within the lesson, with a concern that appeared to be more about addressing his technique to bring it in line with the DIT approach.

### ***Application of reflection***

When Steve discussed his approach to developing instructional practice, he explained that he *'reflects on everything he does'*. His approach to reflection is by *'thinking about the good and bad points of a lesson'* and then developing an improvement plan to make sure *'he never has to reflect upon the same bad mistake twice'*. This might imply that, if something did not work in a particular lesson, he would never try that approach again. The actual meaning became clearer during a discussion about a lesson in which he had tried out a new approach to engaging his students through a crossword; his idea was to encourage students to note down key words that he would then test as part of his lesson consolidation<sup>12</sup>. In his reflection, Steve identified that one of his students was confused about the concept. Rather than saying he would not use the crossword approach again, Steve explained that in future his approach would be to *'... take a few moments during the introduction to explain what a crossword was...'* He commented that *'the next time I use a novel training aid I will think about the pitfalls of using it that I didn't think of before'*. Given his earlier position on instruction, Steve's willingness to adapt and adopt alternative strategies may be linked to issues of ownership and empowerment through participating in this research.

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<sup>12</sup> A DIT lesson has three parts: Introduction, Development, and Consolidation. The elements to the Introduction can be remembered by the mnemonic INTRO: Interest, Need, Title, Range (scope of the lesson), Objective.

Steve discussed question technique<sup>13</sup> and was particularly interested in situations where he had taught the same lesson on different courses but where the students reacted differently to questions, specifically them asking questions. He explained that:

*'If they ask me questions I know their mind is active and they are thinking about what we are trying to do ... if they don't ask a question, I can only assume that they know and it's not very good to make assumptions.'*

Steve went on to explain that, if faced with a class of students who were not asking questions, he would change his approach to a more formal directed question approach as at least then he could gauge their understanding of the subject. Steve's approach appears to align with Schön's (1983) reflective models of '*reflecting-in-action*' and '*reflecting-on-action*' and demonstrates application of professional judgement.

When discussing teaching practices, at the early stages of the research interviews, George explained that he felt his instructional approach had developed since joining the training team and that this was partly related to changes in policy although there did appear to be some confusion within his discussions. His point about changes to his teaching style demonstrated some misunderstanding about the concept of teaching style. He explained:

*'If I stick to the same teaching style, it's going to get very very boring for the guys who get me for a lot of lessons so I try to do different things.'*

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<sup>13</sup> The DIT course schools instructors in the application of a Question technique that is designed to help them engage with their students and to help the learners think through problems by applying a Socratic logic to the question posed. The Question Technique lesson covers: how to pose questions to the class; how to deal with incorrect answers to questions; and how to deal with questions from the class.

I believe this is a misrepresentation of his actual meaning and that he was trying to explain how he moderates his behaviour and approaches to instruction to help engage with students, and to enliven lessons. This would be in accordance with the guidance contained in the Defence Instructor Handbook (Crown, 2006) but could be seen as being in opposition to the practice of a strict adherence to common lesson plans, especially where they are scripted.

In reflecting upon one lesson, George explained that he has used *shock tactics* such as discussing male rape in connection to *conduct after capture* lessons; he said that he found this approach to be good at getting the students to pay attention in the lessons. Paradoxically, George was quite happy to talk about this subject with students but then went on to describe how he found it difficult to discuss questions of morality in other lessons. This apparent conflict may be the result of George developing his own line of thought with his ‘male rape’ example whilst the moralities issue was part of a scripted lesson plan with which he felt a lack of sense of ownership. The example here may relate to a perceived lack of autonomy through an inability to change lesson plans; no policy could be found at the ATU which specifically stated that the provided lesson plans must be followed in their entirety, and furthermore, no requirement for this is identified within JSP 822.

When discussing how his practice had developed, George explained that he was trying to improve his technical delivery. He continually described activities and improvements that were related to his questioning techniques. In many instances, the innovations he believed he had brought to his instructional style were more akin to the basic skills and techniques taught on instructional techniques courses.

When discussing the video observations, the key things George brought out again related to improving techniques for engagement and

questioning. The focus on the specific technical issue within the lesson meant that he did not consider other areas in the lesson where he could have developed his practice.

George was generally quite modest when talking about his own teaching practice and used terms such as *'hopefully getting better'* when describing it. It is unclear what he is measuring his improvement against; the student feedback (voice of the customer questionnaires) suggests that he is a popular, and effective, cadre officer and instructor. By the fourth interview, George had begun to see his development in a more holistic manner; this again may point to a development through engaging with this research programme. Instead of the constant focus on the technicalities of military instructional techniques, he had started talking about different practices that had been introduced to aid student learning; using flash cards as a flexible method for developing teaching points being one example. However, I believe the key development here was not in the use of the flash card but in the sharing of that knowledge with others and encouraging them to try out ideas:

*'I know others are doing something similar. We share ideas, cos I know [SSgt] ██████████ has done it with the Cadre he is working with. He tests them as well. And the other thing is that you reinforce points...*

*'...It's almost, how shall we put it, it's almost incredibly low-level stuff, but it's stuff that they need.'*

This sharing of ideas in this instance is one that could be likened to the development of a community of practice (Wenger, 2000) in an organisational network. Steve provided a similar perspective when asked about developing strategies to deal with a lack of questions coming forward from students on a DIT course. He explained:

*'I was the team leader and what used to happen was that when we got courses like that we used to discuss them with all the team members... We used to change our question strategy and instead of doing... but there is a slight anomaly here as I am not actually part of that team.'*

This may suggest that the approach is one that is personality driven rather than something endemic within the training team. George provided some additional thoughts on how this may be limited when, in one of the early interviews, he expressed his concern over the reducing opportunities for instructors to get together on an informal basis. It appears that, despite this, team members are working together to develop their individual and collective practices although this is at a local, and informal, level rather than organisational level.

### ***Change may not always be encouraged***

Terry discussed an occasion when, after completing DTTT, he wanted to experiment with music as part of a Skill at Arms (SAA) practice session; despite this being a practice session, there is still a strict lesson plan format in the appropriate pamphlet, and, the ATU expects instructors to adhere to the appropriate pamphlet at all times. Terry explained that his idea was to use the music beat to encourage soldiers to conduct the drills at a specific pace. He furthermore explained that the music was not to be played loudly and that he had still been in control throughout the session. However, this innovation was apparently not well received by C/Sjt [REDACTED] who was acting as senior SAA instructor for the weekend. Terry explained that CSjt [REDACTED] *'stormed into the room, turned the music off, and shouted at him to teach the lesson properly'*. He further explained that later on, CSjt [REDACTED] left him in no doubt that that sort of approach to lessons was not acceptable. At a later point, Terry explained that he had spoken to the School of Infantry about the idea and that they could see no reason why he could not try it. He also explained that after the way he

had been shouted at by CSjt [REDACTED] he was not willing to even raise the idea as something that could be tried out in the future.

### ***Reflection with support***

In one of Fred's instructional practices, he was recorded teaching a cohort of recruits a Skill at Arms lesson. After observing the video, his initial response to the reflective discussion concerned the size of the room and how it constrained movement. These areas might be considered to be outside of Fred's immediate sphere of control and there would probably be very little Fred could do to improve the situation.

Fred did not comment on his instructional style but did mention how his '*London accent*' may be difficult for some students to understand. During a conversation, I asked Fred to re-look at the recording. I wanted Fred to concentrate on how he spoke when students were actually practising the skills and to observe their reaction to his voice. He had not realised that as he spoke through the drills<sup>14</sup>, students were trying to perform the drill at the same speed with which he was speaking and that they were making mistakes through trying to keep up with his speaking pace. This may also link to Terry's idea on using the beat of the music within a SAA practice period. Fred's response to seeing this phenomenon was to excitedly repeat what he had seen at our next meeting and then to say he was going to '*brief all the other skillies*' to make sure they were aware of this and to slow down their speech when talking through the skills. Fred later came back to me about this point and explained that by slowing his speech down at this stage in his lessons he had noticed an overall improvement in the way students developed the skills. This may be a further indicator that, given appropriate conditions and encouragement, instructors can develop their practice through a consideration of the impact

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<sup>14</sup> A technique that is taught on the Skill at Arms instructor courses is to talk through the drill as the students are performing the drills.

they are having on the student rather than how they have applied any specific technique.

### ***Organisational considerations – the participant voices***

During the interview and analysis process, the relationship between the individual and the organisation became apparent and is described by the following statements:

- The military has an impact on individual lives and is held in high regard by the participants.
- A sense of ownership and belonging is manifest at both a local (meso) and organisational (macro) level.
- Through ownership, there is a feeling of shared responsibility.
- Participants will ‘defend’ the ATU and the wider organisation.

Issues relating to a ‘*sense of belonging*’ can be seen in the language used by the participants where they either convey a sense of ownership and shared responsibility, or a sense of trying to distance themselves from the proceedings; these expressions appear to be pertinent at both an organisational and training team level. Table 4.12 begins to draw some of these points together.

<b>Unit relationships</b>	
<b>Sense of belonging</b>	<b>Sense of distancing</b>
‘... <b>we</b> are very lucky here...’	‘... <b>they</b> still haven’t revised ...’
‘... it is a luxury <b>we</b> can’t afford...’	‘... <b>you</b> cannot change the plan...’
‘... time was taken away from <b>us</b> ...’	‘... <b>they</b> have decided that ...’
‘... <b>we</b> are limited in what <b>we</b> can do ...’	‘... <b>they</b> never come out and see the problems in reality ...’
‘... <b>we</b> have regulations, <b>we</b> have rules ...’	
‘... and what <b>we</b> in our SOP state...’	

Table 4.12 - Unit belonging and distancing

A similar pattern of speech can be detected when examining comments that are more attributable at an organisational rather than unit level. Table 4.13 depicts some of the more pertinent comments here.

<b>Organisational level relationships</b>	
<b>Sense of belonging</b>	<b>Sense of distancing</b>
'... what <b>we</b> try to show is how in battle ...'	'... <b>they</b> are trying to emphasise ...'
'... <b>we</b> teach how the organisation wants you to teach ...'	'... we teach how the organisation wants <b>you</b> to teach ...'
'... <b>we</b> also test them on a lot of stuff <b>we</b> don't teach them ...'	'... I think <b>they</b> would but it ...'
'... <b>we</b> are teaching an awful lot of Values and Standards...'	
'... <b>we</b> have directives that influence what <b>we</b> do ...'	
'... <b>we</b> are taught to ...'	

Table 4.13 - Organisational belonging and distancing

At both unit and organisational levels, the language used tended to convey a sense of ownership and shared responsibility rather than demonstrating discord. Whilst all participants used terms that portrayed a sense of belonging throughout the interviews, George, Sarah, and Steve also expressed themselves in language that appeared to distance them from the unit or organisation.

### ***Ownership and a sense of belonging***

During the interviews, people were encouraged to talk freely about their experiences and beliefs. When analysing the resultant narratives, patterns began to emerge with respect to the choice of pronoun and its relationship with the points being made. Four distinctive patterns have been interpreted as running through the interviews:

- a sense of ownership and belonging;
- a sense of pride;
- a sense of distancing;
- a sense of disassociation.

When discussing experiences and opinions where the individual participant appeared to describe a sense of belonging, ownership, and pride, the possessive pronoun 'we' tended to be used. Comments related to belonging and pride tended to be made from a positive perspective whilst comments aligned more towards issues of ownership included both positive and negative ideas and thoughts.

Examples of this approach to language include Eric speaking about curriculum development explaining that '*... **we** are limited in what **we** can ...*' and, '*... **we** are limited on what **we** can facilitate ...*' when speaking about staff development opportunities. Whilst George demonstrates a sense of unit pride '*... there is added value in some of the things **we** do ...*' when discussing the curriculum and '*... **we** have a lesson plan that is pre-set and **we** are supposed to follow ...*'. In this example, the language George uses may or may not suggest that he agrees with the policy of using a predefined lesson plan, but it does suggest that it is something he supports, irrelevant of personal feelings. George may also sub-consciously be suggesting that areas of the curriculum could be developed to add more value.

A further example from George appears to suggest that he is defending the unit by explaining something cannot be done, '*... it is probably the best **we** can do here, not feasible with the equipment **we** have...*'; again, his pronoun use suggests a sense of ownership and belonging. Steve tended to speak in personal terms using the pronoun "I" rather than the more inclusive 'we' form. However, when discussing his belief that time was a limiting factor on people's ability to develop their lessons his inclusive

selection of language ‘...**we** shouldn’t have to ask people...’ suggests that he may believe there may be a collective responsibility in connection with asking people to work in their own time.

The sense of ownership and belonging tended to come through when participants discussed issues connected with the local organisation although there are instances that appear to suggest a wider feeling of belonging in respect to the Army in general.

### ***A sense of ownership – Eric talks about manning issues***

The following passage is taken from an interview with Eric where he is discussing unit staffing and management issues:

*‘... [Thinking sound] It’s a two edged sword. **They** are supposed to be here for three years in theory. It is actually two years cos the first year is spent getting qualified etc. etc.’*

*‘What **we** find is the guys who really like it want to stay. **They** never want to leave. The price for that is that **they** end up becoming [pause] not competent in reality. So **their** raw subject is correct but **they**’ve lost track on what’s going on outside of the ATU.’*

*‘That said, the MS<sup>15</sup> piece doesn’t help either cos when **they** come here, unless **they’ve** made a special effort themselves, **they** are forgotten about.’*

Eric’s use of the term, ‘they’ in this paragraph might suggest that he has separated himself as a member of the Army Reserve from those under his command and therefore did not perceive this as an issue that impacted himself as an individual. In the second paragraph, he employs an

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<sup>15</sup> MS is manning and service; this is effectively the HR department of the Army with strategic governance of terms, conditions, and posting records.

inclusive term 'we' to suggest that this is more than his personal belief. He then reverts to using the term 'they' when describing an issue of currency that he feels instructors posted into a training establishment will face. Again, Eric's use of 'they' may suggest that he does not see this as an issue that impacts on him personally. In the 3<sup>rd</sup> paragraph, he shifts his focus to discuss the Manning and Service (MS) piece through which soldier careers are managed. Here, he again uses terms that suggest this issue is not one that is applicable to him.

During this passage, Eric's language suggests that career management responsibility rests with the individual soldier and their ability to maintain links with their 'parent unit'. The point he does not clarify in this passage is that the training team are not able to promote from within and that a soldier's promotion is controlled by the availability of suitable positions within the parent unit irrespective of the soldier's current posting; George had previously described this as an issue when discussing relationships and professionalism. Eric's passage continued:

*'But equally, this is the only place **you** can come and do **your** job without being overly supervised and **I** think that is why people tend to like it cos of that independence. Whereas in a unit, there are so many people and permanent staff in the background watching them and most people are unable to watch without getting involved. Where here, such a big busy place, **you** get on and do your job.'*

The passage finishes with Eric employing a third form of reference, 'you', and 'I'. The possessive pronoun use within this section of the passage might suggest that Eric sees this as something important to his own practice. This comment may also suggest that Eric has some concerns, possibly based on personal experience, about the level of interference from permanent staff. His use of 'permanent staff' in this context is most likely to refer to Regular soldiers posted to ATU in a supervisory capacity,

which may impact on the ability of an individual to develop their professional skills independently.

***A sense of ownership – George talks about expectations of recruits***

This passage from one of George's interviews is used to demonstrate the sense of belonging he feels towards the Army Reserve. The passage is extracted from part of the interview where George started discussing the lessons on values and standards, relating it to people joining the Army Reserve:

*'The great advantage **we** have in the Territorial Army is that **they** want to be here [pause]. **They** want to be here.'*

In the first section of the passage, George has used both 'we', and 'they', as terms of reference. His use of the inclusive term 'we', suggests that he sees himself as part of the organisation thus describing his sense of belonging and ownership. He then switches to 'they' when explaining that the Army Reserve soldier wants to be part of the organisation; this is a common assumption with many individuals at the ATU, and is often used in general conversations. His use of language in this passage suggests that he may have separated himself [as part of the organisation and operating within a training team with responsibility for many units] from soldiers who parade at their local Army Reserve Centre (ARC):

*'I think I may have mentioned this before. **They** are almost disappointed when **they** don't get the caricature of the Army. Well if you imagine scenes from Full Metal Jacket and you have the Drill Sergeant shouting and stomping [pause]. People expect that [pause]. **I'm** not saying it's the right way. But some people expect it.'*

In the next section, George explains an assumption about the ‘wants and desires’ of people joining the Army Reserve. His use of ‘they’ may suggest that his feelings about joining the Army Reserve may be different and that he did not want, or expect, to be exposed to the typical type of NCO he created an analogy with. This point is further made as George goes on to emphasise that he may not see this as the correct approach. George’s comments may also suggest that he has seen this type of behavioural characteristic being displayed by some of the NCOs within the training team although he has stopped short of actually saying this:

*‘We do have, I believe, within the Territorial Army, Not only in the promise **we** make but in delivering it, and this is a huge issue whether the offer is good enough or not If you said to a TA signaller. **We** want you to join the TA Signals [pause]. **We** want **you** to come in one evening a week. **We** want **you**, every evening **you** come in so once a week to serial check radios Oh, **we** want **you** to set up the satellite comms kit, switch it on and **you** can test it by dialling a telephone number i.e. somebody's mobile phone but **they** can't answer it because it will cost money.’*

The final element of this passage clearly demonstrates the sense of ownership and belonging George has with the Army Reserve as a general organisation. His consistent use of ‘we’ when describing the case suggests that he is talking from a perspective of an organisational requirement and that he sees himself as a part of that organisation. Within this paragraph, George also explains that he perceives that the ‘offer’ is not good enough; this may, or may not, be related to his own position within the Army Reserve.

### ***A sense of ownership – Steve and adapting approaches to questions***

Whilst Steve mainly discusses everything from an individual perspective, on occasion, he also uses a pattern of speech suggesting a sense of

belonging. The following extract has been taken from an interview with Steve where he had explained his personal approach to adapting his questioning style during DIT lessons. He explained that if the initial approach was not as effective as he had intended he would alter his strategy for the following day of the course; after his explanation, he was asked if this ever happened as part of a team process.

*'A team, yes, [pause] but there is a slight anomaly here as I am not actually part of that team.'*

In the first section of the passage, Steve has just clarified his position:

*'I was the team leader and what used to happen was that when **we** got courses like that **we** used to discuss them with all the team members and when **we** done the demonstration the next day cos don't forget, the next day is quite a heavy day, it has the two demonstrations. That is what **we** used to do. **We** used to change our question strategy and instead of doing, [pause] for want of a better phrase, instead of doing the grown up version - are there any questions guys. **We** would revert to "Right, why have I done this," "What have I done here" and so on. And **we** would have [pause] **I** would have assessed the situation to decide, no, this is one of those situations and **we** would adapt our Sunday or the next day's demonstrations to suit.'*

In this part of the passage, Steve appears to include the rest of the team with his use of 'we' although his use of 'I' at the outset of the passage suggests that the approach may have been driven. As the passage progresses, Steve continues to use 'we', suggesting that this was a team-based strategy. However, towards the end of the passage, he switched back to the personal use of 'I', which may suggest that he believes this activity only happened through his drive and that the decision to alter

strategy could only happen if he had assessed the situation. This may imply a lack of belief in the capability of other instructors working on the course; Steve supports this inference when he discusses the practice of his peers.

When asked if this was still the case, Steve's response was:

*'To be quite honest, I don't know. **We've** had two changes of team leader since I was in charge.'*

Since Steve had taught on the DIT course on a number of occasions, albeit from a supporting perspective, this may actually be a case of not wishing to express a sentiment that may be seen as being disloyal towards the current DIT team. His use of the term *'to be quite honest'* should suggest exactly that, Steve is telling the truth. However, since Steve had taught on the course with a different team leader, his use of *'I don't know'* may be a way of enabling his having to avoid discussing the approach other team leaders had adopted; this could be seen as a demonstration of *'loyalty'* or *'Respect for others'* – both of which are key components of the Army values.

### ***A sense of ownership – Julie explains 'total professionalism'***

This short passage has been extracted from an interview with Julie where she has been asked to explain her understanding of the Army's use of *Total Professionalism* within the Values and Standards:

*'Total Professionalism, [pause] well it means, [pause] treating everybody the same. With respect and working to the, you know, the ultimate goal that **we** all want to achieve. I do, I do see the RTC<sup>16</sup> as a professional organisation, I do. I mean, from what I*

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<sup>16</sup> RTC stands for Regional Training Centre, the term the ATU was previously known by prior to being rebranded as an ATU.

*understand it's supposed to be the best RTC in the country [pause] supposedly the biggest. It gets good results [pause] we've worked hard to achieve that and [pause] hopefully, that'll, you know, perpetuate from there.'*

There are a number of points related to understanding the Army's Values and Standards which may be worthy of consideration, however, my interest in use of the passage is connected to the implicit sense of belonging and pride. The use of 'we' in relation to 'total professionalism' being the 'ultimate goal' suggests that she believes this belief is widespread amongst Regular and Reserve soldiers. This may suggest that she has a sense of kinship with other military personnel.

***A sense of responsibility – Fred talks about effective use and support of instructors***

During a discussion, Fred explained that one of the instructors timetabled on that weekend had just passed his Skill at Arms (SAA) instructor course. This young LCpl had been sent as a visiting instructor (VI) by his unit and had been timetabled to instruct SAA for the weekend. No allowance was made for the lack of instructional experience by the unit sending him as a VI, or the training team within the ATU employing him on instructional duties; this may be a results of a consideration that 'qualified' and 'experienced' amount to the same thing.

The first element of the passage demonstrates Fred's assumed authority for making decisions on staff deployment; furthermore, it shows how he recognised some concerns the inexperienced instructor may have, and his reasoning. Fred's use of 'I' suggests ownership of the issue:

*'... the other thing is, I'm quite lucky cos I've got LCpl [REDACTED] here and I've used him because he is a new Skill at Arms instructor and so he's come down expecting to teach but is a little bit nervous*

*about it and was only been told about it a couple of days ago, so I've got the authority for him to come into **my** lesson and also to Staff [REDACTED] lesson just as an observer.'*

In the next element of the passage, he appears to recognise that his initial action did not satisfy the needs of the LCpl. Fred has adapted his approach and is now using the LCpl in a 'value adding' role by getting him to help struggling students in a manner that does not put pressure on him:

*'...but **he's** felt **he** would be more valued just helping as an Assistant Instructor so where I've had a couple of lads who have been struggling **he's** gone over to them and given them a little bit of one-to-one tuition which is really worked well.'*

Fred then moves on from his sole responsibility to encompass the unit when he explains that the approach he, as an individual, has adopted in this particular situation could not be applied as a general strategy; as he does this, Fred moves from the use of 'I' to a more encompassing 'we' form of identification:

*'...but obviously **we** can't do that all the time that's just a very rare occasion but it has worked. At the end of the day, **we** just don't have, **we** don't have the resources do **we**. No, **we** don't have the resources to do it because that would mean two Skill at Arms Instructors per lesson. It's a luxury, sometimes **we** can do it, and sometimes **we** can't No. Not without getting more instructors, of the right calibre here all the time and that is the difficulty because **we** never know who is going to turn up until the Friday night and **we** are nearly always swapping things around at the last minute.'*

The final element of the passage demonstrates Fred's sense of belonging but suggests that he believes the responsibility for the issue rests outside

of the training team. This point is made in relation to where he explains that *'we never know who is going to turn up...'* which implies that it is down to others, perhaps the visiting instructor's unit, to provide that information. In this instance, Fred was able to mentor the inexperienced instructor but he also explained that, normally, there would be insufficient instructional resources to provide this support. In discussing the importance of the student experience, Fred described situations where he and another instructor moved students between sections if they felt the soldier would gain more from a different instructional approach.

Key themes in Fred's conversations relate to professionalism being demonstrated in terms of military pedagogy and the image the instructor presents, coupled with recognition of the needs for the instructor to support the student and the training team to support the instructor. Fred described a limited form of autonomy to support the professional judgement of instructors.

### ***A sense of responsibility – Arnold talks about developing instructors***

In discussing the professionalism of his peers, Arnold demonstrates the sense of ownership and belonging he has with the organisation:

*'... I think we are very lucky here with the calibre of instructors we've got are very high [thinking sound] and they enjoy what they do [pause] and it's maybe the methods that are in place obviously help that, and make them better. The courses we provide make them better, the help and assistance that we provide, i.e., this cell that you work in, makes them better. You've got lead instructors who make them better, they sit in on lessons and can guide them...'*

His use of the word 'we' suggests that he is part of the developmental process at a unit/organisational level; however, later on in the passage, his

language identifies others as having the physical responsibility of conducting the work.

***A sense of pride – Terry talks about the approach to instruction and standards of behaviour***

Terry suggests that there is a difference in professionalism and attitude between the unit and visiting instructors, linking this to how the training team functions as a unit. The selected extract starts by explaining the reasoning Terry applies when describing the unit as professional. It then goes on to demonstrate the pride he feels at being part of the unit and his belief that his membership of the training team sets him and his peers above other instructors:

*‘...but even though **I** considered professionalism is very very important for **us** because **we** are a professional formed organisation; **we** have rules; **we** have regulations; **we** have an ethos and **we** have a directive which also influences what **we** do.*

*And **we** can certainly picture the RTC and the RTC staff as different to the visiting staff at certainly junior ranks. Because although **they** have that basis knowledge of an idea of professionalism within the Army, **they** don’t necessarily hold it up as a standard in the **way the RTC staff do**; I’ve noticed it this weekend with **their** mannerisms, the way **they** talk, the way **they** act. To use the expression, ‘chin things off’, to make a job quicker, easier, **they** think **they** have a better idea and perspective.*

*But then that’s where the integrity, yea, I do feel that I am using a lot of the buzz words that comes out of CDRILS and to make sure that we do actually enforce these sort of things when they come from higher up the chain of command cos that’s also what makes it a professional organisation.’*

This extract clearly demonstrates Terry's personal perception about some constitutional components of professionalism at an organisational level and in doing so, demonstrates his sense of belonging and ownership within, and to, the training team. Terry then begins to differentiate between the staff at 'his' training team and the visiting instructors. One possible interpretation is a belief that other units are not as 'professional' as the training team he works in; again, this suggests a feeling of pride and belonging. In the final element of the extract, Terry draws the concept of the Values and Standards into the area of developing professionalism. Throughout the passage, Terry uses the language of ownership when discussing perceptions about the training team, and the wider organisation from a governance perspective.

In other areas of his conversation, Terry suggests that the sense of belonging, and pride in being part of an organisation such as the Army Reserve can help build and develop a sense of professionalism within the individual. Terry recognises the benefits of personal development through the training courses he has attended whilst in the military.

#### ***A sense of pride – George talking about instructors***

George also speaks with some pride when discussing the actions and activities of some of his peers. Again, his language choice is both positive and implies a sense of ownership and belonging. Examples here include: '*... we've got some incredibly good instructors ...*' and '*we have some incredibly keen people...*' George appears to align himself with the unit when discussing the capability of some of his peers, where, in both cases, he uses a very powerful adjective in the word 'incredibly'.

#### ***Sarah talks about changes***

Unlike the other participants, Sarah's use of language tends to lean toward the 3<sup>rd</sup> person approach. Typical examples here include, '*... it [the training team] is the CO's train set...*' when discussing changes of

approach within the organisation. I do not believe Sarah is trying to distance herself but do believe she is trying to disassociate herself from the responsibility of enacting the change. Sarah describes her opinion of the approach to leadership and management that has occurred within the training team:

*'I think there used to be very much a sharing environment, where, if you really, you know, **you** could sit down and have a grown up conversation with the Colonel, 2IC, RSM, I think that seems to be missing. Or it seems to be looked upon disapprovingly. I don't know. I really don't know. Because it's occurred with a couple of individuals over the last couple of months, you know where **they**'ve had conversations with people outside **their** unit so to speak; what are **we** when **we** define HQ and ITC and STW<sup>17</sup>? Anyway, **they**'ve had one to one conversations where **they** haven't even initiated it and have had a bit of a wrist slap, you know.'*

This short passage demonstrates how Sarah appears to try to articulate her concern about the change in management approach. She starts out by speaking about herself and then draws other people into the conversation as if to imply that the issue has affected a number of people; she still, within the middle of the passage, appears to retain ownership with her use of 'we'.

### ***A sense of disassociation***

Whilst recognising that there is currently a lot of change within the military, much of which is being driven by political expedience, Eric explained that the focus for development and change cannot just focus on the Reserve soldier but must incorporate all those involved in the process.

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<sup>17</sup> STW was the Specialist Training Wing, the phase-3 training element of the RTC prior to the rebranding as an ATU. At this point, the phase 3 training responsibilities were transferred to another training team whilst the ATU took on the responsibility for all phase-1 training in South East England.

*‘One of the biggest things to me is the TA change at the moment, what **they**’ve completely forgotten about is the supporting staff need to change.’*

When, during discussion, the participants appeared to want to create a sense of distance between themselves and the event, the participants tended to apply ‘they’. When making these types of observation, the participants tended to focus on negative aspects of the organisation, or their experiences within it.

### ***Creating distance***

There are areas where George appears to be trying to distance himself from the Unit. Here he tends to use pronouns such as ‘you’ and ‘they’, which may subconsciously suggest areas where he does not feel a sense of belonging and ownership. Examples here include, ‘... **you** can’t change the plan...’ when discussing scheduling clashes and inappropriate teaching rooms being allocated to individual lessons; ‘**They** have decided that ...’ when describing an approach that the chain of command had adopted in respect of lesson pack allocations; ‘**They** never come out and see the problems in reality ...’ when discussing the impact on training of some of the decisions made by the chain of command. In all three examples, George does not appear to demonstrate a sense of support and ownership of the actions.

Steve, when speaking of his peers, commented on the variability of standards of instruction within the training team. He explained his belief that some instructors had a belief in their own capability and were not open to developing their practice, ‘...**they**’ve instructed the same lessons for the last ten years, and they can’t see that **they** can improve’. Steve may be implying that managing the duration of a tour of duty within a training team would be beneficial to the overall standard of instruction. This appears to support the more stringent approach to adhering to tours

of duty that had been adopted by the Commanding Officer during the time the research was conducted.

### ***Creating distance to behaviour while supporting the unit***

Julie discusses behaviour but, unlike other participants, she uses it as an opportunity to describe negative behaviours. Julie discusses a pattern of behaviour she calls ‘*Army humour*’ and describes some of the negative connotations this type of behaviour presents, suggesting that this behaviour is more likely to occur with the ‘*testosterone driven infantry types*’, whilst describing negative behaviours, appears to want to present the organisation in a positive light. Julie introduces the term ‘*Army humour*’ to describe an attitude she claims pervades the Regular Army but is not as prevalent within the Army Reserve. She explains:

*‘... not so much in the TA because **you’ve** got, **you** are civilians. And it’s, if **you** come across ex Regulars or people like the PWRR testosterone types that’s the humour. It is the humour. It’s very sad, it’s very sad that **you** pick on someone’s weakest point and **you** dig and dig until **you** get a reaction. Cos **they** like the reaction **they** like to upset **they** like to see people getting upset [pause] I don’t know why but that’s what makes, gives them a kick. **They’ve** got to them, **they’ve** got their Achilles heel, **they’ve** got a reaction and that makes them feel good, it’s almost a control thing.’*

The repeated use of ‘they’ when describing the activity puts distance between Julie and the activity. The passage definitely suggests that she does not agree with the activity and looks upon it as inappropriate behaviour. However, when asked if she related this to bullying, she continues:

*‘No, I don’t think so, yeah, yeah, I suppose so. It could be an element of bullying, yes although, if **you’re** in the Army, it’s, I*

*suppose it's something **you** are used to and **you** have to get used to it.'*

This element of the passage appears to condone the activity by suggesting that, culturally, it is accepted. When asked if she felt there was any bullying within the training team, Julie continues:

*'Not overtly, no, of course not, no, I don't think there is. I don't think there is bullying. Not what I identify as bullying. I don't necessarily identify that as bullying, I just identify that as a sick sense of humour.'*

Despite independently raising an issue that might be perceived as potentially a form of bullying, Julie seeks to defend the unit from any accusation that bullying could exist within it. Her use of a positive and inclusive way of speaking about the unit demonstrates her 'sense of belonging' on a number of occasions. A typical example of this can be found when Julie is discussing the reputation of the training team; '*... from what I understand, it's supposed to be the best [ATU] in the country ...*', which indicates a sense of pride and belonging whilst '*...and **we've** worked really hard to achieve that...*' demonstrates her feeling of inclusion within the training team activities.

### ***Organisational considerations – concluding thoughts***

The analysis of narrative data has been used to identify 6 emerging themes that are related to individual practice and organisational behaviour; furthermore, these themes appear to be bound together through the Army Values and Standards. The first 3 themes have been identified through an analysis of common elements of narrative found within the data gathered as part of interview – observation – reflection cycles. The second group of 3 themes has emerged through a consideration of the language used within the interviews. Of particular importance was a consideration of

pronoun usage as participants responded to different elements of the interviews.

Taken together, the first 3 themes suggest that the participants viewed their professionalism in the context of the behaviours expected of a soldier and through their perceptions of what would be expected of a soldier as an instructor. The participants demonstrated a tendency towards measuring their instructional ability, and by association the effectiveness of a lesson, in terms of the application of instructional techniques rather than a consideration of the learner experience and knowledge assimilation. Effectively, the instructor participants tended to use their ability to apply the tools and techniques taught within the military pedagogy as a form of measure of their instructional professionalism. This approach is supported by the instructor monitoring approach developed through DSAT. While Ofsted (2011) had previously identified this approach within the Regular Army as being likely to lead to an instructor-centric focus for improvements, this research has supported those observations as also being relevant within a Reserve Army context.

Although there is a drive to apply the techniques in the appropriate manner and adhere to any provided lesson plans and scripts, the participants did demonstrate an awareness of the need to develop other aspects of their practice, and there were instances of development beyond the application of technique. However, these developments tended to be because of interaction through the research, and in some cases as a social activity, rather than as a direct result of any reflection on personal practice. This may support the initial concept that change will not occur unless there is some catalyst that encourages its development.

The first 3 themes are focussed on individual practice. However, the second group of 3 themes are aligned to the relationship between the individual and the organisation. Within this research, that relationship

appears to exist at the local (meso) level with the ATU and at a more extended (macro) level with the wider Army organisation.

Pronoun analysis has suggested that feelings of belonging to the organisation and ownership of activities within the organisation are embedded strongly with all participants; this is also demonstrated through a sense of pride in the organisation at both meso and macro levels. Furthermore, the analysis suggests that whilst the participants may not necessarily agree with all policy approaches they would typically try to protect the organisation and its reputation.

Overall, the research results suggest that the concept of a professional identity within the instructor base of a phase-1 training establishment in the Army Reserve is not limited purely to individual behaviour and action. This research suggests that individual professional identity is a blend of personal skills, knowledge and experiences supported by the relationship the individual has with the employing organisation. This concept is more fully explored within Chapter 5.

## Chapter 5 – Data Interpretations

## **5. DATA INTERPRETATION**

This chapter is considered in two parts. Part 1 introduces the concept of situational vocational professional identity (SVPI) and develops the model through reflection on the data analysis discussed in Chapter 4. Part 2 builds the conceptual model and provides a consideration of variations within the model. As it develops, the model of SVPI is considered in terms of the detail identified within the literature review; it includes both supporting and contradicting concepts.

The literature review considered three core areas concerned with: a) the skills and behaviours expected of the professional; b) governance and overarching professional standards to which professionals should adhere; and c) the political influence that has been focussed on both the military and further education sectors. Similarities were identified between the Army's Values and Standards (Crown, 2008), the IfL Code of Professional Conduct (2008), some core statements of value made with the LLUK Professional Standards (2007) and some aspects of the ETF (2014a) Professional Standards. We have also seen that the attributes of professional behaviour described by Robson (2006), Clow (2001), and others can be identified within the practices of the research participants.

### **5.1. Developing situational vocational professional identity**

#### ***A 'basic' model of professionalism***

During the fieldwork phase of this investigation the LLUK Professional Standards were applicable to FE and provided a '*generic description of skills, knowledge and attributes*' (LLUK, 2007, pii) that focussed on providing a comprehensive set of descriptors to guide individuals towards developing their professionalism. Those standards appeared to be specifically aimed at the practitioner, especially for the individual working

in the lifelong learning sector. The IfL (2012) 5 core values of professional practice [*Professionalism, Development and innovation, Integrity, Autonomy, Equality*] again provided focus for the individual values although there is some recognition of a more collegiate approach identifying the benefits of '*communities of practice*' to aid innovation and development. The latest iteration of professional standards, developed by the Education and Training Foundation (2014, p3), and pertinent to this research going forward, considers '*Professional Skills, Professional Values and Attributes, and Professional Knowledge and Understanding*'; in effect, reconceptualising the same areas as the standards developed by LLUK. Whilst possibly written in a more accessible form, these standards still describe professionalism in terms of individual responsibilities although with some recognition of the relationship between the individual and their employer.

The military (in the form of the MoD) were involved in focus groups that led to the Education and Training Foundation Professional Standards (ETF, 2014a). However, I believe it unlikely that individual Army Reserve instructors will be aware of the standards unless it is through their civilian occupation, or if the standards are introduced and 'taught' on instructional courses such as DIT or DTTT. The latter case is less likely given that these courses currently do not include recognition of either the IfL Codes of Practice or the previous LLUK Professional Standards.

Some research (Hoyle, 1975; Friedson, 1994; Pratt et al, 2006; Evans, 2008; McElhinney, 2008) does, however, suggest that interaction between individual, peers and employers is recognised as an element of professional development. However, in addition to the employer, there may also be a range of organisations that also influence individual professionalism; for reporting purposes, these bodies have been labelled as key sector stakeholders and may include organisations such as Initial Training Group (ITG), JSP22 and DSAT requirements in military terms of

Professional Bodies, Awarding Bodies, and Sector Skills Councils in civilian terms. Thus, the situation might exist where an individual would develop their professionalism with overarching standards providing some guidance on what it means to be a professional and a recognition of some potential employer influence.

### ***Dimensional approaches***

It is suggested that previous codes of practice, professional standards, and/or behaviours have been developed and generally considered from a one-dimensional perspective. In effect, they may not take into account the circumstances of the individual at any given time. Applying McGregor's (1960) 'Theory X' and 'Theory Y' framework, the opportunity for individuals to develop their own professional practice may be moderated through the cultural and doctrinal approach of the employing organisation. When Dainton (2005) suggests that individuals who do not plan their own lessons, etc, cannot be considered as professionals, she may actually be recognising the impact the organisation or the employer has on the individual. This may particularly be the case where a highly bureaucratic organisation seeks to have a consistent approach across multiple delivery sites as with phase-1 training in the military, the intertwined relationship between the organisation and the individual having previously been identified by Evans (2008) amongst others.

### ***Situational vocational professional identity***

During this research, it was noted that professionalism, as described and demonstrated, may have meant subtly different things to individual participants yet there were a number of identifiable common aspects within the individual narratives. In addition, the bracketing exercise and resultant information clusters identified a number of common elements across all the participant discussions and observation reflections. Supported by the core concept of Army Values and Standards, these elements are drawn across themes that include aspects that are: a)

personal to the individual; b) related to the individual and their relationship with the ATU; and c) related to the relationship between the individual, the ATU and the wider military organisation. The suggestion is that to understand how individual professional identity, and by extension an individual's professionalism, is demonstrated, one must consider applying a multi-dimensional approach to exploring different pressures that can influence the individual practitioner.

A belief in the military pedagogy (emerging theme 3) was a core concept running through many discussions. It was underpinned by a sense of personal standards (emerging theme 1) of professionalism as a 'measure' of the ability to apply the skills and techniques that are fundamental to this pedagogy and the necessary characteristics and behaviours associated within being a soldier (emerging theme 2). The relationship between the practitioner and the ATU drew out common themes (emerging themes 5, and 6) related to the overall professionalism of the ATU, its culture, and the operating environment including a sense of pride and belonging (emerging theme 4). This sense of belonging was apparent even though, in some cases, participants may have subconsciously distanced themselves when they were uncomfortable with practice or policy.

The relationship between the individual, the ATU, and the wider organisation emerged as pertinent; in some cases, the ATU was bypassed and the relationship between the individual and the wider organisation was dominant. The themes tended to cluster around concepts such as organisational professionalism, organisational culture, a sense of pride in belonging to the organisation, the relationship between 'Regulars' and 'Reserves'. Through this, positive and negative feelings emerged. Typically, when individuals appeared to try and distance themselves from policy or practice in respect of either the ATU or wider military organisation, there was a sense of trying to protect the organisation from

being seen in a negative light. In effect, participants may have disagreed with an approach but would typically also try to defend the approach.

### 5.1.1. The ‘simple’ model

In the context of this research, it is suggested that the basic approach, as defined by professional standards, does not present an adequate description of the influences that impact on individuals with respect to their professionalism.

This research suggests that demonstrations of professionalism may be situational and whilst professional standards may provide some guidance, many other factors and influences appear to interact. Figure 5.1, created from the perspective of the participant data, describes the common elements identified as related to the relationship between the individual, the ATU, and the organisation either as a stand-alone entity or as something that is accessed through the ATU.

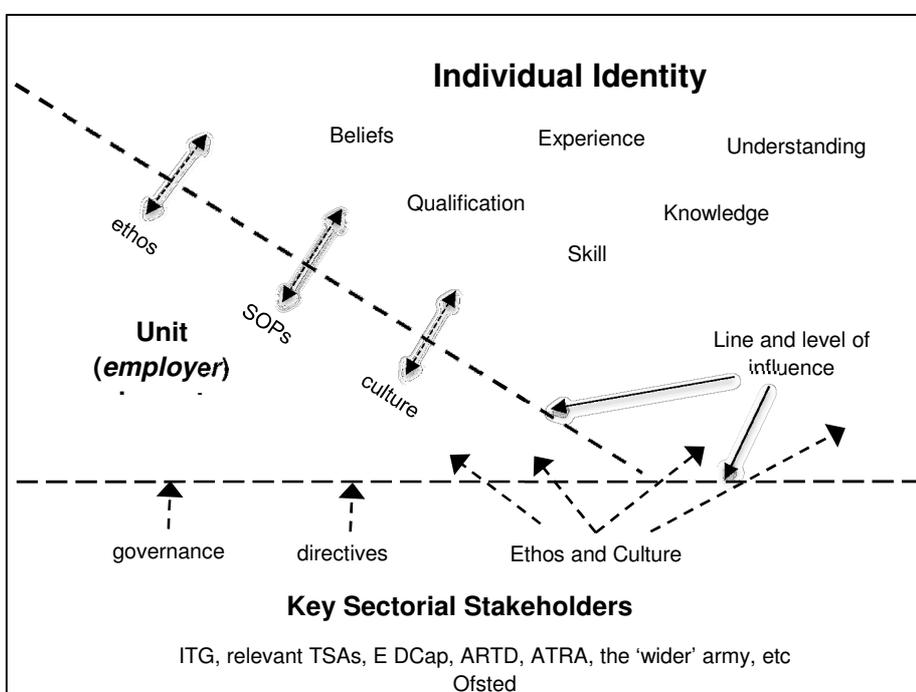


Figure 5.1 - SVPI - a simple model

The representation is used to describe the specific case of the individual instructor operating in the ATU. It suggests that the employing organisation (the ATU), and key sectorial organisation stakeholders such as Initial Training Group (ITG), relevant Technical Support Agencies (TSA) as well as the general wider Army as an organisation may all have some influence on the way an individual behaves and thus on their professional identity.

The simple model for situational vocational professionalism presents a more dimensional perspective of individual professional identity. It draws on the emerging themes identified within Chapter 4, focussing upon theme 4 (a sense of belonging), theme 3 (characteristics and behaviours), theme 5 (organisational professionalism), and theme 6 (organisational culture) to describe the structure. The approach is underpinned by personal standards and meeting the core values, identified as theme 1 (personal standards) and the overarching concept of Army Values and Standards. Within the simple model of situational vocational professionalism, we can identify the concepts (Johnson, 1972; MacDonald, 1995) related to professional development and the development of the professions.

### **5.1.2. The ‘complex’ model**

For many Army Reserve personnel, and those in other vocational areas of further education, the simple model may not appropriately describe the lines of influence. A more complex model (figure 5.2) of situational vocational professionalism is now offered as an opportunity to display two of the elements of interaction that may influence many individuals in occupations such as the Army Reserve. In some cases, these elements may complement whilst in others they may compete; the relationship between the model and the emerging themes is as with the simple model.

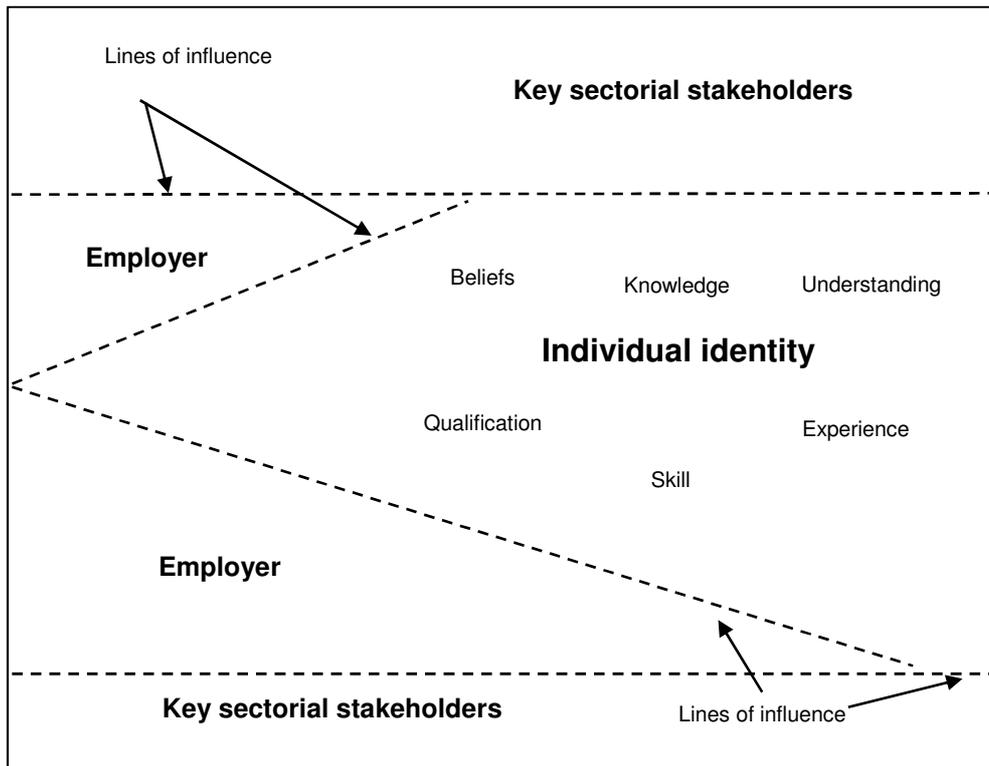


Figure 5.2 - SVPI - a complex model

In the complex model, when an individual has two occupations, both employers may influence the behaviours and standards of the individual; this may be the case for many people in the Army Reserve and may apply to a number of people working in the FE sector. As with the simple model, the complex model may not fully describe the competing lines of influence an individual may face but suggests that it is impractical to consider professional identity without considering external forces and drivers that can act upon, and influence, individual behaviour.

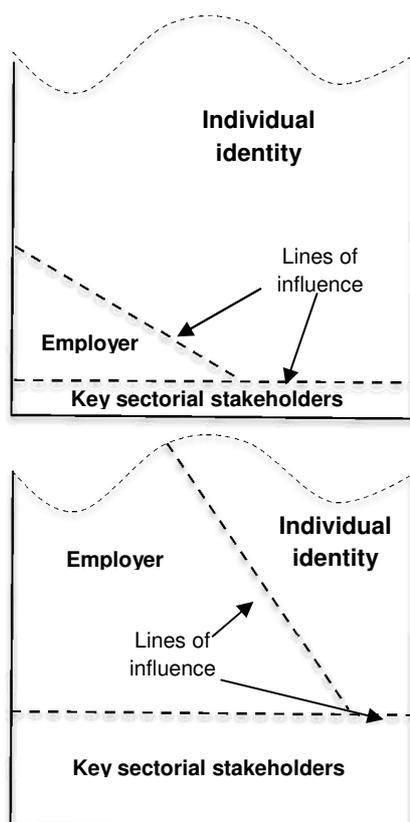
In addition to the issues related to describing an individual, both the simple and complex models of situational vocational professionalism may have forces acting on the key sectorial stakeholders; these may include issues such as political pressure, social pressure, financial constraints, etc. Whilst some may have no direct impact on the individual, others may either reduce or increase the focal points of the lines of influence and hence could directly impact on the perceived individual professional

identity. Within both models, aspects of the personal identity are assumed to be a combination of social, religious, cultural, educational and previous experiential influences (McDonald, 1995; Rogers and Scott, n.d.) and could be seen as an extension to Bruner's modes of representation (Gross, 2009), and support Lunt's (n.d.) descriptions pertaining to the social context of professionalism. The models demonstrate how employing organisations can be influenced through the key sectoral stakeholders; as an example, this may occur through governance and policy in the form of JSP 822 from a military perspective. For the ATU instructor, and especially the visiting instructor (VI), the impact may be seen as influences through both the employing organisation and wider military organisation.

Thus far, limited consideration has been given to previous experience and the impact this could have had on individual identity, irrespective of how they have been gained. It is suggested that previous experience may have a positive or negative influence on the way an individual interacts with a different employer. Furthermore, it is suggested that, as individuals move between jobs, the cumulative experiences and development gained through previous employment becomes part of the individual identity. In this respect, professional identity is further developed through situational experiences.

### **5.1.3. Flexibility and variations**

In both the simple and complex models, the level of interaction between the different elements is variable. The lines of influence change depending on the organisational approach and, potentially, the level of experience, skills and qualifications an individual brings to a role; in effect, an employer may have different approaches to control and influence for individuals, or possibly even for departments within the organisation.



This representation demonstrates a situation where individual professional development is less constrained by either the employer or key sectorial stakeholders.

Opportunities for the individual to explore and develop professional identity may be constrained by influence of both the employer and the key sectorial stakeholders. This may be representative of highly autocratic organisations such as the military, police, nursing.

Figure 5.3 - Model flexibility

Figure 5.3 presents two situations with different levels of influence through both the employer and the key sectorial stakeholders. In both cases, the upper section is left open to suggest it is unknown if there is a second employer interaction. The model thus allows different representations depending on the interaction between stakeholder agencies, employers, and the individual. Furthermore, the lines of influence for one individual may differ when another individual is considered; there may be many reasons for the different levels, including experience, role, qualification, and personality that determine how much influence an employer has over an individual. However, the lines of influence between the key sectorial stakeholders and either the employing organisation and/or the individual do not differ with respect to individuals.

**The 1<sup>st</sup> variant model**

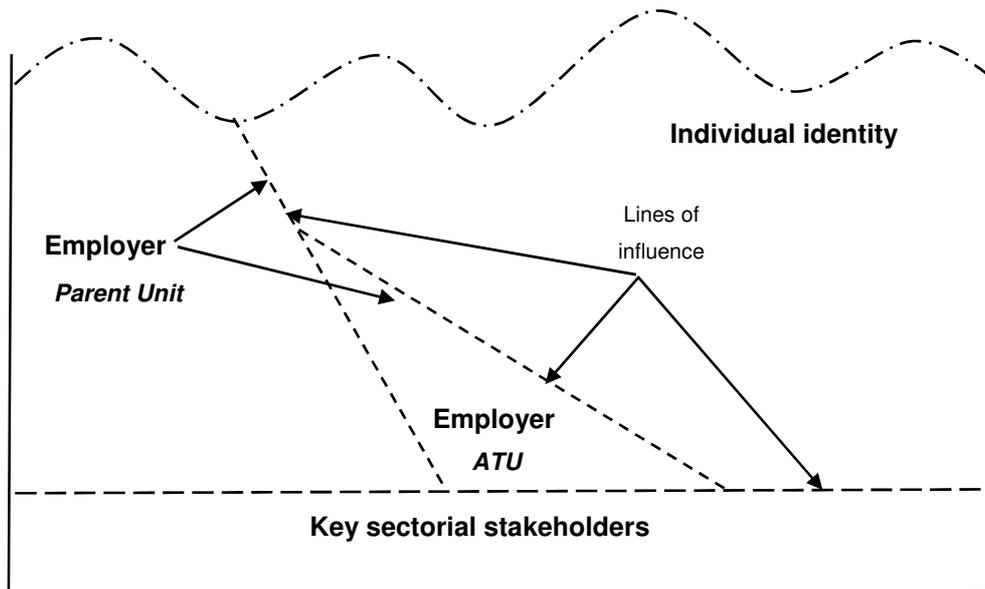


Figure 5.4 - SVPI - 1st variant model

The model of situational vocational professionalism could be interpreted to suit different circumstances. Thus far, it has represented one employer (simple model) and two employers (complex model). It is now suggested that these variants may be insufficient to describe the more complex vocational relationships.

The 1<sup>st</sup> variant model represents a situation that may be pertinent to VIs at the ATU, i.e., Army Reserve instructors who remain a part of their parent unit but are sent to support the ATU training requirements; it also describes Regular soldiers who are tasked with supporting training at the ATU. In both cases, an individual will be influenced through the same key sectorial stakeholder issues, and the practices adopted at the ATU. However, there could also be influences from parent units that would have helped to shape and develop individual personal professional practice and identity. An example may be a VI who has recently returned from an operational tour of Afghanistan; the skills and approaches required to operate effectively may be substantially different in these two situations.

An example of the 1<sup>st</sup> variant model in practice is illustrated by Terry’s description of VIs ‘*not being as professional*’ as the ATU team, and Fred’s comment of ‘*being an ex-Regular soldier, I think the military are more professional than the police*’. In both instances, Terry and Fred have compared lines of influence between organisations although, in Fred’s case, he has also specifically identified professionalism with being an ex-Regular soldier. The two points identified could be recognised in comments made by Wallace (2004) when considering individual perspectives on the professionalism of peers.

**The 2<sup>nd</sup> variant model**

The 2<sup>nd</sup> variant model has been structured to describe a situation where an individual is employed whilst also taking a part-time college course, and is a member of the Army Reserve.

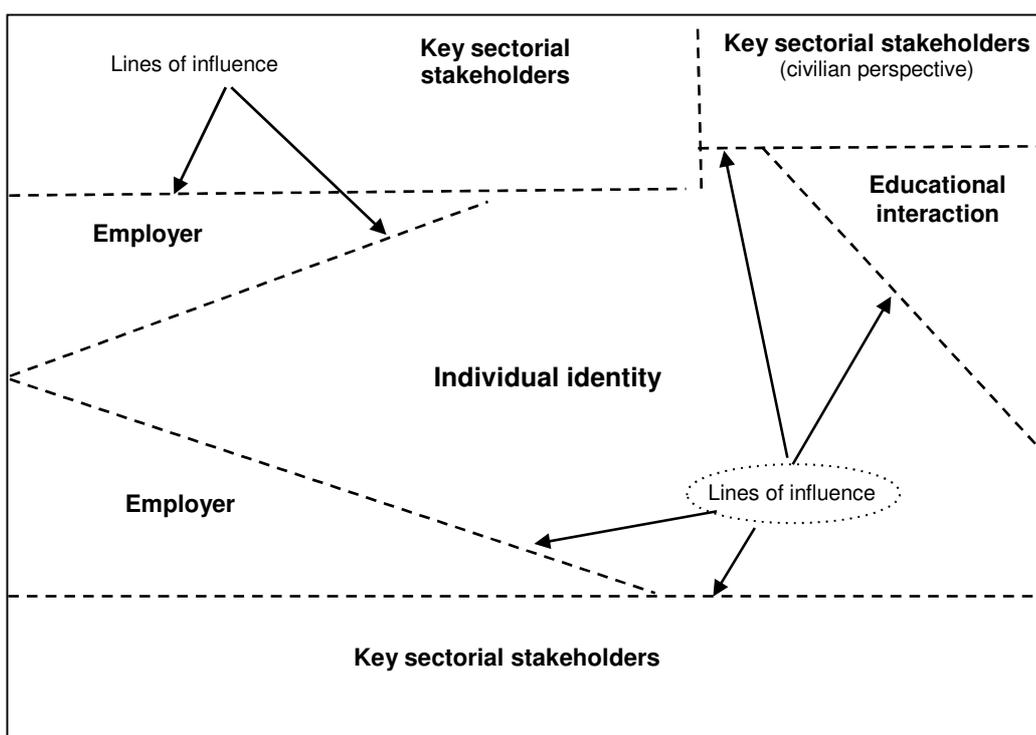


Figure 5.5 - SVPI - 2nd variant model

In the 2<sup>nd</sup> variant model, an individual would have the general typical employer influences already discussed for the complex model but also has a further influence emanating from within the educational body through

which the individual is studying. In this case, it has been assumed that the individual is studying something pertinent to his vocational occupation hence the lines of influence from a governance perspective have been related to that occupation.

### ***Situational vocational professional identity and the Education Training Foundation standards of professional practice***

The complex model of situational vocational professionalism and any subsequent variant models represent a more definitive relationship between the individual and employers than may be found within the initial concepts of professionalising the workforce as promulgated by the Education Training Foundation, where there is a more all-encompassing consideration for employer engagement.

Within this [ETF] approach, the lack of recognition of different vocational lines of influence, and the impacts that '*dual professionalism*' (Crowther, 2014, p4) may have on the individual have been omitted. The term '*dual professionalism*' as it is used by Crowther describes the duality between the vocational expertise and the pedagogic requirements rather than its other potential use of professionalism within two, potentially unrelated, occupational sectors as may be the case with the complex model described in this research. The issue with a lack of recognition for the different lines of influence is that the approaches different organisations take may differ and whilst some may be supportive, others may be contradictory and therefore act to diminish rather than enhance the demonstration of individual professionalism.

### **5.2. Applying the model of situational vocational professional identity**

Since the model of situational vocational professional identity was conceived through interaction with the research participants, it is appropriate to consider how the model actually relates to their vocational situations.

When considering the participants, two groupings seem to present themselves: three participants, George, Arnold and Terry, were not in full-time education or training for the majority of the research timeframe while five, Eric, Steve, Julie, Fred and Sarah, had full-time occupations over the research duration.

In the following analysis, the typical Army Reserve duty covers the time-frame Friday evening (starting at between 18:00 – 21:00 hours) through to Sunday afternoon (finishing between 14:00 – 16:00 hours); in some cases, the participants might have worked on a fifteen day course starting on a Sunday evening and finishing on a Friday evening.

### **5.2.1. Group 1 participants**

In the first grouping, in addition to their Army Reserve commitment, George and Terry worked at the ATU on a part-time basis through an Additional Duty Commitment (ADC) contract. The tasks they performed are proportionate to military rank; George completed project or administrative tasks and fulfilled the role of Adjutant, whilst Terry was employed in a logistics related role supporting the Regimental Quarter Master Sergeant Major (RQMS). George and Terry fulfil their ADC commitment, typically three days per week, and since both were completing their ADC within the same training team as their instructional duties they would only be influenced by the single employer. Initially, Arnold was unemployed although he found work in a training organisation prior to being accepted on a teacher-training programme; the training organisation role was obtained through a contact in the ATU who worked for the training organisation. In these three cases, the simple model could have been used to describe their situation at the time the narratives were obtained. With Arnold, the complex model began to become more pertinent once he started working for the training organisation.

Individual descriptions of employment history in all three cases demonstrated similar patterns of unemployment coupled with a range of different jobs; in George's case the sporadic employment history occurred after his Regular service, Terry explained that he had only ever held casual positions whilst Arnold's history demonstrated interaction with a number of different vocational areas. Since the experiences built up through the employment histories, albeit limited, have already been gained, they are considered as part of the individual identity within the situational vocational professional identity model even though they may have helped shape approaches to work and personal concepts of professional identity. In considering these individuals in their Army Reserve role, although different levels of responsibility may be attributed to a Captain, a Sergeant, and a Corporal, each would have to carry out their respective tasks within the same organisational constraints and with adherence to the same organisational policy.

### ***The Army Reserve and developing professional identity***

Within the situational vocational professional identity model, apart from influences such as social experience, cultural and religious beliefs, from a vocational perspective only the military, through the ATU and wider organisation, acted upon George, Arnold, and Terry during the research. All three refer to the Army Reserve and the ATU, describing its relative importance to their personal development and professional identity. In some instances this is related to their role at the ATU, whilst in others it alludes to the impact the wider military organisation has had upon them. All three used similar terms to describe their time spent in the Army Reserve, including '*a TA career*' and '*TA profession*', possibly suggesting that the Army Reserve has an importance and status in relation to their personal and professional identity. Furthermore, they described how the skills they had developed through different military instructional courses were fundamental to developing instructional practice and their intra-personal skills. This may be likened to the developing skills and

capabilities associated with the Jones and Joss's (1995) Craft Professional.

***Working at the ATU develops employment aspirations***

When considering civilian employment, George discussed his aspiration of working in a civilian training environment; this may possibly suggest that his aspirations had been shaped as a result of the experiential development through his role in the ATU. Terry was considering enlisting in the Regular Army, suggesting an interest in the further development and transition he has undergone since joining the Army Reserve. Arnold obtained a position as a civilian trainer. This new employment avenue may have been influenced by the experiences gained whilst at the ATU. Although not definitive, the time spent at the ATU may have been instrumental in shaping future aspirations, and even opportunities, for these three individuals.

Towards the end of the research, Arnold explained that he had been successful in obtaining full-time employment in a training organisation and had additionally been offered a position on a teacher-training programme. He explained that these opportunities had come about through contact with a Staff Sergeant who had previously been an instructor at the ATU and was now working in an 'outreach' programme. In informal conversations about his teaching practice, Arnold had started to compare activities in his training organisation employment and his Army service. The comparisons were still quite limited as he had not been with the organisation very long but they did tend to suggest that expanding fields of experience may help develop practice; in effect, Arnold had another model to compare with and, through this, began to develop a subtle change in approach.

With George, as the research progressed, his personal outlook appeared to develop, he appeared to be more independent in his thinking and more

willing to challenge the way things operate at the ATU. He had also started to develop alternative teaching strategies and training aids to support student needs. He would still default to a position that says '*you don't go against the system*'. George may have developed but this has been within the system rather than having anything other than the system to draw strength, support and inspiration from.

During the research, Terry was initially keen to try out new approaches to teaching, explaining that the DTTT had encouraged him to develop; his enthusiasm was stifled when a Colour Serjeant did not appreciate the approach he had attempted to develop. Perhaps had Terry spoken to the instructor validation team to seek their guidance and support the result might have been different and he might have been allowed to trial or demonstrate the idea. Terry's approach may indicate a naivety in how to deal with NCOs that are more senior in this sort of environment, although his failure to recognise this may cast some doubt on his professional judgement, a point Robson (2006) may have recognised. However, Terry's lack of judgement does not justify the approach the SNCO used when dealing with the issue.

### **5.2.2. Group 2 participants**

Considering the second group (Eric, Steve, Julie, Fred, Sarah), as with the previous group, there is a level of shared experience with respect to training courses and a shared cultural environment; however, now each individual also has current, 'live' experiences being developed within a different working environment.

Two participants (Fred and Julie) work in training-related fields within their civilian occupations. Fred, a weapons instructor for a police force, is likely to have to contend with similar policy and doctrinal approaches in the police and military training environments. Julie runs her own training company, delivering training in 'therapies' and 'alternative health'

approaches and while she may have to adhere to occupational standards, direct interference from organisational or managerial bodies may be less intense.

### ***Potentially supportive lines of influence***

When discussing instruction, Fred explained his preference for instructing using the DIT approach, in effect using the military pedagogy in his police instructional role. He also explained that his police peers would prefer he used the police approach, but in his judgement it was not as robust a technique and left students without any opportunity to practise skills in a controlled and supportive environment.

Fred described his belief in the military model, and his belief in the importance of adhering to the rules by following the provided lesson plans. In effect, Fred may be drawing his professionalism from the military rather than the civilian role. Here we have an example of the influences of one organisation impacting another organisation; in this case, the part-time organisation appears to have influenced a full-time role. Furthermore, Fred is displaying characteristics that may be associated with professional judgement (Johnson, 1972; Robson, 2006). However, in another example, Fred assumed a level of autonomy and responsibility he did not actually have, when he changed the role an inexperienced L.Cpl. was tasked to complete, albeit to enable him to support this instructor through a mentoring process. As a police firearms senior instructor, Fred is responsible for the performance and development of a team of instructors and he appears to have used his skills, judgement, and experience from a police environment within the military context. In Fred's case, his professional identity appears to have been influenced by both his civilian and military role. Since both organisations are similar in outlook, it is unlikely that any major conflict in identities will develop through the respective lines of influence.

### ***Potentially conflicting lines of influence***

Julie explained that *'the TA is just something I do'*, and sees her role in the ATU as one of *'identifying improvements to help raise the levels of professionalism'* rather than one of administration and support; this may be a subconscious reflection of the type of role she would like to fulfil. Julie spoke of the different skills and capabilities male and female instructors brought to the role, explaining that females are *'more compassionate in this male dominated environment'*. She went on to describe her own skills as *'soft skills'* as opposed to the more military approaches adopted by her male colleagues; she cited these skills as helping recruits to open up to her as an instructor although she also explained that if her *'soft skills'* approach did not work she could always revert to a use of rank.

Within Julie's narratives, it is possible to interpret a conflict of identity between her civilian and military roles. Her civilian professionalism is drawn from a counsel and coach approach that may be in conflict with many of the attitudes she described within the military environment; this conflict may lessen over time if the current military drive to adopt a transformational coaching approach to leadership, management and instruction continues to develop.

### ***Potentially developmental lines of influence***

Eric and Sarah both operate in managerial positions within their civilian employment. Sarah, as a marketing executive, manages both people and process whilst Eric has a responsibility towards developing people as a senior manager in Information Technology, and although he is not directly involved in any training activities, he organises training and training events for teams within his organisation.

Eric explained how his management style was not the *'typical style used in the Army'* and that his approach was similar to the techniques he applies within his *'civi street'* job. In the ATU, Eric has a Command (managerial) rather than instructional responsibility but during our discussions he suggested that some current instructors had *'lost some of the core skills required particularly around the development and use of instructional aids'*, and that his civilian trainers were more competent in developing and using instructional aids. This may suggest a number of issues including a feeling:

- of dissatisfaction with the training package supplied to the ATU through Initial Training Group (ITG);
- that instructors are not taking responsibility for using the aids in an appropriate manner;
- that different training aids could be more effective in developing and supporting learning and teaching points.

Eric raised a number of concerns with respect to the curriculum. However, he explained that the accreditation opportunities available through the ATU enabled him to demonstrate the benefit of his Army Reserve role to his civilian employer. In Eric's case, much like Fred, he appears to draw and make constructive use of influence from both sides of his employment equation.

Sarah's inclusion of education and professional qualifications, coupled with experience, as facets of professionalism was a different approach to defining professionalism when compared to the other participants. It may indicate an influence from professional bodies such as the Chartered Institute of Marketing and the requirement to obtain professional qualifications in order to demonstrate competency, whilst the experiential aspect of her beliefs may reside within the military perspective.

When Sarah discussed her teaching practice, she emphasised the need to control the environment, although in my observations, she appeared to exploit a more social approach rather than the strict adherence to the military pedagogical approach; the observed approach was apparent both in the classroom and through her general interactions with students. She discussed a similar attitude when describing how she interacts with her peers, colleagues and superiors in a military environment. Sarah's common use of first names when talking with her superiors and subordinates may indicate influences from her civilian role 'over-ruling' correct military etiquette with respect to rank and name; again, this may be a further indicator of influences from her civilian role.

***Influences may not always be recognised.***

Steve did not consider his civilian role to have had any impact upon his military role. When discussing his concept of professionalism the explanation was from a military perspective and was built upon experiences gained as a Regular soldier; this is perhaps most likely with Steve given the time spent in Regular service and the different positions of responsibility he held during this service. When Steve explained that professionalism was '*a state of mind*' and that he applied '*the same level of professionalism as a postman as he would as an instructor*', he may subconsciously have identified the level of influence from the military interacting with his civilian occupation.

**5.2.3. A personal application – tailoring the model**

It is possible to tailor the model to suit the particular situation for any given individual; this may be through a combination of the 1<sup>st</sup> or 2<sup>nd</sup> variant models.

In figure 5.6, the model has been tailored to describe myself; in this case , the civilian occupation is a college lecturer and the course of study is

related to education hence the lines of influence from a governance perspective are the same.

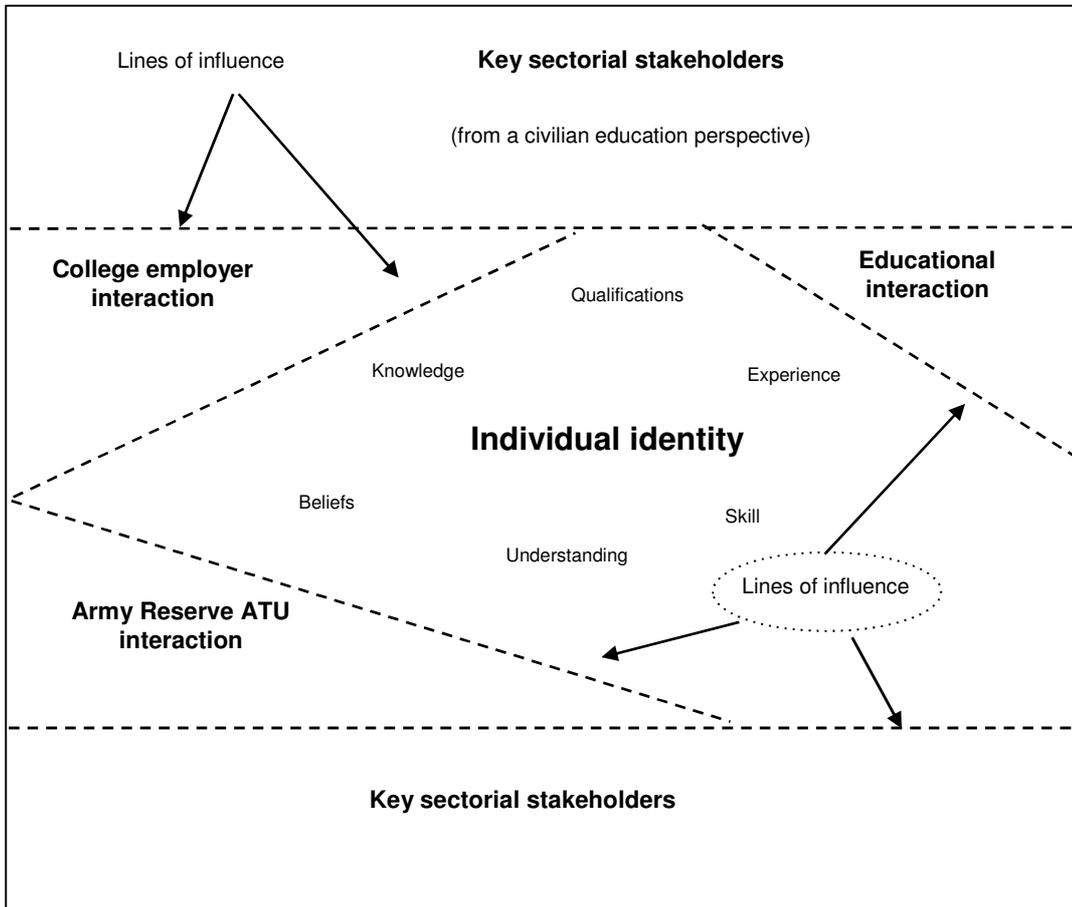


Figure 5.6 - SVPI - a tailored model

This representation suggests that my professional identity is currently being influenced from three directions, two of which (college employer and educational institute) have essentially the same key sectorial stakeholder influences whilst the third (ATU) influences me from a different perspective – that of the military. The model also suggests that both my full-time employer (college) and my part-time employer (ATU) have some direct influence on my professional identity.

Like my participants, I have been exposed to the same cultural, experiential and educational military environment; in addition to this, my

civilian role as a teacher in the FE sector has influenced the way I think and act. The combination of a military approach to documentation, control and standards is recognised, and commented upon, by my civilian peers and line management whilst my focus on the student needs, and a willingness to develop alternative teaching strategies to support different situations is constantly recognised by my military employers.

Unlike my participants, I have a third line of influence. The educational institute influence is primarily through the EdD activities. Whilst this may be the smallest area of influence, it arguably is having the greatest impact on my overall professional identity at present. The developmental process of completing this research has meant that I am now more aware of the methods I may employ when speaking to people, which is helping me to become more reflective; this process of wanting thinking time prior to responding to different situations has been noted and is often commented on within my military chain of command. One colleague has described me as having *'found the god of education'* whilst a line manager described me as a *'hippy in the army'*. While these comments have been said in jest and good humour, they do serve to identify that an individual who operates outside of the approach required by the military will be noticed. In my case, I do not believe this has interfered with my role or my prospects within the military. However, this may not have been the case had my approaches been brought to the attention of bodies such as ITG within the Regular forces, or indeed, had my own line management not been willing to accommodate me.

In addition to the lines of influence depicted in figure 5.6, my identity has also been influenced through the cumulative effect of my previous experiences (occupational and social); my personal standards, beliefs and familial expectations would all have had some level of influence on the current state of my professional identity. A key point of note is the use of

the term ‘current state’ as this suggests that my professional identity will continue to develop over time.

#### **5.2.4. Conflicting lines of influence**

The approach to training and mentoring trainers was discussed during a conversation with an ‘ex’ member of the Army Reserve who had also spent some time as a St John’s Ambulance first aid trainer. This individual, I shall call him Derek for reporting purposes, agreed to my using this conversation as anecdotal evidence within this thesis.

Derek explained that, when starting as a trainer with the St John’s Ambulance, he used his military instructional approach to deliver the lessons although, during an observation, he was told that he was not ‘*doing it the St John’s way*’. The concern was not in the technical content of his lessons but that his application of the EDIP<sup>18</sup> technique for teaching skills lessons was not the way they [St John’s Ambulance] wanted the skills taught; a similar situation faced by Fred. When Derek then asked for lesson plans laid out in the ‘St John’ format he was told that they did not supply lesson plans but did expect everyone to teach the same way. Derek described how this incident made him consider his professionalism and how he could alter his teaching strategy by adopting it to what he believed to be a ‘flawed approach’; Derek left the St John’s Ambulance service shortly afterwards.

In Derek’s case, the complex model demonstrates how different organisational influences are not always complementary despite the apparent similarities of the two organisations.

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<sup>18</sup> Explanation, Demonstration, Imitation, Practice – a key technique taught and practised on all military instructional techniques courses

### 5.3. Considerations

#### ***Adherence to codes of professional practice***

Generally, the participants appeared to believe they adhered to the Army's Values and Standards all the time and, by interpretation, would have met the codes for professional practice as presented through the IfL.

However, when considered with respect to the military training management policy (JSP 822), the LLUK Professional Standards, and the ETF standards, it possible to suggest that these participants are not working in line with the overarching governance and policy approach. At some level, this misalignment may be attributed to the individual, although it is also suggested that the employing organisation (the ATU) has a key responsibility; it may even be suggested that a wider organisation responsibility exists where training management doctrine may also be liable.

An example of the potential for a misalignment between policy and practice where responsibility is at an organisational (local or wider) level can be seen with the requirement to complete CPD to remain current. In line with LLUK (2007) and ETF (2014) standards, JSP 822 clearly states a requirement for instructional staff to remain competent through CPD activities. There is a suggestion that instructors should attend courses to develop their skills yet there are very few opportunities for instructors to take part in CPD within the skill areas for which they are already qualified. This lack of opportunity may identify issues of understanding of what may constitute CPD in relation to a 'skill' area.

Whilst it may be appropriate to suggest that lack of formal CPD opportunities can be levelled at both the unit and wider organisational responsibilities, the application of reflection could more easily be considered as a shared responsibility. All participants suggested that they reflect on their lessons although the research findings suggest that these

reflections tended to be quite limited, focussing on the application of DIT techniques. In light of this, it could be suggested that the instructors would not meet professional standards that describe reflection as a function of professional activity. However, as Moon (2004) indicates, the ability to critically reflect develops as practice develops. In this situation, the military instructor monitoring processes focus on application of technique, therefore it is hardly surprising that individual instructors focus on the same parameters within their reflections.

Additionally, the level of, and approach to, reflection identified during the research demonstrated many similarities with the issues identified as part of the Ofsted (2011) inspection at several Army establishments. Since this does not appear to have been promulgated through the Chain of Command to the Unit, and on to the individual instructor, a) is it fair to say that the individuals have not met the standards expected of professionals? b) Should there be recognition of organisational failings? c) How might this impact on the potential development of instructional staff? This point demonstrates a negative aspect of the interaction between the individual, the employer and the wider organisation.

With the military, in the form of the MoD involvement with the development of the new Professional Standards (ETF, 2014), time will tell whether the involvement in the development of standards results in changes to working practice and at what level within the military education and training operation might these changes occur.

### ***The relationship between the Regular and Reserve elements***

Although investigating the interface between the Regular and Reserve elements of the Army was not a prime driver for this research, data has emerged in respect of that issue. Some of this data was developed through discussions with individual participants and some became apparent through the 'voice of the customer' feedback surveys.

My personal experience in relationships with the Regular Army suggests that whilst the 'Whole Army' concept is very important, the focus tends to be toward a Regular rather than a Reserve perspective. When speaking to Regular counterparts, it sometimes feels as if there is a '*feigned*' interest rather than any '*real*' willingness to listen to and accept the experiences of the Reserve instructor.

In 2006, the Territorial Army [rebranded as the Army Reserve] would have been somewhere in the region of approximately 11% (based on 14,000 Territorial soldiers and 120,000 Regular troops) of the Army. With the restructure, the Reserve, under Future Army 2020, will make up something in the region of 25% (based on 20,000 Reserves and 80,000 Regulars) of the Army; these figures are indicative of the changing relative importance of the Reserve forces. To maximise the benefits to both elements of the organisation, a shift in understanding and approach may be required within the Regular army. This may take some time to develop since it will involve changing mind-sets at all levels within both sides of the organisation.

The following discussions demonstrate the potential impact of the 1<sup>st</sup> variant model at an organisational and individual level.

### ***The ATU and the Regular Army***

During one discussion, Eric described the progress and challenges of the move to co-locate his training team with a Regular ATR. He explained that, based on this experience, the 'Whole Army' concept was more related to removing the Reserve element from phase-1 training rather than understanding the role and approach required to accommodate Reserve training in a Regular establishment. He explained that in his opinion of '*they just don't get it*', going on to clarify that ITG and the ATR had already stopped the Reserves conducting the condensed cadre approach and were suggesting that the weekend training programmes should be

stopped. The suggestion being made was that all Reserve phase-1 trainees could be accommodated within the '5 week day' training programme that would be delivered by Regular forces. He further explained that he felt the ATU would soon cease to exist as an element in its own right and, at the very most, would exist only as a small and insignificant '*company*' within the ATR; this may then set a precedent for the remaining nine ATUs which had not yet been subsumed into the larger ATR establishments.

### ***Regular instructors and the Reserves***

Although not a specific element of the research, '*voice of the customer*' feedback from phase-1 trainees can be used to explore the relationship between Regulars and Reserves from the perspective of the phase-1 trainee. Whilst not a common occurrence, during the timeframe of this research, there have been occasions where Regular soldiers have been heavily involved in delivering the phase-1 training from within the ATU rather than through the ATR. When this has occurred, the student feedback has raised some interesting points. Typically, irrespective of whether they were being taught by Regular or Reserve instructors, the recruits were generally very positive about the professionalism of the instructional approach, subject knowledge and ability of the instructors taking them through the course content.

However, when courses had a mix of Reserve and Regular instructors, some recruits expressed opinions that suggested the Regular instructors held the Reserve instructors in low regard. In some instances, the recruit perception was that the Reserve instructors had been more capable, knowledgeable and able to engage more effectively than their Regular counterparts had. Concerns were also raised with respect to the Regular instructor adherence to the principles of the CDRILS<sup>19</sup> concepts when dealing with Reserve soldiers. Having identified these points it is also

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<sup>19</sup> Courage, Discipline, Respect for Others, Integrity, Loyalty, Selfless Commitment – the Army Values

important to recognise that, in many instances, feedback from recruits on being taught by Regular instructors was very positive, and identified the high skill levels shown by instructors. The recruit feedback may actually be a manifestation of the influences described within the 1<sup>st</sup> variant model.

The two discussions above can be seen to support the concept of '*lines of influence*' identified within the model of situational vocational professionalism. In both cases, the influence may be apparent as an impact from the wider organisation toward the training team (employer) that may lead to a change in the relationship between the training team and the individual. There is also an apparent influence between the wider organisation and the individual. These influences will also potentially impact on the relationship and practice the individual instructor develops with those whom they are responsible for teaching.

## Chapter 6 – Discussion

## **6. DISCUSSION**

In drawing the thesis to a close, chapter 6 summarises the findings by drawing them together in terms of the research question and its overall objectives. This is intended to provide a clear description of new knowledge that has been developed through my research activity. This area is considered in terms of how applicable SVPI may be with respect to the current military training and development schedule and possible impacts or developments on programmes such as ‘troops to teachers’. The more widespread impact of SVPI in relation to professionalism in teaching in the FE sector is considered and a possible application as a general concept of professional description is suggested. Finally, areas for future research are suggested in terms of where SVPI could be validated in different situations.

The chapter also provides a reflection on the conduct of the research, and the personal lessons learned about the research activity.

### **6.1. Overall evaluation and new knowledge**

This project set out to develop an insight into how military instructors viewed their professional role, and its relationship with the employing organisation. This insight was intended to inform others seeking to develop effective practices. The three core objectives identified for exploration were:

- perceptions of professionalism;
- impacts of military pedagogy on instructional performance; and
- instructor reflections on individual practices.

The intention from the outset was to engage with a group of willing participants who were all serving members of the Army Reserve and posted into a single Army Training Unit (ATU) to perform an instructional role. Through this engagement, a series of interviews, observations of

## Chapter 6 – Discussion

instructional practice and post-observation discussions were to be conducted over time. This engagement was successfully managed, and the resulting data was transcribed and analysed through thematic analysis.

The resulting analysis has successfully identified 6 core themes, 3 of which related primarily to the individual with 3 relating to the relationship between the individual and the organisation. The 6 themes were underpinned by the Army's Values and Standards, creating a 7<sup>th</sup> core theme. Taken together, the themes provide the insight sought through the core research objectives; table 6.1 provides a map of themes to objectives.

Theme	<b>Objective 1</b> Perceptions of professionalism	<b>Objective 2</b> Pedagogy and performance	<b>Objective 3</b> Reflection on practice
Personal standards	x	x	
Characteristics & behaviour	x		
Adherence to pedagogy	x	x	
Belonging & ownership	x		x
Organisational professionalism	x		x
Organisational culture	x	x	
Values and Standards	x	x	x

Table 6.1 - Theme mapping to objectives

Through this thematic analysis, the model of situational vocational professional identity (SVPI) has been developed. Previous research (McElhinney, 2008; Rogers and Scott, n.d.; Pratt et al, 2006) into professional identity has concentrated on the journey, experiences and developments individuals go through as their professional identity develops in context with the role they perform, whilst SVPI provides a consideration of the factors affecting professional identity in the current timeframe.

## Chapter 6 – Discussion

SVPI suggests that whilst the individual's concept of professionalism is a combination of personal beliefs and functional approaches, it is also heavily influenced through the employing organisation and wider key sectorial stakeholders. This concept takes us further in our consideration of professionalism than is currently, or has previously been, described by professional standards for teachers and trainers operating in the further education sector. In these standards, there is limited reference to the role of the employer, and no reference to the impact that wider sectorial stakeholders can have on professionalism within the industry.

However, SVPI goes further than a consideration of the influences brought to bear on an individual through a single employer and associated group of key sectorial stakeholders. SVPI recognises that many individuals, especially those working within the Army Reserve, will have other employer, key sectorial stakeholder, or even educational establishment influences, each of which can be a factor in how each individual perceives their own state of professionalism. This in turn may have an impact on the way the individual carries out their instructional duties. Furthermore, SVPI recognises that experience is cumulative and that the impact of earlier influences may still have an effect on how an individual fulfils their duties.

My research suggests that the blend of previous experiences in combination with cultural and societal pressures act in a cumulative manner and can be integral to the development of situational vocational professionalism. This cumulative effect may suggest why change can take time to be accepted, especially where change is thrust upon the individual practitioner. This may be pertinent where key sectorial stakeholder actions influence an individual from a distance, especially when the actions are enacted through the employer interface.

This new approach to considering the status of individual professional identity can be used to support future individual and organisational training approaches and opportunities and could be considered in terms of both military and civilian training.

## Chapter 6 – Discussion

The review conducted by the Education and Training Foundation and its resultant set of updated professional standards (2014a) has conceptualised professionalism in three inter-related areas of a) values and attributes, b) knowledge and understanding, c) professional skills. Whilst the standards are presented in a clear, simple and accessible manner it appears to essentially be a rework of previous standards resulting in 20 statements of meaning split across the three areas. There is some indication within these standards that an organisational requirement to support the development of individual professionalism exists. This requirement is demonstrated within the professional skills section through the statements (ETF, 2014a, p14):

- Maintain and update your teaching and training expertise and vocational skills through collaboration with employers; and
- Contribute to organisational development and quality improvement through collaboration with others.

This research, in addition to providing a model for personal reflection on the factors that can affect professional identity, begins to infill gaps within these standards and how they may relate to individual cases through the concept of SVPI.

Employing organisations need to understand where the lines of influence sit and the level to which they support, or hinder, the ability to develop individual practice. This could actually be considered in terms of a development through a combination of autonomy, accountability and decision making as previously expressed within ideas connected with professionalism. Furthermore, the research has explained that key sectorial stakeholders such as the Education Training Foundation through their professional standards, Ofsted through their inspection regime, or an Awarding Body through their requirements and any associated pre-prepared materials, can all impact on the development of individual professional identity.

In this respect, this research, although focussed in the specific area of the phase-1 training environment within the Army Reserve, has provided a vehicle to consider individual professional identity that may be applicable to a much wider context.

### ***Impact on the Army***

At the outset of this investigation, it was recognised that the British Army is a large, complex, and multi-faceted organisation with its own culture and societal rules. Whilst primarily an organisation staffed by full-time (Regular) personnel, it has a part-time (Reserve) element that is likely to increase in size over the next 6 years. The current projections are that the Regular forces will reduce to approximately 82,000 whilst the Reserve forces increase to approximately 30,000 (HC576, 2014, p6). In effect, this means that the Army Reserve will contribute over 26% of the overall size of the British Army. An amendment to the Reserve Forces Act (1996) will introduce a change of role for the Army Reserve (HC576, 2014, p46), resulting in its personnel being tasked to support operations abroad and at home.

My research has focussed on the concept of professional identity of Army Reserve instructors rather than any general focus on the roles, tasks or responsibilities of the Army Reserve within the planned restructure. However, it is within this planned restructure that the results of my research may be of most benefit to the Army. The Army Reserve is likely to have a more active role in public engagement, specifically to help reduce the cultural gap between the military and civilian societies than is currently perceived to exist (HC576, p10). As described in FR 2020 (2011, p24), the intention for the restructured Army Reserve is:

*‘A Reserve Force that is an integral element of the Whole Force; that is optimised to deliver assured capability across all military tasks on operations at home and abroad; that harnesses for*

## Chapter 6 – Discussion

*Defence the widest pool of talent in the UK; and that upholds the volunteer ethos. A force for good in the community, that effectively represents both Defence and Society; and that is sustained by formal governance safeguards and an appropriately resourced and equitable Reserve Proposition.'*

Through SVPI, we now recognise the influences and constraints that military and civilian employers have upon individuals at an employer and key sectorial stakeholder level. However, my research also suggests that the military tends to see things from the Regular soldier perspective and has geared its training and development to meet those needs. However, if it is to succeed in the aim of creating stronger bonds within the civilian community, recognising and understanding the influences that have helped to form the professional identity of its staff may help it to explore ways of developing military training programmes to support 'homeland' operations where civilian skills may become more important.

### **6.2. Personal reflections**

During the research, my role within the Army Reserve meant that I was involved in the development and support of Reserve instructors working within an Army Training Unit (ATU). As part of this activity, I managed the instructor monitoring and evaluation process and spent a considerable amount of time either observing instructors carrying out their instructional duties or analysing course and instructor performance statistics. This analysis work supported the development of individual and team-based improvement plans, a task carried out in conjunction with the Cadre Officers and Command element of the training team.

Whilst performing this role I initially became interested in the perceptions individuals held about themselves and the training environment within which they worked. At the outset of this research, the ATU delivered phase-1 and phase-3 training courses although during the research timeframe the ATU was refocused toward the delivery of phase-1 training

only. However, this refocusing did not impact on the overall aim of the research, which was to enhance my understanding of the concept of professionalism and its application in a niche area within a homogeneous, autocratic and hierarchical society.

***My initial beliefs on instructional approaches***

Prior to starting this research, I had a strong conviction that the Army Reserve instructors I was likely to engage with would describe their instructional approach in terms of the military pedagogy. This conviction was based primarily on my experience of working in this environment for a number of years and research performed as part of stage-1 of my EdD tended to validate my belief.

This research has demonstrated that confidence in the military pedagogy (theme 3) was common across all participants. It was generally suggested that the military approach was essential in delivering effective training within the phase-1 training establishment. The belief in the approach was apparent irrespective of whether the participant's civilian role involved training or not. Interestingly, whilst not recorded as part of this research, conversations with other Army Reserve instructors who are also teachers in their civilian careers might suggest that this belief extends into practice within the civilian classroom where the skills used within a military classroom influence the practice those individuals employ within their civilian classrooms. This may be considered as pertinent to the development of the Troops to Teachers initiative.

It was disappointing to note the tendency of my participant instructors to focus on the instructional techniques taught as part of the Defence Instructional Techniques (DIT) course rather than developing their style through the application of some of the different techniques taught on the Defence Train the Trainer (DTTT) course. This was especially disappointing since DTTT had been set up to enhance training specifically in phase-1 training establishments and the participants had all suggested

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that attending DTTT had been developmental. However, there was limited evidence identified to support the development of a ‘coaching’ ethos at a student level either within the interviews, the observations of practice, or in consideration of student feedback through the ‘*voice of the customer*’ questionnaires; coaching for performance improvement being one of the key tenets of the transformational approach the Army is trying to adopt.

There was evidence suggesting that the concept of coaching for improvement was informally applied at a peer level with instructors working together to help develop each other’s practice. However, from an instructional perspective, the participants appeared to relate coaching to the specific application of questioning technique within lessons. Furthermore, question technique appears to be an area where, with the exception of Steve, participants believe they should develop their overall skills.

Although the research did not specifically explore reasons for the limited take-up of coaching as part of the transformational approach, it did suggest that underlying reasons behind this limited take up at a student level include a perception that time may be a limiting factor. At the ATU, instructors work to a very tight time schedule and, coupled with very concentrated timetables, opportunities to engage with individual students to support and coach are limited. Furthermore, it is postulated that the relationship between instructional staff and students may be insufficiently developed to enable effective coaching; in many instances, the instructors did not even know the names of students. This may in part be because of large class sizes for central presentations, or short intense periods with different cohorts during each training weekend. The issue may be further exacerbated through the weekend training cycle where, on each weekend, instructors would see students on either the ‘weekend 1, 3, 5’ cycle whilst the next weekend the instructors would see different students from the ‘weekend 2, 4, 6’ cycle.

***Considering my initial beliefs on reflections***

Prior to commencing the research, I was fairly convinced that many of the instructional staff would be reticent about trying out new ideas, preferring instead to stick to tried and trusted methods. Whilst being unsure about how an individual would reflect on their instructional practice, I was fairly certain that any reflections would focus on instructor performance rather than student experience, although I hoped that providing an opportunity for instructors to observe their practice might encourage them to consider more than their own performance. In consideration of the data gathered through the 'post-observation' discussions, and within the general interviews, the evidence suggests that the participants tended to focus on their instructional performance and, in particular, how they managed to adhere to the principles laid down in the DIT approach to instruction. There were very few attempts to consider the learning experience from the student perspective or if different instructional approaches might have made the lesson a more effective experience.

It was disappointing to note that the idea of instructors observing their own practice through a digital recording and then reflecting on where opportunities for improvement existed was not as successful as I had hoped. It seemed that, if left to their own devices, the instructors only focussed on their performance rather than seeing the lesson as a whole experience. However, evidence also suggested that, given the right encouragement, instructional practice can be enhanced through individual initiatives and that small communities of support and practice can develop independently of management support. This research has demonstrated that there is a potential for instructors to develop their professional practice through social constructivism. This development has been observed whilst instructors continued to operate within the constraints of technical development in accordance with the prescribed military pedagogy, and through local innovative practice development.

The research suggested that whilst the participants were able to identify areas for improvement with the application of technique, they benefit from external support to help identify areas that fell outside of issues with technique. In the case of the research, the external support tended to come from within the discussions on observed instructional practice. Whilst the management of military pedagogy development may be achieved through the current instructor monitoring and validation approach, it is still likely to result in 'instructor-focussed' development of the kind identified by Ofsted (2011). Although this issue was identified within Regular training establishments, this research suggests that a similar issue is apparent within the Army Reserve. To develop the overall instructional capability and achieve the aspiration of transformational leadership through instruction may require a more accommodating and supporting mechanism to be developed.

### ***Consideration of policy***

At the outset of this investigation, the scale of related literature in the form of existing research, academic papers and papers from professional bodies had not been fully appreciated. However this proliferation of information served to identify that there is no single, agreed, understanding and approach to the idea of professionalism as a general concept, let alone a concept which may be applied in a specific, niche, environment such as the Army Reserve instructor delivering phase-1 training. In much of the writing about professionalism within the vocational further education sector, there have been attempts to codify professionalism and thus provide a set of descriptors to quantify the concept from a sectorial perspective, the latest attempt being provided by the Education and Training Foundation in 2014. Generally, this information presents professionalism in terms of different behaviours expected of individuals, or characteristics demonstrated by professional behaviour.

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In this research, the participants have individually described the characteristics they feel exemplify their personal constructions of professionalism. Core themes that came through related to the 'image' that is presented, an adherence to a set of standards of behaviour, an aspirational excellence in their own performance and through their performance the achievements of their students. The Defence Systems Approach to Training (DSAT), the Joint Services Publication 822 (JSP 822), and the Army Training and Recruitment Agency (ATRA) Code of Conduct were identified as critical documents in relation to military policy and doctrine, and through application provided some explanation of instructor behaviours.

Many of the behaviours demonstrated during observations, and opinions brought forward during discussions are identifiable within the range of the different texts and standards (LLUK, 2007; Clow, 2001; Robson, 2006; Lingfield, 2012; ETF, 2014a). Additionally, similarities between the described behaviours may be likened to Evan's (2008) descriptions of a professional culture as being related to the collective attitudinal response of people towards the functional activities they perform, in other words, their professionalism. It is however suggested that a gap in knowledge exists in relation to the part-time vocational practitioner, especially one who is working in a military environment.

### **6.3. Research approach**

#### **6.3.1. Framework**

Phenomenology provided the philosophical framework, although the benefits of phenomenological investigations are often challenged (Hycner, 1985), specifically from the experimental researcher perspectives. Although, as Luzzi (n.d.) explained, experimental research is not without its critics; his observations included concerns that experiments can be set up to prove / disprove a hypothesis.

This research was experiential rather than experimental and its outcomes considered in subjective rather than objective terms, the experiences being that of the participants rather than any cause and effect relationship, whilst the researcher interpretations and constructions are subjective. Hycner's (1995) assertions that the phenomenological approach lacks validity and repeatability are made by virtue of the very essence of that approach – that of interpretation. This was concerning since interpretation was a key theme running through the entire process:

***Interpretations***

- I have interpreted the ideas of philosophers and academics to develop my own approach.
- I have made assumptions on the impact of my insider status and then interpreted those assumptions through my later action.
- I have interpreted the conversations with my mentors.
- I have interpreted the information contained within the literature.
- I have interpreted the comments, ideas, and concepts of the participants who provided me with the material to consider.
- In some instances, the participants will have interpreted Army policy and its application in their particular situation.

Hence, the concept of interpretation flows through all aspects of the research. In my situation, the interpretations have been made to help me gain an insight into the experience of others. From the outset, I had tried to follow the general approach and thoughts of Schütz (1967), recognising 'insider' knowledge as being pertinent to the overall outcome of the investigation. Paradoxically, this had to be achieved whilst at the same time trying to maintain a position of disinterested observer in order to bring the knowledge, understanding and feelings of the participants to the fore of the data set. This was particularly pertinent to my interpretations of the socially constructed phenomena of professional identity within the training team. It is this sense of social construction that has helped guide the interpretations and helps to explain why the collated thoughts, opinions

and beliefs of individuals in relation to their working practice in a niche area can be described as situational vocational professionalism.

The process of *reduction – interpretation – collation* through the data analysis phase had the potential to impact on accuracy and validity. However, a key point is that these interpretations are a reflection of my own developing understanding and knowledge whilst the process of reduction and collation are a process of the developed understanding. To that end, I believe it would be impossible for any research conducted in this manner to not include bias; the key factor is how that bias is managed. Within this research, the bias had the potential to be more pronounced with the data being interpreted by a single individual. However, I believe the interaction with supervising mentors throughout the process acted to counter the main areas of bias and ensure that its potential impact was minimised. Furthermore, despite the many interpretations that were made, I do not feel that they have lessened the validity of the research. The interpretations were validated with the participants during the research process, and through the development of the thesis were challenged by the research supervisors on a regular basis.

### **6.3.2. Understanding the potential for insider bias**

The issue of my ‘insiderness’ may provide some guide to the validity of the process. In some instances, this may have been beneficial although there is always a potential for insider bias to creep into the interpretations. This bias could be related to my experiences, beliefs and attitude and had the possibility of tainting the process of interpretation; this could have resulted in either an incorrect interpretation being considered, or an interpretation being missed. However, it could also be the case that an ‘outsider’ researcher, when considering the data, might not have appreciated some nuance within the data, resulting in the same issue of either a missed or an incorrectly interpreted section of data.

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Despite this, the issue of ‘researcher bias’ was one that concerned me throughout the overall investigation. My concerns centred on three basic and inter-related issues although none were seen to have primacy. The issues were:

- prompting questions asked during semi-structured interviews;
- selecting participants for detailed analysis;
- the reduction – interpretation – collation - analysis of narratives.

My insider knowledge may have prompted a questioning approach in one direction although it may also have helped in the overall interpretation of data since nuances within the dataset may have been understood and their impact rationalised more effectively. Had the research been conducted from a team perspective, issues relating to my individual bias might have been reduced. However, adopting an approach such as that could have added a further complexity into the process. If a team of ‘insiders’ had been employed to conduct interviews, more data could have been gathered, although it might have been compromised through a reduction in the opportunity for the semi-structured interview approach in an effort to maintain some consistency. A different dataset coupled with different researchers interpreting data might have resulted in different descriptors being used to identify aspects of behaviour, which, combined with an almost certainly different method of presenting results, would have resulted in different conclusions being formed.

Whilst the iterative nature of the ‘reduction - interpretation – collation’ process applied during the analysis of the narrative data provided the most obvious area for error development, it also acted to provide an on-going check to help reduce error. Additionally, errors could have been introduced into the process before any data gathering had actually commenced. With this in mind, it is worth reflecting on the research participants and how representative they may be of the wider population of the specific ATU, all ATUs, and the Army Reserve as a body of soldiers.

### **6.3.3. Population and participants**

A number of people were engaged during the investigations although the results of conversations, observations and interviews from 8 participants were selected for detailed analysis. These individuals represented the population spectrum in terms of age, rank, sex, experience and previous Regular service. The participant base therefore enabled me to explore beliefs and attitudes across the spectrum of Army Reserve personnel, albeit limited to personnel operating within a single training team environment. A secondary benefit was obtained by the disparate nature of the civilian occupations of individual participants where the interaction between military and civilian working practice could be considered.

The number of personnel working in the training team fluctuated during the research; 35 instructors were employed during the period. This number is a combination of permanently attached Army Reserve personnel and visiting instructors who attended on a very regular basis. There is also a headquarters element of 12 individuals made up from a combination of Regular and Reserve personnel. Therefore, the selected eight participants represent approximately 15% of the total population of the training team.

If this population were considered in terms of the 9 other training teams in the UK, the population would increase significantly. Assuming all ATUs are staffed to the same level, the population involved in the study would reduce to approximately 1.5%; the distribution of age, experience, rank and gender would still be applicable thus the major difference would relate to the demography of the target population. Since this investigation was developed from a social construction perspective this could have had an impact on the results. However, it is assumed that any impact would primarily be identified in the interaction between the civilian and military conflux since the extended population would have been part of the same military education and experience process. My participants would have been operating in similar vocational circumstances within their Reserve

forces commitment although they could also be drawn from many different civilian occupations; the assumption here was that civilian occupations would not impact on the overall model describing situational vocational professionalism but could impact on the individual's behaviour and beliefs.

#### **6.3.4. Approach to Interviews**

The semi-formal interview approach was intended to provide participants with a medium for self-exploration. Through adopting this process, a significant amount of raw data was provided for later analysis.

The interviews and discussions were used to encourage discussions in terms of individual feelings and beliefs; however, to facilitate those discussions meant prompting questions were asked. Using prompts to encourage discussion and disclosure might have encouraged participants to describe their beliefs from a particular standpoint in order to address my question; the concern here was that the participant spoke to satisfy my need rather than to explore their own feelings. Additionally, as I was exposed to different discussions over time, my interests developed, resulting in the use of different prompt questions with potentially different outcomes; earlier and later participants may have explored their beliefs from different standpoints resulting in different comments being brought into the data set. While this issue may have been countered through a more rigid approach to the interviews, it may have meant that the full and rounded dataset was not developed and therefore the resultant analysis would have lacked the depth and breadth I sought.

The act of reviewing the raw data as a regular occurrence informed the data-gathering process and, as a result, guided the structure of the semi-formal interviews. In some instances, new avenues of investigation during subsequent interviews were identified; where possible, these new avenues were either crosschecked against previous interview data or considered through discussions with other participants on an informal basis. The ability to review data in this manner was greatly enhanced through the

insider status of the researcher and the existing relationships that had been built up with the participants.

However, this relationship could also have potentially introduced inadvertent bias into the exercise as a whole activity. To counter this, participants were offered opportunities to review the transcripts of narrative, and to view their own instructional practices through the digital recordings. All data was gathered in a 'live' situation and no simulation activities were used. Hence, I believe the final data collection is a valid representation of the lives and experiences of the participants, viewed from their individual perspectives.

### **6.3.5. Data analysis**

The research approach of interview and observation resulted in a large volume of qualitative data for analysis; the data mainly being obtained through digitally recorded interviews of a semi-structured nature. The approach adopted to organise and review data was linear and involved creating a complete transcript of all interviews; the transcripts included pauses in speech patterns and other non-lexical vocables to provide a complete record of the conversation. Additional researcher comments were annotated within the transcription to note areas where the interviewee became particularly animated or appeared to disengage from the process. Further researcher comments were added to side notes within the narratives to explain researcher thoughts during the transcript and analysis stages. The creation of this complete transcript served as a reminder of each interview as an individual activity.

Each segment of the interview transcription was given a unique alphanumeric reference. Data analysis was an iterative process involving reviewing discussions, identifying recurrent themes, grouping the themes and finally reducing to overall concepts. Throughout this process, the original alphanumeric references were maintained to ensure that thematic concepts could be traced back to the original source. The collated and

reduced data suggested patterns that were used to aid an explanation of the phenomena witnessed; however, the original participant words were used as part of the discussion points. Through this process, the validity of the interpretations was yet again reviewed.

The process of reviewing data to draw general themes together by looking for similar responses to questions and grouping these points provided an effective method of creating an overall picture of approaches. This was especially useful for analysing the data in terms of the participant perceptions of the importance of the military pedagogy, its application within the instructional environment, and how individual instructional skill development was approached. However, the key success came through a further review of the data in terms of pronoun analysis. This was pivotal in uncovering areas of ownership, engagement and detachment; the exposure of these areas provided an insight into the societal aspects of developing SVPI within the Army Reserve phase-1 training establishment.

### **6.3.6. Research limitations**

#### ***Research focus on a single Army Training Unit (ATU)***

The research objectives clearly defined an investigation into practice within the Army Reserve and described three areas within which the research should focus. Whilst satisfied with my approach, and with the validity and accuracy of my results, the findings could have benefited from a) being considered in terms of their applicability within other Army Reserve phase-1 training establishments and b) drawing upon the knowledge and experience of Army Reserve personnel who are not involved in the process of recruit training.

In the first instance, I have argued within the discussion on participant population that the most likely impact of being focussed on one training team would be the blend of civilian occupations and thus alternative experiences that different participants would have brought to the study. However, this is an unsubstantiated opinion and the research may have

benefited in terms of general validity had this avenue been explored. In the second instance, the primary focus of the research was to investigate practice within the closed environment of a phase-1 training establishment where the opportunities to teach 'new knowledge' rather than develop existing skills exists. This point is validated by Terry's comment on the importance of experiential learning discussed in chapter 4 of this thesis.

Both of these approaches would have provided a wider opportunity for comparing instructional practice and individual belief and could have confirmed the validity of the findings on a larger scale. Either approach would have involved widening the participant population, which in turn might have reduced the opportunity to study the impact that a niche society has on individual professional identity.

### ***Research focus on the Army Reserve***

Again, the research objectives provided a natural boundary to the scope of the investigation. The boundary excluded investigations into the Regular Army although the participant experiences brought this area into consideration within our discussions. The general understanding and knowledge developed through the research may have benefited from some engagement with Regular instructors currently completing a tour of duty within a Regular Army phase-1 training establishment, particularly in respect of the emerging themes related to the individual; personal standards; attitudes and behaviours; and adherence to the Army pedagogy. Pursuing participant engagement here would have almost undoubtedly resulted in a different mix of rank as discussed in chapter 1 where the typical roles and functions in the ATU are discussed.

To introduce the experiences, beliefs and attitudes of Regular Army personnel at this juncture, whilst adding to knowledge gained in terms of application of the military pedagogy, may have clouded the insights developed on the organisational professionalism of the Army Reserve.

This would have moved me further from my original desire to explore aspects of developing professionalism in relation to the Army Reserve.

***Research focus outside of the military environment***

From the perspective of developing instructional practice, the research has focussed entirely on practices developed within the Army Reserve. The scope of the investigation could have been extended from the outset to include the experiences, beliefs and attitudes of teachers and trainers within civilian further education and training establishments. This would have changed the core focus from the development of professionalism within the niche area of the Army Reserve phase-1 training establishment towards a more general review of instructor professionalism; this was not the intention of the research. This avenue might have been explored through a more selective approach to participant engagement that targeted individuals who are posted into an Army Reserve phase-1 training establishment whilst at the same time fulfilling the role of teacher or trainer within their civilian employment. Had this approach been adopted, it would have severely impacted the opportunity to engage with sufficient individuals within a single ATU.

**6.4. Concluding comments**

A review of the research results appears to support different aspects of perceived wisdom in relation to the concept of professionalism in vocational education, and how that concept may be demonstrated as a professional identity. However, results also suggest that there may be areas of professional identity that are not fully explained through the current descriptions of professional behaviour.

Organisationally, the Army appears to have moved toward meeting the recommendations made within Blake's (2006) report into the incidents at Deepcut. It has implemented vetting for all instructors in phase-1 establishments, although in the case of the Army Reserve, this vetting may be limited to Reserve soldiers who are posted into an ATU. It does

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not cover visiting instructors (VI) operating on an occasional basis; a Commander's risk assessment is used to document the process where VIs that have not been vetted are used in an instructional role.

Blake's (2006) recognition of the relationship between leadership and instructional behaviour describes the influence those in authority have over their subordinates. This research suggests that the relationship between the individual and the organisation is deeper and that the organisation plays a functional role in shaping the professional character of the individual. However, it is important to recognise the role key sectorial stakeholders can play in the overall development of individual professional identity; in other words the situational vocational professionalism of the participants.

A sense of 'ownership' for the courses, course materials and lesson plans could be encouraged by management action, especially where instructors have identified issues with the course or the materials they are asked to use in delivering its content. This sense of ownership can easily be lost where, despite repeated requests, the corrections or amendments are not incorporated; instructors would benefit from feedback to explain why changes can or cannot be made. This type of issue is an example of how employer actions can influence individual professional identity within the situational vocational professional identity model.

It is accepted that the overall aim of the military pedagogy approach is to have a consistent delivery of key learning points, for all lessons, across all ATUs, and for this to be comparable to the experience within Regular establishments. However, this approach may be complemented by a more effective coaching mechanism that recognises and encourages development albeit in a controlled environment. This may mean that those instructors tasked with instructional monitoring or validation, and those taking on a 'head of skill' function, may require additional support in the first instance; this could enable them to develop approaches to coaching support, whilst also providing further examples of employer influence on

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individual identity within the SVPI model. The military does have a provision for training coaches and mentors through the Sub-Unit Coach and Master Coach training courses although personal experience suggests that attendance on these courses is given as a priority to the Regular Army instructors.

Furthermore, it may be necessary to select appropriate individuals and develop them into these key roles. At present, there is no clear indicator as to why certain individuals are selected to fill these types of position; it may just be the 'anyone can do anything' approach that can pervade organisations. This approach is apparent within many of the Manning and Services (MS) activities within both the Regular and Reserve post applications; the use of 'paper' boards to identify people to post, based primarily on the completion of a military CV that focuses on rank range and qualification, with limited consideration for experience and suitability, illustrates this issue.

### ***SVPI and military training and development***

In the specific case of the military, it has been identified by Ofsted (2011), and supported by this research, that the current approach adopted for instructor monitoring has caused a reticence on the part of the individual to reflect on anything other than their own performance. In addition to this, reflections tend towards considering how the individual can improve their adherence to the technical aspects of an instructional technique rather than any consideration of how the learners have engaged with the subject. While this may lead to a more consistent approach to lesson delivery, it may not result in developing a more effective learning environment where learners can maximise their development.

The inclusion of Ministry of Defence representatives on the ETF research body developing the professional standards for teachers in the FE sector suggests that the military are aware of the benefits of closer interaction with civilian sectors. To provide an effective framework for instructor

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development going forward, the military should consider the needs of the Army Reserve instructor from this specific perspective in addition to the more general case of the Regular Army instructor requirement. This would be in line with the 'Whole Army' concept, and would help the development of an understanding of key requirements from both areas of the force.

Personal experience suggests that whenever the Army tries to adopt this approach they, a) give a liaison role to a Regular officer, b) give the role to a Reserve officer who is working on a full-time basis, c) give responsibility to an ex-Regular, now serving in the Reserve but on a full-time basis, or d) use a civil servant operating within a full time establishment. In all four cases, the resultant development has a focus leaning toward the Regular element, and the Reserve element is then 'forced' into the same model. This approach is unlikely to see the maximum benefit for the Reserve forces. One suggestion would be to conduct the development over weekends where Reserves would be able to play a much fuller role. Were this work to be conducted using instructors from both ATUs and their VI supporting units as part of the development teams it may be more likely to recognise some of their personal concerns. Additional support for this activity could be achieved through the inclusion of some of the many full-time FE teachers who are currently members of the Army Reserve.

Key future developments might therefore include:

- a recognition of the role of the Army Reserve instructor;
- the provision of a 'proper' development route for all instructors;
- the provision of support for the specific development of the Army Reserve instructor;
- the encouragement of coaching for performance through peer-to-peer and instructor-to-student relationships;
- the development of mentoring from a learning environment perspective as well as the delivery perspective;

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- encouragement to develop instructional practice through a focus on both delivery technique and developing an effective learning environment;
- developing a more effective interaction between the Regular and Reserve forces where consideration is given to working in the Reserve (weekend) environment as well as the Regular (weekday) environments.

From a pedagogical perspective, the military have already moved toward their goal of transformational leadership through the practices developed as part of the DTTT; however, for this to be fully realised within the Army Reserve the instructors need to be empowered to develop their practice. Opportunities here are currently limited with the 'scripted lesson plan' approach adopted within the ATU where the research was conducted; if similar practices are applied within the other 9 ATUs, the resultant limitations are also likely to be present. Therefore, an approach that supports individual development and encourages shared practice may prove to be beneficial. To support the concerns over consistent delivery, it may be necessary to use the coach/mentor approach as a safety net mechanism. This research has shown that given the right conditions, Army Reserve instructors are capable of developing their personal practice but that they may lack the confidence to try different approaches without some form of support and encouragement to prompt them.

### ***SVPI in general terms of professionalism***

Within the literature, the traditional descriptions of professionalism tend towards concepts such as autonomy, accountability and responsibility when describing the characteristics of professional behaviour whilst the participants in the study have used adjectives that may align more closely with the practicalities of being a soldier. If the participants' words are considered as a collective entity acting to describe professional behaviour it could be suggested that they have demonstrated professional behaviour. It may not be the case if the words were considered as separate, distinct,

elements of professionalism. This may in part be related to the organisational influences, controls and policies within which the participants conduct their practice; the suggestion here is that individual professionalism and professional identity are bound together with organisational operating conditions. These conditions may have been created at either the local (unit) or higher command (key sectorial stakeholder) level but serve to create the standards through which the participants develop their professional identity.

We have seen through this research that vocational professionalism is situational and that the approach the individual adopts within their teaching practice may be governed, and constrained, through the policy, doctrine and local management procedures. Whilst this research has focused on a very niche aspect of instruction, it is postulated that similar issues may be present to a lesser, or greater, extent in a wide variety of vocational teaching and training organisations. This multi-dimensional concept of professionalism in vocational practice would need to be validated in terms of the more mainstream areas of practice.

### **6.5. Further research**

#### ***Taking SVPI forward***

Whilst satisfied with the validity and accuracy of the results obtained through my research, one of the limitations considered in terms of this research was related to the very specific and niche environment within which it was conducted. To extend the development of SVPI, consideration was given to the potential impact of validating the model through a wider exposure to Army Reserve phase-1 training establishments, the wider Army Reserve instructor base, and the potential for consideration with respect to the Regular Army. In each case, the benefits of the extension did not appear to provide sufficient value adding opportunities to take the concept forward. The political imperatives at the heart of the original research can also serve to identify a future avenue for

investigation with respect to both core personal professional identity and SVPI as a concept model.

The government launched its '*Troops to Teachers (TtT)*' programme in 2013 with the intention of attracting exceptional service leavers (DfE, n.d.) into retraining as teachers. The programme is open to both graduate and non-graduate entrants on respective schemes. The aim of TtT is to harness recognised military skills such as leadership, motivation and communication, in combination with instructional experience to develop appropriate service leavers into civilian classroom teachers.

The two-year TtT programme provides an excellent medium for extending the development of SVPI. A research programme here would provide a number of opportunities to develop our understanding of the factors driving performance and development at the juxtaposition between military instructional practice and civilian teaching roles. Furthermore, the research would facilitate the development of a base of knowledge similar to the knowledge that is being developed with healthcare sectors in terms of task and identity relationships, which is currently lacking within military education and training.

### ***A final thought***

This thesis has investigated the concept of professional identity from the perspective of the instructor. The results have suggested that there is a situational element to professional identity and that the individual's professional identity is shaped by influences developed through employer(s) and key sector stakeholders.

It may not be enough just to recognise the influences and impacts that organisations can have on professional identity. If the Army Reserve is to successfully perform the role envisaged within FR 2020, it will need to recruit new entrants and then retain them whilst numbers build to the required level. The phase-1 instructor plays a key role as part of the

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process by developing new recruits into the ways of the Army and providing them with a solid foundation of the core skills that are required of a soldier. In fulfilling this role the phase-1 Army Reserve instructor is expected to commit to a regular weekend attendance. This attendance can include being on duty from reveille at 0600hrs through to final lessons finishing at 2000hrs; they may even have to attend briefing for the following day after the instructional period ends. To do this on a regular basis requires commitment and dedication on the part of the individual that should be reciprocated by the organisation yet, as George explains:

*'This sounds a real b\*\*\*\* and it is a b\*\*\*\*. The organisation is very concentrated on the recruit experience, [long pause], almost to the total detriment of the instructor experience to be honest with you.'*

George's comment may suggest that additional research into what motivates people to commit, in some cases many years of service, to organisations such as the Army Reserve may be of benefit.

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# Appendices

## 8. APPENDICES

### 8.1. An introduction to the Army

The basic infantry unit building block is the section and platoon; a section contains eight soldiers, there are three sections and a headquarters element in a platoon. Platoons are grouped into companies; there are three platoons and a company headquarters in a company. Companies are grouped into battalions; there are three companies and a battalion in a Regiment; additional assets are often attached at Company level and above.

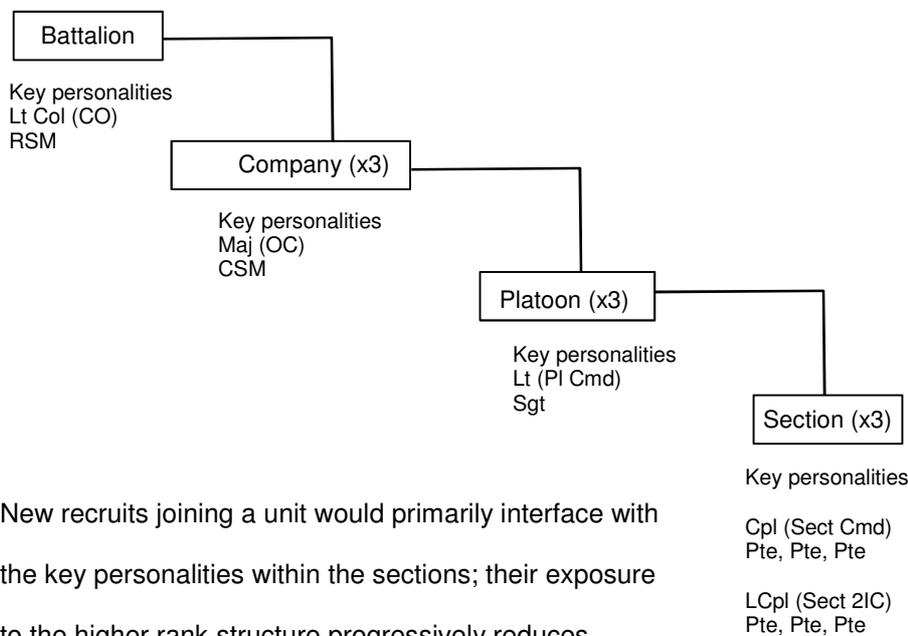


Figure 8.1 - Typical infantry unit structure

### ***Army Reserve structure***

The Army Reserve essentially consists of two organisational types. 'Regional' organisations are accommodated within Army Reserve Centres (ARC); soldiers typically parade one evening each week and one weekend each month in addition to an annual two-week 'camp'. The minimum requirement is to complete 27 days per year which inclusive of the two-

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week camp although a reduced commitment of 19 days is available to ex Regular soldiers for three years. 'National' units are centrally located at a Headquarters or Training Centre of the Arm or Corps to which they are affiliated; its members are drawn from around the country and are selected because of specialist skills. They have a reduced 19-day commitment (inclusive of a two week camp). Doctors, Linguists, Special Forces (UKSF(R)) could be considered as examples National Unit Army Reserve soldiers. In many cases, reserve (Regional or National) personnel complete in much more than the minimum requirement. Whilst this is the basic status, the role and structure of the armed forces is being realigned as part of the Army 2020 plans. This is likely to result in changes to the commitment, and rewards, on offer to member of the Army Reserve (Cm 8655, 2013).

The Army Reserve enlists recruits between 18 – 43 years old; the exception being United Kingdom Special Forces (Reserves) (UKSF(R)) where the upper age limit 32. Reserve soldiers can serve up to the age of 55 for other ranks (OR) and 60 for officers; in special circumstances, the upper age limit for an OR can be extended to a maximum of 60; extensions are considered individually on an annual basis. Reserve recruit training is combination of weekend and continual training commitment and is delivered by Regular and Reserve instructors.

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Officer rank	Salutation (all below & soldiers)	Soldier rank	Salutation (all below, officers & soldiers)
Lt Colonel	Sir	WO1	Sir (soldiers) Mr. (officers) Rank and name [or RSM]
Major	Sir or rank and name	WO2	Sir (soldiers) Mr. (officers) Rank and name
Captain	Sir or rank and name	CSgt / SSgt	Rank and name
Lieutenant	Sir or rank and name	Sgt	Rank and name
2 <sup>nd</sup> Lieutenant	Sir or rank and name	Cpl	Rank and name
		LCpl	Rank and name

Table 8.1 - Rank in order of seniority

The rank and associated salutation demonstrates the structure of communication through the ranks. The 'rank and name' approach generally used by individuals with the same rank when in the presence of different ranks.

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## 8.2. Engaging participants and participant consent

### Initial contact (e-mail)

Dear All

This email has been sent to your army email account and is inviting you to participate in a case study research programme as part of my doctoral studies.

My research title is: - *Pedagogy: developing a transformational model within the Territorial Army*<sup>20</sup>

The research is an investigation into the concept of professionalism with the Territorial Army. It focuses on how individual trainers apply to tools and techniques taught as part of the DTTT course. The aim of the research is to understand practitioner experiences and to inform key stakeholders of both the enablers and barriers to the process.

The research activities will cover a nine-month period and will involve some observations of teaching practice and discussions of the activities; participation in the activities is purely voluntary and any data used will be anonymised to preserve its integrity.

If you are interested in finding out more about this, please contact me by 10<sup>th</sup> August. I can be contacted either by e-mail, phone, or in person.

Many thanks

John  
Dynes, J. Capt  
Education Officer  
4 Div RTC (SE)

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<sup>20</sup> Please note that this was an initial working title.

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### **Introductory letter**

Dear .....

Thank you for the interest you have show in my proposed research programme. This pack provides some information to the research.

This research activity is part of a thesis for my professional doctorate in education. It will take the form of observations of teaching practice and semi-structured interviews. The teaching practices will be videoed, a copy of which will be provided to you afterwards. I will be reviewing your video(s) to identify interesting areas of practice; I would ask you to do the same. The semi-structured interviews will be based on the teaching practice observations and will provide opportunities to discuss areas such as 'what happened in the lesson', 'how you believe the situation developed', 'what helped or hindered the situation', 'how you intend to cope with similar incidents in the future'. As part of the research, you will be asked to reflect upon professionalism and what it means to you in your military and civilian roles.

There will be a series of three sets of observations and interviews; my current estimate on timescales for the activities is between December 2010 and September 2011. The observations will be carried out on your preferred teaching practices. Please also let me stress that participation is purely voluntary and that you may withdraw from the research at any time. If you are still interested in taking part in this research, please complete the attached consent form and return it to me. I will then contact you to arrange a suitable time for an initial interview to discuss this activity in more detail.

John

Dynes, J. Capt

Education Officer

Div RTC (SE)

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### **Research brief**

The overall aim of the research is to investigate how individual instructors working within the RTC develop their personal instructional practice to accommodate the transformational model of instruction as developed through the Defence Instructor Train the Trainer course. The research is not an assessment of standards of instruction practice

### **Research question**

How are trainers applying a transformational approach to training within the context of developing the military pedagogy, and to what extent has this influenced their perspective of their personal professionalism?

### **Research Objectives**

- Investigate perceptions on professionalism
- Investigate application of alternative strategies used to support learner requirements
- Explore the decision making process of the individual trainers
- Explore instructor reflections individual instructional practice

### **Dates, Time, Location**

It is intended that all research activities are conducted within the RTC location. The observations on teaching will be agreed in advance and organised to occur when you are already training; they should not place any additional burden on you as the instructor. The date and time for interviews will be discussed and agreed after each teaching observation; interviews are intended to take between 45 minutes to 1 hour.

### **Instructional practices and interviews:**

We will observe your teaching practices on different occasions; any observation will be digitally recorded. The objective of the observations is to identify incidents, which occurred naturally within your teaching

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practices. These incidents will be analysed from a 'critical incident' perspective.

After each observational practice, there will be a period of reflective time prior to an interview. During this time, you will be given a copy of the digital recording of the teaching observation. You will be asked to review this recording prior to the interview and identify any areas you would like to discuss at the interview. The researcher will also review the recording and select specific instances for further discussion.

At the interview stage of the process, you will be asked to reflect on the critical incidents and consider: -

- How you felt at the time of the incident
- Why you took the actions you took
- How successful the action was and what further actions you might take in future similar situations

The interview process will also consider your views on professionalism and professional identity. We will look at: -

- What professionalism means to you
- What makes/stops you from being professional
- How do you maintain your professionalism within your role
- How have different training experiences affected your professionalism

### **Funding and inducements**

Inducements will not be offered to any participants who take part in the study. Participation with the research programme is on a purely voluntary nature. The observations and discussions will not be used in any form of military assessment or validation of practice unless it is directly requested by the

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individual participant; in this case, only the particular instance will be used to form part of the appraisal process.

### **Confidentiality**

All information obtained during the course of the study will be treated in confidence wherever feasible. Electronic data will be stored as password protected documents on a PC, other forms of data will be securely stored for the research duration; this will include signed consent forms, records of observations and any notes created as part of a research diary. Interviews and observations may be recorded in digital format and archived appropriately.

### **Anonymity**

Data interrogation may be conducted through NVIVO and/or MS Excel, in either case, the data will be anonymised to preserve individual rights. Individual nicknames will be used for participants. Any data that could be used to identify individual participants will be sensitised to preserve anonymity. The research will not disclose the names of participants to any members RTC.

### **Risk of harm**

Research activities will not place participants or the researcher in any physical harm, induce any physical pain, involve physical activities or involve any physiological procedures. Due to the reflective nature of the research methods participants may discuss sensitive or stressful situations, care will be taken to safeguard the individual, only referring to their thoughts and reflections in an anonymised format.

### **Rights to withdraw**

Participants have the right to withdraw from the research programme at any time. Data already gathered through the observation / interview process will be deemed to be available for research activity purposes unless specifically stated otherwise by the participant upon withdrawal from the research programme.

**Participant Informed Consent Form**

Working title Pedagogy: developing a transformational model within the Territorial Army

Research question: How do trainers select and apply a transformational approach to training within the context of developing the army pedagogy and how does this relate to individual perspectives on professionalism.

- I agree to take part in this research, which to investigate how I select and use different techniques that were taught as part of the DTTT course, or apply alternative strategies which have been developed through my civilian career.
- The researcher has explained to my satisfaction the purpose, principles, and procedures of the study and the possible risks involved.
- I have read the information sheet and I understand the principles, procedures, and possible risks involved.
- I am aware that I will be required to take part in interviews and have my teaching practice observed by the researcher
- I understand how the data collected will be used, and that any confidential information will normally be seen only by the researchers and will not be revealed to anyone else.
- I understand that I am free to withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason and without incurring consequences from doing so.
- I agree that should I withdraw from the study, the data collected up to that point may be used by the researcher for the purposes described in the research pack.

Name (please print) .....

Signed .....

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### **8.3. Organisational consent**

Dear Sir

I request permission to conduct a small-scale research activity at Malta Barracks. The research is aimed understanding the potential for instructors to adopt alternative strategies as part of their development from the Defence Train the Trainer course. It looks at this through the perception of professionalism within the TA.

The study is titled: *Pedagogy: developing a transformational model within the Territorial Army*

All participants will be volunteers and will be asked to sign an appropriate consent form at the outset. The research will involve me interviewing participants and observing their practice in action. I do not envisage the research impinging on the normal working practices of the participants or the RTC.

As part of the ethical considerations within this research, I assure you that the RTC will only be referred to as the "Training Team" within any ensuing reports and articles and that no restricted documents will be disseminated without the prior approval from the appropriate sources. Furthermore, I confirm that I will not be grading or assessing the performance of the individual participants or the RTC and participants are free to withdraw from the programme at any stage.

The final report will be made available to the RTC at the time of its submission to University of Brighton for assessment; all data will be presented in an anonymous form to preserve confidentiality. The report will be submitted as a final thesis for my Professional Doctorate in Education (EdD).

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If you agree to this research activity, can you please complete the proforma at the bottom of this letter and return it to me for archive purposes.

Dynes J  
Capt  
Education and Accreditation Officer

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**Commanding Officer Consent Form**

I am willing to allow Captain John Dynes to conduct a study into the instructional practices adopted at 4<sup>th</sup> Division Regional Training Centre (South East).

I understand that the research will involve RTC staff participating in the study and that any data collected will be treated in a confidential manner.

Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Lt Colonel Commanding Officer 4 Div RTC (SE)

Date \_\_\_\_\_

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## 8.4. Interview approach

### Interview questioning approach – outline questions

- 1 Can you please give me a brief potted life history? What made you who you are?
- 2 Why did you join the TA?
- 3 What does professionalism mean to you (as a soldier and an instructor)?
- 4 How would you describe yourself in terms of your professional identity in terms of your role within the RTC?
- 5 What has helped to shape your professional identity?
- 6 Which of the following terms do you think best describes your approach to your role at the RTC, and why?
  - A Instructor
  - B Trainer
  - C Teacher
  - D Educator
  - E Coach
- 7 Has your approach to instructional duties developed in the past two years?
- 8 If practice has changed:-
  - What has developed?
  - How has it developed?
  - What benefits have you seen for through this development?
  - What has prompted these developments?
- 9 If has not changed:-
  - What formulated your approach in the first place?
  - What are the particular strengths of your approach?
- 10 How do you see yourself developing in the TA in the future

### 8.5. Coded transcript (extract)

The following table has been extracted from an interview with George.

	Question and extracted comments	Interviewer comment	Ref	Self development	Individual	Unit	Organisation	Teaching
JD	Ok George, what does professionalism mean to you?							
G	[thinking sound]		A35					
	Professionalism, it's a word that gets misused.	Personal feeling	A36		x			
	The Army has used it for "Joining the Professionals"	Slogan	A37				x	
	There are people who would argue that soldiering is not a profession.	Opinion	A38					
	But I think they are using it more as an approach to how you carry out your jobs	Personal belief and way of thinking	A39		x			
	so you approach it in the concept that you're going to give it your best shot and you're going to follow through and make sure everything is correct and that you are going to follow all the procedures laid down and achieve the task.	Standards – doing your best Following rules	A40		x			
	and you're going to follow through		A41		x			
	and that you are going to follow all the procedures laid down	Following rules	A42		x			
	and achieve the task.		A43		x			
JD	And with your role here?							
G	With my role here, being professional is a combination achieving the task which I know there is a very large debate on because of resources as in instructors coming down	Deflects away Q introduce new thoughts	A55			x		
	and then tied into that are the requirements to follow all of our standards not only as laid down as the Army's Values and Standards	Doctrine V&S	A56			x	x	

	Question and extracted comments	Interviewer comment	Ref	Self development	Individual	Unit	Organisation	Teaching
	but also the standards that we have in the RTC.		A57			x		
JD	So what does instructing mean to you?							
G	[thinking sound]		A85					
	[pause]		A86					
	passing on information through lessons and getting it so the soldiers under training	Pass on information	A87					x
	[pause]		A88					
	recall and understand it	Test knowledge	A89					x
	[pause]		A90					
	I mean, yeah, they could sit down with a list but unless they understand what those things mean we are just getting them to repeat those things parrot fashion.	Develop understanding	A91					x
JD	Ok, so what is the difference between that and trainer?							
G	[thinking sound]		A92					
	training implies more practical skills in my mind.	practical	A93					x
	[changed topic]		A94					
	Likewise, coaching is coming on to the mentoring side and again it could be argued that part of the role here is to coach	ASLS - DTTT impact	A95			x		x
	and in six weekends we're trying to take them from a society which is not a militaristic society and I think quite rightly so	Topic change Social impact	A96					
	incidentally, I think that is one of our strengths, we are trying to, we're trying to do something quite complex here cos we're trying to take them	Personal belief	A97					
	[pause]		A98					
	and not stop them from being who they are.		A99			x		

	Question and extracted comments	Interviewer comment	Ref	Self development	Individual	Unit	Organisation	Teaching
	we want them to retain all that we want them to still be the citizen but we want them to be a citizen soldier and indeed, in some previous old TA adverts, it used to say, "twice the citizen".	Personal belief and memory	A100				x	
JD	In what way?							
G	[thinking sound]		A101					
	the TA soldier is undoubtedly a different beast to the Regular Army soldier. Now you will get guys who are very similar but a lot of them are very different. Ammmm, well for a start, it's done not as, not their permanent occupation so it's done an, uhmm ad hoc basis for want of a better term.	Personal belief	A102				x	
	[pause]		A103					
	[thinking sound]		A104					
	well for a start, it's done not as, not their permanent occupation so it's done on a ad hoc basis for want of a better term.		A105				x	
	It's done occasionally. Maybe two hours a week, may be two days and two hours a week depending on what they're doing	The part-time element	A106					
	and it also means that a lot of things that we're requiring from them such as the physical fitness, they have to do in their own time.		A107				x	
	Whereas, with the regular soldier not only is he expected to do it in works time, but he's provided with the facilities to do it.	Difference between Reg and Res	A108				x	
JD	Why do you feel it is more the instructor?							
G	volume of information that we are wishing to get into the SUTs in the period of time we have available.	Consistent with earlier explanations	A116			x	x	
JD	Ok, why do you wish it would be an educator?							

	Question and extracted comments	Interviewer comment	Ref	Self development	Individual	Unit	Organisation	Teaching
G	Because that would imply that we have more time to get the same information in and therefore we could use different learning techniques.	Teaching techniques	A117		x	x	x	
JD	Perhaps we could use different techniques within the same time?							
G	We could, and indeed, I have used quite a variety of different techniques.		A118	x	x			
	[thinking sound]		A119					
	yep, I took up someone's idea for the weekend one Questionnaire which I did the last ITC weekend	Application of non military ideas	A120	x				x
	I had them right at the start giving a lesson to, uhmm, Ramilies Cadre which is not mine and it was, a question at the start "What do you rate on a score of one to ten your level of knowledge on security" And then again at the end, what do you rate		A121	x				
	and it was interesting to see how the perceived knowledge from the SUT had increased.	Reflection	A122	x				x
JD	How did that make you feel?							
G	I was pleased because it meant I was getting information across.	Satisfaction	A123	x				
	[thinking sound]		A124					
JD	Do you think it had any benefit for them?							
G	yes because it allowed them to analyse how they felt they were learning from the subject so it probably gave those people doing this thinking, I don't know much, at the start and then later on, ahh, actually I do know something, I've learned quite a lot here. So, in a way, it was almost a sub-conscious recap for them.	Limited thought on the benefits of the approach	A125					

**8.6. Example alpha-numeric reference**

Unit belonging (use of the word 'we' to demonstrate a feeling of belonging and ownership for positive points	George	Sarah	Steve	Arnold	Julie	Terry	Fred	Eric	Personal
... <b>we</b> have a lesson plan, pre-set and <b>we</b> must follow it...	D33								Pedagogy
Unit standards <b>we</b> have in the RTC	A57								Pedagogy
... here <b>we</b> have to teach by the book							O9		Pedagogy
... <b>we</b> are doing it every week ...			H67						Pedagogy
... and what <b>we</b> , in <b>our</b> SOP state				J466					Pedagogy
Unless <b>we</b> do that, <b>we</b> are just getting them to repeat	A91								Pedagogy
... <b>We</b> are being told that there are inconsistencies....	D26								Pedagogy
<b>We</b> could, and indeed <b>I</b> have	A118								Instruction
There is <b>added value in some of the things we</b> do by ...					K411				Instruction
... <b>we</b> make them better ...				J322					Instruction
...to make sure <b>we</b> do actually ...						L128			Instruction
... <b>we</b> should be alright ...								P157	Instruction
... <b>we</b> are limited on how <b>we</b> can facilitate ...								P97	Instruction
... <b>we</b> never seem to recognise it..	A193								Instruction
What <b>we</b> find is the guys ...								P29	Peers
... <b>we</b> are very lucky here...				J317					Peers

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Unit belonging (use of the word 'we' to demonstrate a feeling of belonging and ownership for positive points)	George	Sarah	Steve	Arnold	Julie	Terry	Fred	Eric	Organisation
... <b>we</b> have the right supply chains ...	A186								Management
If <b>we</b> didn't have students <b>we</b> wouldn't be ...			G82						Management
<b>We've</b> had two changes of leader since...			G328						Management
... enabled <b>us</b> to ...								P173	Management
... <b>we've</b> got three set-ups here...	A181								Management
... <b>we've</b> transferred from this horrific ...								P172	Management
... <b>we</b> are told not to discuss ...	A176								Management
<b>We've</b> worked really hard to achieve that status as ...					K316				Management
<b>We</b> have OC's and the ...								P6	Management
ITG want to know what <b>we</b> are going to continue ...								P55	Management
<b>We</b> are limited in what <b>we</b> ..								P126	Management
... <b>we</b> can focus on the things that....								P64	Management
Because that would imply that <b>we</b> have more time ...	A117								Admin
Some of the things <b>we</b> have to address are ...							O49		Admin
<b>We</b> shouldn't have to ...			I163						Admin
... days of old when <b>we</b> didn't check the qualifications		E225							Admin
<b>We never know</b> who is going to turn up until Friday ....							O83		Admin
Yes Sir but <b>we just don't have the resources</b> ...							O78-9		Admin
It is a luxury <b>we can't afford</b>							O81		Admin
... <b>we</b> don't get enough time / <b>we</b> need to spend more time								P65,100	Admin
Do <b>we</b> look at the training aids ...				J227					Admin