UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

Doctor of Education

A STUDY INTO THE PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY OF LECTURERS AT A MARITIME EDUCATION AND TRAINING INSTITUTE OPERATING ON THE BOUNDARY OF FURTHER AND HIGHER EDUCATION.

by

Mark Thomas Bee

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Education

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ABSTRACT

FACULTY OF SOCIAL AND HUMAN SCIENCES

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The post-compulsory education sector has undergone major changes in the last twenty years and it is likely that further changes and reorganisations will continue to characterise the sector. The role of the lecturer, in both Further Education (FE) and Higher Education (HE), has been affected by the changes to organisational culture, methods of working and the political climate. The increasing pressures on organisations to achieve financial targets have created a working environment where business, rather than educational, priorities appear to drive organisations. Throughout this period, the professionalism of lecturers in the Further and Higher Education sectors has been debated widely, along with professional identity. The concept of professional identity is complex but is important as it provides a framework for teachers to construct their own ideas of 'how to be', 'how to act' and 'how to understand' their work and their place in society. This research explores how six lecturers in a Maritime Education and Training (MET) Institution, who each had a previous career, express their professional identity and how they negotiate it within a professional community. Whilst there has been much research that investigates the professional identity of educators in FE and HE, this work investigates lecturers who operate at both FE and HE within a single industrial sector, the maritime industry. A local, exploratory case study approach, using interpretative inquiry, was adopted in order to develop understanding of the socio-cultural phenomenon of professional identity within the MET Institution. Data were analysed using an inductive thematic approach and four themes were identified. These were: 'becoming a professional lecturer'; 'my credibility'; 'how I communicate'; and 'my autonomy'. Of particular note was how the participants negotiate their credibility and autonomy within an Institution that operates under commercial and legislative pressures. An established theoretical model was adapted, as a result of the findings from this study, to develop an enhanced understanding of these specific lecturers' professional identity. Whilst this is a small-scale study and no claims of generalisation are being made, the model has some resonance and transferability to other similar groups, such as the teaching and medical professions in the transition from practice to Higher Education posts.

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DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, Mark Bee declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

    A STUDY INTO THE PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY OF LECTURERS AT A MARITIME EDUCATION AND TRAINING INSTITUTE OPERATING ON THE BOUNDARY OF FURTHER AND HIGHER EDUCATION.

I confirm that:

This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;

Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other Institution, this has been clearly stated;

Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;

Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;

I have acknowledged all main sources of help;

Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;

None of this work has been published before submission

Signed:...

Date:..

Acknowledgements

Definitions and Abbreviations

CAQDAS   Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software

CPD   Continuing Professional Development

CoC(s)   Certificate(s) of Competence

DBIS   Department for Business, Innovation and Skills

DFES   Department for Education and Skills

DfT   Department for Transport

DIUS   Department for Innovation, Universities and Skills

EdD   Doctor of Education

ETF   Education and Training Foundation

FAETC   Further and Adult Education Teaching Certificate

FD   Foundation Degree

FE   Further Education

FENTO   Further Education National Training Organisation

HE   Higher Education

HEA   Higher Education Academy

HEFCE   Higher Education Funding Council for England

HNC   Higher National Certificate

HND   Higher National Diploma

IfL   Institute for Learning

IMO   International Maritime Organization

ITE   Initial Teacher Education

Lecturer   The term lecturer is used throughout this thesis for consistency. It refers to those who teach in both HE and FE.

LLUK   Lifelong Learning United Kingdom

LSC   Learning and Skills Council

LSIS   Learning Skills Information Service

LSS   Learning and Skills Sector

MCA   Maritime and Coastguard Agency

MET   Maritime Education and Training

MN   Merchant Navy

MNTB   Merchant Navy Training Board

MSA   Maritime Skills Alliance

MSc   Master of Science Degree

NOS   National Occupational Standards

NQF   National Qualification Framework

NViVo 10   Brand name of a CAQDAS software application

NVQ   National Vocational Qualification

Ofsted   Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills

OOW   Officer of the Watch

PGCE   Post Graduate Certificate in Education

PGCLTHE   Post Graduate Certificate in Learning and Teaching in Higher Education

PhD   Doctor of Philosophy

QCDA   Qualifications and Curriculum Development Agency

QCF   Qualifications and Credit Framework

QTLS   Qualified Teacher: Learning and Skills

QTS   Qualified Teacher Status

RN   Royal Navy

SFA   Skills Funding Agency

SSB   Sector Skills Body

SSC   Sector Skills Council

STCW   Standards of Training, Certification and Watch keeping

SPD   Scottish Professional Diploma

SQA   Scottish Qualifications Authority

TDA   Teachers' Development Agency

TLC   Transforming Learning Cultures in Further Education

UK   United Kingdom

Chapter 1:   Introduction and Background

1.1   Introduction

Professionalism and the professional identity of lecturers are ill defined terms and are contested in the Further Education (FE) and Higher Education (HE) sectors (for example see Bathmaker and Avis, 2005; Calvert and Muchira-Tirima, 2013; Gleeson et al. 2015; Robson, 2005; White, 2014) yet they are referred to when describing the preferred qualities of a teacher (DBIS, 2012; ETF, 2015; Institute for Learning, 2012; Lucas and Nasta, 2010). The issue of what it is to be a professional educator has been a recurring theme over the last 20 years, and the UK Government has intervened in the debate, by attempting to provide legislation that gives guidance and direction on the subject (see DfES, 2004; DIUS, 2007; Lingfield, 2012). The debates have ranged from the meaning of professionalism (Gleeson et al., 2015; Robson, 2005) and professional identity (Bathmaker and Avis, 2005; Day, Kington, Stobart, & Sammons, 2006; Fejes, A. & Köpsén, 2014), their worth and whether the role of teacher, trainer or lecturer can be considered as a profession (Ingersoll and Merrill, 2011). The debates have occurred against a background of shifting economic, social and political scenes which will be discussed further in this chapter.

Given the lack of clarity of definition of the term professionalism and the contested nature of this, particularly in a FE/HE academic environment, the focus of this research is to explore the perceptions of a specific group of lecturers about what it means to be a professional in an academic context. Also, to explore the factors that they consider to be important to them as they develop their professional identity. The lecturers, who are the subjects of this study, teach in a Maritime Education and Training (MET) Institution which belongs to a school in a University in the United Kingdom (UK). They deliver courses that can be classified as being part of either the FE or the HE sectors (levels 3 to 6) and meet the international and national needs of the maritime industry.   It is anticipated that the research outcomes will be able to be applied to other areas of education in both sectors as the themes of professionalism and professional identity of a lecturer in the sectors will be relevant regardless of subject specialisation (Fejes & Köpsén, 2014; Robson, 2005).

1.1.1   Motivation for the Study

In my previous occupation as a Training Manager, with a company delivering a government-sponsored training service, an issue arose regarding the recognition of lecturers as professionals. Whilst the organisation clearly regarded the lecturers as professionals, this was not the view of

the professional bodies, such as the Institute for Learning (IfL), or the Higher Education Academy (HEA), when individuals applied for professional recognition. It was this issue that prompted my investigation into the meaning of professionalism and its value. In the example identified above, it was difficult to see how individual lecturers who were good at their jobs and were recognised as being very effective by their students, the stakeholders and the company, could not gain professional recognition unless they completed further training. This additional training could be nugatory or repetitive and would cost them, or the company additional money and time. I set out to explore this issue as an interested professional rather than a researcher, and set about on a course of study which led me to enroll on a Doctorate of Education (EdD) programme. This was chosen, as the programme of study is designed for professionals to extend their understanding and improve practice through research and theorising policy and practice (Costley and Lester, 2012).

Since I started my studies, my circumstances altered and I changed jobs to become a Senior Lecturer at a Maritime Education and Training (MET) Institution within a University in the UK. Despite the change of environment, it appeared that there were similar issues regarding the perception of professionalism within the cadre of lecturers in the MET Institution, who had been recruited under similar circumstances as the lecturers in my previous job. They were recruited for their experience and expertise in the subject matter they were teaching and then had to take a part-time Post Graduate Certificate in Teaching and Learning in Higher Education (PGCTLHE), in order to gain the teaching knowledge and skills they required. Through my initial research, I noticed that many similar cases exist throughout the Further Education (FE) and Higher Education (HE) sectors and that my area of research would be relevant to other providers of education and training in the sectors. Therefore, with slight changes to the research proposal, approved by my supervisor and the university ethics committee, I continued with this research to explore the issue of professionalism and the professional identity of lecturers within the MET Institution.

1.2   The Research Problem

The lecturers in the MET Institution, who are the subjects of this study, occupy a position that has a variety of pressures exerted on them. They have been recruited to teach specific topics based on their previous experience, they teach to national standards at non-levelled, FE and HE, and they are subject to industry scrutiny, which includes audits by regulatory bodies, or their agents, including the Maritime and Coastguard Agency (MCA) and the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted). There are approximately 70 lecturers at the MET Institution who teach a range of topics from mathematics to leadership and management. Whilst this may not be unique within the

sector, there have been no studies that have sought to investigate the professional identity of lecturers in this group and the meaning of professionalism as it applies to them.

The aim of this study is to investigate lecturers' perceptions of their own professional identity and to compare that to current views on the professional identity among lecturers at HE and FE within the research literature. Particularly, this study will explore how lecturers express their own professional identity, investigate what aspects of professionalism are important to them and determine whether there are any tensions, gaps or contradictions between the participants view and the common notion of professionalism. The outcome of this study will be beneficial to understanding what motivates individual lecturers and help to focus professional development needs for lecturers in similar circumstances.

It is anticipated that this study will also be of particular interest to any education and training provider that is industry specific. However, it is acknowledged that the subject area is particularly specialised and may be unfamiliar to the reader, so this chapter will endeavour to clarify the situation so that the focus and context of the research may be clearly understood. Within the areas of HE and FE the term teacher and lecturer are used synonymously and may cause confusion to the reader. Therefore, in order to maintain consistency and to reflect the HE focus of the MET Institution within the University the term lecturer will be used throughout when referring to both HE and FE environments.

The next sections provide the reader with the background to relevant developments in lecturer qualifications in both FE and HE over the last two decades. However, before that, there is an overview of the industry specific education and training.

1.3   Maritime Education and Training in the UK

The maritime education and training requirements in the UK originate from agreed international maritime conventions, and these standards are internationally recognised, which enable the UK MET Institutions to offer their courses to students from a diverse range of countries. The UK maritime sector is of vital importance to the national economy and, in 2014, using the latest figures available, around 503 million tonnes of freight was transported through the UK's ports, which accounted for 95% of the UK's trade by weight (Department for Transport, 2014). In addition, nearly 60 million passenger journeys were undertaken through UK ports on either international or domestic journeys (ibid). In 2015, the sector had a workforce of approximately 58,100 of which 23,380 UK nationals were seafarers working regularly at sea. Of these, about 47% held qualifications as Merchant Navy (MN) officers, while the remainder were employed for other crew duties. There are approximately 11,000 certificated UK registered officers and 1,920

officer trainees. There were 820 UK new trainee officers starting in 2014/15. These trainee MN officers are part of the student population of the MET Institutions, where the majority are trainee officers from other countries and qualified officers from the UK and other countries attending advanced courses (Department for Transport, 2016). To put this into context, the MET Institution, in which the subjects of this study teach, is one of thirteen MET Institutions in the UK. These Institutions provide seafarer education and training programmes which consist of 3 year cadet programmes, for new entrants to the maritime industry or short courses aimed at experienced seafarers at all levels in the industry. A typical annual throughput for the MET Institution in this study is around 7000 students from many countries and cultures.   The vast majority of these are on short courses with a duration of 5 days or less. Typically on each day, the number of students at the Institution is approximately 300, either sponsored by companies from the maritime industry or self-funded.

There are international and national statutory requirements regarding training and qualifications covering virtually all aspects of operations to ensure safety at sea. As a result of the Merchant Shipping Act (1995), these legislative requirements reflect the UK's obligations under the various international maritime conventions for training and certification. The requirements range from basic safety training for new entrants up to, and including, the qualifications needed for service in the more senior positions in a ship or shipping company.

As with other industry sectors, there are a suite of National Occupational Standards which support the training requirements at levels 2, 3 and 4 of the National Qualifications Framework (MNTB, 2012). These standards are developed and maintained by the Merchant Navy Training Board (MNTB), a voluntary body who provide a link between the government departments and the UK industry in order to maintain and enhance skills in the shipping industry. The MNTB has set out Maritime Education and Training frameworks which provide a range of entry routes for individuals wishing to become professional seafarers these include:

Rating Apprenticeships, (level 2 to 4);

Foundation Degree (FD), incorporating the Scottish Professional Diploma (SPD) (level 4);

Higher National Certificate (HNC) and Higher National Diploma (HND) (levels 3 and 4).

(MNTB 2013)

The MNTB, in conjunction with the MCA, has also developed the criteria for short courses that meet the specific international regulatory requirements. The MCA is a UK Government agency and part of the Department for Transport, and it has the responsibility of ensuring that international and national regulations are adhered to in the UK and it has the authority to enforce regulations through its legislative powers. Within the remit of the MCA is the responsibility for

providing seafarer Certificates of Competency (CoCs) which meet national and international standards. In order to qualify as an officer in the MN, the individual needs to follow a formal programme of study which results in achieving a CoC. The MCA is also responsible for certifying other (non-CoC) courses to meet the requirements of appropriate legislation and National Occupational Standards. As the authorising body, it is responsible for ensuring that lecturers are suitably qualified and experienced to teach these courses.   Only when MCA approval is obtained can a MET Institution offer courses to students that provide relevant CoCs. To monitor maintenance of the standards of training they also conduct audits of the training, facilities and lecturers at scheduled and unscheduled times.

1.4   Definitions of Higher Education and Further Education

In the UK, there is a dual structure at tertiary level education that consists of the HE sector and the FE sector, (Bathmaker and Thomas, 2009). HE is described by the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) as:

> ... courses that are programmes leading to qualifications, or credits which can be counted towards qualifications, which are above the standard of GCE A-levels or other Level 3 qualifications. They include degree courses, postgraduate courses and Higher National Diplomas. Higher education takes place in universities and higher education colleges, and in some further education colleges. (HEFCE, 2016).

FE is described by HEFCE as:

> ...for people over compulsory school age (currently 16 in England) which does not take place in a secondary school. Further education courses are generally up to the standard of GCE A-level or NVQ Level 3. (HEFCE, 2016).

For the purpose of this study, these definitions will be used and non-levelled vocation courses will be included as FE. The MET Institution delivers training and education programmes for the maritime industry under the authority of the MCA. The programmes have also been aligned to national awards such as NVQs, HNC, HND, Foundation Degrees, Bachelor Degrees and Master Degrees. The majority of training delivered by the MET Institution is at levels 3 to 6 on the Qualifications and Credit Framework (QCF) to meet the demands of the industry.

1.5   Lecturer Qualifications

The lecturers at the MET Institution teach courses that can be either HE or FE; for example, during a typical week, a lecturer could be teaching mathematics on a bachelor degree at level 6, electrical engineering on the HNC course at level 3 and a ship safety vocational course which is

non-levelled.   This section identifies how lecturer qualifications and professional recognition have been pursued by both sectors.

Prior to 2001, there was no national requirement for FE lecturers to gain teaching qualifications in order to deliver training, although many colleges encouraged staff to gain qualifications offered by higher education Institutions and national awarding bodies e.g. City and Guilds Further and Adult Education Teaching Certificate (FAETC) and Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) (Bathmaker and Avis, 2005). However, in 2001 new national (England) regulations were introduced that required all new FE lecturers to obtain a teaching qualification based on the national standards for teaching and supporting learning in FE (FENTO, 1999). These standards were drawn up by the Further Education National Training Organisation (FENTO) after extensive consultation with professionals in the FE sector. In 2003, Ofsted conducted a national survey to evaluate the quality and standards of teacher training in FE. One of the main findings of the report was:

> The current system of FE teacher training does not provide a satisfactory foundation of professional development for FE teachers at the start of their careers. (Ofsted, 2003).

The FENTO standards were also criticised:

> While the FENTO standards provide a useful outline of the capabilities required of experienced FE teachers, they do not clearly define the standards required of new teachers. (Ofsted, 2003).

In 2004, the award of 'Qualified Teacher Learning and Skills'(QTLS) was developed following a public consultation and was described in 'Equipping our Teachers for the Future: Reforming Initial Teacher Training for the Learning and Skills Sector'(DFES, 2004, p.4). The document introduced the Institute for Learning (IfL) as the professional body for the Lifelong Learning sector and outlined the Government's aims to reform teacher training in the sector as a result of the weaknesses highlighted by the Ofsted report in 2003.

Lifelong Learning UK (LLUK) replaced FENTO in January 2005 as the national leadership body responsible for the development, quality assurance and promotion of national standards for the lifelong learning sector (DFES, 2004, P.14).   It developed a set of professional standards for lecturers in the sector in 2006. These described in generic terms, the skills, knowledge and attributes required by lecturers in the sector. Not all the standards applied to all the roles within the sector, but they aimed to provide the basis for the development of contextualised role specifications and units of assessment.

In 2007, further national (England) regulations were introduced, by the Department for Business, Innovation and Skills (DBIS), that required all lecturers employed full time in the Lifelong Learning

sector to be registered and licensed to practice with the IfL and to hold QTLS status (DBIS, 2007). In order to maintain their licence to practice, each lecturer must have renewed their licence annually by completing at least 30 hours of suitable continuing professional development (CPD) each year and had to register each year with the IfL.

This was unpopular amongst FE lecturers as it was seen to be inequitable when compared to lecturers of primary, secondary or higher education. Despite the efforts to improve the quality of FE, Ofsted (2009) noted in their report that mentoring arrangements and workplace support were too informal and disadvantaged the trainees. As a result of the negative Ofsted report, Lord Lingfield was commissioned by the Government in 2011, to investigate how the further education sector could best serve its workforce, its students and the country. In the report they agreed with the views of the FE lecturers regarding annual licence renewal and the requirement to pay annual fees and went on to state:

> ...these additional hurdles to qualification might be interpreted as meaning that FE and FE lecturers are inherently less professional than their peers in other sectors. The implication is that they are in need of special measures to assure 'professionalisation'. The review panel believes that this is nonsense, contradicted by the fact that many colleges in the sector, for example, have been giving a good public service for a century or more."   DBIS (2012a, p. 18).

This report was particularly scathing regarding the progress to improve professional standards in Further Education in England. The report recommended that the 2007 regulations be revoked and that support for professionalism among FE staff to be provided from April 2012 by the Learning and Skills Improvement Service (LSIS), (DBIS, 2012a, p. 5).

In the final report, (DBIS, 2012b), the previous recommendations were reiterated, with an update that the 2007 Regulations were to be revoked in September 2012. It also stated that the subject of professional identity in FE was still a matter of concern and proposed that an FE Guild be established with the potential to offer enhanced staff professionalism.

The government funded Education and Training Foundation (ETF) was established in October 2013, with the aim of working with the FE sector to help them deliver excellent further and vocational education and training (ETF, 2015). In 2014, after consulting with practitioners, employers and sector stakeholders, they published a set of professional standards for the education and training sector, who they define as:

> Further education colleges, voluntary and community sector organisations, commercial organisations and independent training providers, adult and community learning providers, teacher education providers, work based learning settings, specialist colleges and Institutions, Armed and uniformed services, prisons and offender learning Institutions, other public sector organisations. (ETF, 2015).

As a result, there was no longer a need for teachers and trainers to meet any standards and qualifications other than those specified by their employer (Thompson, 2014). The intention was that the employers would use the appropriate ETF generated standards that met their need.

Teaching in the Higher Education sector has also come under scrutiny during the last fifteen years. The Government's white paper 'The Future of Higher Education' (Department for Education, 2003) identified that new professional standards for teaching in Higher Education were to be established. These standards were published in 2006 by the newly formed HEA and were the first of their kind in the HE sector. The HEA adopted a different approach to that of the IfL; they provided a UK Professional Standards Framework for teaching and supporting learning in higher education (HEA, 2011). No mandated requirements for CPD or registration were imposed on lecturers but an accreditation scheme was developed that conferred either Associate Fellow, Fellow, Senior Fellow or Principal Fellow status on individuals who could benchmark their professional development against the standards framework. To meet the requirements of the HEA the MET Institution has developed a PGCLTHE programme, which is mandatory to attend, for all lecturers starting at the institution who do not already have an appropriate teaching qualification. The programme consists of three units at Masters level (level 7) and requires attendance one afternoon a week for two academic semesters. The course follows a reflective practitioner model and supports the student lecturer as they critically engage with the scholarship of teaching and learning and are supported to manage their own learning through lectures, seminars and assignments. Whilst the students are encouraged to reflect on their own practice in the context of what they have learnt on the programme, the programme does not involve any assessment of practical teaching. The students are assessed through coursework related to their own area of the curriculum that they teach. On successful completion of the course the students are eligible to claim fellowship of the HEA and receive an invitation from the HEA to do so.

This section has provided an overview of developments in professional qualifications in FE and HE over the last twenty years with the aim of showing that there has been much debate regarding the professionalisation of lecturers in FE and defining professional standards. The HE sector has been trusted to maintain its own standards through the HEA and now, through a tortuous route and following much government involvement, it appears that the FE sector has arrived at a very similar position through the ETF. For both the FE and HE sectors, there are professional standards that are overseen by registered companies who are accountable to the industry. Professionalism and professional identity will be discussed further in Chapter 2.

1.6   Dual Professionalism

Whilst the debate regarding professionalism and professional standards in both FE and HE has focussed on teaching skills, it is widely recognised that many lecturers (certainly in the FE sector) have been employed for the vocational skills they developed in a previous occupation, rather than their teaching skills (Bathmaker and Avis, 2005). Robson (1998) identifies that the existence of dual professional identities should be a source of strength, but notes the official failure to develop the full professional identity of the FE lecturer. Whilst the previous discussion outlined the developments to formalise professional standards in FE, there is still the question of dual professionalism and how it affects the professional identity of lecturers, particularly in the MET. This will be discussed further in Chapter 2.

1.7   New Measures at Higher Education

In addition to the measures described in the previous sections, the Government, in an attempt to raise the teaching standards in higher education institutions in England, has recently introduced the Teaching Excellence Framework (TEF), as a central aspect of the Higher Education Research Bill (HERB) 2017.   The Bill links higher education institutions' performances with the ability to increase student tuition fees, in line with inflation, on the basis that high quality undergraduate education is reflected in the price of the course. The TEF takes into consideration a number of metrics which include students' views of teaching; assessment and academic support from the National Student Survey (NSS); student dropout rates; rates of employment, including a measure of highly skilled employment; and further data from the Destinations of Leavers from Higher Education (DHLE) survey (Ashwin, 2017, p.10). In order to increase fees, higher education institutions will need to show that they are offering students high quality education based on the TEF. Another aim of the TEF is to provide prospective students with sufficient information in order to make informed decisions on their higher education choices at undergraduate level. Furthermore the introduction of the Consumer Rights Act (CRA) (2015) that confirmed a higher education institution is "... a trader and supplier of educational services to the student in what amounts to a direct, individual contractual relationship" (Neary, 2016, p. 690) highlights the current contractual and consumer-led landscape of HE. As Harkavy (2005) cited in Lynch (2006, p.10) observed:

"When universities openly and increasingly pursue commercialisation, it powerfully legitimises and reinforces the pursuit of economic self-interest by students and contributes to the widespread sense among them that they are in college solely to gain career skills and credentials."

These changes have impacted upon the traditional role and professionalism of academics and many see them as altering the relationship between the higher education institution and the student where the focus is on the end product rather than an educative process (Frankham, 2016). Tomlinson (2017) noted that "the notion of student-as-consumer in part reflects the changing relational dynamic students now have to their institutions" (p. 466). However his study of students across seven different UK higher education institutions found that all students did not necessarily view the relationship between individual and institution as completely consumer orientated the degree in which the provision was seen as a consumer transaction varied among the sample group. Nevertheless the introduction of the TEF and the CRA can be seen as further progression of the neo-liberal agenda in higher education where:

"...HEIs have increasingly to re-image themselves, their goals and practices towards profit enhancement and maximizing positional value and status within a new competitive order. The growing corporate alliance between universities and business has been actively pursued by governments looking to exploit the potential economic trade-off of university knowledge." (Tomlinson, 2013, p.183)

Jarvis (2014) associates HE to other sectors such as electricity, water, rail and health which have also become progressively subject to regulations by agencies who, according to King (2007):

"undertake the classic regulatory functions of setting standards, monitoring activities and applying enforcement to secure behaviour modification where this is required" (p.413)

The progression of the neo-liberal agenda is promoting a culture of performativity, commercialism and managerialism in both the FE and HE sectors that appears to be challenging the notion of what it means to be a professional lecturer. The claims that lecturers in both FE and HE are being de-professionalised (Randle and Brady, 1997; Robson, 2005; Wilson, 1991) appear to be continuing. It is relevant to this study as the lecturers at the MET institution operate in an environment where measures have been taken by the government to expand the provision of both FE and HE. The quality of provision is assessed through performativity measures such as the NSS, DHLE and TEF. The universities and colleges providing maritime education and training are competing against each other for students and the relationship between the student and the lecturer is becoming one of customer and supplier.

1.8   The Research Questions

This research explores if there are any tensions, gaps or contradictions between the individual participants regarding the common notion of professional identity as expressed in the literature. The key research questions are:

1. **How does an individual manage the change of a role from a technical expert to a lecturer in tertiary education?**
2. **How do lecturers in the MET Institution describe their role as a lecturer in terms of professional identity?**

Whilst not explicit in the questions above, the notion of dual professionalism is investigated by the use of supporting questions, in the interview, in order to determine whether there is agreement between lecturers on whether it influences professional identity and professionalism (Chappell, 1999; MacNeil, 1997; Nixon, 1996 and Robson 2005).

1.8.1   How this study will contribute

This thesis takes the academic discourse on professionalism and professional identity and researches it within a specific group within the maritime industry. It adds to the current body of knowledge regarding the professional identity of educators in FE and HE and, more importantly, it brings the area of study into the maritime sector where it has not been used before. This is a small scale study, so no claims of generalisation are made but it helps to inform the sector and helps to identify any management challenges particularly in the area of professionalism of the educator and their professional development.

Chapter 2:   Literature Review

2.1   Introduction

The term professionalism has been the subject of much debate in the further and higher education sector over the last twenty-five years and is a problematic and contestable concept (Helsby 1995).   In fact, the Government has attempted to impose by statute a form of professionalism on the further education sector through the development of national occupational standards for teaching staff (DBIS, 2012a). However, before the impact and effectiveness of these measures can be discussed it is important to understand what the terms professionalism and professional identity actually mean. This is not as easy as it may at first appear, as, even within the further and higher education sector, there are many views of the terms, let alone across those industries traditionally associated with the term professional, e.g. medicine, legal, engineering. In addition, terms such as 'Professional', 'Professional Knowledge', 'Professional Practice' and 'Professional Competence' are regularly used, sometimes interchangeably. In order to be able to research into, the perceived professional identities of lecturers in the dual sector environment of FE and HE, it is important to clarify what is understood about these terms and to define them and the relationship between them for the purpose of this research.

2.2   What is a Professional?

When I asked my wife, who is a Community Matron working for a local health trust, to describe what she thought was meant by the term 'professional,' she replied "Someone such as a Doctor, Nurse, Lawyer or Engineer." When pressed to describe what it is that determines these roles as professional she replied "Oh, I don't know, things like knowledge of their subject, practical skills, authority, confidence." Whilst her comment is anecdotal, it is typical of some of the responses found by studies that have been based on rigorous empirical qualitative analysis researching the topic of the meaning of a professional. Helsby (1995), for example, conducted a study into the professional culture of teachers relating to 'being a professional'. The study participants were fifteen secondary school teachers and it investigated the teachers' own understanding of their professional cultures. Helsby received comments referring to the importance of training and to the knowledge and skills needed. In addition, she also received comments regarding 'working in the public sector', 'offering a service', 'autonomy', 'trust' and 'responsibility'. Robson, Bailey and Larkin (2004), conducted a study of 22 vocational teachers to investigate how they construct themselves as vocational teachers and how these constructions relate to broader discourses of

professionalism. Whilst conducting a series of semi-structured interviews, terms such as 'autonomous', 'adding value', 'in-depth knowledge', 'judgement', 'responsibility' and 'protecting standards' were noted.

Whilst the small scale studies identified above are by no means large enough to be generalised and be considered to reflect the views across the FE and HE sectors, it is interesting that similar words/phrases appear. According to the *Oxford English Dictionary* a profession is:

> …an occupation in which a professed knowledge of some subject, field or science is applied; a vocation or career, especially one that involves prolonged training and a formal qualification, (OED, 2016).

The academic discourse regarding the definition of a professional is extensive but there is agreement on characteristics such as distinct body of knowledge, and barriers to entry, (Elliott, 1972), as well as power to define the nature of problems, autonomy and working for the public good, (Evetts, 2009). Hoyle (1995) identified knowledge, autonomy and responsibility as the three main issues which feature in the debate regarding what it means to be a professional. He described a professional as possessing knowledge-based skills which are founded on research-validated theoretical models and case studies, which require long periods of training, often within higher education. Professionals are able to apply these knowledge based skills constructively and intelligently according to the rules governing the conduct of the profession. Additionally, Hoyle (ibid) suggests that professionals are able to work autonomously and be responsible for the application of professional judgement. Ingersoll and Merrill (2011) identify the important qualities that distinguish professions from other kinds of occupations as the degree of expertise and complexity involved in the work such that:

> …professional work involves highly complex sets of skills, intellectual functioning and knowledge that are not easily acquired and not widely held. For this reason, professions are often referred to as the "knowledge based" occupations. (ibid, p. 187).

In their study of 16 experienced FE practitioners, Gleeson and James (2007) explored the perceptions and experiences of professionalism. The study was part of the Transforming Learning Cultures in Further Education (TLC) project which was a longitudinal study over 4 years of 16 FE sites which aimed to achieve a deeper understanding of the complexities of learning and to identify, implement and evaluate strategies for the improvement of learning opportunities. Gleeson and James (2007) found that the participants in the TLC project held a strong collective view of the need for a relational understanding of professionals and their knowledge. Most of the participants had technical skills and qualifications and many had substantial industrial, commercial or public sector experience directly related to what they were teaching (ibid). They also found that:

> There was a great deal of complaint and disillusionment among participant tutors around some of the key attributes associated with professional status—with pay, regimes of audit and inspection, declining resources, lack of recognition of expertise, reduced autonomy through performance management and so forth (ibid, p456).

Whilst the participants did see themselves as professionals and did value the obligations and responsibilities that came with being regarded as a professional, it is interesting to note that there were complaints which reflected the lack of support and recognition they perceived from others. The study concludes that for any new models of professional practice to operate they will need to recognise the tensions, contradictions and paradoxes that surround FE practitioners' work. These comments are particularly relevant to this research as they highlight that the professionals not only view themselves as providing services, as described above, but they also recognise that they are operating in an environment of performance management that potentially constrains them as professionals. For the purpose of this study the definition of a professional will be based on Hoyle and John (1995) and Ingersoll and Merrill (2011), such that a professional is an individual who is able to work autonomously, is responsible for the application of professional judgement and conducts work that involves highly complex set of skills, intellectual functioning and knowledge that are not easily acquired and not widely held. The next section builds on this definition and explores a model of the teacher as a professional.

2.3 Teaching Professional

Squires (1999, p. 9), explored seven different paradigms of teaching and critiques each in terms of strengths and limitations; they were: teaching as a common-sense activity; teaching as an art; teaching as a craft; teaching as an applied science; teaching as a system; teaching as reflective practice; and teaching as competence. Whilst he recognised that each of these was an important paradigm, with its own substantial literature he asserted, that no one paradigm manifested itself in pure or discrete form, but rather in the messy, semi-conscious and eclectic use that characterises much of teaching practice. The term paradigm was used in the context of describing not only the way in which something was conceptualised or viewed, but the whole package of beliefs, values, attitudes and practices that goes along with that view. In order to be considered a profession Squires (1999) argued that professional work in any domain should have three basic characteristics; it should be:

> ... instrumental, in the sense of aiming at some effect beyond itself; contingent in that it is dependent upon its situation or context; and procedural, in that it involves certain ways of doing things (1999, p 24).

In terms of professional work, these three basic characteristics can be considered to have captured the qualities mentioned by Elliott (1972, p. 118) 'working for the common good' (instrumental), Ingersoll and Merrill (2011, p. 187) 'highly complex sets of skills, intellectual functioning and knowledge' (procedural) and Hoyle (1995, p. 289) 'application of professional judgement' (contingent). Not content with the limitations of each of the paradigms, Squires proposed a new paradigm, that of teaching as a professional activity. He alleged that it offers a more comprehensive and balanced view that will also help relate to other professions. In order to provide detail to the proposed paradigm, Squires (1999, p. 28) proposed three questions that can be asked of all professions, using teaching as an example these were: What do teachers do? (instrumentality); What affects what they do? (contingency); How do they do it? (procedurality). With the answers to these questions he proposed a 3-dimensional model with axes of Functions (instruments), Procedures (procedurality) and Variables (contingency). The model represented teaching at a macro level (analysing the course) and a micro level (analysing the class) to reflect what a teacher does. Figure 2.1 is a representation of the model and it should be noted that it represents both the micro and macro models with the axes labelled.
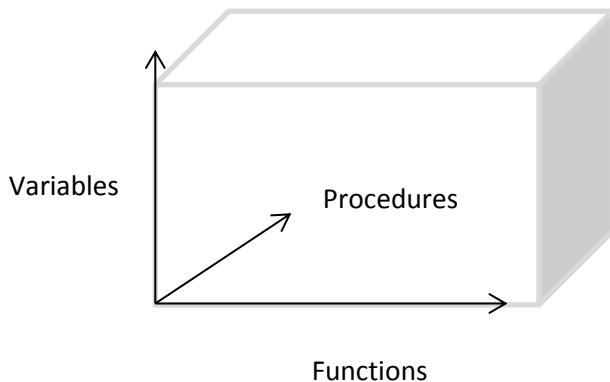
Figure 2-1 Representation of Squires's Model of Teaching as a Discipline

The constituent components of each axis for the macro and micro models are listed in Table 2.1. One of the potential flaws in Squires's model is that it doesn't explicitly detail the requirement for subject and pedagogical knowledge, this is inferred through the components of each axes. From an output based perception, the model details what a teacher does in order to deliver a programme of study, a course or a lesson, and it leaves for interpretation the knowledge base that support these. This model also neglects to consider expectations, professional values and attitudes. These will be addressed later in this chapter as the literature on professional identity is reviewed.

	Macro Model – Course or programme level			Micro Model – Lesson Level		
	Functions	Variables	Procedures	Functions	Variables	Procedures
Questions to clarify the meaning of the axes.	What a taught course provides.	What affects the planning and delivery of a course?	What tasks and stages are required in running a course?	What the teacher brings to the classroom.	Why, what, who and where of teaching a single lesson.	What methods and techniques are used in teaching a lesson?
	Select	Rationale	Analysis	Motivate	Rationale	Presentation
	Induct	Content	Proposal	Audit	Content	Demonstration
	Manage	Process	Design	Orientate	Process	Discussion
	Resource	Level	Marketing	Input	Level	Simulation
	Teach	Participants	Organisation	Explain	Group	Practical
	Model	Staff	Enrolment	Explore	Individual	Supervision
	Counsel	Clients	Delivery	Reflect	Self	Placement
	Interact	Social setting	Assessment	Task	Social setting	Assignment
	Environ	Physical setting	Evaluation	Feedback	Physical setting	Project
	Accredit		Development	Reinforce		Question and answer
		Organisational setting			Organisational setting	

Table 2-1 Constituent components for the axes on the Macro and Micro models for Squires's (2005) models of 'Teaching as a Discipline'

Talbot (2004), in his critique of a competency model promoted in medical training in the UK, suggests Squires's model as an alternate approach as it captures the holistic aspects of medical

practice in terms of procedures, functions and variables, rather than the competence approach which tends to address procedures and variables.

Whitehead (2000) embraces the three questions which formed the three dimensions of Squire's model, but wishes to distance himself from the proposed paradigm of teaching as a professional discipline. Whitehead (ibid), sees educational values as intrinsic to his teaching in the way that Squires (1999), sees educational aims as being achieved through the process of teaching.

Squires (2005) suggests that the existing literature on the professions divides into two main types; the historical and sociological analysis and the psychological analysis on expertise. The historical and sociological analysis explores the nature of professions as organisations and how they relate to one another, the client and the state. The psychological analysis views the process by which novices become experts. Both of these views are relevant and important to this study and are investigated in this literature review. Through a historical and social lens, it is possible to understand the relationship between the lecturers' views as professionals and the pressures that have been imposed on the sector by organisations and successive governments. It is important to study how the sector has been affected by social trends over the last twenty years in order to appreciate why issues regarding professional identity exist and are worthy of research, this recognises the work of Gleeson and James (2007) and a more holistic view of what it means to be a professional. However, before that, the literature is reviewed through a psychological lens to investigate the question of how novices become experts and how this is viewed in terms of professionalism and professional knowledge.

2.4   How a Professional Develops

Ingersoll and Merrill (2011, p. 191) Ingersoll and Merrill (2011, p. 191) consider that professionals are experts in whom substantial authority is vested and professions are marked by a large degree of self-governance. They continue:

The rationale behind professional authority is to place substantial levels of control into the hands of the experts—those who are closest to and most knowledgeable of the work. (ibid, p. 191).

The difference between novice and expert has been widely discussed and the differences, or progression through a continuum, have been modelled extensively (Dreyfus and Dreyfus, 1986; Eraut, 1994; Kolodner, 1983; Schön, 1987). Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) produced a model of skills acquisition in which learning from experience is the central feature of this model. Eraut (1994), acknowledges the worth of this model, but criticises the fact that learning from experience has been idealised and psychological research in the fallibility of human judgement ignored. The Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) model describes the various stages of development from novice to

expert in terms of the behavioural characteristics of the individual and the behavioural markers that indicate the level of expertise. As professionals gain experience and additional training, their professional decision-making becomes more intuitive, less easy to explain, less stepped and more instinctive. In these terms, an expert has knowledge, can apply it and make appropriate decisions based on his or her application of that knowledge, (Gossman, 2008). It should be noted that in the Dreyfus' model, competent is the mid-point and as Eraut (1994) notes:

The pathway to competence is characterized mainly by the ability to recognise features of practical situations and to discriminate between them, to carry out routine procedures under pressure and to plan ahead. Competence is the climax of rule-guided learning and discovering how to cope in crowded, pressurised contexts. (p. 125).

The technical-rational approach to professionals' development was considered by many as the norm during the greater part of the twentieth century (Cheetham and Chivers, 2005). This approach was based on the concept that professionals practice and apply theory, they put into practice the knowledge they have gained through formally taught courses. Schön (1996) describes this approach as:

> ...the view of professional knowledge which has most powerfully shaped both our thinking about the professions and the Institutional relations of research, education and practice – professional activity consists of instrumental problem solving made rigorous by the application of scientific theory and technique. Although all occupations are concerned, in this view, with the instrumental adjustment of means to ends, only the professions practice rigorously technical problem solving based on specialised scientific knowledge. (p. 8).

Schön (1996) is critical of the technical rationality model of professional knowledge and offers his alternative theory, which places an emphasis on professionals' intuitive capacity to reconceptualise a situation or reframe a problem. Eraut (1994), comments on the lack of any definition, in Schön (1987), of reflection in action and argues that there is insufficient discrimination between the different forms of reflection depicted, and this overgeneralization causes confusion and weakens his theoretical interpretations. Eraut (1994), goes on to liken reflection as a metacognitive process in which the practitioner is alerted to a problem, rapidly reads the situation, decides what to do, and proceeds in a state of continuing alertness. This description identifies the intuitive processes that form part of professional knowledge and its application. Hammond's (1980) Cognitive Continuum Theory, defines analytical and intuitive thinking as poles of a continuum and argues that most thinking lies somewhere between the two. Studies, (Boreham, 1987; Elstein and Bordage, 1979), have been carried out that show analytical and intuitive approaches are combined in problem solving. The transformation of declarative (knowing that), to procedural (knowing how) knowledge is seen by some (Kolodner, 1983; Johnson and Leach, 2001) as the key factor that distinguishes experts from novices. Johnson and

Leach (2001) argue that, in general, experts possess knowledge and skills in a specific domain and this information is often viewed as being procedural in nature. They take this forward and describe the performance of an expert as faster, more accurate and less cognitively challenging than the performance of those with less competence. They add that:

> This results in the appearance of performance that is guided by intuition. In truth, the individual relies on seeking out meaningful patterns and deep principled reasoning that remain hidden from the eye of the casual observer (p 426).

Burch's (1970), often-quoted model of progressive competence, cited in Boak and Thompson, 1998; Cheetham and Chivers, 2005; and Howell, 1982, tries to identify how individuals progress through four stages of a continuum to achieve expertise:

> unconscious incompetence – individuals do not recognise their own weaknesses or competence gaps;

> conscious incompetence – individuals will be aware of their own weaknesses or competence gaps but will not (yet) have overcome these;

> conscious competence – individuals will be able to perform effectively in the area concerned but will need to make a conscious effort to do so;

> unconscious competence – individuals will be able to perform effectively without any conscious or apparent effort.

> (Cheetham and Chivers, 2005, p. 161)

The concept of progression from novice to expert in terms of knowledge acquisition has attracted much debate and, in the literature reviewed, there is considerable agreement that as an individual develops towards being an expert their application of knowledge tends to become more intuitive in nature. This is relevant to this study as, following the review of 'what is a professional' in section 2.1 of this literature review, the ability to apply judgement and conduct of work using a highly complex set of skills and knowledge was found to be at the centre of being a professional. In section 2.3 the complexity of these skills and knowledge was represented in Squires's (2005) model of teaching as a discipline. When these are considered alongside how knowledge develops it indicates the complexity of how a professional develops. Furlong and Maynard (1995) in their study with student teachers found that as they develop from novice to professional educator they appear to pass through a number of stages. These stages were characterised as 'early idealism', 'personal survival', 'dealing with difficulties', 'hitting the plateau' and 'moving on'. As the student teachers progressed through the stages, they developed from an idealised vision of what it meant to be a teacher to thinking and acting like a professional teacher (Furlong and Maynard, 1995). Maynard (2001) suggests that these stages are not described by the students thinking about different things in each stage rather, that they thought about the same things but in different ways, so that their knowledge and experience eventually achieved a

balanced perspective. Of particular relevance to my study was their finding that in the early stages, the students' actions and beliefs were heavily based on their own past beliefs and their vision of the future.

Fitts (1986), proposed a three-stage model of skill learning which takes the individual from an initial cognitive stage to an autonomous stage, where the individual is able to perform the skill automatically without any need to monitor consciously the steps and sequences of the skill. Cornford and Athanasou (1995), compare Fitts's model against Dreyfus and Dreyfus's model of professional expertise. The comparison is repeated in Table 2.2 for reference, with a third column added comparing the model of progressive competence. The third column, (model of progressive competence), was added, based on my interpretation of how it compared to the other two models. The lines separating each stage of the third column were determined by considering the other two columns and how they compared with Burch's model. By referring to Gossman (2008), Johnson and Leach (2001) and Kolodner (1983), among others, I am content that the separation lines in the third column are in the appropriate position and reflect the literature review, so that when comparing it with the previous two, there is a high degree of commonality across the rows. The term 'competence', has diverse meaning and is a contested term. In a behavioural approach (Boyatzis, 1982; McClelland, 1973; Spencer and Spencer, 1993; White, 1959) competencies were derived from superior performance and being competent was seen as the pinnacle of achievement. Whereas, from a functional perspective, competence identifies the knowledge and skills required to be effective in a job and is no longer the pinnacle of achievement, but is viewed as a midway point (Aragon and Johnson, 2002; Boon and Van der Klink, 2002; Lucia and Lepsinger, 1999). Using a functional perspective and reading across the table, a competent individual is able to identify and plan tasks, follow standardised and routine processes, be responsible for their actions and is able to perform effectively in the area concerned but needs to make a conscious effort to do so. An expert can be viewed as an individual who has an intuitive grasp of situations based on deep tacit understanding, has mastered the relevant knowledge base, no longer relies on rules, guidelines or maxims, and only resorts to analytical approaches when confronted with novel situations or problems. These statements are output-based and assume that the individual who is being described as competent or expert has the required knowledge, skills and experience to meet these output-based statements.

Ingersoll and Merrill (2011) consider a professional to be an expert; however, from the description above, and the contents of Table 2.2, it is more likely that a professional will possess the competences described somewhere between competent and expert (Dreyfus and Dreyfus 1986), will be autonomous (Fitts 1986) and be between conscious competence and unconscious competence (Cheetham and Chivers 2005). The distinction suggested here, between a professional and an expert, allows for the observations that professional knowledge is not fixed

but situated in a recurring set of unstable conditions (Gleeson and Knights, 2006) and the professional adapts accordingly without experiencing the pressure of being an expert at all times. A professional will have, it is suggested, a blend of declarative, procedural and tacit knowledge that will change and develop as the individual develops through experience and their own agency.

Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) model of professional expertise	Fitts' (1986) model of skill learning	Burch (1970) model of progressive competence
Novice a stage for gaining experience responses are relatively inflexible rules and procedures govern performance skills are 'context free' have trouble interpreting events.	**Cognitive** trainees have to develop an overall plan trainees analyse tasks trainees verbalise about what is learned, what to expect and what to do is emphasised procedures are described information is provided about errors.	unconscious incompetence – individuals do not recognise their own weaknesses or competence gaps
Advanced beginner similarities across contexts are recognised episodic knowledge is built up knowledge about when to ignore rules is developed no sense of what is important.	**Practice fixation** establishment of correct patterns of behaviour by practice errors are gradually eliminated.	conscious incompetence – individuals will be aware of their own weaknesses or competence gaps but will not (yet) have overcome these
Competence makes conscious choices about what they are going to do sets priorities and decide on plans determines what is and what is not important		conscious competence – individuals will be able to perform effectively in the area concerned but will need to make a conscious effort to do so

knows what to attend and what to ignore more personally in control feels more responsibility for what happens more vivid memories of their successes and failures.		
Proficient intuition and know how become important no longer thinks about adjustments recognises similarities between events able to predict events more precisely intuitive but options are still analysed.	**Autonomous** gradually increasing speed of performance performance increases beyond point where errors can be ordinarily detected increasing resistance to stress increasing resistance to interference from other activities available capacity to perform a secondary simultaneous task larger and larger units of behaviour are programmed.	
Expert intuitive grasp of a situation reduces variation in a situation chooses to process less of what they encounter performance is fluid and effortless seems to know what to do at the right time involved in the task in a different way not consciously choosing what to do personal references and evaluations in performance.		unconscious competence – individuals will be able to perform effectively without any conscious or apparent effort.

Table 2.2 – Comparison of skill development models. Adapted from Cheetham and Chivers (2005), Cornford and Athanasou (1995) and Own analysis.

In the previous section, Squires's model described teaching as professional work and assumed the subject and pedagogical knowledge were implicit in the model. The discussion that followed reviewed the literature regarding the transition from novice to expert and resulted in the comparison of skill models as identified in table 2.2. This is relevant to the study as the literature review has considered a proposed model of what a lecturer does and then reviewed the literature to explore what is understood in terms of the level of knowledge and skills a professional is considered to have. These perspectives challenge the view that professionals are experts

(Ingersoll and Merrill, 2011) and proposes that the level of knowledge and skills that a professional has, in their domain, lies somewhere between competent and expert.

When the levels of knowledge are considered along with Squire's (1999) three-dimensional model of teaching as a professional activity, the complexity and range of the activities, when describing a professional can start to be appreciated.

The next section builds on this and reviews the literature concerning the various perceptions of professionalism and identifies contrasts and similarities with the notion of expertise.

2.5   Perceptions of Professionalism

The perceptions of professionalism have changed over the last few decades, especially in the public sector, where demands for greater accountability and results have been characterised by the call for performance management and workforce reform, including audit and inspection (Day and Smethem, 2009; Evetts, 2009; Robson, 1998; Ryan and Bourke, 2013). Common throughout the public sector are issues regarding the funding, delivery and management of services within an environment of reduced public funding, national austerity and increasing market competition and public choice. HE and FE Institutions operate within the 'new' public management where practitioners have come to be regarded as licensed deliverers of nationally produced materials, targets and provision (Gleeson, Davies and Wheeler, 2005). The introduction of competition has resulted in Institutions seeking efficiencies in their use of resources and pursuing increased effectiveness, measured by management tools, such as quantitative performance indicators and objective standards. Shain and Gleeson (1999) comment that this puts pressure on lecturers to focus on the organisational culture such as flexibility, multi-skilling as opposed to acting autonomously and in the best interests of the learner. Simkins and Lumby (2002) note that this has led to the employment of less skilled and consequently more cost-effective 'technician' or 'tutor' grade staff functioning as lecturers but on a lower pay. Spenceley (2006, p. 299) posits that the result of this is that:

> ...the role of the specialist educator has been eroded, changing from subject specialist to subject manager, expected to facilitate the delivery of subject-specific qualifications and skills which form a part of, rather than being the entire focus of, the whole curriculum, which are complemented by a range of more generic (but often well-funded) 'study skills'.

Gleeson et al (2005 p. 452) state:

> … in between such different notions of flexibility and permeability two contrasting views of professionalism predominate. The first perceives professionals as subject to external rules and constraints and, the second, as agents with power to define their own conditions of work. While the former denotes issues of structure (professionalism), in

terms of how the professional is conditioned by material changes in working practices, the latter focuses on agency in the way professionals construct meaning and identity (professionality, e.g. through resistance, compliance, creative engagement) in the often paradoxical and contradictory conditions of their work (Hoyle & John, 1995; Ball, 2003).

In this reference, Gleeson et al (ibid) neatly capture the dichotomy of professionalism that has been recognised by many authors including Day and Smethem (2009) and Spenceley (2006) and may reflect the views of lecturing staff at the MET Institution. The balance between the wishes of the individual and the organisation are not always going to coincide and it is envisaged that this may be an influencing factor in this study.

Bathmaker and Avis (2013), drawing on Evetts (2009), consider four different discourses of professionalism to be relevant to their longitudinal study of three novice further education lecturers; these are:

organisational professionalism;

occupational professionalism;

critical professionalism; and

personal professionalism.

Evetts (2009 p. 248) identifies organisational professionalism and occupational professionalism as two different, contrasting and ideal forms of professionalism in work that is knowledge-based. She describes organisational professionalism as:

> ... being manifested through a discourse of control which incorporates rational-legal forms of authority and hierarchical structures of responsibility and decision making. It involves increasingly standardized work procedures and practices, consistent with managerialist controls. It also relies on external forms of regulation and accountability measures, such as target-setting and performance review. Professional discourse at work is used by managers, practitioners and customers as a form of occupational control, motivation and expectation (ibid. p. 248).

Bathmaker and Avis (2013) citing Ball (1999 p. 9) argue that organisational professionalism acts to redefine the work and values of lecturers as it requires a conscious alliance with corporate aims of the Institution resulting in the acceptance of performance indicators, competition, comparison and responsiveness. In contrast to this Evetts (2009) identifies occupational professionalism as:

> ...manifested by a discourse constructed within professional occupational groups, one which incorporates collegial authority. It involves relations where in employers and clients trust practitioners. Thus, authority – not control – is based on practitioner autonomy, discretionary judgment, assessment, particularly in complex cases. Such authority depends on common and lengthy systems of education and vocational training and the development of strong occupational identities and work cultures. Any controls are operationalized by practitioners themselves, guided by codes of professional ethics monitored by professional institutes and associations (ibid. p. 248).

Evetts (2009) points out that each of these 'ideal type' models is an extreme form, actual cases will fall somewhere in between. She gives the example of social workers adopting occupational professionalism, in the best interest of the clients, whilst working in a system where organisational professionalism is the dominant form. While Bathmaker and Avis (2013) recognise occupational professionalism as typical of traditional understandings of a profession they also point out that there are weaknesses in the model especially regarding the dual identities of lecturers in further education. Referring to Robson (1998) they state that lecturers in further education value their previous occupational identity over their identity as a lecturer, it is their previous vocation where they draw their credibility from. This is understandable and is one of the areas for this research to focus on; it is discussed further in the next section that looks at dual professionalism. Bathmaker and Avis (2013) conducted a longitudinal study of five novice lecturers in the English FE sector. The study was conducted over an eight year period (2002 – 2010) and the interviews were analysed using a narrative approach. The study explored the construction of lecturer identity against a background of significant changes to public sector professionalism. The study found that the discourse of occupational professionalism was weak and there was little sign of critical professionalism which, against a background of insecure employment, limited the ability of novice staff to establish relations of trust with more experienced staff (Bathmaker and Avis, 2012, p.743). In addition, whilst the discourse of personal professionalism was strong, the participants were highly vulnerable to the pressures of organisational professionalism and, in one case, found it easier to follow what Wenger (1998) describes as an outbound trajectory which resulted in the individual leaving the organisation. As a result of the study, Bathmaker and Avis (2013) recognise that there is a pressing need to find ways that practitioners can engage critically and reflexively with issues that are important to their practice. In order to facilitate this, and, in order to construct a more democratic form of professionalism, they argue that a focus on pedagogic practices could be a basis for reworking professionalism with lecturers.

Bathmaker and Avis (2013) identify a number of examples of alternative visions for critical professionalism, these include: democratic professionalism (Whitty 2000); postmodern professionalism (Hargreaves 2000); dialogic professionalism (Gleeson, Davies and Wheeler 2005); and radical educational professionalism (Avis 2010). Bathmaker and Avis (2012, p. 12) point out that these alternative visions share a concern for a more just and fair educational system, which would require more expansive and democratically open forms of professionalism and professional practice.

The fourth discourse of professionalism identified in Bathmaker and Avis (2012, p. 6) is personal professionalism that includes a commitment to students and to the specialist field. The nature of this professionalism is one where the lecturers' knowledge, competence and performance are

properties of the individual and may result in tensions when the discourse is about organisational professionalism.

Whilst most authors, writing about professionalism in the education sector, appear to recognise tensions between the professional and managerialist paradigms, Simkins and Lumby (2002) provide a note of caution regarding over-simplifying the issue. For instance, they argue that it is not true that the discourse of the traditional professional paradigm, in education, focuses on the needs of the student, whilst that of the managerialist does not. In addition, they perceive the distinction between the managers and lecturing staff as becoming blurred, and warn that it is dangerous to generalise about the nature of changes which colleges are experiencing. Muzio, Brock and Suddaby (2013) also recognise these issues and recommend adopting an Institutional lens to study professions which will address such issues as Institutional pressures, maintenance and change. This recommendation arose as the authors observed that previous academic studies have had a tendency to treat professionalism, managerialism and entrepreneurship not only as distinct, but also as opposing and mutually exclusive logics (Muzio et al, 2013, p.702). Whitty (2000) recognises that there is a need for a new form of professionalism which meets the needs in a society that has changed in the last thirty years. Democratic professionalism, (Whitty, 2000, p. 292) seeks to demystify professional work and build alliances between lecturers and excluded constituencies of students, parents and members of the community.

The discussion regarding personal professionalism raised by Bathmaker and Avis (2013) reflects the findings of Clow (2001), who, in her study of twelve full time FE lecturers, found, that in answering a question regarding professionalism, almost as many different ideas of professionalism emerged as there were participants. It is interesting that among these ideas of professionalism; a number arose that were either entirely or partly based on the individual's previous profession, for example:

> The 'Ex-officio' and 'Vocational Standards' models of professionalism are constructs that would be unlikely to be found in schoolteachers. They emphasise the fact that many FE teachers are already qualified and experienced in other disciplines before they decide to teach. They still adhere to the values of their previous work and are often reluctant to embark on teacher training programmes (Clow 2001, p. 416).

This is consistent with other studies of professionalism in the sector (Anning, 2001; Spenceley, 2006) where personal knowledge predominantly comprises of that gained from the skills and experience of a previous occupation rather than pedagogical knowledge gained from teacher training programmes. This will be discussed in more detail in the next section and its implications to this study will be drawn out.

The many studies of professionalism identified in the preceding paragraphs have produced almost as many definitions of professionalism. However, the underlying factors that appear to be

constant in the definitions are the tensions perceived between the individuals' views as professionals and the view that organisations have of their professionals and the services they expect from them. This is succinctly captured by the two contrasting forms of professionalism, described by Evetts (2009), which are occupational professionalism and organisational professionalism. They are the clearest, and in my view, the most relevant to this study. Whilst it is understood that Evetts (2009) describes these in their ideal forms, almost in direct opposition to each other, it is appreciated that the differences between the two views may change depending on the individual and the organisation. Evetts's (2009) description also captures the views of Spenceley (2006) and Gleeson et al (2005), described earlier in this section. The intention is not to dismiss the other views of professionalism but to use the definitions of Evetts (2009) as clear and common understandings of professionalism on which to base the study.

2.6   Dual Professionalism

This section explores the term 'dual professionalism' as it applies to lecturers in the FE and HE sectors. In Spencely (2006) the McNair Report (1944) is identified as the origin that associates the FE sector with vocational knowledge and skills training. In the report, the need for lecturers within the sector to maintain up-to-date subject competence and skills based knowledge, rather than developing teaching ability, was stressed. In separate studies, Hoyle (1995) and Chappell (1999) have noted the 'dual professionalism' of lecturers in FE and, as they have acknowledged the need for the lecturers to maintain their occupational knowledge, they have also commented that it is often at the expense of pedagogic knowledge. Spencely (2006, p 294) notes that:

> …the allegiance of the individual practitioner often remains primarily with their initial profession thus reinforcing the division of FE into disciplines associated with various skills and trades.

Equally in HE, Nixon (1996) whilst discussing a crisis of professional identity among university lecturers in the UK cites Piper (1992) as arguing that the role of university lecturer is Janus-faced in terms of their identity as lecturers and their identity as subject specialists.

Orr and Simmons (2010) conducted a small-scale qualitative study of two human resource managers, four lecturer educators and twenty trainee lecturers from two FE colleges in the North of England. The aim of the study was to explore the tension and symbiosis deriving from the dual roles of trainee lecturers. By dual roles, Orr was referring to the fact that the trainee lecturers were, at the time of the study, undertaking a part-time lecturer qualification and were also employed as lecturers. The study found that the trainee lecturers experienced a tension between the two roles of trainee and lecturer. In fact, the identity of lecturer was stronger among the sample group than that of trainee. Orr and Simmons (2010 p. 18) concluded that from a position

where the perception that in FE, vocational expertise was sufficient and pedagogic expertise was optional, there was a perception that, to some extent, learning to teach is a bureaucratic exercise.

The Institute for Learning (2012) conducted a study of over 10,000 members regarding professional identity and what professionalism means to lecturers in the FE sector. As a result of the study, the IfL (2012) published a paper on professionalism which promoted a model of lecturer and trainer professionalism in further education and skills with three fundamental tenets, these were:

> The highest standards for teaching, training and learning, supported by the professional body over a career;
>
> The learners' and public interest is central;
>
> Professionals uphold ethical values. (p. 2).

These tenets were supported by further bullet points, of which particular interest to this section is the first bullet point under tenet 1; it reads that professional education and training practitioners:

> …are dual professionals, having deep knowledge, conceptual understanding and expertise in teaching and learning processes and contexts for diverse learners matched with expert subject knowledge and skills. (p. 2)

Whilst this would certainly underpin the notion of dual professionalism and appears to be a worthy claim based on a survey of its members, it is somewhat at odds with other research in this area, albeit a number of small scale research reports. Robson (2005) identifies that many staff enter FE as lecturers after having had a previous career, bringing with them academic and vocational skills and experience. These lecturers bring with them their existing work identities. It is these skills and experience that give them the expertise and credibility in their teaching role. MacNeil (1997), in a small scale study of qualified and experienced nurses who had become lecturers in HE, identified that the now experienced lecturers had experienced role ambiguity by the 'troublesome duality' of trying to be a nurse practitioner as well as a lecturer. Boyd (2010) found that newly appointed lecturers in the professional fields of lecturer and nursing trainer tended to hold onto existing identities as practitioners, rather than embracing new identities as academics. In recognising the presence of dual professionalism, Avis and Bathmaker (2006, p. 176) identify the issue of "fractured professionalism" which, they describe, reflects the way in which the FE workforce is fractured and diversified as a result of the varied vocational cultures from which lecturers are drawn. This, they argue, is a weak bulwark against the inroads of managerialism and performativity as it weakens any collective notion of professionalism among lecturers (Avis and Bathmaker, 2006, p. 176). Many academics see this split of personal knowledge in lecturers as problematic when trying to agree a definition of professionalism. The descriptions of a professional identified earlier in this Chapter (Elliott, 1972; Hoyle and John, 1995) along with other authors (Carr, 2002; Clow, 2001; Freidson, 2001; Winch, 2004; Wilkinson,

2005) agree that a codified body of knowledge is acknowledged as an essential dimension of a profession (Spenceley, 2006). However, in a sector that is so diverse, and the immense scope of teaching, covers academic and vocational subjects at levels ranging from NVQ Level 3 to Doctorates, then the knowledge required by the lecturer is divided between specialist subject area and pedagogical content knowledge.

In an attempt to address the many diverse views of professionalism in the sector, Plowright and Barr (2012), calling on the work of Freidson (2001), propose a new integrated professionalism which draws upon phronesis: wise, practical reasoning, based on judgement and wisdom. In articulating their proposal, they develop the argument using Freidson's three aspects of his 'Third Logic' model to address the issue regarding knowledge, these are:

Autonomy;

A body of specialised knowledge and skill;

Transcendent values.

Plowright and Barr (2012, p. 8) recognise that the need to have a body of specialised knowledge would seem to be of paramount importance for the claim to be a profession. However, they criticise the IfL's claim that FE lecturers have two bodies of knowledge through their dual professionalism: specialist academic or vocational knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. They cite Winch (2004) who criticises the notion of pedagogical knowledge as meeting the requirements of a profession's body of knowledge. Winch (2004, p. 189) argues that a body of knowledge (pedagogical knowledge), that is divorced of content and context, does not meet the requirement of a profession. In addition, he draws attention to the fact that lecturers have a body of knowledge to convey to their students within an ethical framework and that they cannot just do their job by displaying practical wisdom in their dealings with students and other people, but need to display skill in teaching, and in getting students to learn. He is also critical of the term 'phronesis', as used by Carr (2002) in that it is a kind of ethical knowledge or practical wisdom that does not fit the model of applied theory. However, Plowright and Barr (2012), in their proposed model of professionalism, attempt to overcome Winch's concern by viewing pedagogical knowledge, in terms of phronesis, and specialised subject knowledge as intertwined and co-dependent and not separate and parallel as indicated in the dual professionalism description of the IfL.

This notion that the pedagogical and the specialised subject knowledge are intertwined is a model of dual professionalism that appears to be relevant to the lecturers in this study and supports the latest initiatives in both FE and HE as discussed in section 1.5 of this study. As the specialised subject knowledge is usually developed prior to the pedagogical knowledge, the pedagogical

knowledge is developed in the context of the specialised subject knowledge. It is suggested that the development of these two intertwined bodies of knowledge help to differentiate between an engineer, for example, and a lecturer of engineering and contrasts with the initial concept that a lecturer only requires the specialised subject knowledge as described by McNair (1944).

The next section narrows the review down to that concerned with the individual and professional identity, what it is and the issues regarding it. The aim is to identify the agreed components of professional identity which will enable an investigation into the perception of professional identity by lecturers at the MET and more specifically, how it is viewed in terms of expertise and professionalism.

2.7   Professional Identity

The importance of professional identity in lecturer development has been highlighted by a number of studies (Bathmaker and Avis, 2005; Izadinia, 2012; Fejes and Köpsén, 2014; Köpsén, 2014; Sachs, 2005; Swennen, Jones and Volman, 2010; Trede, Macklin and Bridges, 2012; Wilkins et al., 2012). Whilst many of the studies have looked at the development of professional identity from the perspectives of student lecturers, the findings are also relevant to lecturers who are already qualified and may experience further identity shifts throughout their career as a result of interactions with schools and in broader communities (Beauchamp and Thomas, 2009). Unlike professionalism, which can be used to describe the behaviour of a group as perceived by those either in the group or outside the group, professional identity has been defined as the perception of oneself as a professional and it is closely related to the knowledge and skills one has, the work one does, and the work related to significant others (Robson, 1998). However, since this definition was produced, professional identity has been the subject of much research and has been defined differently or not at all. For example, Olsen (2015) describes how professional identity can be an analytical lens in which to study lecturers, their interaction and how they integrate the influences they are subjected to. MacLure (1993, p. 311) sees professional identity as a "resource that people use to explain, justify and make sense of themselves in relation to others, and to the world at large". Cohen (2008, p. 80) is of the view that "teachers' identities are central to the beliefs, values and practices that guide their engagement, commitment, and actions in and out of the classroom" and consider that it is important to:

> ... develop a range of tools for understanding and articulating the complexity of teacher identity experiences, to better understand the relationship between teacher identity and the theory and practice of teaching. (p. 80).

Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop (2004) conducted a review of research into lecturers' professional identity and reviewing literature over a period of 12 years, from 1988 to 2000, they found 22 studies applicable to their research. Based on these studies, they found four features that, in their view, are essential for lecturers' professional identity, these were:

> Professional identity is an ongoing process of interpretation and re-interpretation of experiences (Kerby, 1991);

> Professional identity implies both person and context;

> A teacher's professional identity consists of sub-identities that more or less harmonize;

> Agency is an important element of professional identity, meaning that teachers have to be active in the process of professional development (Beijaard et al, 2004, p. 122).

They do, however, acknowledge that there were still difficulties in defining professional identity, particularly regarding the concepts of 'self' and 'identity' (Beijaard et al, 2004, p. 124).

The role of 'self' and its relationship with identity has become a key part of the process of describing 'professional identity'. The early work of Mead (1934) is cited by both Beauchamp and Thomas (2009) and Beijaard et al (2004) as forming the foundation for the discussion regarding the distinction between 'I' and 'me' as two important components of self from a social behaviourist's point of view. The 'I' is the active component of self: through reflection, the 'I' articulates thoughts. 'Me' is the identity that the I-self develops. Nias (1987) argues that 'identity' forms part of 'self' and as 'identity' changes then 'self' changes. Beauchamp and Thomas (2009), in their review of literature on understanding lecturer identity, agree the importance of looking at identity through the self and through the profession. This, they argue, can help in terms of lecturer development. To develop this further Gee (2000) identified four perspectives in which to view identity as an analytical lens; institution, discourse, affinity and nature. The institution perspective is based on the individual's position in an organisation or society. The rights and responsibilities that the organisation confers on that position translate to the individual. It is then how the individual projects those rights and responsibilities that affect their institutional identity. Similarly, discourse identity is how the individual projects an individual trait that has been recognised by others. As an example, Gee (2000) mentions how if someone is described as charismatic, then it is how the individual projects the trait and how it is recognised, discussed and treated by others that determines how charismatic the individual is. The affinity perspective is determined by how an individual shares allegiance to, access to and participation to a shared activity with other people. It is the practices, experiences and common endeavours that sustain the group affiliations. The final perspective is termed nature perspective and is described as natural identities that are recognised as meaningful to self and others and they constitute the kind of person the individual is. Whilst Gee (2000) recognises that these perspectives exist

together he contests that each can be used as an analytical lens. The perspectives of institution and affinity appear to be the most relevant to this study, as professional identity is based on the work that an individual does, the relationship with colleagues and others as described earlier in this section. White (2013), drawing on the work of Nias (1989) and Murray and Male (2005) describes the idea of substantive and situational self as a means of understanding the development of professional identity:

> The substantive self is based on core beliefs, often formed through life experiences, which are used to define who you are, whereas the situational self is established through relationships around us, in our context, and may be adapted in new circumstances (p.84)

In their study of 28 teacher educators in their first 3 years of working on Initial Teacher Education (ITE) courses in England, Murray and Male (ibid) considered the career transition from teacher to teacher educator to be complete when the two aspects of self were closely aligned. It was at this point, they suggest, that "...the new entrant feels competent in his/her job, thus experiencing feelings of ease and effectiveness with regards to the demand of the position" (p. 127). In their study they found that initially, with the majority of the new teacher educators, it could be considered that their substantive and situational self were aligned and therefore they felt confident. However, this alignment was based on their previous occupation that was developed over years of experience. The study went on to show that as the new teacher educators progressed with their course, they experienced stressful times, particularly in the first year where the substantial self of the new entrant had remained with their previous occupation as school teachers rather than as teacher educators. This was indicated by the students "...centring their credibility as teacher educators around their experiential knowledge" (Murray and Male, 2005, p. 135). The notion of substantive and situational self helps to explain how individuals build their own professional identity and come to terms with it based on their previous knowledge and experience. It supports other definitions, for example, Kerby (1991) states that professional identity relates to the interpretation and re-interpretation of experiences, it is easy to see that this has to start with the initial knowledge and experience of the individual as the substantive self. As the substantive self develops through the individual's agency and interaction with others, it is likely that the individual will become more confident and the substantive self and situational self will begin to align. This theory has a degree of resonance with Mead's (1934) notion of 'me' and 'I', and I suggest that Gee's (2000) institution and affinity perspectives could align with the situational self, and discourse and nature perspectives could align with substantial self. These alignments indicate a consistency in the theories that support the notion that professional identity does not exist on its own, it is very dependent on the individuals' previous knowledge, skills and experience and is therefore specific to each individual.

Sachs (2005, p. 15) definition also recognises the dynamic nature of professional identity:

> Teacher professional identity then stands at the core of the teaching profession. It provides a framework for teachers to construct their own ideas of 'how to be', 'how to act' and 'how to understand' their work and their place in society. Importantly, teacher identity is not something that is fixed, nor is it imposed; rather it is negotiated through experience and the sense that is made of that experience.

This is particularly relevant to this study as it provides a strong rationale for exploring lecturer professional identity. The identity developed by an individual is dependent on their experiences, their own perceptions and how these are negotiated. If lecturer professional identity stands at the core of the teaching profession then, it is suggested, it is incumbent to explore what pressures and issues influence lecturers and what measures, if any, can be employed to facilitate the professional development of lecturers.

Wenger (1998) argues that individuals develop an identity as they become a valid member of a community of practice, where learning happens in collaboration with others and through activities situated in that learning community. Professional identity is constantly negotiated and re-negotiated throughout an individual's working life as they go through successive forms of participation. Lave and Wenger (2002, p.115) define a community of practice as:

> ...a set of relations among persons, activity and world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice. A community of practice is an intrinsic condition for the existence of knowledge, not least because it provides the interpretive support necessary for making sense of its heritage. Thus, participation in the cultural practice in which any knowledge exists is an epistemological principle of learning. The social structure of this practice, its power relations and its conditions for legitimacy define possibilities for learning (i.e. for legitimate peripheral participation).

From this socio-cultural perspective, learning is seen to be an integral aspect of social activities within a community of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991). It is an inseparable process of identity formation as the individual gains the knowledge and competencies needed to develop their capability to participate in the joint enterprise of the community, as they strive to achieve the shared goals between individuals, other groups and the organisation. As the individual participates with the community they develop the competencies needed to engage in the shared repertoire which includes language, traditions, symbols and values. In this sense, identity is about belonging to and being a member of social practices (Fejes and Köpsén, 2014). The concept of learning trajectory is associated with socio-material practice rather than simply a life-story and refers to the gradual development of the individual as they develop their identity in practice.

In his comparison of Wenger's conceptualisation of a community of practice as opposed to the term community as used in sociology, Cox (2004, p.8) identifies the following:

- Whereas the general term of community has unqualified positive overtones, a community of practice can be harmonious or conflictual (Wenger, 1998).
- A community of practice has purpose whereas communities are seen as unpurposive.
- Connections in and with the community of practice are circumscribed by the enterprise, whereas community is seen as typically a total, a unity (Fox, 2002).
- A community of practice is a community of people who differ, having different skills and knowledge and 'mutually' defining identities, whereas communities are usually thought of as unstructured.

Whilst this is a useful attempt on which to separate the concept of a community of practice from the general term community as used in other groups, it has the potential to promote further debate rather than reduce it. For instance, a professional group of telecommunication engineers may argue that they have a common purpose of ensuring that telecommunication services are provided effectively and efficiently with no failures. However, for the purpose of this study, it serves little purpose to enter into the debate regarding the differences between a community of practice and other communities. Rather, the concept of a community of practice emphasizes the importance of learning in the formation of new knowledge and the interaction of individuals in negotiating their developing their identities. As an individual goes through successive forms of participation, their identities form trajectories, both within and across communities of practice, that have their own momentum, in addition to a field of influences (Wenger, 1998). In a similar way to Murray and Male (2005), Wenger (1998) makes a clear link between the personal and professional self, and argues (Wenger, 1998, p.149) that there is a connection between identity and practice and that they are mirror images of one another. Wenger (ibid p.149) identifies five characteristics that apply to both:

Identity as the negotiated experience of self;

Identity as community membership;

Identity as learning trajectory;

Identity as nexus of multi membership;

Identity as a relation between the local and the global.

There are common characteristics identified by Wenger (1998) to those identified by Beijaard et al. (2004). All agree that professional identity is an ongoing process that is negotiated and re-negotiated as a result of social interactions. Professional identity is context-based, but is not just local to a particular community; there is interplay on a global context also. Wenger (1998) identifies that learning trajectories are important in the development of identity and this is

supported by Beijaard et al. (2004) where they view agency as being important in the development of professional identity. This degree of accord provides a reliable foundation on which to research professional identity and to analyse the findings from a socio-cultural perspective. The majority of the studies identified in this section have either been focussed on lecturers in a FE or HE environment or on student lecturers. However, the study of professional identity among lecturers in the MET Institution is of equal importance, as it will help to understand the important aspects of lecturing in the tertiary education sector for a specific industry against a background of change and uncertainty. From a socio-cultural perspective, the issue will be researched by investigating the professional identities of the lecturers using the characteristics identified in this section by Beijaard et al. (2004) and Wenger (1998), against the notions of expertise, competence and professionalism identified earlier in this chapter. In the context of this study a community of practice relates to ten individuals who are co-located in adjacent offices, belong to different sections but support and interact with each other on a daily basis. Six of this group participated in this study. The next section explores a conceptual framework for the study to provide a theoretical overview of the intended research.

2.8   The Conceptual Framework of a Lecturer in FE and HE

As described in Chapter 1, the post-compulsory education sector has undergone major changes in the last twenty years and it is likely that further changes and reorganisations will continue to characterise the sector. It is suggested that the role of the lecturer, in both further education and higher education, has been affected by the changes to organisational culture, methods of working and the perspective of others with regard to the role of the lecturer. The pressure for organisations to achieve financial targets has created a working environment where business priorities appear to drive the organisation, rather than educational priorities. In vocational education, training objectives are prescribed through occupational standards which limit the way in which teaching can be delivered, for example;

> The trainer to learner ratio should not exceed 1:12....The training is to be provided as a full-time block course of not less than 35 hours of instruction and assessment, spread over five days. (MNTB, 2012, p.9)

Government policies imposed on the sector to raise its profile and drive professionalisation are also having an effect on the role of the lecturer. This section looks at the conceptual framework of a lecturer teaching in further and higher education against the background of political, sector and Institutional change.

Elliot (1998, p.165) proposes some ground rules for a new conceptualisation of teaching and, whilst these proposals are at least 18 years old, they are still relevant and provide useful guidance.

In order to be meaningful and valid for the practitioner, a new conceptualisation should be grounded in lecturers' own understanding and experience of their working practices, and it should adequately reflect the range of these practices, as well as their epistemological and ethical basis (Day and Pennington 1993 p. 251). It should reflect a phenomenological perspective towards organisations, which recognises the centrality of understanding individual's orientations (Maslow, 1954), and that 'organisations are to be understood in terms of people's beliefs about their behaviour within them' (Greenfield, 1981, p. 83). It should also be capable of supporting theoretical and political opposition to attempts to redefine practitioners' shared educational values (Avis, 1994).

Boyd and Harris (2010), in their investigation into the perspectives and workplace learning of newly appointed lecturers, refer to Engeström (1987, 2001) to describe the academic workplace, from the perspective of activity systems theory as a collective, dynamic, object-orientated system in which rules, tools and division of labour influence activity, but contributions by participants are able to shape the system. Whilst there is a perceived difference in FE and HE Institutions, which is predominantly the amount of research undertaken by the Institution, Feather (2012) argues that there is very little difference between the 'new universities' and colleges, with the exception that a university will have the 'Royal Charter' to develop, deliver and bestow degrees. King, Saraswat and Widdowson (2015) also subscribe to this view and highlight that colleges have been given the powers to develop and deliver foundation degrees. It is through this lens that the conceptual framework will be developed. The subject of this thesis is lecturers at a MET Institution, which is a school in a new university that could be described as a 'teaching university' or a Higher Education Institution. From the literature review the following themes have emerged which will be explored in the empirical study of MET lecturers operating at FE/HE interfaces.

Squires's (1999) proposed model of teaching as a professional discipline captures the tasks that a lecturer has to perform, while teaching and managing programmes of study, in terms of: what do lecturers do?; what affects what they do?; and how do they do it? This model forms the centre of the conceptual framework to represent the role of the lecturer. Whilst the model does not explicitly identify the knowledge required by the lecturers to underpin the tasks, this study will seek to explore whether the lecturers consider that they have sufficient pedagogical and subject matter knowledge to carry out the role of lecturer. This aspect of the study will draw on the comparison of the models by Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986), Fitts (1986) and Burch (1970) outlined

in Table 2.1 and the subsequent discussion of professional knowledge and the notion of being an expert.

The tension between occupational and organisational forms of professionalism (Evetts, 2009) was identified in the literature as a consequence of social and political pressures challenging the professionalism of the lecturers at both FE and HE. This study will seek to explore whether this is the case and how it, if it does, affects the lecturers' professional identity. This will be represented as opposing arrows focussed on Squires's model to imply that there is some effect caused by these tensions on the role as lecturer.

The dotted line around the model signifies that the lecturer's professional identity encompasses the issues discussed in this section; professional identity is a reflection of their professional values, attitudes, expectations and influence how they interact and integrate with others.   Finally, the interpretation from the literature review is that this occurs within the context of a community of practice.

The proposed conceptual framework utilised is shown in Figure 2.2.
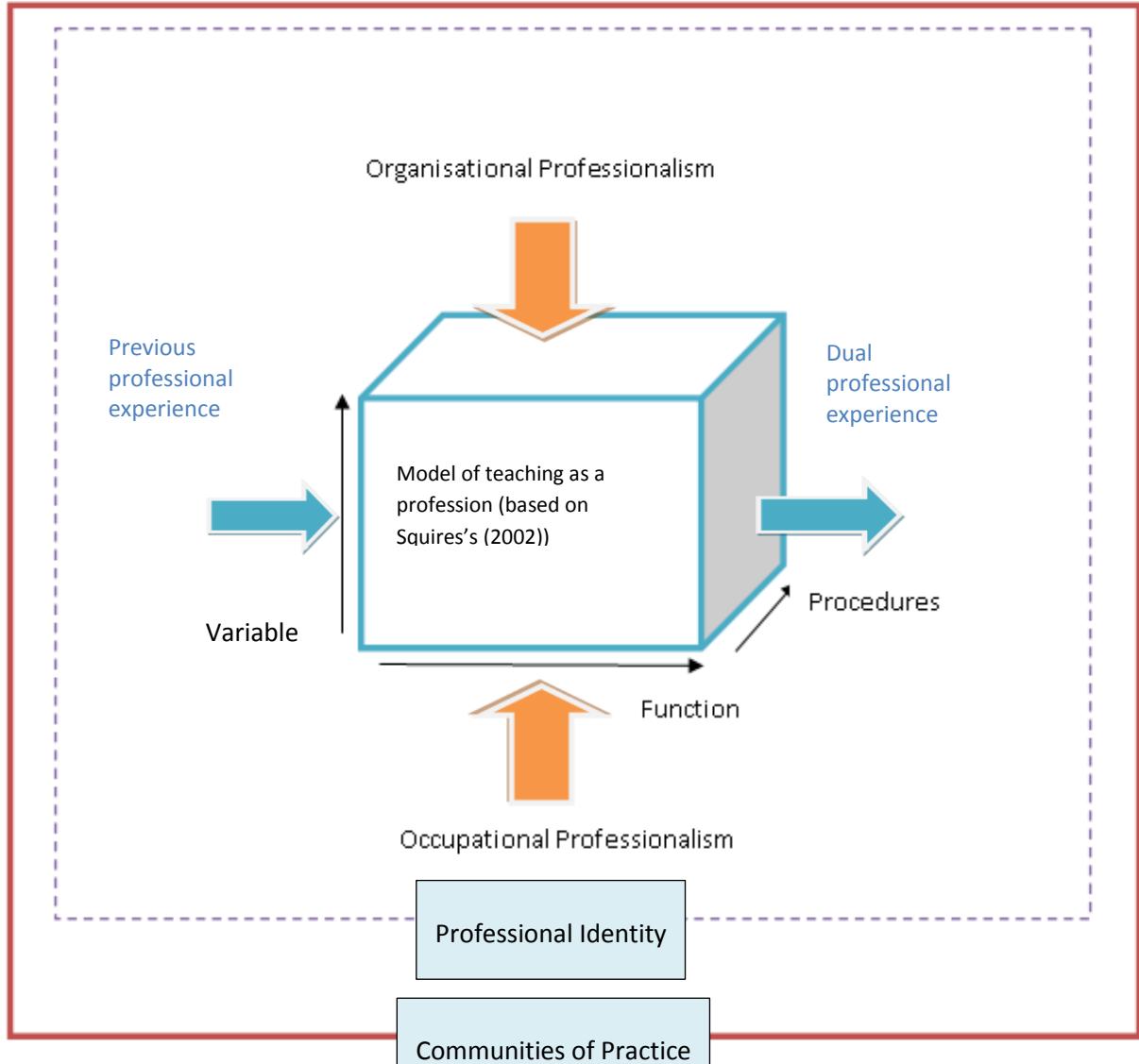
Figure 2-2 Conceptual Framework of Research

2.9   Summary

The literature review has indicated that there is a lack of studies that specifically focus on lecturers in Institutions that teach at both HE and FE levels and, in particular, operate within a single industry sector, for example, the maritime sector. However, there are studies that have investigated the area of lecturer professional identity in terms of FE, HE, HE in FE and secondary schools. The literature review has drawn from these works to inform the underpinning academic arguments for this study. It is apparent that differences exist in perception of terms such as professionalism, professional identity and these differences have the potential to cause tension and misunderstanding, especially if they exist in the same workplace. For example Bathmaker and Avis (2013) described the notion of 'fractured professionalism' where lecturers identified with

their previous occupation rather than their current occupation as a lecturer and Spencely (2006) notes how this can have adverse effects on the unity of the lecturers as a profession. Gleeson and James (2007, p.453) discuss how FE professionals position themselves in and around various 'creative tensions' in the diverse contexts of their work. Beauchamp and Thomas (2009) point out that the concept of professional identity is complex but is important to lecturer development and that there are a number of arguments in the academic literature that consider it. Professional identity is also central to lecturers' beliefs, values and practices (Cohen, 2008), is closely related to knowledge and skills (Robson, 1998), can be used as an analytical tool (Olsen, 2015) and is a negotiated experience within a community membership (Wenger, 1998). Set against a background that the conceptual model has sought to capture, this study investigates lecturers' perceptions of their own professional identity and compares them to current views on the professional identity among lecturers at HE and FE within the research literature.

Chapter 3:   Methodology

3.1   Introduction

This chapter describes the approach taken in the design of the research, the reasons for its use and why it was chosen over other designs. The method of data collection and analysis is discussed along with the ethical considerations and the method of addressing issues of reliability and validity.

3.2   Research Philosophy and Approach

Robson defines real world research as research that:

> ...focuses on problems and issues of direct relevance to people's lives, to help find ways of dealing with the problem or of better understanding the issue. (2011, p. 4).

The lack of a clear consensus among scholars in determining the meaning of professionalism and professional identity among lecturers is unsurprising given the number of models put forward and the various views regarding professionalism. Taking this into account, and the nature of the research questions, the research philosophy adopted was interpretivist, which reflects the belief that the world is socially constructed, 'meaning does not exist in its own right, it is constructed by human beings as they interact and engage in interpretation' (Robson, 2011 p. 24). The ontological beliefs underpinning an interpretivist philosophy is that multiple perspectives exist and that reality is not automatically present in objects or social situations, it has to be constructed and is created by individuals as they interact with the world (Dyson and Brown, 2006). It is appropriate for this study as professional identity is a construct that is negotiated and re-negotiated in a socio-cultural setting (Wenger, 1998). An individual's professional identity is based on their own perceptions, experience and how they interact with others. Additional to this, my epistemological belief is that the nature of the knowledge in this situation is value laden, subjective and that ultimate truths are impossible due to the multiple social constructions of meaning and knowledge (Petty, Thomson and Stew, 2012). The assumptions arrived at in the literature review (Chapter 2) support this philosophical approach by identifying a number of factors that are subjective in nature such as: individual perception of professional identity; the meaning of professionalism; and the influence of belonging to a community of practice. In order to understand the phenomena it was important to appreciate that the 'reality' experienced in this study was constructed by the participants along with the researcher. Therefore, it is important that I acknowledge that my own experiences and subjectivity influenced the interpretation, and this became part of the research

process. It is important to explicitly identify reflexively any biases, values and personal background that may have shaped the interpretations formed during the study (Creswell, 2009). These will be further discussed later in this chapter.

From an interpretive perspective, the focus of the study was to explore how the participants' view professional identity and to understand how these views developed within the social, political and historical contexts in which they work. This was conducted against a background of national debate on the subject (Avis, Canning, Fisher, Morgan-Klein and Simmons, 2012) and the potentially conflicting pressures of opposing views of professionalism (Bathmaker and Avis, 2012; Gleeson and James, 2007). The interpretive approach "seeks to understand human behaviour and the social processes that we engage in and allows 'interpretation in natural settings '" (Gerrish and Lacey, 2006, p. 158). The aim of this inquiry was not to test a hypothesis against a preconceived idea regarding the meaning of professionalism and professional identity, nor was it to investigate the degree of concordance against a particular view of professionalism through statistical analysis in order to generalise findings to predict concordance among a greater sample size. Rather, the aim was to generate an understanding of how lecturers view professionalism and professional identity within a MET institute by interpreting their experience, opinions and interaction with others in order to produce a detailed description of the phenomenon or generate a theory about lecturers at the MET Institution and their professional identity. Therefore, from the assumptions and conceptual model described in Chapter 2 and, as identified in Creswell's (2009, p.17) useful high level description of a qualitative research approach, an emerging qualitative approach to the inquiry was conducted that collected data in a natural setting and was sensitive to the people and places under study. The data analysis was inductive in order to search out for patterns or themes. The final report includes the voices of the participants and, as mentioned above, the reflexivity of the researcher in order to describe and interpret the views of the lecturers as it extends the literature.

3.3   Research Methodology

Research methodology can be described as an overall approach taken in researching a problem (Collis and Hussey, 2009; Remenyi, D., Williams, B., Money, A. & Swartz, E., 2003) including the process by which the research is conducted, ranging from the theoretical underpinning to the collection and analysis of data. The methodology addresses issues such as what data are to be collected and why, where and how the data are to be collected and how the data are to be analysed (Collis and Hussey, 2009).

The methodology for the investigation was a case study as the inquiry addressed 'how' questions and the focus was on a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context (Yin, 2009; Thomas, 2011b) in this case a MET Institution. Any influence that I had regarding the participants' perceptions was limited to the fact that I am a fellow lecturer at the MET Institution and that I was inquiring about my peers' perceptions of professional identity and professionalism. Yin (1998) identifies that a strong advantage of the case study method is the ability to deal with contextual situations and that the reality of many social phenomena is that phenomena and context are indeed not precisely distinguishable. Creswell (2009) adds that a case study strategy offers the ability to capture a rich picture with many forms of information and insights and offers potential for revealing holism and complexity of natural occurring events (Torraco, 1997). Thomas (2011a, p. 23) describes a case study as:

> ...analyses of persons, events, decisions, periods, projects, policies, Institutions or other systems which are studied holistically by one or more methods. The case that is the subject of the inquiry will be an instance of a class of phenomena that provides an analytical frame-an object-within which the study is conducted and which the case illuminates and explicates.

Yin (2012, p. 5) also adds that "...other methods are not likely to provide the rich description or the insightful explanations that might arise from doing a case study."

However, among the research community there is much discussion regarding the approach using a case study methodology (Bennett and George, 2005; Eckstein, 2000; Flyvbjerg, 2006; Mitchell, 2006; Simons, 2009; Stake, 2005; Yin, 2009). Thomas (2011b, p.511) recognises that a 'classification schemata for intending researchers is lacking' and proposes a framing structure and typology for case study. Drawing on work by VanWynsberghe and Khan (2008), Thomas (2011a) suggests that a case study must comprise of two elements; a *subject* of the case study, which is a practical, historical unity and the *object* of the case study, which is an analytical or theoretical frame. In this case study the subjects were the lecturers at the MET Institution. Thomas (2011a) identifies three routes for the selection of the subject these are: local knowledge case, where the researcher is familiar with the subject; key case, where the case is chosen because of the inherent interest of the case and; outlier case, the object may be illuminated by virtue of its difference. In this case the subjects have been selected through the local knowledge route. The subjects were familiar to me as the study took place at my own place of work and provided ample opportunity for informed, in-depth analysis and discussion. It has to be noted at this stage that there is no claim that these subjects form a representative sample from a larger group; they were chosen because of the dynamics of the relation between the subjects and the object. The object of this study was the analytical frame in which the case was viewed and which the case exemplified. In this case, the professional identity of the lecturers and the relationship with professionalism was

the object. Thomas (2011a) refers to Eckstein (1975) when he mentions that the object is a temporary construct which takes shape for and by empirical work, and that the theoretical enterprise of the case study is about discovering or testing tools of explanation.

The next level in Thomas's typology is the purpose for the study, which in this case was exploratory and instrumental (Thomas, 2011a, 2011b). This case study was exploratory, because it is anticipated that the case will help understand a situation of which very little is known and instrumental, because it may be used to provide a model to understand other similar cases. Other purposes, as identified by Thomas (2011b) are intrinsic, evaluative and explanatory.

The approach that was adopted in this study is the next level in Thomas's (2011b) typology, which gives the clearest distinction between kinds of study, reflecting the broad nature of the object and the purpose of the study. In terms of this case study, the purpose was to explore professional identity and the approach was interpretative (Thomas, 2011b, p.516). Little is known about the relationship between the subjects and the object of the study; however, other studies that have investigated similar issues, but in different contexts, have informed the inquiry through the literature review in Chapter 2. Therefore, this study builds on the theory of previous studies, but it cannot be considered 'typical' as defined by Thomas (2011b, p. 516) as the context of the study is different.

By taking into consideration the previous three layers of the taxonomy, in the next layer, decisions were made about the operational processes of the study. Before any further decisions could be made, the boundary of the case study needed to be identified. It is the boundary that helps define the case and delimits the case under study from the environment within which it sits; the boundary identifies what the case will be and what it will not be. A case, according to Baxter and Jack (2008) can be bounded by: time and place (Creswell, 2009); time and activity (Stake, 2005); and by definition and context (Miles and Huberman, 1994). The boundary of this case was the MET Institution (place) and for the duration of the study (time).   Therefore, similar to the development of the inclusion and exclusion criteria for sample selection in a quantitative study, the boundary in this case identified that the subject of the case study was a sample of lecturers in the MET Institution who are present for the duration of this study.

The typology that Thomas (2011a) proposes and was adopted for this case study is not unique in its approach and, when compared to Yin's (2009) approach, there are many similarities. Rather than subject and object, Yin (2009) identifies a case as consisting of a contemporary phenomenon and a real world context. In this case study, the phenomenon was 'professional identity of lecturers' and the context was 'the MET Institution delivering FE and HE courses'. Another explicit

difference between the two approaches is that Yin (2009) identifies that in order to conduct a case study effectively, the researcher should be able to combine case study data as a direct reflection of their initial study propositions. Thomas (2011a) implies this but Yin (2009) includes it as one of his five components of case study research design. Yin's approach is a reflection of his positivist position (Petty et al, 2012) and, as this case study was exploratory, and the approach was within an interpretivist paradigm the expectation was that any theories would develop as the study progressed. The use of initial proposition to determine the design of the inquiry is likely to introduce bias and was not explicitly used in this study. However, a set of themes were identified as a result of the literature review and these helped to develop a conceptual framework based on the review. The conceptual framework in this study has been used to bring together, at a high level, the issues arising from the literature review. The findings of the case study were compared to the conceptual framework which was then updated to reflect the findings of the inquiry.

Yin (2009) also recognises the usefulness of embedded, single case design though he refers to these as units of analysis rather than 'elements'. The three ways of comparing embedded units, as recognised by Baxter and Jack (2008) is the same as those identified by Thomas (2011a) as is the process and reasons for binding a case. Due to the similarities of the approaches and the provenance of the theory supporting Thomas's (2011a, 2011b) typology, I was content to use it when referring to the design and structure of the study.

3.4   Sample Group

The participants in the study were lecturers from different sections within the Institution, but were co-located in adjacent offices. Purposive sampling was used where, according to Robson (2005), particular settings, people or events are specifically chosen for the information they can provide. In this case, the sample was chosen as they work in close proximity to each other and, whilst not all from the same section within the MET Institution, they do teach on similar, and in some cases, the same courses. They communicate with each other on a daily basis, share knowledge through questioning and debate and socialise with each other. The sample consists of six lecturers who have been teaching at the MET Institution for between four and seventeen years, they are of a similar age group (between 40 and 60 years old) and include male and females. They are not defined as a formal group within the organisation and this supports the view that this case study could provide useful insights into similar informal groups working in education and training. Table 3.1 gives an overview of the participants and the type of courses that they teach. It should be noted that the title of the sections have been anonymised and the participants have been given aliases in order to preserve their anonymity.

	Section	Deliver short courses <6 days	Deliver long courses >6 days	Deliver Simulator Courses	FE Courses (level 1 to 3)	HE Courses (level 3 to 8)	Vocational Courses
Adam	A	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Brenda	B	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Colin	C	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
David	A	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Elizabeth	B	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Frank	C	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes

Table 3-1 Overview of participants within the MET Institution.

The type of courses that the lecturers teach include: Academic Long Courses, Short Classroom Based Courses and Short Simulator Based Courses. The type of teaching associated with these style of courses, is different in terms of the duration of the courses, the level of the courses, the type of students taught and the methods used. It is for these reasons and the position of the boundary, that a single case study analysis was conducted with nested elements which consisted of each of the lecturers. A nested study is distinct from a straightforwardly multiple study in that it gains its integrity and its wholeness from the wider case. The elements are nested only in the sense that they form an integral part of a broader picture. Baxter and Jack (2008, p. 550) consider that:

> …the ability to look at subunits that are situated within a larger case is powerful when you consider that data can be analysed within the subunits separately (within case analysis), between the different subunits (between case analysis), or across all of the subunits (cross-case analysis).

However, Yin (2009) warns of the failure to return to the global issue that the researcher initially set out to address can move the focus of the research from the case study itself to a nested element.

3.5   Research Method

The strength of the case study is in the use of different methods in order to examine a particular issue in detail. The boundary for this case study was around the informal group of lecturers at the MET Institution, but the interfaces with the university and external authorities have to be acknowledged as they may have some influence, as viewed by the participants. Figure 3.1 gives a diagrammatic representation of the case and its boundaries.

The primary data collection methods used were interview, field notes, document review and a research diary. However, as the subject of the inquiry was academically under-researched,

structured interviews were avoided to allow more flexibility, scope of response and to help reduce researcher bias (Robson, 2011). Whilst they were time consuming, interviews were conducted face-to-face, one-to-one in order to preserve anonymity and confidentiality. The ability to detect non-verbal cues and act upon them helped with the inquiry. "Non-verbal cues may give messages which help in understanding the verbal response, possibly changing or even, in extreme cases, reversing its meaning" (Robson, 2011, p. 281). Semi-structured interviews were used in order to draw out rich, contextual details, supplemented by field notes made during and immediately after each interview. These field notes captured a number of non-verbal cues that proved indispensable during the analysis. While the tones and intonation could mostly be detected in the audio recordings, the body language couldn't and the field notes captured these sufficiently to detect strength of feeling which, in most cases, could be supported by associated verbal cues when the audio recordings were listened to again. Interview guides were used which served as aide memoires and allowed the interviews to progress naturally whilst ensuring that all areas of inquiry were covered. A copy of a semi-structured interview guide is at Appendix A. Yin (2009) identifies that whilst conducting in-depth interviews the researcher can ask participants about the facts and opinions and, in some situations, ask the interviewee to propose their own insights. The more the interviewee assists in this manner then the more the role can be considered one of an informant rather than a respondent. Yin (2009, p. 107) states that:

> Key informants are often critical to the success of a case study. Such persons provide the case study investigator with insights into a matter and also can initiate access to corroboratory or contrary sources of evidence.

In addition to the interviews, a number of documents were reviewed to help substantiate claims made in the interviews; these included anonymous student feedback reports and course reports. These reports are normally collected at the end of each course and retained in accordance with the MET Institute's quality management system. Permission was gained from the Head of Department and the participants to review these documents as part of this research.
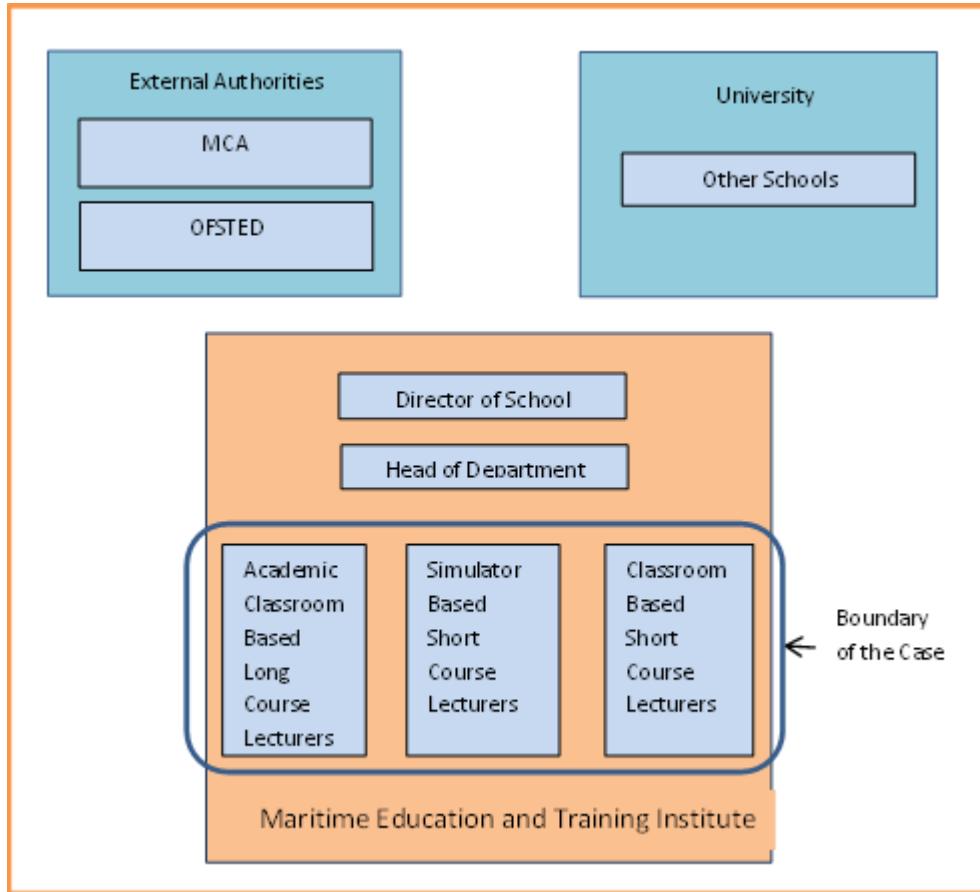
Figure 3-1 Outline of the case, its boundaries and interfaces.

Each of the six interviews took place at a time convenient for the participants in a meeting room that was not disturbed. The maximum duration of each of the interviews was eighty minutes. It had been planned that all interviews would take one hour, which was seen as a compromise between allowing sufficient time to collect as much data as is required and practicality in terms of participant availability. However, four of the six interviews went over the allotted time which reflected the quality of the data and the enthusiasm the participants had for the topic.

All interviews were recorded, so that the accuracy of the data collected was robust and had an audit trail. The data are available for scrutiny, subject to maintaining anonymity and confidentiality, as agreed with the participants, and described in the ethics approval form.   In order to ensure that the interpretation of the recorded data was sound, member checking was used where the transcripts, and final report, were reviewed by some of the participants to cross-check that the data they had given had not been misrepresented (Robson, 2011). No feedback was received from the participants, which required the transcripts or the final report to be amended.

The primary method of data collection was supported and corroborated by an appropriate documentary investigation which included course feedback forms, course records and audit reports.

3.6   Data Analysis

This section describes the approach to analysing the data and the processes used. 'The nature of qualitative data is invariably described as voluminous, unstructured and unwieldy' (Bryman and Burgess, 1994, p.216) and to carry out the analysis, the researcher must familiarise themselves with a considerable amount of complex data in order to make sense of it. A thematic analysis approach was taken as it was deemed the most appropriate method for the interpretative collection and analysis of data, when the aim was to generate an understanding of a socio-cultural phenomenon (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis is independent of theory and epistemology (ibid) and is characterised by Boyatzis (1998), as a tool to be used across different methods, rather than as a specific method. The analysis followed the guidelines of Braun and Clarke (2006) as it supported the inductive approach in the exploratory case study. The 'bottom-up' iterative approach from the data to the themes and the ultimate analysis provides a robust audit trail that is beneficial when attempting to demonstrate the trustworthiness of the study (ibid).

 In the terminology of thematic analysis, the data items (interviews) gained from the data sets were transcribed verbatim in order to capture the detail as true to the nature of the interview as possible. Along with the audio recordings and the field notes, the data items were reviewed a number of times, which helped to capture any nuances and gain familiarity with the data items. The transcribed data sets were transferred into a 3 column document that allowed coding and field notes to be annotated alongside the transcribed data items. Whilst this may appear as a nugatory step, as the next stage was to use a Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) tool (NViVo 10), it proved very effective and convenient when away from the computer. A copy of a transcribed interview (data item) is at Appendix B.

In the next stage of the analysis, a CAQDAS tool was used in order to help further analyse the data and to arrange them into codes, themes and sub-themes. Using the CAQDAS tool had the advantage of being able to arrange and store the data items in files that were easily accessible. Each file was given an alphanumeric title to help maintain confidentiality and in addition the files were stored on a password protected hard drive. Each data item was coded, on a line by line basis, using the tool. There has been criticism that using a CAQDAS tool distances researchers from their data because it may make them dependent on connections that the programme makes

(O'Reilly, 2008). My experience with the CAQDAS tool (NViVo 10) has shown that the reverse is indeed true; codes were only identified once the data have been fully analysed.

Coding was based on my interpretation of the data as I read through the transcripts and it necessarily became an iterative process as new codes were identified as each subsequent data item was analysed. This resulted in the previous data items being reviewed again to determine whether the new code was evident. The importance of reflexivity was recognised during the analysis as it was difficult to determine whether personal preferences and idiosyncrasies had entered into the process of code generation. O'Reilly (2008, p.47) states:

> Your data are not real things; they are the best record you could collect of what you saw and heard, with relevance to the topic you were interested in. This does not mean your data are invalid… it merely means that you are inextricably linked to your data at every stage of the process…

However, every effort was made to be consistent with the coding, the themes and the sub-themes. An example of a theme along with its associated sub-themes and codes is at Appendix C.

 Another advantage of using the CAQDAS tool was that the context of the codes were maintained as the tool allowed surrounding data to be kept along with the coded data extract. The themes and sub-themes were developed by reviewing the codes and combining them, so that they provided an interpretation of the data items 'within-case' and 'across-case' (Yin, 2009). Braun and Clarke's (2006, p.91) suggest that "data within themes should cohere together meaningfully, while there should be clear and identifiable distinctions between themes". This was maintained for the most part however, there was an overlap where the sub-theme 'communicate with students' could have been equally located within the theme 'How I communicate' or the theme 'My credibility'. This only occurred during the analysis of the themes against the literature where the students' view of a lecturer's credibility is heavily influenced by the method and style of communication. It was decided to place the sub-theme under the theme of 'How I communicate' and to bring out this issue in the findings. The following chapter, Findings, provides the detailed analysis of each of the themes identified and the Discussions chapter will compare the findings with the literature.

3.7   Validity, Reliability and Trustworthiness

3.7.1   Validity and Reliability

Silverman (2013) identifies that qualitative research has been criticised for lack of reliability and validity. He describes validity as another word for truth and argues that a research study cannot be valid if:

Only a few exemplary instances are reported.

The criteria or grounds for including certain instances and not others are not provided.

The original form of the materials is unavailable.   (p. 301).

Thomas (2011a) however, argues that the idea of validity is meaningless when applied to case study research. The basis of his argument is two-fold: Firstly, the notion of validity is taken from normative research and applied to interpretative research; secondly, he suggests that the researcher should be concerned about the quality of the study overall. Adapting indicators from Hammersley (2005) he provides success criteria for interpretative aspects of case study which include; the clarity of the writing; the problem or question being addressed; the methods used; the account of the research process and the researcher; and the formulation of the main claims. Baxter and Jack (2008, p. 556) also identify a number of criteria to address the validity of case study research which include that the case study research question is clearly written; its design is appropriate; purposeful sampling strategies appropriate; data are collected and managed systematically, and; the data are analysed correctly. These guidelines are similar to those described by Thomas (2011a) and complement them to provide good guidance. Also, together they address the points that Silverman (2013) raised with regard to validity.

Silverman (2013, p. 302) describes reliability as:

..the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions. For reliability to be calculated, it is incumbent on the scientific investigator to document his or her procedure and to demonstrate that categories have been used consistently.

Whilst Thomas (2011a) does not entirely agree that this definition applies wholly to case study research, the criteria he offers with regard to good quality case study research goes some way to meet the requirements of Silverman's description. When combined with the guidelines of Baxter and Jack (2008), they form a useful check list to assess the quality of the study. Table 3.2 has been constructed to provide the combined check list to show how reliability and validity have been met and the measures that have been put in place, in this study, to meet requirements. This

provides a cross reference to the reader to help assess where issues of reliability and validity have been addressed in the research.

Case study strategy has also been criticised in terms of generalisation which is usually considered paramount when assessing the quality of research. In terms of generalisation, it is difficult to see how a specific single case study can provide a basis for scientific generalisation. Yin (2009) addresses this point by comparing a single case study with an experiment; case studies are generalisable to theoretical propositions and not, as in the case of experiment, to populations, and they do not purport to represent a sample of the whole population, but help to expand and generalise theories. In this particular case, no claim is being made that the findings of this study can be applied to a greater population. However, it is anticipated that the research will inform a specific group which may then provide a model, in order to study other groups and the findings in this respect may be regarded as transferable.

No.	Criteria	Further detail	Reliability or Validity	How addressed in this Case Study
1	The clarity of the writing.	Is there consistency in the use of terms? Are definitions provided where necessary? Are sentences well-constructed?	R V	The Case Study report has been reviewed by the researcher, colleagues and supervisors to ensure that these issues are addressed
2	The methods used.	To what degree, and in what respects, was each of the methods chosen (as regards selection of cases for study, data collection and data analysis) likely to be an effective one?	R V	The description of why the method was chosen is in Chapter 3 section 3.5.
3	Purposeful sampling strategies appropriate for case study.		R V	Description and reason for purposeful sampling strategy is at Chapter 3 section 3.4.
4	The account of the research process and the researcher.	Is there sufficient, and not too much, information about the research process? Is there sufficient, and not too much, information about the researcher?	R V	The description of the research process is at Chapter 3 sections 3.2 to 3.7. Information about the researcher is at Chapter 1 section 1.1.1 and Chapter 3 section 3.8.
5	Data are collected and managed systematically		R	Data collection described at Chapter 3 sections 3.5 and 3.6.
6	The data are analysed correctly		R	Description of data analysis is at Chapter 3 section 3.6.
7	The formulation of the main claims.	Are the main claims made clear? Are the relations between claims and evidence made clear? Is the nature of each claim (as description, explanation, theory or evaluation) indicated?	R V	These are addressed in Chapter 4, Findings Chapter 5, Discussion, Analysis of Findings and Conclusions.

Table 3-2 Check list for Case Study Quality, (Adapted from Thomas (2011a) and Baxter and Jack (2008).

3.7.2 **Trustworthiness**

Despite the arguments regarding the concepts of reliability and validity, many qualitative investigators have adopted alternate approaches and used different terminology. Guba (1981), identified four major concerns relating to trustworthiness which were: truth value, applicability, consistency and neutrality. They subsequently labelled these concerns in naturalistic terms alongside their associated scientific terms:

Aspect	Scientific Term	Naturalistic Term
Truth Value	Internal Validity	Credibility
Applicability	External Validity Generalisability	Transferability
Consistency	Reliability	Dependability
Neutrality	Objectivity	Confirmability

Table 3-3 Scientific and Naturalistic Terms Appropriate to the Four Aspects of Trustworthiness, (Guba, 1981 p.80).

Shenton (2004) in his study of trustworthiness in quality research projects draws from Guba (1981) and Lincoln and Guba (1985) to provide guidance on possible provisions that may be made to address Guba's four criteria for trustworthiness. The table below suggests how this study has met those criteria by using some of the provisions mentioned by Shenton (ibid).

Guba's criteria	How this study meets it
Credibility	This study has adopted appropriate, well recognised research methods. I have used a case study approach adopting an interpretative inquiry with an inductive thematic analysis. I have recognised my own biases and recognised that data are not coded in an epistemological vacuum. In the study I have not looked for particular themes, rather I have identified them from the analysis.
	Whilst I have not used triangulation as a method per se, I have reviewed documents in order to substantiate claims made in the findings. For example, when comparing claims of lecturer credibility I reviewed over one hundred student feedback forms to investigate how the students viewed the lecturers as teachers.
	The participants were offered the opportunity to review their own transcribed interviews. Half of the participants took up the offer to review the transcribed interviews to ensure that they were an accurate record. Some participants read the final report.
	In describing the phenomenon under scrutiny I suggest that a thick description has been provided.
Transferability	I have provided as much background information as I was able, in order for comparisons to be made and still preserve the anonymity of the participants. The type of organisation has been detailed along with the number of participants and the methods of collecting the data. The number and length of data collection sessions have also been described. The data was collected over a six month period.
Dependability	It is anticipated that sufficient description of the methodology has been given that would allow this study to be repeated. However, it should be noted that there is no guarantee that the exact same results will be achieved due to the potential influence that I may have had and the point that this research was a snapshot of a socio-cultural situation.
Confirmability	My beliefs and assumptions have been stated in this Chapter.
	The limitations of this research and their potential effects have been stated in Chapter 5 section 5.9.
	The methodological description is in sufficient detail that the integrity of the research results can be scrutinised. There is a balance between using too many quotes in the findings chapter and not enough to support the interpretative study. It is anticipated that a correct balance has been achieved as I endeavoured to substantiate interpreted claims made by evidence from the data sets.

Table 3-4 How this study meets Guba's (1981) trustworthiness criteria using provisions mentioned by Shenton (2004).

3.8   Position of the Researcher and Reflexivity

As a lecturer at the MET Institution, whilst I was conducting this research, I fitted the description that Brannick and Coghlan (2007, p. 71) used to describe insider researchers, which was: "...those undertaking research in and on their own organisations while a complete member, which in this context, means both having insider preunderstanding and access." Insider researchers have

attracted criticism as they are seen to have personal stakes and substantial emotional investment in the setting and they are perceived not to conform to standards of intellectual rigour (Anderson and Herr, 1999) and the concept of validity may be problematic because of the researcher's involvement with the subject of the study (Rooney, 2005, Tuesner, 2016). However, Brannick and Coghlan (2007, p.72) have challenged this viewpoint and shown that insider research:

> ...is not only valid and useful but also provides important knowledge about what organizations are really like, which traditional approaches may not be able to uncover.

In their view, it is respectable research in whatever paradigm it is undertaken, provided the researchers, through a process of reflexivity, are aware of the strengths and limits of their pre-understanding. Mercer (2007) conducted a study involving two institutions, at one of which she was employed and the other she wasn't. Whilst she did perceive that the research process was different at both sites due partly to a greater level of intimacy at the site where she was employed, and due partly because she altered her interviewing style between the two sites, the data she collected from both institutions were remarkably alike in both content and form. The substantive findings from each institution were almost identical and the comments she received from the informants were the same regarding confidentiality and levels of candour. Whilst she doesn't make any claims regarding the extent to which different degrees of insiderness affect the research process and findings, it is interesting that the study involving both insider and outsider researcher revealed little of no differences.   Rooney (2005) recognises that in qualitative research arguments against insider research are applicable to all research. Complete objectivity is not possible but the aim is to minimise the impact of bias on the research process and to carry out research, in consciousness of its socially situated character and to make the researcher's position vis-à-vis the research process transparent (Hammersley, 2000).

The measures taken in the previous section, aim to provide the transparency of this study in terms of validity, reliability and trustworthiness. In addition this section aims to explain how any impact of bias was minimised by recognising my involvement. My interest and preconceptions are stated and the findings are clearly linked to the evidence obtained through the inquiry. In this way, my biases and assumptions are not put away, but are embedded and are essential to the interpretative process (Laverty, 2003, p. 7). However, as Fetterman (2010) stresses, the researcher enters the field with an open mind, not an empty head. O'Reilly (2008) refers to this as iterative-inductive research: iterative because there is a sense of the investigation moving steadily forward and back, and inductive because the researcher begins with an open mind and as few preconceptions as possible.

I have a background in adult education that goes back over twenty five years. Also, I have been a seafarer, a telecommunications engineer and a training manager. However, I must stress that these roles have run in parallel and not in series; for example while I was a telecommunications engineer at sea I taught mathematics and electronics to adults. Throughout my career, I have looked to gain professional recognition for any qualifications that I might have and, as a result, I have become a member and fellow of a number of professional Institutions and received professional recognition for my qualifications and experience. One of the reasons for seeking professional recognition is that, in my experience, qualifications can date, be revised by awarding authorities or cease to exist, and this can make it difficult to gain recognition in the future. Another reason is that it is my belief that professional recognition is a mark of reaching a standard that is recognised throughout the industry. It is also a statement that assures other people that the work I perform and the standards that I uphold are such that I can be trusted to deliver a service that is expected of a professional. I also commit to the requirement to keep my knowledge 'up-to-date' through continual professional development. However, I do not have the view that it is only the individuals who achieve recognition through a professional body that can be considered professional. My concern with the issue regarding the perceptions of professionalism and professional identity developed five years ago when I worked as a training manager, as mentioned in Chapter 1.

By presenting my views, recent experience and motivation for the study, it is anticipated that the reader can gain a better idea regarding the relationship between the researcher, the participants and the study. During the study, a field diary was maintained that, in addition to capturing general notes, helped to recognise researcher bias by maintaining a record of immediate and contextual views that I may have had following any gathering of data. When any issues arose that I considered might be affected, I reviewed the data and reflected upon them to ensure that I was interpreting the data as they were presented and not with bias towards my own views.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

The approach in this study fully complies with the ethical policy and research protocol of the University of Southampton. The main ethical issues were discussed in the participant's information sheet, which included:

- Purpose of the research;

- Voluntary participation and rights of participants;

- Methods of maintaining confidentiality and privacy of participants;

- Right to withdraw from the study

All participants were provided with an information sheet about the research and were requested to complete a consent form prior to taking part in any aspect of the study. The information sheet explained the purpose of the research, how the data were used and stored and their right to confidentiality and privacy. Explicit consent was obtained from each participant prior to them being involved in the data gathering process. An example of a Participant Information Sheet is at Appendix D and the Ethics Approval is at Appendix E.

3.10   Data protection and anonymity

All information gained was treated anonymously and confidentially and the implications of the UK Data Protection Act (1988) were considered carefully. All data gained from the interviews were used exclusively for this research and were stored in a locked filing cabinet in the researcher's office and were also stored electronically on a password-protected computer. Any reference made to the interviews in research presentations, reports and articles, the EdD Thesis, etc. had personal, organisational and place names changed (anonymised) to reduce the possibility that the participants or other individuals could not be identified. Unique identifiers were used throughout for example; lecturers who participated were referred to by aliases. Details of each lecturer were used generically and specific personal details were not used. Cross references between the unique identifiers and the participants were kept separate, in a locked cabinet, from the main research data. Participants had the opportunity to withdraw from the research study if they felt that their privacy was being invaded. No reasons for withdrawal needed to be provided (unless this was the wish of the participant) and there would be no consequence to the participant. In order to minimise this risk, participants' identity was protected as much as possible and they would have been alerted ahead of time to inform them if it was impossible to preserve total confidentiality. A summary of the findings and recommendations will be provided to the participants on completion of the study if they have indicated on the consent form that they wish to receive a copy. Whilst precautions have been taken to preserve the anonymity of the participants whilst maintaining the trustworthiness of the research, those close to it may be able to speculate on participant identities as with all insider research (Robson, 2011).

3.11   Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has described the research philosophy, approach, methodology and the methods used. By describing Thomas's (2011a, 2011b) typology this chapter has identified that a case study methodology was employed and why it was deemed appropriate. The study was a local case that was an exploratory and interpretative inquiry in order to develop understanding of a socio-cultural phenomenon. The issues regarding reliability, validity, generalisation and trustworthiness have been identified and were addressed using criteria developed from Thomas (2011a), Baxter and Jack (2008) and Shenton (2004).   The completed tables should provide the reader with the audit trail to be confident that a rigorous and robust case study research has been completed. The next chapter will present the findings of the study in terms of the themes that have been identified and the interpretation of them.

Chapter 4:   Findings and Analysis

4.1   Introduction

From the analysis of the data sets four themes have been identified as shown in the table below:

Theme	Sub-themes
Becoming a professional lecturer	Initial lecturer training
	Being a lecturer
My credibility	Links with previous occupation
	Being an expert
How I communicate	Communication with students
	Communication with peers
Autonomy	

Table 4-1 Overview of Themes and Sub-themes

A detailed analysis of each of the themes and sub-themes is presented in this Chapter; however, it is first worth noting how these themes contribute to the overall study. Shank (2006) uses the metaphor of a lantern when he describes qualitative research, as opposed to quantitative research. In his metaphor (ibid, p.13), a lantern is used to peer into dark places to shed light on to things in order to understand them better. This study has 'shone a light' onto a small focussed area of lecturers in a MET Institution who are operating on the boundary between HE and FE. As this is a detailed emic study utilising an interpretative inquiry method, the themes that have been identified are closely associated with each other and in some cases overlap. The literature review had taken place prior to and during the field work, and whilst my experience and views have been made clear, there was still the risk to introduce *a priori* themes rather than themes derived from the investigation. The measures taken, as described in Chapter 3, helped to prevent this along with providing suitable quotes that support the derivation of the themes.   In addition, the interpretation, derivation of codes and identification of evolving themes have been supported by

the processes identified in the methodology (Table 3.4) which include credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

It is suggested that a degree of overlap of the themes, whilst reduced as much as possible, is inevitable in such a study. For example, the theme 'How I Communicate' was developed when grouping the data extracts from the coding stage. The theme became too large and two sub-themes were developed to give structure to the theme and provide sense-making. One of these sub-themes was 'Communication with Students'. Another theme that was developed was 'My Credibility' derived from the coding as the data extracts had been interpreted based on the knowledge and experience of the researcher. As the analysis progressed, it became clear that when the participants taught, conversed or liaised with their students the method and style of communication used was not only essential to ensure that effective communication took place but also, contributed to how the participant was perceived by the student in terms of credibility. It was decided to keep 'Communication with students' as a sub-theme of 'How I Communicate' and to refer to the overlap in the discussion.

This chapter uses each of the themes and sub-themes to present the analysis in terms of how individual participants express their perceptions of professional identity and how the group as a whole perceive it.

4.2   Becoming a professional lecturer

After many years at sea and progressing through the ranks from cadet to master, Adam found that his appetite for the job had deteriorated. Some of the original attractions no longer had the appeal they once had; his original love of the sea had now diminished to a desire to leave and to have evenings and weekends free. He became a lecturer by replying to a job vacancy in the trade press:

> To leave the sea really and simply, um, to have evenings and weekends. I think a lot of people in that position make the decision for that purpose. I'd done some lecturing in voluntary work I've been involved in, in the past; even on the ships I'd given instruction, sometimes in the form of quite formal lectures, and it's something that I enjoy as far as it went in those environments, so what the job appeared to entail appealed to me but the overwhelming motivation to leave the sea and I don't ... I'm not ashamed to admit that. (Adam).

It was obvious by his demeanour, during the interview that Adam felt quite strongly about his reasons for leaving a career at sea. His tone of voice and body language suggested that he felt uncomfortable, yet defiant, that he had made the right decision to change careers and move out

of a seafaring job. David, on the other hand, found that becoming a lecturer at a MET institute was *"...the next step"* in his career. The difference in the way these two responded to the question was quite marked; David was calm and considered in his response, whilst Adam was more animated. It appears that this was a 'critical point' in Adam's career and was not just based on a decision to go into teaching but on a lifestyle change (Hancock, 2009).

None of the lecturers in this study started their careers as a lecturer, i.e. they did not graduate from university to become a lecturer. Their subject matter expertise was developed in their careers prior to becoming lecturers and, in all cases, becoming a lecturer was not an original planned move.

Colin and Frank were both coming to the end of their careers in the Royal Navy (RN) at different times and both, by chance, met ex-colleagues from the RN who were teaching at the MET Institution. Frank had experience of training during his time in the RN:

> I'd always enjoyed training because one of the things in the Navy is the further up the rank structure you go, the more involved [in training] you are. I had a formal job in training but also it was a responsibility to your juniors to get them trained up into assisting their promotional ambitions, like passing on knowledge, holding formal, semi-formal, toolbox type training to pass on knowledge and I always got a buzz out of it, always enjoyed it.

This experience is in contrast to Colin, who experienced a similar chance meeting with a different ex-colleague:

> I did very little teaching before in my previous role, other than on job training, I had no involvement in producing courses, I have no understanding of teaching and learning to the depth I should have done; the only thing I did have, was the technical knowledge, but the teaching knowledge or how to deliver, or how to understand people, no. (Colin)

When pressed further about why Colin chose this job, he replied "...because it seemed like an easy option". He went on to explain that he was ready to leave the RN and this opportunity was fortuitous, appearing at the right time, so he took it.

Prior to becoming a lecturer, Brenda was working as a self-employed business psychologist who had recently completed a PhD. She was alerted to a job vacancy at the MET Institution by her supervisor:

> I went along for the interview, and I suddenly had this feeling do you know, they were talking about this combination of teaching, of consultancy, and also of research. And those are the three things which I really enjoy. (Brenda).

So to Brenda, this was an opportunity that presented itself as a means to use the knowledge and skills that she had been developing over the previous years. Elizabeth's career prior to becoming

a lecturer at the MET Institution included time as a radiographer, a research assistant and as a consultant with an engineering firm before she joined the MET Institution as a researcher.

Each of the lecturers in this study had different experiences in becoming a lecturer at the MET Institution. Colin and Frank had similar experiences in that a critical incident occurred where they met an acquaintance who alerted them to opportunities at the Institution. However, for these two, their motivation for taking the role was different. Frank, with his previous experience of teaching and learning, saw the role as a natural progression and opportunity to develop his skills further in an area that was familiar to him, whereas Colin found that the convenience of the opportunity outweighed any misgivings that he might have had at the time regarding his ability to teach. Also, after years in the RN and spending time away from home, both Colin and Frank appreciated the convenience of working near to where they lived, and is something they value, as Frank says:

> …at that time the courses had already been designed so it was quite a bit of a shoe in, so it was a, it was an easy option, plus the fact as I said I always enjoy training. So when I came down and had a look, had a chat, I thought 'yeah this is somewhere I could work, er it's convenient'. I won't be dishonest in the fact that it is convenient for me where I live, I can cycle to work. It's a nice working environment and er it beats trawling up and down the M4. (Frank).

Brenda's critical incident was also being alerted to an opportunity, this time by her supervisor. Others were drawn in due to their existing situations and the need to improve them (Adam and David), Elizabeth decided relatively early in her career that this was the direction she wished to take.

> Well, for me it was certainly easier to become a lecturer than it would be to become a doctor, and that's why I chose psychology over psychiatry. (Elizabeth).

Colin, Frank and Elizabeth all expressly mentioned that they thought becoming a lecturer would be an easy option, Adam implied that being a lecturer was easier than being at sea. However, in each case, the term 'easy' is used in a slightly different way. When Colin described becoming a lecturer as an easy option he was referring to the serendipity of when the opportunity arose and that he did not have to search for a new job. Frank used the term to indicate that the job was a natural progression for him as it would be based on his previous training experience in the RN, as he was told that the lessons had already been developed and all he had to do was teach a subject that he already knew well. Elizabeth used the term to describe her impression of the level of difficulty in accessing the profession:

> Anybody can become er, a university lecturer, as far as I'm aware, although universities do have different, you know, recruitment criteria. It might be that you have to have a PhD for some universities, not in this university. Erm, in this establishment you've just got to have the relevant experience, you don't have to have achieved some professional qualification, although the university asks you to do the post graduate certificate in teaching and learning; that's probably the nearest thing we've got to a professional qualification. (Elizabeth).

She viewed access to the profession as being easy based on there being no requirement to have a teaching qualification on entry. It is interesting here to note that now that Elizabeth is working at the MET Institution as a lecturer, there appears to be a sense of implied criticism in her statement and that she now feels there should be higher entry standards in order to validate and strengthen her current status as a professional lecturer.

When Adam implied that a job as a lecturer is easier than being at sea, he was referring to the fact that he is not required to be away from home for long periods of time. He now has evenings and weekends to do things at home. However, Colin's initial impression of the job caused him to doubt that he had made the right choice:

> …my initial thoughts about the job in the first six months, was square peg, round hole, square peg, round hole; I carried through and it still sort of sits with me a little bit now, but square peg, round hole, (Colin).

This is not surprising based on his own perceived lack of teaching experience; as identified above. It reflects how uncomfortable he felt on initially taking up the post of lecturer and demonstrates a lack of confidence even though, in his own words, he had the technical expertise.

Colin was not alone; Adam chose to be a lecturer as a way out of his current job. He admitted that at first he had no real desire to be involved in academia, but that has developed strongly over the 17 years he has been at the Institution:

> I think the desire to be involved in academia, if I can say that and I'm not sure I can, but that has developed since then but it's been very, very tangible since I've been involved but then I've been here for 17 years so it's perhaps not surprising. (Colin).

A common position that all the lecturers in this study shared was their lack of any formal teaching qualifications when they first became lecturers. All were qualified in their own field but what teaching they had undertaken was informal and not supported by recognised training. The Institution requires that all lecturers have a Postgraduate Certificate in Learning and Teaching in Higher Education (PGCLTHE) or equivalent on joining the Institution. If they do not have this qualification, and the majority do not, then there is a contractual requirement that they must achieve it within 2 years of taking up the post. All of the lecturers, in this study, had to attend the PGCLTHE training during their first two years in post.

4.2.1   Initial lecturer training

One of the most surprising findings to come out of this theme was the consistent view of all the lecturers regarding the PGCLTHE. Even though they found the learning outcomes useful and relevant, they all agreed that the course did not provide them with the practical skills to be a lecturer, which was their expectation. From the extract below, it appears that it was the intention of the course not to teach the practical skills of being a lecturer rather than an oversight:

> ...in fact one of the questions asked when I got to the end of the PGCE, we all sat in a room, about twenty of us, who were new academics or people, whatever reason, the guy came in, he said, put your hands up if you thought this was going to teach you, how to be a lecturer, and we all looked round, and said well yeah, we thought it would actually, some people thought from the basics, it was going to you know, how to do a PowerPoint presentation, how to deliver a course, how to do marking, how to do assessments in some respects, so the um, that element was never in it, and never is, it's, it's how people learn and how you know, people identify learning methods. (Colin).

Elizabeth also identified perceived shortcomings:

> you need to know how … how, you know, how timetables are put together, how courses are validated, how courses are quality assured, how to do assignments, how to mark assignments, processes and practices and procedures. (Elizabeth)

When asked how she gained the knowledge and skills to carry out these tasks she replied:

> By osmosis. [laughs] Yes. You pick it up as you go along, on the job. [Laughs]

These comments reflect the comments of all the lecturers in this study and they considered that the practical teaching and learning skills were essential to becoming a competent lecturer. The course is delivered by staff from the University, of which the MET Institution is part, and is provided to new lecturers at the MET Institution and the University. However, all the lecturers did comment on how beneficial the course was in terms of understanding how students learn:

> I think the overwhelming mantra I learnt was to know your learners and once you understand that and you seek to get their background it makes it a lot easier to deliver the information in a manner which is acceptable to them. (Adam).

> ...the [PGCLTHE] gave me that, a little bit more insight into, okay, I understand you now, I understand a little bit more about your culture, I understand a little bit more, how you work as a person, therefore, I can change my, or adapt my, teaching style that suits you, so you'll learn a little bit better, more effectively. (Colin).

The pedagogical knowledge and skills provided by the course was recognised as useful by all participants and helped them to understand how to adapt their own teaching styles to meet the

learning styles of the students. The constructivist approach helped the lecturers to determine what they were required to teach, based on the existing knowledge and skills of their students:

> It gave me a framework in which to operate, and it gave me an understanding of the different ways of teaching and mechanisms of learning. Erm … it helped me understand the student experience better. (Elizabeth).

This aspect of the PGCLTHE was considered important by all the lecturers in this study and, certainly for Frank, appears to have been instrumental in his transition to becoming a lecturer:

> What it does do is it point out areas of research for yourself into understanding how people learn so you can change your own approach from what you could consider in the military didactic approach to more a student centric approach ... I think it's quite a reflective course in a way where you know, you read these things, you think 'well I don't do that I just assume' and so by reading the literature, the various books it gives you, how it encourages you to look at your own ways of approaching teaching. (Frank)

Colin and Frank both mentioned the change of teaching style they have experienced from the style they used in the RN to the style they now use in the MET Institution:

> ... in my previous role, when I've been under instruction, it was listen to this, here we go, learn it, pass an exam, and off you go, try and apply it or you know, in the, where it's supposed to be applied to either at sea or wherever, but um, but now, and it goes back to the PgCert a little bit, yes it's got me to understand the people better; I suppose in some respect, which makes you more of, a better professional if you want to say in that respect about delivering courses . (Colin).

Before starting the PGCLTHE, the lecturers' views of education were based on their experience as students at school, college, RN or when they have had the opportunity to teach, however informally. This view, when combined with their industrial experience, promoted particular expectations based on prior knowledge of what it means to be a lecturer. All the lecturers expected to be given the knowledge and practical skills to teach, equivalent to the 'tools of the trade'. Based on their experience they were not expecting topics such as student-centred learning, learning styles, different cultures and reflective practice among others. These 'new' areas were found to be very beneficial to the lecturers and partially prepared them for their new roles. However, the perceived gap, between what was expected and what was delivered, still existed on completion of the training and this knowledge and these skills had to be found 'on the job'. The potential issue was that there was not any formal guidance on what needed to be learned and when.

Elizabeth mentioned an occasion when there was a need to revalidate one of her courses. There was no-one in the department who had experience of this due to the unique delivery style of the course (distance learning) and, as a result, she found herself "running in circles" between support departments, trying to get the correct guidance:

> … programme, course monitoring, you haven't done all the right things and filled in the right bits of paper that you should have done so it's just … it's just tedium, really and it sort of impacts on your efficiency.

The particular issue was not knowing which questions to ask, which resulted in some last minute work to meet requests and frustration for the lecturer. Brenda, also, was very forthright in complaining that she was never shown how to construct the quality paperwork for a course and the fact that she didn't even know that each course had its own quality file.

4.2.2   Being a professional lecturer

This section looks at how the individual lecturers described how they teach. Although the comments are not all encompassing it is interesting how each individual described how they teach and what was important to them. All lecturers at the MET Institution who have course leadership responsibilities are responsible for the design, development, administration and maintenance of their courses. This determines how the courses run and how each lesson within the course is delivered. Squires (1999) in his proposed model of teaching as a professional discipline describes activities relating to the course as the macro level and activities relating to the lesson as the micro level. All lecturers in this study operate at both levels as is expected of a professional lecturer, according to Squires. Adam, when discussing course design identified the link between knowing the subject matter and knowing the learners:

> Well, even some things, some basic things like lesson planning and pitching the material in the right level and you can't pitch it at the right level if you don't know what the level is in the first place and that needs knowing your learners. (Adam).

This is consistent with the findings identified earlier regarding the topics taught on the PGCHLTE where one of the main areas of study was on the psychology of learning. Adam became quite animated when he stressed that it was very important that the students understood the subject material in the context of the industry. Here, he remarked that "stories from my time at sea help to put the theory into context and that's important". There is a link here to credibility; the students not only get the knowledge, but get it from a credible source that they can trust. Furthermore, it is not only the credibility of the lecturer but the combined credibility of the lecturer and the organisation.   The methods used by Adam in delivering the lessons vary depending on the subject to be taught and the level of prior knowledge the students have.

In the design of his courses, Colin mentioned that he has to consider aspects such as the aims, learning objectives, assessment and outcome. These are constrained by certain rules and regulations that are laid down by the regulatory body responsible for the courses such as MNTB

and Ofsted. Whilst he has a certain degree of freedom to design the course, the constraints set by external bodies can pressure him into teaching in a way that goes against his better judgement:

> ..if you have twenty four people, then you're only going to hit surface for about two of them, and they're the nearest standing to you, when you're demonstrating something, for instance, on the switchboard so um, yeah, so as in design of the course, but then it's got to conform to certain rules and regulations as well. (Colin).

This statement indicates a tension between how the lecturer would wish to design a lesson (professional judgement) compared to how the requirements are set by the organisation, in this case the number of students on the course (organisational requirement). The constant pressure to teach the maximum amount of students per course reflects the commercial and financial pressures experienced by the organisation. These pressures appear to be transferred to the lecturer who has to make compromises to their preferred method of teaching.

When teaching, David recognised that he has a certain degree of autonomy in determining how he chooses to deliver the material, ensuring that effective learning has taken place and how he assesses the students. He also recognised that there are procedures to follow and regulations to ensure that the standards are maintained between courses. These vary depending on the type of course he is teaching; for those courses that are delivered as part of the seafarers' professional certification the pass criteria is set out by the MCA, the regulating body, whereas for the pure academic courses, on the MSc course for example, the lecturer has more autonomy in setting the assessments provided the process follows the university procedures. In this case, the difference between delivering a vocational course and delivering an academic course is the degree of autonomy the lecturer has. In the conceptual framework Squires's model is based on a cuboid to represent the three axes. This is quite apt as the cuboid can also represent a classroom where the findings suggest that the lecturers experience their greatest autonomy when they are teaching in a classroom.

In many courses, and in all the MSc courses, students submit assignments to be assessed by the lecturers. In this instance the lecturer decides how they interpret the University's guidelines when it comes to marking the assessments:

> If I'm thinking about for instance working with the distance learning MSc, and students are submitting work, and I'm marking it for instance, I know I will spend a lot of time doing that, probably more than the academy would like me to do. Because I'll read through their work, I'll make notes on what they've said, I'll do it on a Word document, I'll get it all sorted and then I will put it into Turn It In. Because there's something about trying to be as precise and accurate as I can. Yeah, again this sounds a bit wussy but it's to give of my best to the students, because it matters. (Brenda).

Brenda admitted here that she spends far too much time on assessing the students' work than is recommended. She is driven by her desire to do a good job. Her language, whilst not apologetic, does reflect that she feels that this is extraordinary and is self-depreciating in describing herself. She justified this extra effort by describing why she felt this way:

> I feel passionately about that because seafaring, as you know, but the majority of people in this country don't, is a challenging and sometimes dangerous operation. And so I believe that maritime lecturers owe it to people that they are sending out to give them the best chance of personal survival, but also to be personally professional themselves. I think we owe it to them, and when they're working in a dangerous and difficult environment even more so. And I'll confess that I get frustrated if I see people who don't pick that up as lecturers, because I think we have a duty to our students in that respect. That means putting quite a lot of effort in. The effort means time. As you're aware, the way most higher education institutes operate, is that there's this tension between bringing in money to the organisation, and getting large numbers of students through as quickly and cheaply as possible. (Brenda).

She recognised that her wish to serve the students well and devote more time to marking scripts and teaching may well conflict with the organisation's wishes and causes tensions. These tensions, she noted, come from the management companies who sponsor the students on the courses. Her view was:

> ... there's pressure obviously from the management companies for instance, to make courses as short as possible, because it costs money. Management companies or ship owners want to get their people through as quickly as possible; the organisation wants to make money to keep itself afloat. You've got three different tensions straight off, even with people of goodwill…lecturers are only marked down for their face to face contact. So the effort that I was talking about earlier about marking students' work doesn't get counted. Support of students doesn't get counted. The only thing that gets counted is this face to face stuff. For me it isn't just the face to face stuff that's about professionalism, it's all the back office work that supports it. And yet that's not recognised or not counted if you like. (Brenda).

This captures the tension that Brenda felt herself. The only way she can be a good lecturer, in her view, is when she is putting substantial effort into the tasks even when she knows that the effort will not be recognised by the organisation. It is not even considered when the course programmes are designed, yet, her idea of being a good lecturer includes the 'back office' effort. This feeling of not being valued by the organisation is echoed by Elizabeth:

> We're just put to work and the teaching hours contracts … erm, and we're not considered as individual people with … of value to the organisation, other than just standing … how often we stand in front of a class. (Elizabeth).

While this may be different in other FE/HE institutions a nominal recognition of an agreed workload model is often disregarded in order to do the best for the MET students as indicated by

Brenda and Elizabeth. Frank also mentioned this tension when describing how important

feedback is to him and the organisation:

> ...if the feedback er requires any alterations to the course content or the way it's
> delivered, I take that on-board and hopefully apply it for the next course, okay. If it's
> feedback that requires feeding up the erm food chain, then I let them know, it could be
> that it's something out with your control, like the accommodation, catering, so your line
> manager needs to be aware so he can take action because feedback's useless unless you
> do something about it erm otherwise it's just an empty form. (Frank).

He was also aware of the importance of the message that the students' feedback to their own

organisation and how that could affect the MET Institute as a business:

> ...if their feedback to their company is that the course has been worthwhile and they've
> been well looked after, then obviously that feeds back into the business case. You know
> what I mean and people continue to book courses er I do feel there's a genuine urge at
> the moment, in our organisation er driven by finance to make sure that the students go
> back happy no matter what . (Frank).

This second extract from the interview demonstrates the conflicting pressures felt by Frank.

Whereas the first extract reflected his need, on a professional basis, to deliver a good course to

the students and make changes to future courses where necessary for the benefit of future

students, the second extract reflects the pressures on the lecturer to ensure that the course

receives favourable feedback from the students on the current course in order that their

companies continue to book courses and maintain the business. As mentioned in section 1.7, this

is becoming increasingly important across the whole university with the introduction of TEF and

the notion of the student as a consumer. All lecturers are now becoming aware of the impact

that feedback can have regarding the student experience and the performativity challenges that

go along with it. There may be a tendency to reduce the challenges faced by the students during

the course to ensure positive feedback rather than to stretch their abilities as part of the learning

experience.

This is further amplified:

> I think er this organisation as it currently stands is very focussed on, as I said before,
> bums on seats. Number of courses, let's rush in, you know what I mean, there's an
> income stream to be achieved. (Frank).

In Frank's case he has experienced pressure from the organisation to deliver changes to a course

that he doesn't feel confident in teaching:

> A lot of the time it does because we're finding ourselves er pushed into a corner to say
> for example, design and deliver a course that we don't feel one hundred per cent
> confident delivering. ... Which goes against all the things I've talked about
> professionalism before. ... have I got credibility to teach this particular course when I've
> got no experience? No I haven't. Do I feel, that I'm going to be confident delivering this

course? I shall deliver it as confidently as I can, however if I find myself in a situation where I am, my knowledge base isn't intuitive, i.e. I have to think about it and come back with an answer, and my credibility starts to get eroded with the course members over a week, then to me that's not being professional, ... erm so we're being driven by an urge to make money, being backed into a corner, it's not been really well thought through and time wise it's been rushed so we're developing a course that we've been asked to deliver from day one and it's not been tested. (Frank).

Frank's comments reflect the threat to credibility that the lecturers feel along with tensions between the organisation and the individual that have been a recurring theme throughout these findings. His concern about delivering material outside his experience infers that he feels he is only credible when he considers that he has sufficient experience. As Sachs (2005) points out, professional identity provides a framework for teachers to construct their own ideas of being a teacher. Here, Frank feels his identity as a lecturer is weak because of the depth of knowledge he has about his subject compared to how he perceived himself as a professional in his role as an engineer prior to becoming a lecturer. This also reflects the discussion in Chapter Two regarding the level of knowledge a professional is likely to have on a subject and is represented in Table 2.2. Frank expects to have the knowledge of an expert, in this case an intuitive grasp of a situation, rather than having to think carefully about procedures and refer to handbooks

It is interesting that there are similarities between what Frank said and what Brenda identified earlier in this chapter. The common thread in the attitude of the lecturers towards being effective and their desire to do a good job is that they both see these as challenges to be overcome rather than be defeated by them:

> Er do you want to give of your best? It's a question you ask yourself saying, instead of saying "well if they don't care why should I?" Well actually I do care because at the end of the day I care that the students get the best that they can from me and from the college erm and so I'll continue to do that because I consider myself a professional in that regard, however, it is going to take a while for the new courses before I'm comfortable to say that yeah they are getting the best out of me and the college. (Frank).

Whilst showing that there are common issues regarding the tensions between the wishes of the organisation and of the lecturers, it is clear that the desire to deliver the best for the benefit of the students is a major driving force with all the lecturers and they are willing to make compromises, with regards to their own time and energy, as a result. Elizabeth was emphatic whilst describing her understanding of the role of a lecturer and echoed the views of all the participants with her focus on students, communication and the subject matter:

> You need to be able to communicate ideas, complex ideas, in a way that others can take them on board. You need to understand how learning progresses. You need to value

the students' learning experience and value your students. You need to be computer literate these days, you need to be able to engage in scholarship, in terms of deepening your knowledge and understanding. I would argue you have to be … you have to have a deep understanding of your subject matter. You need to be organised, you need to be self-managed in terms of your learning and your career, and I think you need to erm … you know, access the resources, the training, whatever it is, courses, seminars, workshops, that help you develop either your subject matter expertise or your teaching practice. (Elizabeth).

It is interesting that Elizabeth used the term 'self-managed' when describing her professional development and future career. When taken in conjunction with her previous statement, where she perceives that the organisation only values her in terms of contact hours, it can be seen that she views her relationship with the organisation as transactional where she is providing a service and her own professional development is at her discretion. However, it should be noted that the resources for Elizabeth to attend professional development events are provided by the organisation in terms of time, travel and accommodation. Also, the organisation provides many in-house professional development events so, whilst Elizabeth's perception is that the arrangements for her own development are entirely up to her, she is actually supported by the organisation.

Elizabeth recognised her preference for working closely with her colleagues:

You need to be able to relate to your peers. Although this isn't critical, it probably reflects more my way of working, work as a team on a course by course basis, although many lecturers are sort of individuals and don't really work in a team environment. (Elizabeth).

The observation that many lecturers work as individuals and not in a team environment is not borne out in the findings from others, for example Colin recognised the value of being part of a team:

I think it is important that there's a sharing of knowledge and an understanding of other people's roles as well, um, …, yeah, I think you have to, certainly in an academic sense, it's a bit like cricket, although you bat on your own, there's an element of whatever you do, affects the whole team, you know, if your teaching is not very good, or consequently it's very good, that impacts on the other professionals within the team, you need to have direct, um, connection with them as well, it doesn't matter if they're dealing with the same particular subject or a similar subject, it's the whole part of the academic bedrock I suppose of the establishment, so you do need professional um relationships with individuals as well, constantly, to maintain that, because, if you don't, then your weak link will manifest itself somewhere else, and put pressure on them, whether it's financial pressure or academic pressure or reputation pressure. (Colin).

In this analogy, Colin recognised the responsibilities of the individual lecturer to their colleagues and organisation. He used the analogy well and it reflected his view that the team depend upon each other for success. He was quite aware that he is operating in an environment that is subject to external pressures but that collegiality helps to support individuals in this environment.

4.3   My Credibility

Seemiller and Priest (2015), building on the work of Kouzes and Posner (2011), identify credibility as playing an important factor in an individual's self-perception of their professional identity. The findings in this study also reflect this. It is interesting to note that, despite the differences in how they became lecturers, all the individuals in this study negotiate their own credibility based on their background and professional experiences and seek approval from students, peers and management.

The Merchant Navy background of both Adam and David is very important to them and they perceive that it gives them a legitimacy that enhances their credibility:

> Well, I think, um, clearly the work I'm involved in now in terms of the knowledge of shipping has been built on experience so when I teach it I'm not just conveying information that has been put on slides or a piece of paper in front of me, I'm putting it within the context of my own experience which I think helps. (Adam).

For David, being recognised as a professional is important; it was instilled into him as a child and is directly related to his credibility. This recognition from others, including family, is very important for his sense of self-worth.

> I think that's something I grew up with that was instilled to me when I was a child that if I was going to get anywhere I needed to be recognised as a professional, professionally in some way shape or form. (David).

David sees credibility as essential if the lecturer is going to appear as a professional to the student:

> I think credibility is important to me and the student as well...I'm happy because if I go and teach a Captain of a ship, because I've been a Captain, I'm quite happy to go and teach Masters because I have a Masters qualification and because I do write papers and go and attend conferences, to me it's in the same way that they are expecting, they want to know that they're being taught by somebody if you like who is competent in their own right. (David).

This view of 'been there, seen it, done it' appears to be deep-rooted in David and one that he continues to stress by describing how, when he went for a lesson in flying a light aircraft, his lecturer was in his early 20s. Although David saw him as young, the lecturer reassured him by confirming that he had a private pilot's licence and experience of teaching people to fly an aircraft. David was content with this and recognised the lecturer as being credible. Whilst his anecdote attempts to clarify that David does not view youth as a barrier to credibility, other statements in the interview contradicted this, for example:

> ...would a Captain in the Merchant Navy who is 30 odd be expecting to be taught by somebody who is 20, who hasn't been a Captain at sea, I don't know. (David).

He did go on to qualify this by accepting that he was referring to role specific training rather that subject specific teaching. For example, teaching seamanship as opposed to teaching mathematics. His criticism is not just about age but a combination of age and lack of experience in the particular role that is being taught:

> ...whenever you're talking to one of the students here you have to say that there are two things that they're interested in, they're interested in the professional status of the person who is actually delivering the material but they're also interested in the ability of the person to actually deliver the material to them. (David).

According to Adam, it is not just the fact that having been to sea gives the individual credibility but also the way the individual acts when interacting with others from the industry:

> The credibility which, as I was suggesting at the beginning, might come from your status or previous status, but I think the way you speak to people, er, on, on equal terms rather than anybody being particularly superior or inferior helps and treating them as fellow professionals and treating them with respect and trying to earn respect that way. So there's a lot of non-technical elements to it as well. (Adam).

The importance of good subject and technical knowledge is apparent here along with having the confidence to deal with people in a professional manner. Adam and David gain this from their knowledge and experience in the MN, in conjunction with their pedagogic knowledge and skills.

Not all the lecturers in this study were able to support their claims to credibility by falling back on experience in the MN. Colin's perspective, for example, is more to do with the roles that the individual has performed in the past, rather than being in the same context as the students. Whilst he and Frank have a maritime background (over 25 years each) it is not in the MN. Nonetheless, Colin does not see this as a barrier to his credibility. He considers his credibility is derived from being at sea and performing roles that are similar whilst not exactly replicating those of his students. He might not have been a Chief Engineer on a merchant vessel but he is experienced with maintenance, defect repairs, watch-keeping and running departments on a ship. Here, it is the role that is critical and not the exact context. However, the context of his experience is very similar and, due to the diverse operations in the MN, it may be considered to be the same to someone from outside the industry.

Credibility was not only linked to shared industrial experience, as many of the students on the courses, both FE and HE, come from different countries and cultures and Frank was aware that credibility can be recognised in different ways by different cultures. Students from a cultural background that has a high power distance (Hofstede, 2013) assume "you must be a wise man because you are old" (Frank). This initial impression had to be supported by examples of

experience that the students recognised as being valid, i.e. they are seen as relevant to the subject being taught. Colin recounted an example where the majority of a class of students from India would not speak up in class nor engage with him in debate. At the first break time, he took the opportunity to discuss this with a couple members of the class who were not as reluctant to engage as their classmates. He was told that the remainder of the class had not been taught outside India before and it was their custom to respect someone of his age and position as a 'Guru'. Therefore in their view, everything he said was right and did not require debate. Colin did not want to challenge the cultural 'norms' but needed to ensure effective teaching and learning took place. He engaged those students who were more forthcoming and asked them to engage their classmates in the debates, still lead by Colin. This approach did not affect his credibility in the eyes of the class but he did say that he could detect that some of the students were still reluctant to be involved and appeared slightly uncomfortable initially. Whilst Colin made a point of giving this particular example, it is representative of occurrences that all the participants have experienced.

In comparison to the other lecturers Brenda and Elizabeth do not have a seagoing background. Brenda and Elizabeth could consider that there is a wide gap in credibility between those who have 'been there, seen it, done it' and themselves. However, they have developed their knowledge of the industry and together with knowledge of their specific subject area and experience they negotiate their credibility by finding various ways of linking it to the occupational context. They do not feel disadvantaged by not having specific seagoing experience, but they do feel the need to stress how their experience and knowledge are relevant to the context:

> I think you've got to know your stuff, I think you've got to have some sort of degree of credibility in what you're putting across. I think you've got to have time for your students. (Brenda).

> ... the students have a respect for what I know and understand and my experience is relevant to them and what I teach them is relevant to them, and that I can communicate that to them. And that they … [pause] value what they're receiving, or their experience. (Elizabeth).

The fact that pedagogic expertise is important to both Brenda and Elizabeth reflects the value they both put on engaging with the students and how they develop credibility with them. In addition, the individuals recognise that they gain credibility from the organisation:

> I think your credibility comes from who you are, what you say er and to a certain extent the organisation you work for. You know, this organisation has got a good reputation so they will look at you and say "well if he works for that organisation therefore they're not going to employ you know, no hopers, so the credibility comes from the company you work for. (Frank).

This is important to the findings as it is an example of where the participants acknowledge that they gain kudos from representing the organisation in the form of outward facing credibility. However, this reciprocity is understood to be important and adds to the responsibility of the individual to be professional:

> Okay, I've got a responsibility to be a good lecturer, because if the organisation is filled with poor lecturers then the students are going to say that to their employing organisations, and maybe we lose work as a result of it. (Brenda).

Whilst the participants recognised their responsibility to be professional, some also expressed their doubts about whether the organisation supported this mutual understanding in the same way. David expressed his fears that if the standard of recruitment to the organisation continues to fall, as he has observed, then the reputation of the organisation and the lecturers would be affected.

> ...now I look at it and I see people who come into the industry, or teaching if you like who haven't in my view erm almost cemented their own knowledge and I do wonder if they hadn't cemented their own knowledge how, if you like how strong is the foundation they're building in the knowledge of the other people...but it does seem to me that the actual professional status that we've got teaching seems to be being diluted all the time in this organisation until we're down to, the last Master out the door, you know and we'll be replaced by other people who don't, who've never done it … (David).

This view was particularly strong from David who appears to measure credibility in terms of position he held in the MN. If he had his way, all the senior lecturers at the MET Institution would be ex-Masters from the MN, although his view did not appear to be substantiated by the student feedback reviewed in this study. Whilst there were student comments that recognised the value of being taught by ex-Merchant Navy officers, there were no comments by students who felt that those lecturers without a merchant navy background were any less credible or able to provide the level of teaching they expected. Also, none of the other lecturers interviewed expressed concern regarding the credibility of other lecturers or the reduction in standards. This probably reflects the 'advantage' that Adam and David perceive they have over other lecturers who are not as closely linked with their industrial experiences.

4.3.1 Links with occupation

The close affinity an individual lecturer has with their previous occupational area is very obvious and understandable as it gives them a perceived credibility that others would find difficult to imitate.

> I find my, um, my environment is still very much based within industry rather than academia, I still find the two as separate entities, not mutually exclusive but they're not,

> they're not the same. I think my contacts and work within industries is still greater than my academic involvement. (Adam).

In this extract, Adam appeared not to have embraced an academic identity and to be reticent to the idea of being a dual professional. He appeared to be relying on his knowledge in his previous profession rather than developing a knowledge base in his new profession. However, when asked how he would describe himself in terms of his identity Adam quite firmly replied: "I'm a university lecturer with an industrial background." This was a little surprising and, when pressed further on this topic, he went on to explain that he saw his future firmly within academia. He intends to use his previous experience to research aspects of the maritime industry as an academic. David perceived himself to be a professional mariner who teaches; however, this appears to be based on the time spent in each occupation and is likely to change in the near future:

> I've actually been a lecturer for erm, oh 10 or 12, 13 years so I haven't quite lectured for longer than I've been at sea. I mean I will soon tip over that and I may say that yes, I might I could very, I could be changing camps in some ways, in other words going from the seafarer who lectures to being the lecturer now who used to be at sea because I've probably now got almost the equivalent time teaching that I have done being at sea. So in some respects I could see that within say a year or two you could quite easy qualify me as being a senior lecturer who was at sea. (David).

In his previous career in the MN, David had experienced significant role changes which have affected his own, and others' perception of his role. When he was a captain of a ship, the ship was his place of work and his home and the home of the crew he was responsible for. His role was one of caring for individuals, ensuring that all crew needs were met and that the ship transported cargo efficiently and effectively along a pre-determined route. He eventually moved from being a captain of a ship at sea and moved into a management job ashore as a superintendent responsible for the management of a number of ships in the organisation. He now viewed his previous ship as one of a number of economic units and, whilst the welfare of the ship and crew were still a main concern, his role was now focussed on a fleet and ensuring commercial success for the organisation. He gave this as an example of a previous occasion where he had experienced the dual roles of a seafarer and a shore manager:

> So I do believe that we can, we can have dual roles in those things, that as a senior lecturer or as a lecturer I have this role now as being the lecturer which is different than being as my role as a seafarer and therefore yeah I can fulfil both of those roles. (David).

The example that David offered is similar to the notion of dual professionalism when discussing the role of a lecturer who maintains their links with the previous occupation while teaching. The notion of dual professionalism is common to Adam and David and supports the individuals in their negotiated credibility claims as considered in the literature review.

Colin and Frank also saw the duality in their role but regarded their industrial experience as the predominant factors indicating that they are maritime engineers who teach. Frank did not see himself as a professional educator mentioning his own lack of experience in other teaching methods, course design and course evaluation. He was in the process of developing a new course and he anticipated that he would feel more confident once the finished course was accepted by the accrediting external authority. The shortage of experience in a wide variety of teaching methods was largely due to the dearth of opportunity owing to the nature of the courses he delivers (small groups and technical in nature). Lack of confidence in teaching is very much Frank's perception as there is no evidence of student feedback to indicate that either Frank or Colin are any less able as lecturers than any others in this study. However, self-perception is very important to the individual when negotiating their own credibility. For example, if an individual's view of a lecturer is someone who teaches, then their perception of credibility will centre on such tasks as teaching design, delivery, assessment, evaluation, currency, etc. If, however, the credibility of a lecturer is viewed as teaching and researching, then research ability, experience and qualifications will also be required.

However, not all the participants were comfortable with the concept of a duality; Brenda perceived that her credibility is built on her background and experience and is a combination (or sum) of the multiplicity of her previous roles rather than a dichotomy between one professional role and another. She used the metaphor of a 'disco light' to help explain how she perceives her multiple professional identities are important in creating the whole. Even though one facet may be more in focus at a particular time than another, they coalesce to form Brenda's professional self-concept that is reflected in her beliefs about her credibility:

> And it's the, the image I would give you; it's a bit like one of those disco balls you see on the ceiling, and with large reflections in it. So you might stand in one place and see one reflection, and in another place and see another reflection. So I don't see it as a split. I think there are times when, no I couldn't even say that, I was going to say when I would see myself more as a psychologist than a lecturer, or more as a lecturer, no I don't. This is all part of me; it's all wound up in my own experience and my own background. And I think a good professional, or an effective professional I should say, uses all those aspects of themselves to deliver as best they can. So I don't think I split in one area or another (Brenda).

Similarly, Elizabeth's credibility is based on her expert knowledge, qualification as a psychologist and her current academic role. Her role encompasses more research activity than any of the other lecturers in this study:

> … I see myself as a subject matter expert in the area of applied psychology in all of its manifestations to the maritime industry, predominantly human resource and safety management. And … and so as an academic that encompasses research expertise as well as lecturing expertise, as well as knowledge … Erm … [long pause] But I haven't ever

practiced in maritime HR, so it'd be … [pause] So as a practicing Occupational Psychologist … I'm not in professional practice in the area of occupational psychology … No, I'm an academic, I'm informing, I'm educating. (Elizabeth).

The next section further develops the theme of 'My Credibility' and explores the sub-theme of 'Being an Expert'.

4.3.2   Being an expert

An interesting finding was the notion of being an expert, and the participants were divided on this. Both Elizabeth and Brenda were happy to describe themselves as experts in their own areas. Elizabeth appeared more confident in calling herself an expert, though Brenda referred to her 'expertise' rather than simply being an expert:

> ..but I think it is part of professionalism, is that you share that expertise, and that's why being a lecturer suits me so well because it does allow me to share that expertise. (Brenda).

These views were not shared by the other interviewees. They were uncomfortable describing themselves as experts owing to the interpretation that an expert has nothing else to learn:

> Well, it implies that you've got more knowledge than other people about a certain topic, and I wouldn't necessarily deny that but I think that it's a pervasive term which implies elements that individuals may not be comfortable with and I wouldn't feel comfortable either. (Adam).

> I wouldn't say I was a subject matter expert, because I don't like the term expert anyway. It sounds like somebody who's got nothing left to learn, however, in my subject area, I consider myself extremely competent in delivering the courses but because I've not had experience of other forms of delivery, i.e. I haven't done cadet training, I haven't done a large lecture theatre lecturing, I wouldn't consider myself the complete article. (Frank).

These comments reflect that the majority of the interviewees were not comfortable calling themselves experts. Course feedback reflects that each of the participants are competent in their own subject and do have extensive knowledge, but they consider that pronouncing themselves as experts to be arrogant and a precarious position to be in, as it can be seen to be setting themselves above academic colleagues or individuals from industry. However, as professionals it is important to each of the participants that they maintain and develop their level of expertise. Adam views membership of a professional body as being valuable to him in terms of a knowledge resource and networking opportunities:

> I think the best and biggest part of it is that they give you an idea of what people like oneself are doing in other organisations and you, you exchange knowledge, um, technical knowledge and maybe non-technical knowledge as well. (Adam).

In addition, he actively contributes to a number of professional bodies by attending conferences, writing and presenting papers and sitting on committees. By conducting these activities, he is associated with the professional bodies and they give him an identity and credibility to others (people outside the closed community) who may see him as an expert, a perception that might not be obvious with just his qualifications, experience and job. Colin echoed the views of Adam in terms of keeping current with industry specific knowledge and in terms of credibility:

> ...to give you the credibility again of having the professional body, your work underpinned and overseen by a professional body. (Colin).

It was perceived by the participants that being a member of a professional body provides credibility by association to the lecturers, in much the same way as working for the particular MET Institution. However, not all the lecturers view the benefit of the professional bodies in the same way. Once a member of the Nautical Institute, David is no longer a member because, in his words:

> I'm not a member anymore because I found at the time it was not, the idea of being a particular member of an institute is to try and keep current but if the institute itself is not always keeping you current then there isn't much benefit in being in the institute. (David).

Frank recognised that belonging to a professional body does provide international recognition of the standard you have achieved in the profession. This is of particular interest when meeting people from the industry for the first time:

> ...if you're erm recognised by a professional body therefore you know, of a particular standard, be a chartered engineer or whatever, particular Institution then in some cultures it would affect how you are received, how you are accepted, how what you say is accepted, you know rather than saying "oh look at him he's, I only talk to people if they are you know, doctors of this". You know it depends you're interaction and nature of your job and especially if you're going abroad and you're dealing with other universities say or other Institutions where you know, it's important to have some form of recognition, or the culture that you're dealing with. (Frank).

He has never belonged to a professional body and has never felt a need for it. However, he did go on to say:

> So from that point of view, from professional recognition, this is the standards I've achieved which is an international standard, then yes they are important and say if I was ten, fifteen years younger and I was going to be in this business much longer than I intend then I would probably seek or join Institutions for that purpose. (Frank).

In terms of maintaining and updating their knowledge, all the lecturers use a wide variety of resources in addition to belonging to a professional body; these include: industry journals; books; seminars; conferences; webinars; Linked-in; Facebook; and incident reports.

To all the lecturers, credibility is an important part of their professional identity. It gives them the confidence to stand up in front of students and teach; it allows them to discuss issues with senior management and external authorities. All the lecturers in this study do consider that they are credible to carry out their roles, but there is a degree of scepticism amongst the lecturers concerning each other's credibility. Those that have a long history of being at sea in the MN view others, who do not have sea experience, as being less credible and a sign that the credibility of the organisation is diminishing. However, there is no evidence to support this, certainly not from the student feedback reports.

The following theme explores how the participants see communication as important to their perception of being a professional. The first sub-theme, 'Communicating with Students' was particularly interesting as it strongly supports the theme of 'My Credibility'. This is discussed further in the next chapter.

4.4 How I Communicate

4.4.1 Communicating with students

The lecturers in this study teach two distinct groups of students in terms of course level and subject area, as described in Chapter 1.   The methods employed in communicating with those students on vocational, non-levelled courses and academic level 7 courses can vary. Adam, for instance, when dealing with the students on his vocational courses, is very aware that there are certain cultures, values and norms associated with working in this particular part of the maritime industry. He ensures that he communicates with these students within a context that is familiar to his students:

> When I'm teaching I'm ... certainly on the short courses, the tanker work, I'm dealing with people who work in the industry and they're not academics and they're not, they're not necessarily expecting to be involved in academia, it's more they're thinking about short course training. However, the vast majority of people I do teach on these courses are professionals themselves and all that I was saying earlier on about using the provisions around you and not pretending you know everything there is to know but being open to, um, other advice, listening, contribution in conversations, they're professionals as well and most of them accept, without sounding ... sounding conceited,

they accept me as being a professional or form of professional in their industry, so that makes for a very conducive training environment. (Adam).

It is important to Adam that he is accepted as a fellow professional and, as such, he ensures that he links the topics within the lesson to anecdotes from his own experience. There is overlap here with the theme 'My Credibility'. However, in this theme the focus is on how the lecturer uses various methods to communicate information and project their own identity. David's approach in communicating with the class is very similar; again with the vocational courses, he provides knowledge in context that is built on his own relevant experience:

You need the knowledge that the professional needs to have, in other words the knowledge that a professional needs to have to be competent in the particular subject that you are teaching, therefore you need to have that knowledge because you need to be able to impart that knowledge to the students, I mean you can't give them all your experiences, but they have to have at least the, all the fundamentals and all the building bricks if you like of that knowledge needs to be in place. (David).

The repeated use of the word 'needs' in this extract, along with his body language in the interview (leaning forward, emphasising words with hand movements) gave an indication of how strongly David holds the view that it is practical technical knowledge he needs rather than theoretical knowledge and it is as if this is fundamental to being able to teach these students. This is similar to Adam's view and mirrors the occupational versus theoretical knowledge that has been discussed in the literature review in section 2.5. Throughout all the interviews, the topic of communicating with students within the context of the occupation was common; however, with both Adam and David, it was very specific to their own experiences and the fields in which they have worked.

In contrast to Adam and David, in terms of merchant navy seafaring experience, Brenda and Elizabeth both described how they communicate with the students on the vocational courses in terms of *'being honest'*, *'establishing a connection'*, and *'putting the student first'*. An interesting perspective from Brenda is how she communicates with the students making use of their experience:

...the majority of people will have quite a lot of sea experience, and they will give you examples and they will tell you. So there needs to be subtle connection if you like between you and the people that you're teaching. (Brenda).

This reflects Brenda's approach in spending time *'getting to know'* the students and building up a rapport with them. She then uses their experience to help explain a topic she is teaching. Rather than taking the role of technical expert, Brenda adopts the role of facilitator and her language is set in a context of learning and support. She doesn't consider herself to be a 'professional seafarer'; she takes the position of being an outsider to the group and adopts a person-centred approach to communicate with students and she relies on the students to provide the context.

Studying the student feedback forms for any examples that indicate whether the students feel disadvantaged by having a lecturer without sea experience, revealed no specific comments. All feedback regarding the standard of the lecturer for the course rated the lecturers above satisfactory with the vast majority of the comments at very good or excellent. However, there were a number of comments that expressed appreciation of the relative experience of the lecturers.

It's good to be taught by experienced seafarers. (Anon).

The Instructor was excellent, he'd been there, seen it done it (Anon).

Whilst the examples above show how different lecturers communicate with their students based on their own level of experience in the industry, there was much more agreement in how the lecturers communicated with students in general, on both the vocational and academic courses. The similarities of approaches, in terms of meeting the students' needs were evident. When discussing the academic classes, the issue of communicating in context, in terms of the industry, did not seem to be as big an issue to any of the lecturers. The main concern was that, due to the larger class sizes, wide cultural diversity of the classes and the large differences in experience amongst the students, the lecturers found themselves using a variety of methods to communicate complex ideas in order for the students to understand. The main difference between the vocational groups and the academic groups is that the vocational group have a strong identity with the subject matter; they are practitioners and are usually employed in the industry, whereas the students in the academic classes have an identity as a group of learners rather than in a particular vocational area. The academic students are full time students on a post-graduate course, most of whom have recently completed their first degree. The range of experience of the students in the academic classes is very much wider than those students in the vocational classes. It ranges, for example, from experienced seafarers, shoreside technical experience, shoreside management experience and human resource experience. With such a wide range of experience, it presents challenges to the lecturers in terms of relating concepts to the real world whilst maintaining the attention of the whole class. For example, Adam recounted a lesson on discussing the technical risks of maintaining a ship at sea. A few of the students, those with seafaring and those with relevant technical management experience, understood the concept immediately, whilst the majority of the class needed much more explanation regarding the basics of ship design and operation. The lecturer is faced with managing the learning at different levels and the challenge of keeping the experienced students engaged, whilst providing the not-so-

experienced students with sufficient underpinning knowledge, to develop and achieve the lesson aims.

The assessments conducted on the academic courses differ from those on the vocational courses. On the vocational courses the assessments were mainly practical in nature supported by questions (oral or written) to test knowledge and its application. The duration of the assessments ranged from 30 minutes to 2 hours and was conducted on the last day of the course. On the academic courses, the assessments were longer in duration and usually took the format of reports, essays or projects. The process of meeting the assignment criteria was at the forefront of the students' minds and much of the communication relates to this whereas, in the vocational classes, the communication was more focussed on the content of the course:

> ...they want to not only grasp the concept of what we're talking about, the mechanics of, say, commercial operations and things like that, but they want to be able to express it themselves in their assignments, so things like creating a good argument, creating an argument with a foundation, referencing an analysis evaluation, that sort of thing. (Adam).

When describing their relationship with the academic groups, it was noted that neither Adam nor David stressed their previous experience as a MN seafarer as strongly as they did when communicating with the vocational training groups. Rather than falling back on their experiences as seafarers, Adam's and David's communication centred more on understanding the students' needs and developing academic skills in order to complete course assignments. The area of focus in the lessons on the academic courses is much wider in scope than in the vocational courses and at a higher level:

> So it's not quite so technical, a lot of it is more conceptual, particularly in terms of things like security and commercial management because you're, you're trying to explain some very straightforward fundamentals. (Adam).

In this statement, Adam is referring to the fact that the vocational courses tend to be practical and the discussions in class are centred on the knowledge and skills required to conduct complicated and demanding procedures. In the academic courses, discussions centre on ideas and constructs that support the learning outcomes, which may not be as technically complicated as the details in the vocational courses, but are theoretically complicated and the communication is more of an academic nature rather than vocational, and both Adam and David stressed this in their communication style.

Notwithstanding, the different approaches associated with either the vocational or academic classes, there was a consistency of approach in the way that the lecturers relate to their students. It is obvious that all the lecturers focussed on ensuring that effective learning takes place and that the students are successful:

So they've got to be able to stimulate students, they've got to make them feel some degree of enthusiasm...a lecturer's got to be able to walk away feeling they've done their very best to communicate their knowledge and pass it on. (Brenda).

...the desire to transfer their knowledge into somebody else, but I think it's just yeah, a general love of, of engaging with people... (Colin).

...pass the knowledge along to your student, in other words you need to have the ability to talk to the student, present the information to the student in the way that the student can understand, to be able to react with the student, to have the personality... (David).

These comments reflect the fact that the lecturers view communication with the students as essential to their own success; however, these comments should not be taken out of context they are relevant to the theme of 'How I Communicate', but are not the whole description of how the lecturers teach. Building relationships with the students is also very important, especially when considering the ethnic origin of the students:

But their English might not be as good as mine but then you start looking into things, especially from you know, cultural differences and then we talk about power distance, we talk about how certain cultures, right? Respond to erm discipline or respond to authority differently to other people. Some, some cultures are happy to challenge, some are not. You mean and how do they mix? Is it an oil and water sort of mix in this situation? Can you see some guys slipping towards the back, like happy just to take the information but never to challenge? Or do you get some guys through the front continuously challenging and he's challenging purely to establish himself in the hierarchy of the course even though he might not be the senior guy. (Frank).

Teaching in a multicultural environment does bring out concerns, as identified by Frank. The lecturers have to deal with these in a sensitive manner in order to demonstrate they are treating all students equally and fairly. In both the academic and vocational courses there is a diverse range of nationalities and cultures represented by the students. In this context, culture not only refers to national and ethnic origin but also professional and organisational. All these affect the dynamics within the classroom and, it can be argued, are of as equal importance as the subject matter itself. If the students are not comfortable and at ease, then their ability to learn can be affected:

All these guys have come from foreign countries, may never come to England before, language might not be brilliant so we make sure the accommodation er where they're going to be fed, how they're being fed, because sometimes some guys will say "oh yeah the meal was fine" and then you'll find out they didn't actually eat anything, and so he spent most of the course hungry. So yeah you try and find out that the guys are comfortable, you know it's a safe controlled environment. (Frank).

These excerpts are typical of all the interviews, but Frank had a particularly emotive way of describing how cultural differences can emerge in the classroom. This was common in both the academic and vocational courses. The difficulties identified by Daly and Brown (2007) regarding the effect of cultural differences in the classroom were experienced by all the lecturers in this study. However, they all dealt with these difficulties by paying particular attention to the individual student's needs and being sensitive to any behaviour that suggested a student was being disadvantaged or was feeling uncomfortable.

4.4.2 Communication with peers

All the lecturers in this study are located in the same building, in offices that are adjacent and all share an office with at least one other lecturer. The sub-theme of communicating with peers was common throughout all the interviews but the perspective was slightly different between Brenda, Elizabeth and the rest:

> There's always a friendly environment, and again I think this is to do with the seafaring environment. There's something interesting about, there's a politeness that I've seen in seafarers. In the office you say good morning and how's your weekend and all the rest of it. (Brenda).

> And I think in my experience, having worked in different industries, it's almost unique to this seafaring environment. So relationships, if you're working on a ship and there's only a few of you, you have to learn to get on, because if you don't you're going to have a very miserable voyage. (Elizabeth).

Brenda and Elizabeth both commented on how they perceived interactions with other lecturers to be friendly. In fact, they identified it as being different from other professional groups in their experience. They associate this with the fact that the majority of the group are seafarers and are used to working and living in close confines. Elizabeth's statement demonstrated her perception of the close relationship between the professional and personal roles of an individual on board a vessel at sea, and this resonated with her person-centred approach. Brenda found that having a supportive relationship with other lecturers helped her with her lessons and knowledge:

> So you'll know Nathan over in the simulator, often times that I've talked to him about things, and it's helped me to put it into perspective. Because I haven't got the sort of seafaring background that a lot of people have, so I'll go and pick their brain shamelessly. And then bring it in to the delivery again. (Brenda).

This particular point is interesting in that the people that Brenda seeks knowledge from are not those in the immediate vicinity but those from another department in the MET Institute and located in another building. Brenda was not alone in recognising the support she gets from colleagues. Frank also mentioned the 'constructive criticism' he receives from his colleagues (Colin among them):

> So I've come back into the instructor station afterwards and said "how did that go?" Er moment of reflection, how do you think that went? And they all said "well your timing was out really, you should have concentrated on that", you know what I mean? "Slow down", erm questioning, getting feedback from the, continuous feedback by questioning. (Frank).

This collective support is consistent and helps with the feeling of belonging to a group. The group identity is also re-enforced by the use of common terminology such as '*smoko*' [tea break], '*sim*' [simulator], and '*period*' [programmed lesson time], '*leave*' [holiday] and '*culcha*' [culture] which reflect the seafarer and education context of the group. Among the benefits that were described as being part of a group were '*support*', '*hearing what's going on*', 'problems' and '*events*'. All interviewees shared this view and recognised how it benefitted the reputation of the individual, group and organisation.

4.5   My Autonomy

As described in Chapter 2, autonomy is often mentioned as one of the attributes that is used to describe a professional. This theme depicts the lecturers' concerns over their own sense of autonomy and reveals that their autonomy is limited by outside pressures:

> I think there has to be a degree of autonomy. What do I mean by that? When we're preparing courses for instance, there is laid down by the MCA what it is that we need to teach if it's an MCA approved course. But it's an overview, it doesn't go into fine detail, you know... (David).

> They expect me to deliver a course, and to teach people to a certain syllabus. There is the quality aspect within it, and there have been in my experience some muttering about the way that the quality department monitor courses. So I suppose that's another interesting aspect of autonomy, what are we controlled by, and of course quality is one of those things. (Brenda).

> I can do all this, but I'm restricted by certain standards and certain guidelines, so am I autonomous to design a course, no, is the answer to that really, if it's, if it's black and white, then the answer's no, because I have restrictions on designing the course and quality of it. (Colin).

Here, the interviewees recognise that their autonomy is restricted by external influences such as the legislative body that provides the guidelines to the course curriculum, the MET Institution's quality system that determines how the training documentation should be completed and the course programme that determines when the course should be delivered. The control exercised here, by the management of the Institution, is given credence by the participants as it takes place under the guise of 'quality'. From previous experience, this is recognised as typical of any profession and is not just applicable to teaching:

> ...professional bodies have standards that they would have to adhere to, quality standards, public protection and all that sort of thing, ethics. So yes, that would be my interpretation of autonomy. (Elizabeth).

Whilst Elizabeth appears to be able to make compromises by justifying her interpretation of autonomy, there appears to be an agreed sense of autonomy between the participants within the boundaries of the classroom, albeit dictated by the external influences mentioned. The lecturers are able to design their lessons, courses and programmes, and teach the material in their own style. When not engaged in teaching the lecturers are able to determine how they engage in other academic activities such as research, authoring papers, presenting at conferences etc. However, the lecturers did not see these other academic activities as being valued by the organisation:

> ...and I definitely get a sense that we're just commodities here. We're just put to work and the teaching hours contracts … erm, and we're not considered as individual people with … of value to the organisation, other than just standing … how often we stand in front of a class. (Elizabeth).

Elizabeth's comments, expressed emphatically, are representative of the other interviewees and allude to the frustration felt by the group in the way their performance is measured in terms of contact hours. Each lecturer is contracted for a maximum number of contact hours and their perception is that their performance is judged by senior management against how many contact hours they have achieved in a year. This performative measure is seen as simplistic by the lecturers and does not take into account the other academic activities the lecturers consider essential to their professional identity:

> For me it isn't just the face to face stuff that's about professionalism, it's all the back office work that supports it. And yet that's not recognised or not counted if you like. (Brenda).

Whilst there are no stated procedures or policies in place to constrain the academic activities that the lecturers can engage in, the external pressures and the Institution's focus on the teaching hours are seen by the lecturers to restrict the amount of time they are able to engage in these activities. Here, the lecturers see a contradiction between how they perceive their role as an academic and how the organisation perceives it. Dichotomies like these can lead to disagreement and potential conflict, so the lecturers find themselves making compromises with their own professional values. There is a question here about the degree of autonomy actually held by the participants. While they are allowed to conduct the actions necessary to deliver the courses (both FE and HE), in reality, it appears that this freedom is only a thin veneer that conceals the foundations of a highly regulated and constraining system. Brenda gave an example where a new course was being introduced to meet an industry need. She was a member of a national working party whose remit was to provide the curriculum and guidelines for maritime institutes to develop

the course. This working party consisted of representatives from the industry legislative bodies and academics from a number of maritime Institutions. The working group agreed the guidelines which included the learning objectives, the student pre-requisites, the course duration (1 week) and the maximum size of class (12). Six months after the first course was designed and delivered, a senior management group overturned the decision on class size and increased it to 24 students. Despite the protestations from the academic community the decision stood and the course continues to be taught to classes of 24:

> Well that for me is a perfect example of compromising. How can, because we are part of a university, how can a university insist on the importance of pedagogical principles and yet do something like that. It's because commercially there is a tension between the organisation as an educational Institution, and as a commercial organisation trying to, well break even if not make money... so compromises have to be made, and I recognise that because I'm reasonably pragmatic. But it causes me an issue as far as how I see myself as a professional lecturer. (Brenda).

The notion of making compromises is shared by the other interviewees and there were other examples given, such as when Frank was asked to teach a course that he felt he was not qualified or experienced to do. The pressure on the organisation, and hence the senior management, to maintain or increase revenue is understood by the lecturers; they are aware of the prevalent market forces in further and higher education and the need to remain competitive. However, they are also very much aware of what makes good teaching and learning for the students and compromising these is seen as a threat to their autonomy and their negotiated professional identity:

> Yeah, as I referred to earlier, there are compromises that, I'm not against compromise, I think whenever you have human beings together with different agendas and different focuses, there has to be a degree of compromise. I think the difficulty comes, I haven't reached that stage I've got to say, but the difficulty comes when the compromises become too much. And I think when, if my values and the organisation's values had pulled apart to that extent I would not stay. (Brenda).

The pressure to make these compromises affects the perception of the lecturer on how the organisation values them as a professional. Senior managers are viewed as being focussed on student numbers and resources, to the extent that, they do not engage much in discussion with lecturers. As a consequence, the lecturers in this study do not feel they are being treated as professionals:

> ...top management, no, they don't see us as professionals, they just see us as um, as a utility I suppose. (Colin).

4.6   Summary

The findings suggest that the participants are operating in an environment where there is real tension between their own sense of what the autonomy of a professional means and how the industry, government and Institution view it. These findings have given clear examples of where the participants have had to make compromises under pressure from the Institution. The participants appear to be trapped between wanting to provide teaching and learning to the best of their abilities, and conforming to the demands of the Institution that is providing maritime education and training in a very competitive commercial environment that is heavily regulated. The complexity and scope, in both the technical and academic courses, are worthy of note, as the topics are very specialised to the maritime industry and the level of the teaching ranges from non-levelled courses to postgraduate level courses. Lecturers are expected to operate at these levels and to be able to switch between the two, on a daily basis.

Chapter 4

Chapter 5:   Discussion, Analysis of Findings and Conclusions.

5.1   Introduction

This chapter provides an interpretation of the findings and discusses the key themes identified in the study. The chapter is arranged so that the discussion falls under each of the themes and relates them back to the research questions. In addition, the conceptual framework, identified in Chapter 2, is discussed to evaluate whether it is still applicable as a result of the analysis of the findings. The chapter will end with conclusions and recommendations.

The aim of this study was to investigate lecturers' perceptions of their own professional identity and to compare that to current views on the professional identity among lecturers at HE and FE within the research literature.   This study sought to explore if there were any tensions, gaps or contradictions between the individual participants or collectively and the common notion of professional identity, as expressed in the literature. It is anticipated that the outcome of this study will be beneficial to understanding what motivates individual lecturers and help how they perceive themselves as professionals against a changing political and social background in tertiary education.

The research questions, identified in Chapter 1 are:

1.   How does an individual manage the change of a role from a technical expert to a lecturer in tertiary education?

2.   How do lecturers in the MET Institution describe their role as a lecturer in terms of professional identity?

These questions will be addressed as the discussion progresses through the themes and the analysis.

5.1.1 A summary of the study participants

The six lecturers in this study all had previous occupations before becoming lecturers at the MET Institution. There were similarities between certain individuals in terms of their previous careers. Two came from a Merchant Navy background (Adam and David), two from a Royal Navy background (Colin and Frank), one from a Human Resource business background (Brenda) and one from a medical and research background (Elizabeth). All the participants are employed as senior lecturers at the MET Institution and work in the same department. They teach on both FE courses and also on academic programmes at HE.

The themes that were identified in the findings will be used as section headings. As this is a case study, comparisons between the individuals will be made and other evidence will be referred to such as student feedback, course reports and research diary, which were used as part of the data collection.

5.2 Becoming a professional lecturer

5.2.1 Outbound Trajectories and Critical Incidents

Using the concept of trajectory (Wenger, 1998) all the participants experienced outbound and inbound trajectories from different communities of practice, as they moved from one career path to another e.g. from an engineer in the RN to becoming a lecturer at the MET Institution. The outbound trajectories differed between the participants but there were also similarities between some. All the participants, apart from one (Elizabeth), did not have career plans to become a lecturer, some took the decision following a chance encounter which became the critical incident that initiated their outbound trajectory from their occupation (Haughton, 2012; Hancock, 2009). Others chose the path as a result of dissatisfaction with their current occupation. Examples of chance encounter include meeting a former colleague who informed the individual of a vacancy at the MET Institution (Frank) or being alerted to a vacancy at the MET Institution (Brenda). The critical incidents had presented opportunities that the participants were not looking for but were convenient at that moment in their career. Osipow and Fitzgerald (1983), cited in Hancock (2009) suggests that individuals, when progressing their career paths, generally follow the line of least resistance which may explain why some of the participants responded to chance events. Three admitted that this was the case for a variety of reasons, which included: more time for oneself (Adam); a way out of an existing job (David); and proximity of the place of work being

near to home (Frank). These were not the only reasons given by the participants for their decision to become a lecturer, all of the participants apart from two (Colin and David) had experience of delivering informal training in their current job which they had enjoyed, found rewarding and facilitated their outbound trajectory.

Frank and Colin were already experiencing outbound trajectories from their occupational community of practice prior to their chance encounters as they were both approaching their agreed retirement age from the RN. The chance encounters that Colin and Frank experienced initiated their inbound trajectories to become lecturers by presenting a potential path of least resistance to embarking on a second career. The features of the occupational communities of practice that Colin and Frank belonged to, were very similar to each other as they were both engineers, served on similar ships and had very similar experiences in the RN at different times.

In his previous occupation Adam, was a chief officer on a dredger operating along the west and south coasts of England. He was a member of a community of practice that operated the ship with a shared repertoire, mutual engagement and joint enterprise (Wenger, 1998); three dimensions of practice as the property of a community. In this case the shared repertoire included: the accepted routines on-board the ship such as watch keeping patterns; gestures and symbols particular to the organisation and the ship; and phrases and nicknames of colleagues. In their daily operations, as an example of mutual engagement, individuals worked together sharing an understanding of what was needed, how and when to work together within the organisational hierarchy on board the ship. This was essential in order to achieve the common goals of dredging a channel and depositing the spoil safely and without harming the environment and returning to port (joint enterprise). The community of practice, in this case, spanned across different organisational groups such as: deck; engineering; and catering, an example where a community of practice is not restricted to groups defined by the organisation.

Typical of this occupation were: the long periods of time away from home and their families; occasional difficult working conditions as a result of severe weather; and long hours of work which resulted in fatigue and stress. As a younger man, Adam could meet these challenges and accepted them as part of the job. As he became older, his life priorities changed and he found himself drifting to the periphery of the community of practice. The environment he had previously accepted as 'being part of the job' became one of the main factors that drove him to the periphery. Adam's outbound trajectory was facilitated by his increasingly weakened sense of participation caused by his inbound trajectories into other co-existing communities of practice (new family, social group at home, member of a voluntary group). It is accepted that individuals belong to a nexus of communities (Wenger, 1998) that may create competing demands on them.

In this case, these demands influenced Adam to change occupations and re-negotiate his professional identity. During his interview, Adam's strength of feeling, when describing why he decided to leave his seafaring occupation, was apparent in his voice and body language. It appeared to reflect defiance to a view that he might have taken an easy way out of the occupation.

David's previous occupation, prior to becoming a lecturer at the MET Institution, was very similar to Adam's. He was also a seafarer in the MN and had very similar learning experiences. He had also decided to move 'ashore' due to changing priorities in his life. However, he had made the move prior to his previous job and moved from being a Superintendent for a shipping company (a shore based position) to becoming a lecturer. Rather than a critical incident occurring, he made a conscious decision to become a lecturer and began an active search for a new position. Of similar qualifications, experience and age, David's outbound trajectory appeared to be considered and planned, whereas Adam's suggested an emotionally motivated one.

The communities of practice experienced by Adam, David, Colin and Frank occurred within maritime environments and reflected the environment as a whole. Each of the individuals were very experienced, and prior to their outbound trajectories were full participants of a community and could even have been considered as 'old timers', providing a heritage to the past for their particular community (Wenger, 1998). The ways that these individuals engaged with their respective communities, how the members treated each other within the communities and the boundary objects associated with the communities had many similarities. Their occupational structures were hierarchically based and individual agency was influenced by this (Gleeson et al., 2005). Artefacts; documents; terms; and concepts were similar, more so when considering the dyads of Adam and David, and Colin and Frank. These factors have shaped their professional identities as a result of negotiation and re-negotiation through social interactions within the communities of practice (Fejes and Köpsén, 2014). Professional identity is not static and the influence of an occupational identity may change over time. In the case of the four participants mentioned above, as their outbound trajectory developed, they were re-negotiating their professional identities within their respective communities of practice. The findings suggest that there are similarities in views of these four participants, for example, when discussing what it means to be professional: punctuality; appropriate dress; knowledge; accountability; and status were common answers among them. This was not surprising as each had achieved a relatively high position within their hierarchical organisation that afforded them a perceived high status and influenced their perceptions of being a professional.

Brenda's previous occupation as a human resource consultant resulted in membership of a number of communities of practice, but as a peripheral, rather than a full member. As a consultant, she experienced legitimate peripheral participation with multiple communities of practice concurrently spanning boundaries and it was her agency that brokered connections between different communities. In situated learning theory, brokers can be defined as individuals who:

> ...are able to make new connections across communities of practice, transfer elements of one practice into another, enable co-ordination, and through these activities can create new opportunities for learning. (Pawlowski and Robey, 2004, p 649).

She described her view of what it means to be a professional in terms of attitudes and beliefs and in doing the best possible job she could for others. Whilst her description is not too dissimilar to those given by those participants from the MN and the RN, in terms of meaning, it is given from a more personal viewpoint which may reflect the quasi-military and military backgrounds of the MN and RN participants respectively.

Of all the participants, Elizabeth's background was the closest to that of being a lecturer at the MET. Her time prior to becoming a lecturer was spent as a researcher at the MET Institution and, prior to that, in engineering and medical organisations. Her view of what it means to be a professional was more concerned with how other people view the individual and the recognition that it attracts, for example membership of a professional body. Having been a researcher prior to becoming a lecturer, she queried whether being in an academic environment as a professional was considered in the same sense as lawyers, doctors or engineers. This point will be discussed further under the theme of credibility.

The community of practice that Elizabeth participated in, prior to becoming a lecturer, can be considered as adjacent or even overlapping to that of the MET Institution. In this case, she was able to broker between the two communities in terms of knowledge developed through her previous research and occupational knowledge provided by the existing lecturers.

5.2.2   Barriers to entering the profession as a lecturer in the MET

Among the agreed defining characteristics of a profession are barriers to entry (Elliott, 1972), which include a body of knowledge (Freidson, 2001; Hoyle, 1995), that is so specialised that it is inaccessible to those lacking the required training and experience. Whilst the role of a lecturer is widely accepted as that of a professional (Beijaard et al. 2004) it was interesting to find that three of the participants identified becoming a lecturer as an easy option, despite the fact that they had no previous formal experience as a lecturer. When posts are advertised at the MET Institution,

the typical requirements are qualifications, knowledge and experience in a specific subject. A teaching qualification is often desired, but not essential to commence the post. However, the MET Institution has made it a contractual requirement to achieve a postgraduate teaching qualification within two years of taking up post. The barrier to entry at the MET Institution is knowledge of the subject matter that the individual is going to teach rather than the 'what', the 'how' and the 'why' of teaching and learning (McKeon and Harrison, 2010). This MET Institution straddles both HE and FE provision and Turner, McKenzie and Stone, (2009) recognise that university lecturers are required to have an awareness of the pedagogical needs of learners. This is also recognised in the FE and vocational training sector (Chappell, 1999; Hoyle, 1995; Spenceley, 2006) though it is widely acknowledged that pedagogical knowledge is often sacrificed for subject knowledge, a decision which can be traced back to the McNair Report (1944).

As each of the participants had little or no teaching experience, their progress to become full members of the community of practice was delayed. Instead, they began with legitimate peripheral participation which was supported by the community, affording them access to all three dimensions of practice: mutual engagement; joint enterprise; and to the repertoire in use (Wenger, 1998).

Whilst none of the participants used the terminology, they did find that they were granted sufficient legitimacy to be treated as potential members of the lecturing staff community. All of the participants can be described as mature adults, and each of them was able to support their own membership by negotiating legitimacy through their own knowledge and experience rather than pedagogical knowledge. At this stage, the individuals have little choice other than to rely on their subject knowledge rather than a blend of subject and pedagogical knowledge. The findings suggest that it is at this stage that individuals feel the most insecure in their position as lecturers and credibility is sourced from their previous experience. These findings agree with those of Murray and Male (2005) and White (2013). Due to the nature of the Institution, participation in the community of practice favours those with the most relevant experience, e.g. MN. This will be discussed further under the theme 'Credibility'.

5.2.3 Lecturer Training

Each of the participants completed an initial lecturer training course within the first two years of becoming a lecturer at the MET Institution, although they all started teaching before they had successfully completed the course. This situation does not differ from most other HE, FE and vocational training Institutions, and it is considered normal practice (Robson, 2005). All of the

participants completed the in-house PGCTLHE course offered by the MET Institution. In this study, the course was criticised by the participants for not providing them with the necessary skills for the role of lecturer. The findings show that the majority of the participants wanted the teaching to focus more on practice and to include effective delivery of a range of lesson styles, designing, marking and moderating assessments, quality control of teaching and local administration procedures. Whilst it was generally acknowledged by the participants that the theoretical understanding of learning and teaching was beneficial, they still lacked confidence by the end of the course in their ability to design, deliver and manage course programmes, this also reflects the findings of Robson (2005). There was a clear link, in some cases, between the feeling of not having been taught the practical skills and the lack of security that not being prepared brings. This resulted in doubts in their own abilities and was reflected in the interviews by all the participants. Frank articulated this well when he mentioned that he does not consider that he is "the finished article" as he has not yet experienced teaching in sufficient different styles other than those he does day to day.   Colin explained his feeling of not being prepared as feeling like a "round peg in a square hole". This challenges the view that lecturers only need to have the subject matter expertise rather than the pedagogical knowledge and skills (Orr and Simmons, 2010). Those from the MN and RN backgrounds have experienced programmes of learning, in their own development in their respective organisations that have been developed and designed using a systematic approach. In that approach, the training is designed to meet the outcome that has been identified through a training needs analysis and, in this case, the training is predominantly skills based. It is not surprising therefore that the participants from the MN and RN were of the view that skill based training was required in order to give them the 'tools of the trade'.   This reflects the findings of Murray and Male (2005) and the discussion of the substantive and situational self. Based on their previous experience (substantive self) the participants were not at ease with the lack of preparation to teach their courses (situational self). As Murray and Male (ibid) found in their study, the participants in this study reflected on their new situation comparing it with their previous experience and sought to derive credibility from their previous occupation.

In their study of five beginning teacher educators, McKeon and Harrison (2010) found that their participants joined different working and project groups and became involved with more communities. This further shaped the development of their professional identities. Similar to the findings of Mckeon and Harrison (ibid) the process of developing the participants' professional lecturer identities, in this study, was developed through negotiation and participation with various other communities of practice that helped to shape their participation in those communities.   Examples of this include:

- formal groups such as the PGCTLHE course, membership of various research teams;
- informal groups such as external examiners, discussions with colleagues in other schools within the university, discussions at seminars and conferences, and;
- communities within the MET institution such as programme review teams, admission teams and certification teams.

Drawing on Wenger's (1998) characterisation of identity, each individual defines the way they experience themselves through participation and the ways in which they, and others, reify themselves. As they cross boundaries from one community of practice to another, it is the artefacts of the community that enable the individuals to gain membership. As an example, the participants who were formally MN seafarers, sought to maintain their identity as seafarers in order to maintain credibility within the student and peer groups. The identity as a lecturer developed slowly taking into consideration that the formal teaching programme (PGCTLHE) had a duration of 9 months and did not start immediately when the individual took up post at the MET Institution. The inbound learning trajectory was also hampered by the omission of the practical based element which, in the words of Elizabeth, had to be gained "through osmosis". With such a disparate support programme the findings suggest that the participants remained on the periphery of the new community as their skills were slowly developed to support them in becoming legitimate full members.

The findings show that not all the participants' inbound trajectories were similar. Bandura (1989, cited in Seemiller and Priest, 2015) mentions that low self-efficacy can adversely affect professional identity formation. In this study, this was particularly evident with Colin, who declared that he had no previous experience as a lecturer and that he didn't consider himself to be a 'full' lecturer even after completing the PGCTLHE and being in the post for over four years. Frank also expressed doubts regarding his development as a lecturer which he attributed to the lack of experience in a variety of teaching methods due to the lack of opportunities to practice. This introduces the consideration of perception when discussing professional identity. In the development of professional identity, experience is negotiated between members of the community but it is the individual who ascribes their own meanings and interpretation to their own identity (Adams, Hean, Sturgis and Clark, 2006). Therefore, the individual will have a view of what the fully developed identity looks like and will view their progress accordingly. As mentioned earlier, reification by others, for example: peers; managers; and students is also influential in negotiating and legitimising a professional identity (Sutherland, Howard and Markauskaite 2010). The inbound trajectories experienced by each of the participants were

individually negotiated and were determined by a number of factors which included a perception of the conceptual distance between the two communities of practice that the individual was crossing. Equally, the individual's view of professional identity is influenced by their own view of what it means to be a professional, described by Smeby (2007) as the goal state, for example when David mentions that it was instilled in him from an early age to be a professional.

The process of forming a new professional identity is determined by the individual's own perception of what the goal state looks like and how it is negotiated and legitimised within the community of practice. Elizabeth, for example, might be viewed as having fewer barriers and an easier inbound trajectory than the other participants, because she was already a full participative member, of a community of practice of research active academics. However, she still had similar issues to the rest of the participants, with respect to the lack of practical knowledge and skills which appeared to be a barrier to becoming a full participant member at the MET Institution. The findings suggest that the individual will negotiate their own professional identity based on how they are viewed by others but, more importantly, how they view it themselves, based on their own experience, knowledge and confidence.

This section has discussed the findings on how the participants became professional lecturers having had previous careers. The inbound trajectories to the current community of practice have been discussed including the criticism of the PGCTLHE. This criticism alludes to the difficulties each participant faced as they tried to progress from novice to expert in their new careers as lecturers. As lecturers, they expected to be proficient over two different professional areas, one being their specialist subject and the other being the pedagogical expertise. Whilst they were competent in their specialist subject, in pedagogy, they struggled to develop as they would have liked. From the discussion in section 2.4, of the literature review, it was evident from their interviews, that none of the participants could be described as being at the expert, autonomous or unconscious competence stage of Table 2.2 with regard to pedagogical knowledge. The difficulty in progressing was the lack of structured training available to them. Using Furlong and Maynard's (1995) definition, the participants were at the 'personal survival' or 'dealing with difficulties' stages in certain areas of their pedagogic practice. In the terms of Burch's (1970) model of progressive competence they experienced areas of unconscious incompetence where the participants did not recognise their own weaknesses or competence gap because the need for it had not yet occurred. An example of this was the procedure to validate a course (Elizabeth). She hadn't realised that a course that she was a leader for required to be re-validated until a week before the date. She hadn't been shown the process for re-validation and had to rely on her colleagues to help her get through the process. In this example, Elizabeth developed through interactions with other group members along with relationships developed more widely such as

the quality assurance team and course records team. This also links back to Squire's model (2002) where validation could be interpreted as knowledge and skills at the macro level (see section 2.3). The requirement for the participants to have this knowledge could have been foreseen by the institution but had not been included in their formal training. Instead, it was left to be developed through more informal means. This resulted in the participants progressing slowly towards developing expertise with the added complication of not knowing what they didn't know and thus affecting their confidence as a professional lecturer.

5.2.4   Further Development

Within the community, the nuances of the trajectories of each of the individuals are determined by new experiences, new events and new opportunities, (Wenger, 1998). The participants have experienced changes in their professional identity since becoming a lecturer, some more so than others. Elizabeth, for example, has developed as an academic researcher in addition to teaching, and is now spending the majority of her time on funded research and has been awarded the title of Associate Professor. Brenda is also developing as a researcher though not as far along the trajectory as Elizabeth. Adam recently started studying for a PhD to develop further as an academic. David has taken responsibility for course leadership role for an MSc programme, along with providing subject matter expertise to a number of research programmes. Colin and Frank have assisted on a research study, but have focussed their efforts on teaching. These examples demonstrate how the group have developed as a community of practice over time and how each respondent has renegotiated their professional identity within the community as dynamic and evolving, as their career develops.

5.3   How does an individual manage the change of a role from a technical expert to a lecturer in tertiary education?

The previous sections discussed the theme of becoming a professional lecturer and examined the findings associated with the theme. This section attempts to provide the answer to research question 1, "How does an individual manage the change of a role from a technical expert to a lecturer in tertiary education?"

All participants experienced similar difficulties on their inbound learning trajectories resulting from a professional course that did not equip the individuals with the knowledge and skills they expected in order to become professional lecturers. When developing a new professional

identity, the perception of the individual of what that fully formed identity looks like, is very important to the individual and influences the sense of self (Beauchamp and Thomas, 2009, Beijaard et al., 2004, Nias, 1987). This study suggests that this perception of what a professional lecturer looks like is individualistic and based on the individual's own knowledge, previous experience and expectation of success. The participants were very experienced in their previous occupations and had formed their views of what it means to be a professional in these previous careers. This view then formed the basis of what it meant to be a professional lecturer in a MET Institution. The perceived knowledge and skills gap did cause each of the participants concern and appeared to hamper progress towards full participation in the community of practice. Their progress in becoming a professional lecturer appears to be measured against their previous professional identities, which included their interactions with others, interpretations of their experiences and their perceived status. The participants were required to complete a teaching course to legitimise their role as a professional lecturer, but they also took an active role in their development towards becoming a professional lecturer and this was shaped by their own perceptions of professionalism and sense of agency (Beijaard et al., 2004).

5.4   My Credibility

Building on the findings discussed in the previous section that the participants experienced similar inbound trajectories, despite coming from different previous occupations. This section discusses the importance of credibility amongst the participants as this was a strong theme emanating from the study's findings. Continuing the notion that the individuals negotiate their professional identity as a lecturer based on their own knowledge and experience, credibility appeared to be at the core of this consideration. This is consistent with the views of Wheeless et al. (2011) who, drawing on the work of Finn, Elledge, Jernberg, Schrodt and Larson (2009) and McCroskey and Teven (1999), posit that instructor credibility has emerged as one of the most significant communication-related factors in student learning and that lecturers who are viewed by their students as more credible report higher levels of motivation and learning. Teven and McCroskey (1997) identify the three dimensions of credibility as competence, trustworthiness and perceived caring. The themes and sub-themes discussed in this section support the first two dimensions identified by Teven and McCroskey (1997), with the third dimension, perceived caring, discussed under the theme 'How I Communicate'.

5.4.1   Individual Credibility

The findings in this study, regarding credibility, reflect those found in previous studies (Boyd, 2010; Boyd and Harris, 2010; Gleeson et al., 2005; Gleeson and James; 2007; McKeon and

Harrison, 2010; Robson, 1998; Robson, 2005). The findings suggest that the individual will negotiate their own professional identity based on how they are viewed by others but, more importantly, how they view it themselves, based on their own experience, knowledge and confidence. However, where the findings from this study may differ from those above, is that those participants with the least relevant or weaker links to the maritime environment employed strategies to compensate which will be discussed further in this section. Where this study does differ from previous studies, is that, in general, the MET Institution's students are from the maritime industrial sector and therefore, the lecturers' claims of credibility may incorporate maritime experience in addition to the particular occupational group. Here, the findings indicate that the context in which the lecturer has previously worked is seen as just as important as the knowledge and skills the lecturer has. The environment that a seafarer works in is very different from most occupations, even if the job is similar e.g. engineer. Factors such as working unsociable hours, being away from home, harsh conditions and lacking immediate support from external sources are significant and important features of the industry. Shared experiences such as these, resonate with the students, promote respect and facilitate communication with the students in and out of the classroom.

The findings indicate that those with the most relevant background to the occupational community initially positioned themselves as qualified seafarers with many years of experience. This, they perceived, afforded them a degree of credibility that they observed as legitimate and some perceived that it gave them an advantage over their colleagues, who did not have a similar background. In both their interviews, Adam and David stressed the relevance of their background and how that gave them a credibility that is recognised by their students and colleagues. This self-perception and perceived legitimisation by others was important to them, especially that of the students. It also reflects the findings of Seemiller and Priest (2015), who note that individuals position themselves within society, based upon their interactions with other people and how they interpret those experiences. In their previous occupation, status was reflected by their position in the organisation, but more specifically, their position within the hierarchy on board a ship. The majority of the students they taught on the vocational courses had similar experiences and recognise the position and status achieved by both lecturers, thereby giving them credibility.

Those with a lesser or no association with the marine community, such as Brenda and Elizabeth, negotiated their credibility through different means, for example, highlighting their knowledge and skills in the subject they were teaching and stressing how it is relevant to the students. They

adopted different styles when communicating with their students which will be discussed under the theme of Communication.

This study has illustrated that participation in a community of practice and negotiating professional identity is constantly shifting, with individuals employing various methods to maintain credibility within the community. Brenda, for example, would talk with colleagues outside the community to build her seafaring related knowledge. She was careful to develop and maintain her credibility, as perceived by the other members of the community, by finding various methods of enhancing her knowledge. This could have been as a reaction to the view that David had expressed regarding the expertise in the organisation being diluted due to the recruitment of non-seafarers, or, it could have been due to her friendship with colleagues in another part of the organisation. Unfortunately, there was insufficient data to provide further clarity on this observation.

5.4.2   Dual Professionalism

The study revealed that, whilst none of the individuals were aware of the term 'dual professional', the majority certainly classed themselves as 'dual professionals', once they understood the term as referring to an individual who was a professional in one area, such as plumbing and was also a professional in another area such as teaching. As discussed in the previous section, the participants initially negotiated their credibility based on their previous occupational identity and, as they progressed from the periphery of the community of practice, they also began to develop their identity as a lecturer. However, as reflected by Chappell (1999), Spenceley (2006) and Nixon (1996), they more often sourced their credibility from their occupational backgrounds as opposed to their pedagogic credentials. The notion of 'fractured professionalism', as described by Avis and Bathmaker (2006), was not apparent in this study. This was probably because the MET Institution is focussed solely on the maritime industry, which includes a number of vocational areas and typically, lecturers are able to teach across different areas. The environment and ethos within the MET Institution therefore reflect the eclectic nature of the maritime industry. The lecturers consider themselves to be working in a maritime environment, rather than siloed into vocational cultures, such as plumbers, electricians cooks, etc. as in a typical FE college (Avis and Bathmaker, 2006). An example of this is where a mechanical engineer at the MET institution is able to teach maths, mechanics, hydraulics as an engineer and seamanship, law, security as a seafarer. This links to the development of an individual's professional identity and how the individual is more likely to associate with being a seafarer than just an engineer.   Where Avis and Bathmaker (2006) observed that lecturers, in the FE colleges of their study, socialised within their own vocational areas, in the MET institution, lecturers socialised across vocational areas, as they would at sea.

Unlike many previous studies, the participants in this study had all been lecturers at the MET Institution for at least four years and may be considered to have become full participants of the community of practice. This being so, it was interesting that the participants differed in the way they described themselves, in terms of belonging to an occupational group when considering dual professionalism. Adam, after 17 years at the MET Institution, described himself as University lecturer with industrial experience. David, with 13 years at the MET Institution as a lecturer, described himself as a seafarer who lectures. However, he based this opinion on time spent in the occupation and mentioned that, quite soon, he will have spent more time as a lecturer than he did at sea. In contrast, Elizabeth, after 8 years as a lecturer at the MET Institution, described herself as an academic with a background in psychology. Brenda, after 6 years as a lecturer at the MET Institution, did not see the dichotomy of dual professional as being important, nor accurate, when describing herself. Instead, she visualised herself as a multi-faceted mirror ball where each facet is a particular aspect of her personal or professional identity. This reflects views expressed by Day et al. (2006) and Goffman (1978) in that people's lives are multi-faceted and that each person has a number of 'selves', each one focusing on the execution of one role at any given time. Sutherland et al. (2010); Trede et al. (2012), and Lave and Wenger (1991), describe in terms of forming a professional and personal identity that is shaped in a multi-dimensional area.

The fact that none of the participants were familiar with the term 'dual professional' is not that important, other than it may demonstrate that the debate at national level, where this term is often used (IfL, 2014), is not reaching the practitioners. What this section has indicated though, is that the perception of the individual regarding their own professional identity is influenced by their past experience and their future aspirations. Elizabeth, for example, has negotiated a professional identity as an academic and, along with Brenda, can be viewed as being much further along the trajectory of being an academic than any of the other participants. Whilst those participants with the closest links to the occupational communities appear to be moving at a slower pace towards being an academic.

5.4.3   Credibility from the Organisation

It was found that some of the participants perceived that they gained credibility from being part of an organisation that is recognised as a maritime Institution around the world. This is linked to professional identity in terms of how others see them (Lave and Wenger, 2001). The status of the Institution is reflected on the individual such that, in the eyes of others, they gain the kudos of being part of a globally recognised Institution and therefore credible. The argument progresses

that if the individual is employed by that organisation then they must be credible in that area. This leads to a reciprocal argument where the reputation of the organisation is dependent on the credibility of the lecturers. Following this argument through, the organisation should then invest in its staff in order to enhance or maintain its reputation. Whilst this would appear to be a logical argument, the findings suggest that this is not the case. It was perceived by some of the participants, one in particular (David), that the standard of lecturers recruited over the past 10 years has dropped significantly as a result of market pressures and the availability of suitable candidates. It was suggested that, as a result, the reputation of the MET Institution had suffered accordingly. For this study, no evidence of this was found, and the average results of the students at the MET Institution were either better than, or equal to, the national average for MET Institutions. However, while it is true that the percentage of ex-MN senior personnel who teach at the MET Institution has reduced over the previous 10 years, there is no evidence to suggest that the standard of teaching and learning has decreased as a result.

5.4.4   Professional Recognition

The acquisition of a codified body of knowledge is a common characteristic of what it means to be a 'professional' (Friedman and Phillips; 2004; Plowright and Barr, 2012; Spenceley, 2006) and this was recognised by all participants. They also recognised that, as professionals, it is their responsibility to keep up to date with the latest knowledge and developments in their community. This was recognised as being important for both the individual and the organisation, a relationship which provides mutual benefit, (Tantranont, 2009).

Of the six lecturers in this study, all are members of professional bodies; Table 5.1 identifies those professional bodies that each individual belongs to. It should be noted that all the lecturers in this study are members of the HEA as this was achieved by each of them completing the PGCHLTE. This is identified here as it has a bearing on the findings. Whilst in Table 5.1 it may appear that all the lecturers in this study are members of the HEA, it was apparent in the interviews that none of them are actively involved in any HEA activities and do not engage regularly with the HEA for anything, including knowledge updates and networking.

Name	Professional Body	Level of Membership
Adam	Nautical Institute	Member
	Energy Institute	Member
	International Maritime Lecturers Association	Member
	Higher Education Academy	Fellow
Brenda	British Psychological Society	Member
	Higher Education Academy	Fellow
Colin	Institute of Maritime Engineering, Science and Technology	Member
	Higher Education Academy	Fellow
David	Society of Authors	Member
	Higher Education Academy	Fellow
Elizabeth	British Psychological Society	Member
	Higher Education Academy	Fellow
Frank	Higher Education Academy	Fellow

Table 5-1 Lecturer Membership of Professional Bodies.

One of the four characteristics identified by Beijaard et al. (2004) of professional identity is that lecturers have to be active in the process of professional development. In this study, all of the participants could be considered as active in the process, with 4 (Adam, Brenda, Colin and Elizabeth), being considered active through membership of a professional body as one example of their agency. The mixed views, for membership or non-membership, ranged from being essential in keeping up to date with knowledge of the industry (Adam), to the opposite, where the professional body itself was not enabling its members to keep current (David). One of the participants, (Frank), did not see the point of being a member of a professional body at his stage of career but did accept its worth if he was 10 years younger. Other reasons for membership of a professional body, given by the majority of the participants, were the professional recognition that came with membership, access to professional journals, networking opportunities, attending conferences and knowledge exchange. Professional recognition was important to the participants as it presented the opportunity for an outward recognised sign of the individual's professional status, for example, that of Incorporated Engineer (Colin). The fact that membership of the professional bodies listed have 'entry barriers' (Watkins, 1999), provides the individual member with the reassurance that the qualifications and experience they have, at the point of entry, meet a required standard and continue to do so, even when the qualifications held by the individual become obsolete or the entry standard of the professional body raised. In addition, some of the professional bodies require the individuals to have maintained their continuing professional development to remain a member, despite no longer meeting the entry criteria. This was important to some of the participants as continued membership served to underpin their

credibility and professional identity in a similar way that being employed as a lecturer at the MET institute.

5.4.5   Being an Expert

The notion of being an expert has been widely debated and, drawing on the work of Dreyfus et al. (2000) and Kuhlmann and Ardichvili (2015), becoming an expert is a function of knowledge and experience over time. Ingersoll and Merrill (2011), consider a professional to be an expert in their work. However, not all the participants were comfortable, or even accepted the notion of being an expert; they suggested that it is a divisive term and could be perceived as arrogant. The literature review highlighted three models of skill development that were compared in Table 2.2. As a result, a conclusion was drawn that suggests that a professional will possess the competences described somewhere between competent and expert, will be autonomous and will be between conscious competence and unconscious competence. It is considered that this definition bears more resemblance to the findings of this study than simply regarding a professional as an expert. From Table 2.2, the interpretation of an expert is an individual who has an intuitive grasp of situations based on deep tacit understanding, no longer relies on rules, guidelines or maxims, and only resorts to analytical approaches when confronted with novel situations or problems.

Kuhlmann and Ardichvili (2015), propose that expertise is developed through years of engaging with high-value, non-routine work and those practitioners with the intelligence matched to the discipline are more likely to become experts. This accords with the proposed description of a professional that those with the particular qualities will progress to be experts in the terms of this interpretation. This study does not deny that professionals can be experts. In fact, it accepts that the majority may be, however, it is suggested that not all professionals are experts in the complete knowledge base of the profession.

All the participants agree that there is an expected level of knowledge that is required to be considered credible in their post. It is not stated explicitly in any document but, it is outlined at a rather high level in the Job Specification for a lecturer's post upon recruitment, and is nearer the description of a professional from Table 2.2 rather than that of an expert. However, the term expert is a matter of perspective and, whilst the individual lecturers may not view themselves as an expert within the industry, they are perceived as experts from outside the industry. For example, during this study, a car transporter ship ran aground as it was leaving port. It attracted a lot of media interest and one of the lecturers from the MET Institution was presented as an expert

by the university to talk to the Press. In this example, the term expert was accepted by the university, the press and the public.

The majority of the participants in this study had previous careers in industry, which enabled them to develop their knowledge and skills. As they progressed, they experienced progressive problem solving (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1993), where they addressed increasingly complex problems and developed their expertise in this area using intuition and procedural knowledge situated in real life, (Lave and Wenger, 1991). As they crossed boundaries from one community of practice to another, they found that they had to negotiate their professional identity based on their previous status within an occupation and their learning trajectory into the new one. In order to be considered a credible lecturer, all participants recognised that there is a body of knowledge that needs to be kept current, and this is achieved by the lecturers' agency in co-operation with the organisation for mutual benefit. In addition, there are the applied pedagogic theoretical knowledge and specialist practical skills that the lecturers require in order to be professional lecturers, and to ensure that effective teaching and learning take place. Whilst Etzioni (1969), may have identified teaching as relatively low on a continuum that has professions such as law and medicine at one end, and unskilled work at the other, teaching was taken out of context of its subject matter. This study suggests that it is the dualism of occupational and pedagogic knowledge and skills from which the lecturers derive their credibility, both in the classroom and among their peers.

5.5   How I Communicate

The theme of 'How I Communicate' is evident throughout the study; this refers to communication in its widest sense, communication between lecturers, between lecturer and students and between lecturer and manager. Beijaard et al. (2004) stress the importance of narrative and dialogue in forming and reforming identity; stories that are told are chosen by the tellers and are expressions of cultural values, norms and structures. Köpsén (2014), referring to Lave and Wenger (1991), identifies how developing a vocational identity not only includes skills and know-how, but also includes understanding the socio-cultural values, rules and traditions as well as how to communicate with other members of the community of practice.

5.5.1   Communication with Students

Throughout this study the themes of 'How I Communicate' and 'My Credibility' have been identified as separate, the growing interdependence of the themes resulted in a further review of

the literature which included the field of 'Instructional Communication'. This area of research confirmed what the findings in this study suggest, that the credibility of a lecturer in the classroom is explicitly linked with the communication skills of the lecturer, from the perspective of the student. Finn et al. (2009) identified a number of studies that link lecturer characteristics and communication behaviour to enhanced credibility. In their results, they identified lecturers who are more credible in the classroom are those who:

> ...use argumentative messages, exhibit verbal and non-verbal immediacy behaviour, exhibit affinity behaviour, use appropriate technology, are assertive and responsive and engage in out-of-class communications with their students. (p. 519).

In addition to these, Myers (2001) also identifies the use of humour. Wheeless et al. (2011, p. 333), in their study of instructor credibility as a mediator of instructor communication found that instructors with the communication behaviours of immediacy, enthusiasm and homophily, yield positive rewards in terms of perceived credibility.

To Adam and David, it was important for them to be seen as credible in their industry. During the vocational courses, the language they use was based in the context of the maritime industry and they often made references to their previous occupation and companies they had belonged to. They used anecdotes to demonstrate similar experiences, to affirm their links to the industry and to develop and maintain homophilic relationships with their students. Wheeless et al. (2011) recognise 'homophily', the tendency of individuals to recognise similarities in others and share common characteristics, as a significant contributor to important communication outcomes.

On the vocational courses, David mainly adhered to a transmissionist or objectivist model of teaching where the lecturer is the principal source of knowledge, expertise and authority, and the students are passive receptacles of this knowledge, (Howard et al., 2000). The findings suggest that he is positioning himself as a senior seafarer, rather than a lecturer when engaged with the vocational courses. This reflects similar findings by Köpsén (2014) and Gleeson and Mardle (1981), cited in Robson, (1998). Brenda and Elizabeth generally adopted a more progressive model of teaching which positions students as active learners, and learning and teaching take place as a collaborative process. Brann, Edwards and Myers (2005), found that students, when invited to participate through discussion, conversation and questions, may perceive the instructor to be caring, empathetic and responsive. This style promotes immediacy, originally described by Mehrabian (1971, p. 1) as:

> people are drawn toward persons and things they like, evaluate highly, and prefer; and they avoid or move away from things they dislike, evaluate negatively, or do not prefer.

In the field of instructional communications, immediacy is often referred to as verbal or non-verbal. Drawing from Johnson and Miller (2002), a useful, but not exhaustive, description of

verbal immediacy in the classroom includes: referring to students by name; using humour; soliciting students' opinions; and providing information about self. Similarly, non-verbal immediacy in the classroom includes: making eye contact; positive facial expressions; maintaining a relaxed posture; and employing a variety of vocal inflections. Whilst Brenda and Elizabeth are not in such a strong occupational position as Adam or David, with reference to their students, their teaching methods, and hence their method of communication with the students, was necessarily more facilitative.   It should be noted that, whilst it may appear that David was at one end of a continuum that has a transmissive model of teaching at one end and a progressive model of teaching at the other, and Brenda and Elizabeth at the other end, this is not necessarily the case all the time. All participants mentioned properties of both philosophies in their teaching with all preferring a progressive philosophy for the academic courses. However, it was suggested in the findings that, for the vocational courses, David preferred a more transmissive approach than the other participants. The findings also suggest that, regardless of preferred teaching style, all of the participants approached their teaching with good humour and enthusiasm. Wheeless et al. (2011, p. 137), drawing on Stewart (1989) and Collins (1978), describe the indicators to conceptualize instructor enthusiasm to include: animated non-verbal cues; high energy levels; varied word use; and animated responsiveness with students.

Hayward (2000, cited in Myers, 2001), argued that the students' perception of a lecturer, from the initial meeting, in terms of expertise is one where the lecturer is credible and has the assumed expertise. The students may pay little attention to the issue of lecturer competence until the lecturer demonstrates an obvious lack of subject matter expertise. Brann et al. (2005), add that a lecturer may still be considered a subject matter expert regardless of how the content is taught. However, in their investigation into the link between teaching philosophies and perceived lecturer credibility, they found that lecturers who adopt a progressive philosophy may be perceived by the students as possessing character and demonstrating caring, simply as a result of a collaborative approach.

It was clear from the findings that all the lecturers adopted a caring attitude towards their students, even if the methods of teaching some used were less progressive than others. Frank gave examples of the type of issues all the participants have to address when teaching classes that consist of students from different countries. If a purely didactic relationship was maintained between the lecturer and the students, then the lecturer would not discover issues such as a student not getting their meals. The lecturers made considerable efforts to get to know their students, but that was easier on the academic courses than it was on the vocational courses due

to the duration of the courses. Daly and Brown (2007, p. 1), identify three categories of difficulties, these are:

> Cultural adjustment which involves adjusting to the new culture, climate, food and establishing friendships;

> Educational adjustment to become accustomed to differing attitudes of learning, and styles of thinking and writing; and language use.

The vocational courses taught by the participants are of a highly technical nature that may have safety consequences, if the students misunderstand subjects taught in the lessons. The academic courses are at a level 7 (MSc) and, whilst they do not have as much safety impact as the vocational courses, it is still important that the students understand the subjects. Daly and Brown (2007), draw attention to the complexity of classroom language and how the students must be able to distinguish between relevant and irrelevant material, such as jokes and asides; be able to take notes while listening; and be able to integrate material from a range of sources. All classes taught by the participants, consist of students from a mix of countries and challenge the communication skills of the lecturers. Brenda, for example, recalled using a humorous video clip as a teaching aid, but after using it a few times, she noticed it wasn't being received well by an obvious number of students. After discussing it with the class, she discovered that a surprising number of students could not understand the regional accents in the video clip. Myers's (2001) suggestion of using humour in the class has to be used with caution, to prevent confusing students who do not understand any cultural references assumed, or worse still, may take offence. A balance has to be achieved in order to keep the lessons interesting, lively and relevant for the whole class to ensure effective teaching and learning take place.

5.5.2   Communication with Peers

The previous section discussed the findings with regard to the sub-theme of communications with the students. This demonstrated a link between style of communication and perceived credibility of the lecturer. The perception of the students was important to the participants in how they developed their professional identity built on their credibility as a lecturer. This sub-theme discusses how the participants negotiate their professional identity and their position within the community of practice.

Communication between lecturers is an important aspect of the participants' daily working lives and takes the form of both personal and professional communication. Brenda and Elizabeth both highlighted their impressions of how friendly and supportive the group are. A sense of belonging to the group is fostered by the type of language used and the familiarity between group members. Wenger (1998), identifies the development of a shared repertoire, as a characteristic

of practice as a source of community coherence. Here, the joint repertoire includes the use of colloquialisms originating from the maritime industry, along with words adopted by the group from other origins. Whilst the group cannot claim to 'own' any of the words, the collective use of them contributes to the social construction of the group and to that communal sense of belonging, (Frey and Sunwolf, 2005). As individuals joined the group, they brought with them aspects of the repertoires that existed with their previous communities of practice and, depending on their status, personality or the responsiveness of the existing community, some of the repertoire were adopted by the community. In this case, there is a mix of academic, MN and RN words, routines, gestures and concepts, for example: leave (RN), smoko (MN), and period (academic). Separation of professional and personal roles is often encouraged in business organisations (Jameson, 2014), as too much self-disclosure can make co-workers feel uncomfortable. Whilst there are no guidelines on where this boundary should be, the group does exercise self-regulation through personal interaction. The majority of the group are former seafarers and have spent months at a time working and living on board ships. In these environments, the boundaries between professional and personal roles were likely to be less determined than in an office environment, and this was reflected in the professional and personal communication used in the MET Institution. The observations by both Brenda and Elizabeth described in the findings chapter, reflect that some of these social aspects experienced by former seafarers, have been adopted by this group and they were more sensitive to them.

The group demonstrated a mutual responsibility for each other in terms of sharing knowledge, best practice, and professional development. The example given by Frank, regarding receiving constructive feedback after an observed lesson is a common occurrence within the group and demonstrated how learning continued within the community, even when individuals were full, participating members of the community. Colin, by using a cricketing analogy, where the batsman is on his own facing the bowler and how he performs reflects on the whole team, described how the reputation of the group, and the MET Institution, rely on the professional relationships between members of the community and how they perform their role.

5.6   My Autonomy

All the participants expressed their concern regarding the perceived lack of an appropriate level of autonomy in their roles as lecturers and some mentioned how it had affected their feeling of self-worth. In one particular example, Elizabeth remarked on how she is perceived as a commodity and not considered as an individual. The participants considered that their autonomy had been

restricted by measures, exercised by the organisation's senior management, in the guise of quality control. However, there was an acceptance that the majority of the measures, imposed on the MET Institution, originated from the legislative and regulative bodies external to the Institution. All of the participants were aware of the extensive audit regimes that exist in the maritime industry and many of the participants have experienced it first-hand in their previous occupation. Therefore, they understood the need for accountability and regular audits to ensure that the maritime training standards were maintained.

The findings suggested that a culture of managerialism and performativity pervades throughout the organisation that manifests through hierarchical structures of responsibility and decision making, and controls through performance measures, such as accounting for lecturer contact hours and evaluations. Whilst not unique to this particular Institution, the combination of the resource management measures, the quality management system and the legislative requirements, left the lecturers questioning their ability to make professional decisions, and hence their own level of autonomy. For example: Frank felt that he was pressured into designing and delivering a course that he did not feel suitably qualified or experienced to do. The participants, in general, subscribed to a view that is characteristic of a profession that is knowledge based and has shared values, altruistic concern for students, educational expertise and a high level of autonomy (Kolsaker, 2008). These perceived opposing stances align with the two forms of professionalism identified by Evetts (2009), and, whilst it is accepted that these ideal models are extreme forms, the point here, is that there were different and opposing forms of professionalism being played out within the organisation. Organisational professionalism was being enacted by the management who have the legitimate power that came within an organisational hierarchical structure (French, Raven and Cartwright, 2011), whilst the participants leaned very much towards the model of occupational professionalism, (Evetts, 2009). Tensions between these two approaches arose when either position was challenged. For example, when course structures were required to be modified by management in order to increase revenue against the pedagogic argument for teaching and learning effectiveness. In these examples of organisational need against occupational professional judgement, the findings show that agreements were reached which invariably resulted in the lecturers compromising their positions.

The participants recognised the commercial and financial pressures that the Institution was under, and were prepared to make compromises, but, there was a common view among the participants that their arguments were not listened to by senior management, and were usually resolved on financial and commercial grounds, rather than pedagogic grounds as described in Frank's case above and by Brenda in Section 4.5. The threat to the professionalism of the lecturer from increasing performativity and managerialism is well recognised in the academic literature,

(Avis et al., 2012; Bryson, 2004; Kolsaker, 2008) however, there is a danger of over simplifying it (Simkins and Lumby, 2002). The findings detect the frustration felt by the participants, but also, that these threats to their professional identity are not taken lightly. In order to maintain their professionalism, the findings reveal that the participants were prepared to go to extensive additional efforts in order to ensure that the students received effective teaching and learning. Kolsaker (2008, p. 517), puts forward an argument, drawing on a Foucauldian interpretation, that managerialism changes the nature of relations between professionals and managers, necessitating some self-reflection and change. Her study finds that academics are reasonably comfortable working with managerialism regimes and that they are instrumental in sustaining them. However, she does go on to suggest that this may simply be a form of accommodation in crafting and re-crafting self-identity. The findings in this study suggest that the participants are indeed re-crafting their self-identity as a reactive measure rather than a pro-active one to managerialism. In a position of relatively low power, the participants are left with little choice to comply, but, they adjust their expectations and practice in order to support the organisation and the students. In Brenda's words:

> …the difficulty comes when the compromises become too much…if my values and the organisation's values pulled apart to that extent, I would not stay.

Squires (1999), uses, in his model showing the complexity of teaching, a cube to represent the three axes. In this discussion, it is useful to picture the cube from this model as a classroom with the lecturer inside, as this appears to represent the space where the lecturer really experiences a sense of autonomy, albeit regulated autonomy, (Whitty, 2000). This is a position where the lecturer is trusted to teach or facilitate learning that enables the students to meet the standards set by the external legislative bodies. The lecturer has control and choice over the micro functions identified in Squires's model, but less so with the macro functions. It appears that as professional identity is negotiated and re-negotiated under the changing environment experienced by the participants, their sense of autonomy is reducing, more so on the vocational courses than the academic courses, but reducing all the same.

5.7   Conceptual Framework Revisited

As a result of the findings and discussion it is useful to revisit the conceptual framework introduced in Chapter 2.

The findings confirm that Squires's model is still appropriate with its representation of variables, functions and procedures at both the macro and micro levels. Whilst evidence was not available to confirm that all of the component parts of each of the dimensions were present, there was sufficient evidence to give confidence that the model is still a useful representation. Squires (1999) does provide a caveat in that it should only be treated as a model and is open to interpretation, but, the underlying aim of the model, is to indicate how complex an activity teaching is. Nevertheless, this study has found that there is a close relationship between the micro and macro axes on Squires's model and the requirements that a lecturer has in carrying out their role. Specifically, it was found in Section 5.2.3 that many of these areas were not addressed in the formal course provided for the developing lecturers at the MET Institution. Whilst the constituent components of the axes reflect the needs of the lecturers, the knowledge and skills are mainly gained through the combination of a shared domain of interest (lecturing maritime students at the MET institution), mutual engagement within the community and a shared repertoire of resources and practices; the three essential features that constitute a community of practice (Wenger, 1998).

Therefore, in the conceptual framework Squires's model of 'Teaching as a Profession' is the central cube and represents both the macro and micro levels in teaching. Following the discussion regarding autonomy of the lecturer, a figure representing a lecturer is situated within the cube. In this framework this can be interpreted that the cube represents both the model and a classroom. This particularly abstract view echoes the findings which suggest that the lecturers, in this study, have the most autonomy when in the classroom and that is where they exercise their professional judgement the most. Also, three of the themes that were identified during the study are noted within the cube which represents the findings that along with autonomy, credibility and communication were important to the participants as they negotiated their own professional identity, and particularly important in their relationship with the students. Whilst the figure representing a lecturer is contained within the cube it is not there to suggest that the lecturer is only viewed as a professional within the classroom. It is purely a convenient representation and, as this study suggests, the professional identity of the participants includes many identities other than that of lecturer.
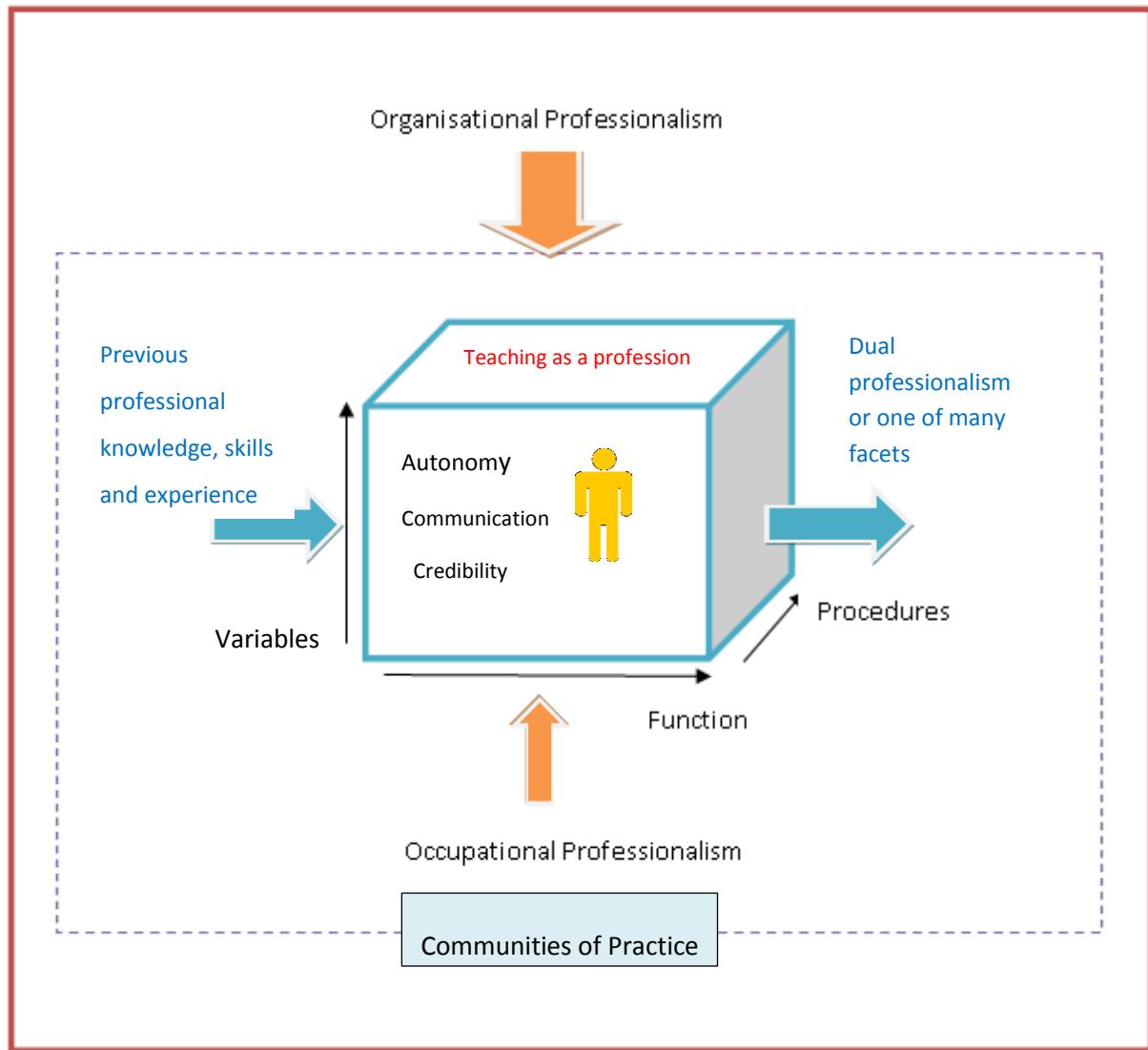
Figure 5-1 A Proposed Conceptual Model of Lecturer Professional Identity.

The label for the arrow on the left hand side has been altered to reflect that as an individual develops as a member of a community of practice, their previous professional knowledge, skills and experience provide foundations on which to develop their professional identity in the new community and recognises the notion that substantive and situational self need to align before the lecturer can be at ease with their professional identity.

The perceived tension between organisational and occupational professionalism is still represented as opposing vertical arrows though, as suggested in the findings, there is greater power in the concept of organisational professionalism than occupational, and this is now reflected by the size of the respective arrows. Also, organisational professionalism pressure is

exerted on the community of practice rather than within it as shown in the previous version of the framework.

The arrow on the right hand side represents the development of the professional identity of the lecturer and how the confidence of the lecturer builds as the substantive and situational self come together. The arrow denotes movement that represents the fact that professional identity is an ongoing process that is negotiated and re-negotiated as a result of social interactions. The label reflects the findings that some of the participants are content with the concept of 'dual professionalism', while others prefer the concept of a multi-faceted professional? Finally, rather than the red box surrounding the model, professional identity is now represented by the figure of the individual within the cube. The interpretation behind this reflects the findings that an individual's professional identity is based on their own perception of what it is to be a professional lecturer and it is also influenced by the factors expressed in this conceptual framework. The red line that surrounds the model represents the lens through which this phenomenon is viewed and studied.

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5.8   How do lecturers in the MET Institution describe their role as a lecturer in terms of professional identity?

All the themes identified in the study inform the answer to this research question and each has been discussed above. The aim of this section is to bring the themes together to provide a consolidated answer, rather than repeat the detail already discussed.

The updated conceptual framework captures the outcome of the discussion and provides a representation of the findings in light of the discussion. Professional identity is a term that has been studied for years and many definitions have been offered which vary depending on the theoretical framework within which the studies have been completed. The aim of this study was not to provide yet another definition, but to investigate how a sample of lecturers at a MET Institution perceives their own professional identity. Through this study, a number of themes and sub-themes were identified, of which the four main themes were explored. While the themes can be considered separate, each meeting the criteria for themes in a thematic analysis, the findings suggest that they need to be considered together when attempting to answer the question. As the study's findings developed, it became apparent that there would be no common answer to this question; all participants had different perceptions of their professional identity, based on

their personal and professional experiences. However, the themes that have been identified provide a common palette for the participants to describe their professional identity. Nevertheless, it has to be noted that the term, professional identity was not a term that all of the participants used nor, were they familiar with any of the research associated with it.

There is resonance with the four characteristics of professional identity recognised by Beijaard et al. (2004). The professional identity of any of the participants is interpreted and re-interpreted based on the individual's experience and development within the context of teaching and their occupational area. The participants' credibility is important to each of them in relation to other members of the community and the students. The importance of effective communication between the lecturer and the students was evidenced in the study and the important link between communication and credibility was apparent and is supported by the literature. Once the participants had completed their initial lecturer training, further development was through their own agency, though often financially supported by the Institution.

5.9   Contribution to Knowledge

This study makes the following contributions:

- Empirically, the study explores the transition of individuals from professional careers, where they were confident and enjoyed high status, to new careers as lecturers at a MET Institution. Through a socio-cultural lens, it provides insight into how the individuals negotiated their professional identities, as they experienced inbound trajectories to become peripheral and full members of a community of practice. The structure of the research has been described so that it may be replicated in other settings.

- An established theoretical model was enhanced, using the findings from this study, to describe how the individuals view their professional identity as a lecturer. The enhanced model captures the findings of the study and represents them in a form that allows them to be transferable to other groups such as lecturers moving to lecturer training and nurses moving to HE posts.

5.10   Limitations of the Research

This study was an exploratory single case study with nested cases consisting of individual participants. An interpretative inquiry was used with a thematic analysis and data collection was

through semi-structured interviews and document review. There were six participants in the study - a group of lecturers in co-located offices at a MET Institution. The aim of this section is to identify any limitations that were found with the study, these were:

- The study did not follow up the interviews with classroom observations to assess whether the claims of effective communication in the classroom and lecturer credibility were valid. This was considered in the research design but, due to the short nature of some of the courses and ethical considerations (researcher presence effect) it was decided to use data from existing student feedback reports.

- Due to the small number of participants, the findings can only be related to this study and are not generalisable. This issue is discussed in Chapter 3 and using Shank's (2006) metaphor, the intent of this study was to illuminate a particular phenomenon in order to answer research questions that had been developed from a professional issue. However, the theoretical model developed through this study does allow the findings to be transferable.

- Some of the participants were unfamiliar with terms central to this inquiry, such as: 'professional identity' and 'dual professional'. This required that the terms be explained or interpreted from their interviews. It was successful, but there is the small risk that my description of the terms (when needed) may have introduced bias into the data set. I was aware of this and cross-checked between interviews (audio and transcripts) to determine if I had introduced any influence on the data, no evidence was found.

- This study set about to investigate the professional identity of the lecturers from their perspective and it is accepted that the findings might be biased, in their favour, as a result of only including lecturers in the study. However, it was important to this study that the views of the lecturers were obtained in terms of their own professional identity. Presenting contrasting views from management representatives may have reduced bias in certain areas but may have influenced the study and undermined the views given by the lecturers.

- This study investigated a small group of lecturers operating on the boundary between FE and HE, how they negotiated their professional identity, and how they operated as a community of practice. The reasons for these actions were not considered specifically and these may have given more depth to this study.

5.11   Recommendations for Practice

The following recommendations are made:

- One of the most surprising findings to come out of this study was the consistent view of all the participants regarding the PGCLTHE. Even though they found the learning outcomes useful and relevant, they all agreed that the course did not provide them with the practical skills to be a lecturer, which was their expectation. Therefore, it is recommended that, either in addition to, or as part of the initial lecturer training course that is mandated for all new lecturers at the MET Institution, practical skills should be taught, including:
    o PowerPoint presentations;
    o Classroom technology;
    o Teaching techniques;
    o Marking assessments;
    o Developing timetables;
    o Designing courses;
    o Validating courses; and
    o Quality assurance of course programmes.

- This study has found that the lecturers at the MET Institution can be considered as dual professionals and that the participants considered that their credibility is drawn from the knowledge, skills and experience from their previous occupation, which is the basis of their subject matter expertise, along with their teaching and learning knowledge, skills and experience. The reputation of the MET Institution relies heavily on the credibility of its lecturers and it is in the best interest of the lecturers and the Institution to ensure that CPD programmes support the development of the lecturers in their subject area along with their teaching and learning skills. Therefore, it is recommended that lecturers and their managers work closely together to identify, plan, conduct and record CPD activities that support the development of the lecturers as dual professionals.

- This study found that the participants negotiate their professional identity around their ability to communicate effectively, their credibility and their autonomy. It also found that the participants' sense of autonomy was strongest in the classroom although there was a sense that their autonomy was reducing with the management of contact hours, increasing legislation and the implementation of TEF. It is recommended that the lecturers and their managers work closely together and communicate effectively when initiatives are introduced to ensure that they are implemented effectively and that the

lecturers' autonomy is preserved. The rationale for these decisions, that have the capacity to affect the lecturers' role, should be discussed and understood.

- The study found that the participants, as professionals, recognised that it is their responsibility to keep up to date with the latest knowledge and developments in their community. All participants are members of at least one professional body. Of particular note, is that all the participants are fellows of the HEA yet none of them are actively involved in any HEA activities and do not engage regularly with the HEA for anything, including knowledge updates and networking. It is recommended that lecturers make more use of the facilities provided by the HEA and that the MET Institution explores how the relationship with the HEA could be developed to encourage more active participation.

5.12 Further Research

This study was a local case that was an exploratory and interpretative inquiry in order to develop understanding of a specific socio-cultural phenomenon. There are four areas which, following this study, would benefit from further research.

- The study identified that the subjects experience tensions in an organisation where managerialism and performativity pervade. There is an opportunity to explore how the managers view their professional identity, how they perceive the culture of the Institution and how they perceive the professional identity of lecturers and their relationship with them.

- Many initiatives and changes, regarding the professionalism of educators in FE and HE, have occurred over the last two decades, and this case study has explored the subject against that background. There is scope to conduct a further study, in five years' time, to explore whether the latest initiatives implemented by the ETF and the HEA will have had any effect on the professionalism of the educators and how they will perceive their professional identity.

- This study offers an empirical design to transfer to other settings.

- The concept of a community of practice could provide an opportunity for further study across the University. There is scope to investigate whether communities of practice provide informal means for effective professional development in various subject areas.

5.13   Conclusions

The findings have shown that four themes have been identified from the study, each of which contribute to an understanding of how lecturers in an MET Institution perceive their own professional identity and how individuals manage the change from technical expert to lecturer, in terms of professional identity. All of the participants had previous occupations prior to becoming a lecturer at the MET Institution and this study suggests that their identities, developed in their previous occupations, had a strong influence on how they perceived their professional identity in their new role. This observation was particularly prominent when the subject of initial lecturer training was explored. All the participants expected that the course would provide them with the knowledge and skills to carry out their roles as lecturers. This expectation was based on their previous experience and their views on what initial lecturer training aimed to achieve. Instead, the training was at a higher academic level than expected and, whilst it did provide useful knowledge, it did not provide the more practical knowledge and skills the participants required. This required pedagogic knowledge was developed within the group as they learned 'on the job'. From a socio-cultural perspective, the group can be considered as a community of practice as they do share a repertoire, they do develop knowledge within the community, and they each do negotiate and re-negotiate their professional identity in the group. Of particular importance to the participants' professional identity is their credibility as this underpins their confidence in the classroom and in professional discourse with students, colleagues, managers and representatives from the maritime industry. It is suggested that each participant negotiates their credibility based on their perceptions of their professional identity and their experience. To some, credibility is linked with status and those who perceive it to have been important in their previous occupation will resort to it as a lecturer. Examples of this are the two former MN seafarers who relate to their students through the shared context of being at sea in the MN. The two participants with no seafaring experience negotiate their credibility based on subject matter knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and communication skills. A document review of student feedback suggests that there is little difference in how the participants are perceived, in terms of credibility. The literature supports these findings, but does mention that if the subject knowledge of the lecturer is found to be lacking, their credibility can quickly diminish. This study did not have sufficient evidence to verify this.

A particularly problematic issue among the participants regarding professional identity was the concept of autonomy. This issue originated in the data sets but could have easily been *a priori* as it is a contemporary issue with respect to being a professional. To many, autonomy is an essential

part of being a professional and the participants in this study agree. However, their perception of their own autonomy appears to be limited to the classroom when taken in the role of teaching. This study suggest that, as there are strong managerialist and performative practices at the MET Institution, the autonomy experienced by the participants is restricted and controlled in an environment where audit and performance measure are rife.

Recommendations have been made for improved initial lecturer training, professional development measures to be implemented that address both the subject matter and pedagogical areas and that greater autonomy is negotiated for the lecturers. Further research has been suggested to investigate the professional identity of managers in a MET Institution and also to revisit this study in five years' time.

Appendices

Appendices

Appendix A Semi-structured Interview Guide

Initial actions

Test data recorder

Do not disturb sign

Bottle of water and two glasses

Notepad and pen

Introduction
Welcome and self-introduction
Aim of the research
How the interview will help me
Why you have been chosen to help
How long the interview will take
Permission to record the interview and make notes
Outline that the interview will be anonymous and the measures that will be taken to ensure confidentiality.

Allow the participant to introduce them self and what they do.

Tell me about how you came to be a Senior/Lecturer at this institution?
Previous career
Responsibilities
Length of time in previous career
Length of time at this institution

Describe your current role at the MET Institution?
Courses
Training
Training gaps
Areas of responsibility

How would you describe a professional?
Do you consider yourself a professional?
Qualities of a professional
Autonomy
Responsibility
How do your current responsibilities compare to those in your previous job

How would you describe the relationships you have with people at work?

How would you define an expert?

Appendix A

Would you consider describing yourself as an expert?

What do you understand by the term dual professionalism?

How does the organisation support you in your many roles?

Do you belong to any professional society?
Why
Which ones
How has it helped?

Appendix B   Example Transcript

This is a transcript of one of the data items that has been taken verbatim. It was put into a three-column format so that initial coding and comments could be made. The comments are a mix of observations made and reflexive comments to try to identify where potential for researcher bias may have arisen.

This was the first stage of the analysis. The second stage involved using a CAQDAS application to develop the codes and themes across the whole data sets. The next Appendix gives an example of a theme, its sub-themes and the coding that supports them.

Adam

	Codes	Comments
TRANSCRIPT		
Title: 131205-005		
Type: Interview		
Convention: Verbatim		
Audio Length: 73 minutes		
Completion Date: 11.12.14		
Transcriber's Notes:		

[Start of recording]

INT: Right, good morning.

RES: Good morning.

INT: Er, I wonder if you can just state your name please, just for the purpose of this interview.

INT: Yeah, thanks. Er, and first of all I'm going to be recording this interview, are you happy with me recording it?

RES: Yeah, that's fine.

INT: Good. Can you just say that, yes, you've signed the par ... you've read the participant information sheet and you've signed the participants consent form?

RES: Yes, that was what I read and signed and I agree with all that, thank you.

INT: And are you happy with that?

RES: Yes thank you.

INT: Okay, thanks very much. What I'd like to do first is just go through the aim of the research, what it is I'm trying to do and how I think that you can help me with my research, okay?

RES: Okay.

INT: And then I'll just go through a series ... really it's open questions so that I get your views. I don't really want to try and guide you round any path

other than to keep you on the topic that I'm researching. Are you happy with that?

RES: Yeah, okay.

INT: Okay, thanks very much. Well, first of all to let you know, the aim of this research is I'm investigating, er, how technical experts, people in a previous career become teachers, become professionals. I'm particularly interested in the professional aspect, how people viewed themselves as a professional, er, before, how they view themselves as a professional now and how they see their own professional identity, and whether that view you believe is shared across the institution, the organisation, or any other influencing bodies.

        Okay, er, why have I chosen you? Well, I've chosen you because as a lecturer in the institution and with your experience you fit very neatly into the target group that I'm investigating, so your views will be really well received and will be really useful for my research. Okay. Er, the ... if you take part, and you've consented to take part, then the, er, interview will take approximately an hour to an hour and a half depending how we go. However, if you have any time constraints please let me know so we can make sure that I don't impinge on the rest of your day. Er, once I've recorded this I will then transcribe it right down and I'll provide you with the opportunity to read that to check that you're happy with it should you wish.

        Benefits of taking part is that you're helping contribute to this but also it's part of a ... I'm hoping to add to a body of knowledge where researchers have looked at professionalism, professionalism of lecturers professional identity and examined what tensions there are, how do people see themselves. Now certainly in the industry at the moment there's a lot of debate on what do you mean by a professional. We've got certain institutions who, through Government, through, through being recognised by the Government to identify in saying this is what we class as a professional lecturer. What I'm trying to find is out is what professional lecturers themselves think and see whether that concords with what's coming down from, er, Parliament, coming

through Governments like the HEA or the IFL. I don't see there's any risks involved and your views will be confidential.   So the way I'll ensure confidentiality is whilst I will know the recording, consent form and who it is, from then on I'll use an alias, might be just lecturer number 1. There will be a cross-reference so that I can actually trail but also if anybody in the University needs to check my work for an audit trail then they'll be able to check, but other than that I'll anonymise it sufficient that you won't be able to be recognised other than just as a lecturer at an Institution. Are you happy with that?

RES: Yeah, okay.

INT: Okay, thanks very much. If you change your mind and you decide to withdraw then I will erase all recordings and give you ... and destroy transcripts, there'll be no record of it. If you need any more information I can give you the, er, contact number of my supervisor but also of the ethics representative at the University.   Are you happy with that?

RES: Yeah, that sounds okay.

INT: Okay. Thanks very much. Okay, what I'd like to do now then, if it's okay, is can you just introduce yourself and what it is that you actually do on a high level because we're going to go into more detail as we go through this, but just give an overview at the moment?

RES: Well, I'm a Senior Lecturer here.   I'm principally based in the Petrochemical section which means I run training courses for the various tanker disciplines and related topics, er, but I obviously do a fair amount of post graduate work related to Master degrees in shipping management and shipping operations.

INT: Okay, thanks for that, that's good for an introduction. Er, what I'd like to do now is just go a little bit deeper, but first what I'd like to concentrate on is your career path that led you to become a lecturer, so up until you became a lecturer, just give me an overview of your career path but towards

the end I'd like to have an idea of your experience, your responsibilities, your level of authority, that area if that's okay?

RES: Okay. Well, I started in the Merchant Navy several months after I left school with BP tankers and I followed a fairly conventional route of training. When I finished my cadetship I had a Class 3 Licence, which we call Second Mate, Second Officer in the Deck Department, and that was just prior to an upheaval in the shipping industry, so I worked for various agencies, manning agencies, but stayed at sea and actually came back, after a while outside of BP I came back to work on BP tankers which were managed by an external manning agency by that stage, but I followed ... I sort of resumed a fairly conventional path up the rank of Chief Officer on BP tankers. Left them, went into consultancy work which was principally involved in ship vetting and cargo expediting, so again that enhanced my experience of the various tanker disciplines and indeed other sorts of cargo ships as well. That was freelance work so it was feast or famine and whilst there was jolly interesting work it wasn't very stable, and that lasted for about 2½ years so I went back to sea for just a year, again extended my experience on different types of ships, passenger ferries, small tankers and dredgers and I worked as Skipper on a dredger ... well, a series of dredgers, albeit quite small dredgers with crews ranging from 3 to 11, but it was very useful to have an experiences Master. And then, after about a year or so of that, I responded to a vacancy in the Trade Press for a lecturer and originally my work was very much related to operational type training, safety and operational type training, but I've been here nearly 17 years now and over that period I've migrated into the ... gradually migrated into an academic role and it's one I enjoy.

INT: Okay, I'll come onto that in a bit because that's very interesting, thanks very much. But as part of your previous career would you consider yourself to have been a professional?

RES: Yes. As I said, it was fairly conventional so I think as holding a rank, whether it was Second Mate or Chief Officer or Captain in the Merchant Navy, there was ... it was recognised as holding a particular status not just within the employers where I work but elsewhere in the professional bodies if I go to

Annotation column	Notes column
A fairly conventional route of training	*Get the impression that this is nothing special, a typical career progression in the merchant navy.*
Qualifications	
Conventional career path	
Identity as a mariner	
Enhanced industrial experience	
Not stable work	*Needs stability in a job.*
Enhanced industrial experience	
Operational/industry specific	
Migrated into an academic role	
Identity as a mariner	
Conventional career path	

Transcript	Codes	Notes
conferences or meetings, then your, your experience of the nature of your conversation would indicate a certain level of knowledge and capability perhaps and, and there was a general acceptance and respect for that role that you've been play ... the role you've been playing and the, the status you were given. INT: If I said to you, you know, could you describe what it means to be a professional, how, how would you say? RES: It's fairly nebulous really. I mean, on the one hand if you declare to a group of people you're a Captain then, um, you get the feeling that they create a certain image in their minds but as I was suggesting, once you talk through your role or responsibilities or your, your reaction to developments within the industry and demonstrate that background of and knowledge then they're more accepting of the status that you've been given. And a lot of professional bodies, I think even when I was at sea I recognised the value of membership of professional bodies which were a lot more sort of commercial in their outlook not only in terms of wanting members and receiving fees but actually providing that knowledge because certainly when I think of organisations such as the Nautical Institute, just being involved in those groups with, with journals and conferences and meetings gave you that knowledge and gave you networking opportunities and they were, um, as much a provider of knowledge and expertise as actually working on the job. So membership of those bodies, it wasn't very obvious at the time or maybe not early on during membership and involvement in those bodies but it certainly did enhance the feeling of professionalism. INT: What are the qualities that you would describe that professional has that sets them apart from, shall we say, an ordinary member of the public? RES: I think technical knowledge but combined with that it, it's being reliable, if you're asked to perform a task being able to do it, being able to report the progress of the task and completing the task and if the task is not easy to complete then it's ... failing to complete it isn't necessarily a sign of not being professional about it but just communicating and reporting that the	Rank Status Holding a particular status Professional bodies Marine experience certain level of marine knowledge communication respect Image as a captain credibility communication status Knowledge Professional bodies knowledge networking Feeling of professionalism reliability Technical knowledge	*This section brings out how the individual sets out their perception of status, experience, knowledge, respect and the value of belonging to a professional body.* *It seems here that being a captain is not enough, credibility comes through demonstrating that you have knowledge and the things that you do.* *This section outlines the value of belonging to a professional body. I got the impression here that these points were very important to him now and he needed that sense of belonging as part of his credentials as a professional.* *Important that Adam expresses a 'feeling of professionalism' rather than just a label.*

task is not easy to complete without certain other provisions and communicating and technical skills and also non technical skills which have become, of course, very topical in the last few years.	communication Non-technical skills	
INT: Of course. Would you describe yourself, at this stage I'm still thinking of you as just before you became a lecturer, would you describe yourself as an expert?		
RES: I'm very wary of that word. (Laughs) I don't like that word and I've never chosen to describe myself as that. I would say that I had a bank of knowledge and experience in certain ...	knowledge experience	Obviously wary of describing himself as an expert. Not sure whether this is as a result of modesty or a real view that there are no experts.
Well, it implies that you've got more knowledge than other people about a certain topic, and I wouldn't necessarily deny that but I think that it's a like ones term which implies elements that individuals may not be comfortable with and I wouldn't feel comfortable either.	Exclusivity to knowledge	*Expert here is my word and has not arisen from the interview.* However, his reaction to it was very revealing and adds to the study. I do not consider that I introduced any unnecessary bias here.
INT: Is there ... how do you think that affects responsibilities in a professional?		
RES: I think it implies to the people around that you're all knowing and superior to everybody around you but if you compare that term to a professional, a professional will use the resources and provisions around them to achieve a task whereas an expert, if somebody's called an expert then the implication is they have exclusive rights to that knowledge. That's a bit, bit of distortion.	superior difference between an expert and a professional making use of resources to perform a task	*Again, he appears to be uncomfortable with the term expert and sees a clear difference between the terms expert and professional.*
INT: No, no, I understand what you mean and thank you for that. Er, so what I'd like to do now, I've got a good idea of where you were before you became a lecturer. Okay, what made you become a lecturer, what was your motivation to become a lecturer?		
RES: To leave the sea really and simply, um, to have evenings and weekends. I think a lot of people in that position make the decision for that purpose. I'd done some lecturing in voluntary work I've been involved in in	Desire to leave sea	

the past, even on the ships I'd given instruction, sometimes in the form of quite formal lecturer, and it's something that I enjoy as far as it went in those environments, so what the job appeared to entail appealed to me but the overwhelming motivation to leave the sea and I don't ... I'm not ashamed to admit that.

INT: But is it just because lecturing was convenient ...

RES: Yeah.

INT: ... at the time, could it have been any other job?

RES: Poss ... oh yes, yeah.

INT: Okay. So it wasn't a calling that drove you that way?

RES: No, not at the time, no. I think the desire to be involved in academia, if I can say that and I'm not sure I can, but that has developed since then but it's been very, very tangible since I've been involved but then I've been here for 17 years so it's perhaps nor surprising.

INT: Okay. Well, thanks for that.   What I'd like to do now is look at, er, your position here and your roles, your variety of roles and your view. What I'm particularly looking for on here is your view and your roles as a professional, do you see yourself as professional, but also what do you need to conduct those roles, knowledge, skills, attitude, etc., I'd just like to identify the different roles that you may be involved in?

RES: Well, I think, um, clearly the work I'm involved in now in terms of the knowledge of shipping has been built on experience so when I teach it I'm not just conveying information that has been put on slides or a piece of paper in front of me, I'm putting it within the context of my own experience which I think helps but then I would say that, I'm not, not on the other receiving it, but I think that's important.   And I think some of the mechanism that I was familiar with at the time such as membership of professional bodies have also

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Column 2 (codes):

Enjoyment
Academic role
 Previous experience
Appealing
Desire to leave sea

Academic role
 Developed over time

Own knowledge and experience
Level of knowledge
Technical knowledge
experience
 contextualised

Column 3 (notes):

The desire to leave the sea is the primary trigger, the desire to be involved in academia grew with experience in academia. In this context academia and teaching appear to be synonymous.

Tone of voice raised, almost apologetic.

From the raised tone, it appears that he much prefers his current role in academia rather than at sea. It has occurred to me that there is a degree of feeling of credibility in having done the job at sea but the preference now is teaching.

helped because in the role I am at the moment you're not given the information, you're expected to go out and find it and I think, I mean, started the habit of doing that even before I started lecturing - that was a big help, and of course networking and contacts help a great deal. I find my, um, my environment is still very much based within industry rather than academia, I still find the two as separate entities, not mutually exclusive but they're not, they're not the same. I think my contacts and work within industries is still greater than my academic involvement.

INT: Could you just explain that a little bit further for me please?

RES: When I'm teaching I'm ... certainly on the short courses, the tanker work, I'm dealing with people who work in the industry and they're not academics and they're not, they're not necessarily expecting to be involved in academia, it's more they're thinking about short course training. However, the vast majority of people I do teach on these courses are professionals themselves and all that I was saying earlier on about using the provisions around you and not pretending you know everything there is to know but being open to, um, other advice, listening, contribution in conversations, they're professionals as well and most of them accept, without sounding ... sounding conceited, they accept me as being a professional or form of professional in their industry, so that makes for a very conducive training environment.

INT: How important do you think that is that they see you as a fellow professional closely linked to their industry?

RES: I think that's extremely important. I think if they thought otherwise it would make the whole process more difficult and a lot less enjoyable for me.

INT: What do you mean more difficult on process?

RES: Because they'd be more sceptical, they might think, well, all you're doing is reading off a PowerPoint slider, reading out of a book, how do we know what you're telling us has got any value at all. But when they put the,

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Column 2 (codes):

being a member of a professional body

autonomy

Networking opportunities

Industry experience

Academia and industry
Not mutually exclusive

Student expectations

Teaching delivery style
Recognition from others

Putting students first

Industry/technical identity
Conducive environment

enjoyment

Column 3 (notes):

'not just conveying information' indicates a value judgement and that it is important to him to be able to back this up with experience and knowledge.

Industry/technical identity remains strongest

The value of networking appears to be a recurring theme and seems to be important to him.

He stressed the point that he views academia and industry as two separate entities.

Industrial/technical identity remains the strongest.

Here I get the impression that it is important to him to be accepted by his students as a fellow professional. This is closely linked to credibility.

Transcript	Codes	Notes
the context of me having done the same sort of work that they've done in the past then I think it adds more credibility. INT: So this you're talking specifically of your short courses. RES: Mm. INT: Can you just give me a rough idea of what short courses that you teach and the duration of these courses? RES: They're usually 5 day courses related to the various tanker disciplines but we might do shorter courses, 2 or 3 day courses which are much more focussed, things like inert gas and crude oil washing and tanker related work. INT: So these are very specific courses aimed at particular jobs or tasks within a job? RES: That's right. And fairly contact driven and largely technical. INT: Okay. So how do you see you approaching delivering that kind of lesson? RES: Assessing the background and knowledge of the people involved - I think that's important, knowing the learners and trying to deliver the topics in a, in a manner which they can recognise and identify and put in the context of their own work, so identifying them as, as you suggested earlier on, fellow professional. INT: So what knowledge and skills do you think you need to be successful in delivering those courses? RES: Similar to the ... in some ways to the professional skills that you need to do the job. As was suggesting earlier on you need to keep your eyes and your ears open a lot of the time, so technical knowledge of course is very important. The credibility which, as I was suggesting at the beginning, might	credibility context source of knowledge Short courses Knowing your learners Recognising student needs Developing knowledge Value of experience	*The source of the knowledge is important.* *Value of technical experience vs academic.* *Will need to make reference in the lit review of methodology chapter about the differences between short courses and long courses. Short course = focussed not general* *I should include attitude here also.*

come from your status or previous status, but I think the way you speak to people, er, on, on equal terms rather than anybody being particularly superior or inferior helps and treating them as fellow professionals and treating them with respect and trying to earn respect that way. So there's a lot of non-technical elements to it as well.

INT: Okay. How important is the recency of your experience?

RES: I think there are sort of two sides to this. On the one hand … I haven't worked on a ship for 17 years other than the occasional consultancy trips, and that might be a cause of scepticism from some of the trainees, but on the other hand if we speak in terms of what we understand to be current equipment and current procedures, and this is what we get, not just professional bodies and the trade press, but what we learn from the students themselves, and again if they, if they understand that you're aware of recent developments, it might be industry trends or legislation, I think that adds to the credibility, so whilst they will be conscious of the fact that myself and my colleagues haven't necessarily been, been doing their jobs for several years, they are conscious of the fact that we're keeping up with the industry?

INT: How much of a commitment is that and how important do you see that in your role?

RES: I don't think you could do the job with any credibility without doing that. I don't following a specially onerous commitment. I mean, as I say, just rather than instruction or training where you're just going through slide after slide and getting them to listen, when they're in the class they're also conscious of contributing to you as well. So it's a two way communication, you'll talk about a technical operation and ask them how they go about the task, compare it with their own experiences and identify the differences and that's one way of keeping up with the development of the industry.

INT: Okay. So that's really covered the technical knowledge from that side and how you deal with that. What about any other knowledge skills that you | Technical knowledge

credibility
status
mutual respect

Credibility

Keeping up to date

Developing knowledge

Being honest
credibility

Keeping up to date

Developing knowledge

Describing concepts | *Again it appears to be very important to him that he is seen as keeping up to date with the industry.*

The tone of his voice indicates almost incredulity of being asked the question! Obviously very important to him. |

need in order to deliver the lesson, er, to deliver the course that you might need?		*The two way communication between lecturer and student is a very important aspect of keeping up to date, there is mutual respect between fellow professionals. This certainly moves away from any idea that the lecturer is all knowing.*
RES: Knowledge skills?		
INT: Any knowledge that you need or skills that you may need that enables you to teach basically?		
RES: Well, I think that some background in teaching helps or background in, in being able to taught to teach whether we're talking (laughs) a series of evening classes or train ... in the trainer course or something like that, that will help but when I started at this organisation, this institution, it wasn't requirement at the time to undertake a post graduate certificate in teaching. It's something that's very important to me at the moment and I've been in the development and delivery of post graduate teaching course of Maritime education and training. And that, really that, that sort of stimulated my interest in academia.	Lecturer training Identity as a lecturer CPD Need for initial lecturer training	
INT: Okay.		
RES: That was very, um, that was very influential in my ...		
INT: So looking at your role of teaching the short courses for the moment ...		
RES: Yeah.		
INT: ... what aspects of pedagogy, PG Cert that you taught do you bring into that that you need, that you feel are essential?		
RES: Well, even some things, some basic things like lesson planning and pitching the material in the right level and you can't pitch it at the right level if you don't know what the level is in the first place and that needs knowing your learners, and I think all the time I was doing my original post graduate certificate, my Masters degree which I did here albeit a distance course with	Lesson planning Teaching at the right level	

the Open University, I think the overwhelming mantra I learnt was to know your learners and once you understand that and you seek to get their background it makes it a lot easier to deliver the information in a manner which is acceptable to them. INT: What do you mean ... RES: Because you're putting it in ... INT: ... when you say know your learners? RES: Know their experience, their knowledge, their background, their rank, their position, their role because they're not all at sea, and just understand what sort of information they want and how they intend to use it, so that has an influence on the way you deliver it. INT: Okay. Thanks. Now you mentioned different courses that you teach, what are they? RES: The short courses you mean or ... INT: You've talked about short courses. RES: Yeah. INT: And how it's very much industry specific ... RES: Yeah. INT: ... and it's very much job focussed, do you do any other teaching that doesn't fit into that description? RES: Well, the longer ... well, the Masters degrees, there's Shipping Management degree we teach at the University face to face, and the online Shipping Operations degree and I ...	Knowledge of learners Knowing your learners Communication Knowing your learners Lesson delivery	*Obviously it is important to Adam that the teaching is at the right level for the students as he became animated at this point using hand movements more than normal.*

INT: Can I talk about those two separate please? RES: Okay. INT: Can I talk about first of all the Masters degree that you teach on face to face teaching. Could you tell me a little bit about that, the knowledge that you need in order to deliver that? RES: Well, I teach a series of fairly focussed areas such as technical operations, commercial management, security, and the classes I teach are quite large, 30 to 40 people, and this is a Masters level so most of the people have had some industrial experience - not necessarily all of them, and a number of them have very similar industrial experience to ... or a similar type of experience - not necessarily the duration of it, as I have in the past. So to begin with there's a fair amount of knowledge of life and knowledge of industry so whilst I can't, I can't take it for granted that they've got the same sort of experience as the people that I deal with on the short courses, it would also be a mistake to think that they've got no knowledge at all, so again, that's a very important element in the way I deliver the material. So it's not quite as technical, a lot of it's more conceptual particularly in terms of things like security and commercial management because you're, you're trying to explain some very straightforward fundamentals about how you, how you mark it and take advantage of an industry in the market within the industry. Okay, the technical managers needs are a bit more technical. So it's slightly different. Um, again you're ... it helps to have feedback from the people in the class because we're not talking about focussed technical training on a short course, we're talking about a University environment so the deliver is slightly different. INT: Okay. What about the pedagogic side for this, does that differ ... are there any different roles or different skills that you use for that than you do for the short courses? RES: Yeah, because a lot of the focus in the minds of the students at the University is on how they're going to demonstrate their knowledge, be it through a science and such like, so they're interested in picking up some of	Industrial experience Knowing your learners Long course Conceptual knowledge Describing concepts Vary delivery style Technical knowledge Vary delivery style	

those techniques that they see demonstrated in terms of sort of being open minded and inclusive, um, and looking for foundation for them developing their views so that the pedagogy is more of a, much more of a factor and I'm more mindful of it when I'm at the University than I am on a short course because they, they want to not only grasp the concept of what we're talking about, the mechanics of, say, commercial operations and things like that, but they want to be able to express it themselves in their assignments, so things like creating a good argument, creating an argument with a foundation referencing an analysis evaluation, that sort of thing. INT: So what's different in your role as a teacher on the Masters course than there is as a teacher on the short courses and I don't just mean teacher as in the lesson, I mean the whole side of teaching there? RES: In, in the short courses I feel more of a facilitator because you're enhancing existing knowledge and experience so as long as you've found out what their background is then you're introducing topics with which they're already familiar so you might be sort of introducing the idea of more precise procedures and things like that, and it'll be getting their views on it, getting their experiences on it. And a lot of the time with very generic subjects it's just that, you're facilitating a discussion as you suggested earlier on with this interview, you're just trying to steer the discussion over the ground that you want to cover and sometimes I can be an exhilarating process because you find you've, you've said practically nothing yourself but all the topics you've had to cover have been covered because of the experience of the people there and everybody's learnt something, even from each other. There's not so much of that at the University dealing with bigger groups many of which don't have the industrial background, they might have been in work at some point or other, so they're not children but they, they ... they're more interested in the technical knowledge and the process of being able to absorb it and developing, create arguments themselves, so the pedagogy is different. Having said that, I do find the two complement each other.	Knowing your learners Learning skills Identifying pedagogy Conceptual knowledge Short courses Being a facilitator Developing knowledge pedagogy Building on the students experience Putting students first Delivery style Academic/technical identity	*Different approach based on the fact that these courses are at Masters level and require the student to be assessed through assignments rather than short tests.*

INT: Okay. Are there any challenges you see in teaching on either of these different style of courses? RES: I think the challenges come when the ... particularly on the short courses we do teach basic training and familiarisation and there's challenging them where the people have very little knowledge indeed and very little experience. That's when classroom dynamics tend to come into the equation much more because some of these children are just out of school and they think they're in school and they behave like school children and, and that is a real contrast to what we, we experience on most other courses. So that's a challenge although in some cases, with those familiarisation courses we might have people from industry, kind of a beneficial effect because again the rest of the class see those, the people as having experience and they're, they're willing to absorb that experience, you know, 'we need to listen to what they say as well as the lecturer,' so that's a challenge there. With the University teaching, um, I wouldn't say that the lack of provision to facilitate a discussion is necessarily a challenge, it's just different, they've got a different background a lot of them, so the mechanism, the pedagogy is slightly contrasting, but, as I say, I don't find them ... whilst the short courses and the University courses are different undoubtedly, I think ... I, I personally find it beneficial to have the experience of both because even if we're just talking about a pedagogical process, it's experience, isn't it, it's like having, you know, our language used and vocabulary is only going to be as useful as the number of words that you use so the, the more techniques and mechanisms you become used to in a teaching situation is going to be beneficial. Stories from my time at sea help to put the erm ... theory into context and that's important. So there are differences but I think they complement each other. INT: Okay. If I was now to refer you back to the PG Cert, in just really big handfuls if you can say what percentage, in view of your experience now, what percentage of the course was essential for you to do what you're doing now, what percentage of the course was useful and what percentage of the course was not useful at all?	Identifying pedagogy Recognising and dealing with challenges Pedagogy for a different audience challenges Knowing the learners Communication issues Identifying pedagogy Experience Context	*'children' in this context is used as a derogatory remark referring to young adults with little or no experience.*

RES: (Laughs) It's a long time since I've done it. I would be reluctant to say any of it was useless because you, you ... I did find myself in the time after completing that ... are you talking about the PG Cert I took early on in ... INT: Yes, yes. RES: ... in starting ... sometimes you go through courses like that and at the time certain elements of it, certain sessions perhaps don't seem that relevant but you very soon realise that, you know, a few months afterwards, a couple of years afterwards, your mind goes back to thinks that you covered and you think, oh, maybe that did have some relevance. So I remember thinking at any time what a waste of time that was, but now I think just about all of it has had some relevance at some point or other. INT: Okay. Thanks for that. Now I want to focus on as a professional here. How do you see yourself as a professional in, in this institution? RES: Professional lecturer? INT: Do you see, do you see ... RES: Or a former professional? INT: Either. How do you see ... if I was to say your professional identity, how would you describe yourself? RES: Well, I think having the industrial background is important. I think your portfolio of activity helps as well. Um, it's difficult to form an image of oneself without having an understanding how others see you and I think a lot of the professional skills, both technical and non-technical, apply just as much here as they would anywhere else because you're relying on other people to a degree, they're relying on you, so you have to build up that trust if you like amongst your fellow professionals?	Relating prior training to practice Initial thoughts of PGCE How others see you Non-technical skills	 *It is interesting that initially he did not value the PGCE, but later appreciates the relevance of the course.* *It is interesting that Adam keeps referring to non-technical skills as this is a 'hot' topic in the marine industry at the moment. Non-technical skills include; effective communication, leadership, management and decision making.*

Transcript	Codes
INT: Who do you mean you when you talk ... RES: Well, the people around, the people involved in the same courses. If there are periods where you have a commitment elsewhere or there's an opportunity elsewhere, that they can cover for you, for example, on the short course and, you know, vice versa, so you sort of look after each other in very much the same way as you would on a, on a ship or other industrial setting, you want to be reliable, you want to have been seen as having knowledge, maybe certain specialisms, and when other people come to ask you for advice or help then, then you're able to provide that help or advice, that all adds to it. INT: So how would you describe yourself now in terms of professional, professional identity? RES: What, in terms of subject area or status or what? I mean ... INT: Either, any of those? RES: I think you're seen as having knowledge in a particular technical area, I think that's probably the easiest one to identify. So if somebody wants to know about tankers they might come to myself or my immediate colleagues, so that's one of them. Um, and then maybe experience here, your experience in this work, you know, whether you've had several years' experience at another teaching institution or University might add to it. I mean, I, I'm one of the ... these days I'm one of the longest servers here so some people have seen me here for a long time. Now, whether that adds or detracts from my status as a professional I'm not quite sure, but they know what I've been doing I've been doing for a long time. INT: So how do you see ... first of all do you see yourself as a professional lecturer?	Trust between colleagues Supportive Working with colleagues reliable technical and academic knowledge mutual respect/support Technical knowledge Academic experience status	

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RES: I think with, with the knowledge and duration that it's ... yeah, I think, I think that will be fair enough.	Level of knowledge	
INT: And how would you describe a professional lecturer?		
RES: Er, somebody who ... with a reliable verifiable knowledge with a focussed technical area and who demonstrate from time to time the ability to verify certain specialist knowledge, and again I'm talking about maybe professional bodies contribution to their output, er, journals, papers, conferences, that sort of thing, I think that adds to it.	technical knowledge A certain level of knowledge and capability reliability being a member of a professional body	*A concise account of what Adam thinks it takes to be a professional lecturer.*
INT: So can you just give me a brief description of all the professional activities that you conduct other than teaching?	Academic output	
RES: Well, I think output, whether you're involved ... I think there's, there is a difference between developing output even if you're just doing that. I mean, a lecturer could just deliver material that somebody else has prepared, but being entrusted to develop your own material as a result of an industrial remit or a remit for another authority is one thing that, um, adds to the task rather than just delivering material. Then when you set assignments, for example, as I was suggesting earlier on with the University work, there's, there's a skill involved in that, so that's additional. And then how do you demonstrate your knowledge of a topic other than just delivering it in the classroom, well that's when you're getting a feel for the, the academic part of the industry and what I mean by that is how it's portrayed in the trade press, um, and the, the technical background of the knowledge of the industry. So it's difficult even something like shipping, which in many ways has been neglected by academia and research in the past, there's still, there's still activity within the industry related to research. I personally think there's, there's nowhere near enough research that, that should be carried out, I think it's crying out for research and I'm at a stage now where I think I want to contribute to that research.	Lesson development trust developing own material setting assignments Assessment of technical/academic skills Need to contribute to research	
INT: What other roles do you have?		

RES: Other than ... INT: Other than the ones you've just described? RES: Er ... INT: Within the institution to do with being a professional lecturer? RES: Being a professional ... um, I think involvement in indus ... I mentioned the Nautical Institute, going onto their lectures, their sessions, that you're presenting information at their meetings. Same with Energy Institute, um, I'm involved in their academic accreditation approvals panel which is ... I find it hugely beneficial because it's one of the few occasions where I can visit other institutions whether it's universities or academies or colleges and see what goes on there. So I think that adds to my profess ... within myself, you know, I can't speak for other people, how they see it, but within myself it gives me much more confidence about the material I produce and the means by which I put it across and the way I mark assignments and that sort of thing. INT: Are there any areas that you feel you either weren't prepared for in terms of having the supporting knowledge skills or that you feel you aren't prepared for now? RES: I've never felt that. I think the onus is on, and maybe this goes back to professionalism, this goes back to a professional wherever you are, if you feel you're lacking in knowledge you go out and find it, there's a certain autonomy and I think, I think there's an expectation from the employer that, that you'll do that, it's, it's ... I mean, again, you know, asking for help is not unprofessional, asking for guidance is not unprofessional, not asking and not doing anything, expect everything to be given you is unprofessional, so, you know, filling in gaps of ignorance is, is not unprofessional, the motivation that you show to fill those gaps is professional. INT: You mentioned autonomy.	Being a member of a professional body Networking Assessment at a higher level Academic integrity Autonomy Employer expectation Developing knowledge as an ongoing expectation Life-long learning	*This could be viewed as an example of a desire to belong to a wider community.*

RES: Yeah. INT: What does that mean to you and how do you see that in the institution? RES: The way you gather material, develop courses and delivery. There are, um, auditing procedures but they're not especially intrusive. I don't find them especially intrusive. <mark>I think you're given a fair amount of latitude in the way you deliver material.</mark> As I say, a lot of the short courses I find myself facilitating the discussion. I mean, not surprisingly short courses are fairly prescriptive in the syllabus what has to be covered but nobody says you've got to prepare 50 PowerPoint slides and get it through in an hour and a half and this is what has to be on the slides. INT: So do you ... RES: And after 20 minutes you should be on slide number 51 or 21 or whatever it is. <mark>I think you're given a remit but the autonomy lies in the way you get that information across and if you've facilitated your discussion in a classroom where people are contributing and covering the topics, nobody is going to come in and say that's ... you shouldn't be doing that, you should just be reciting line after line.</mark> INT: So do you feel that you are autonomous in your role? RES: <mark>I feel that I'm given a degree of autonomy, not, I mean, not 100% but then that wouldn't be much ... very helpful if it was.</mark> INT: So how important do you think autonomy is to being a professional? RES: <mark>I think it is important because you're not going to be ... express yourself as an individual and put your mark, your personality on a, on the way you deliver a topic without the autonomy. If it was too regimented and too</mark>	<mark>Autonomy</mark> <mark>Autonomy</mark> <mark>Autonomy</mark> <mark>Autonomy</mark>	

prescriptive I think it would be very difficult to do that because it'd simply be a function error.		
INT: Do you feel comfortable with the level of autonomy that you have in your current role?		
RES: Yes.		
INT: Just looking at the wider aspects of teaching are you involved in analysing the requirements to deliver? What are you ... where does your tra ... role in training development, the development of a course start?		
RES: The remit might be a series of topics to cover. In some cases it might be more than that. You're (laughs) given a title and say we want you to teach about this and then you see what's happening elsewhere at other institutions. You try and develop and understanding for a particular title, what's involved in it, and then you develop material, you gather material and put it in a format which can be put across. And once you get to, um, meeting the people you're teaching then you have a much clearer idea of how you're going to put it across.	lesson development Knowing your learners	
INT: And what do you do after that with the material?		
RES: Well, I think they gave that to the PG Cert, you, you make lesson plans, you, you allocate certain topics for certain sessions and then having, having the experience of delivering the courses then you develop a feel for how comfortable you are in certain sessions and whether there's too much or too little material to be covered in a certain session.	Lesson planning Reflecting in lessons	
INT: So would you say that you're reflective in your practice?		
RES: Yeah, I think that's a very important property.		
INT: What do you, what do you understand by that?		

RES: That you can, you can reflect on how a session's gone or a whole course has gone, what worked, what didn't work, how you're going to change it, get the next opportunity, deliver it again, see if the changes have had good effect. I think reflection is extremely important and I think the autonomy lies in being able to change those things.	Reflective practitioner	*Important to note that Adam is comfortable with the level of autonomy he has, which is different from what other participants have said.*
INT: Do, do you think reflection, the ability to reflect a reflection is an important part of being a professional?		
RES: Crucial. I don't think you could call yourself a professional if you didn't. Having said that, you might not be allowed to change things, I mean, I haven't encountered that myself but ...	Reflective practitioner	
INT: So ...	Possible lack of autonomy	
RES: ... I'm conscious of institutions around the world where that is not possible.		
INT: But in your experience here?		
RES: Yeah.		
INT: You're given the degree of autonomy and your ability to put reflective practice into action that you're satisfied with?		
RES: Yes, and I think reflective practice, I mean, that was something that was, um, ingrained into us at the very beginning through the PG Cert for example, and coincidentally I've been involved in developing and delivery post graduate courses in Maritime education and training where this point of reflection, the process of reflection is something that we've placed a lot of value in and we've, we've been met with surprise from institutions around the world where they're not encouraged to reflect and change things.	Reflective practitioner	

INT: Good. Thanks for that. Er, we've talked along aspects of being a professional, I'd just like to focus a little bit more on how do you see responsibility, what does that mean to you as a professional? RES: Responsibility. I think being reliable, being seen to be reliable and I think if you did not meet your responsibilities that would be brought to your attention fairly quickly from the people around you, maybe the people you're teaching and the people above you. INT: So in terms of responsibility what do you feel you're responsible for? RES: Er, delivering the courses to the satisfaction of the people we're teaching, people we're training, responding to their needs, meeting their needs even if it means asking for assistance, but that's part of being a professional as I said earlier on. And assessing their needs in the first place which goes back to knowing your learners. INT: Okay. I notice your reply there is very student-centric, your responsibility, from what you say there, appears to be mainly to the student getting what they want. Is that an accurate interpretation? RES: Absolutely. I think that overrides everything else. I'm talking in very general terms, I mean, the students come here, whether it's a short course or a ... INT: Yes. RES: ... re-course, to gain information and knowledge and skills and, as I say, the University courses, you're particularly looking at analytical skills and argumentative skills and such like, um, so I think the students' needs and the students experience and the learning experience is probably more important than in anything else, but, as I say, I'm talking very generally. I mean, if a student came in and made unreasonable demands that's another matter, but I found that that student-centric approach is something I'm mindful of and I	Responsibility Being reliable Accountable to the people around you Meeting expectations Training needs analysis Knowing your learners Training needs analysis Recognising student needs autonomy	*The impression I get from listening to Adam is that he is given the class and course to teach then it is left up to him to deliver the training/assessment to meet the requirement. It is left up to Adam to keep the courses current and effective in terms of student learning. The oversee by the organisation is through regular audits which do not appear to be particularly onerous. Student feedback is important along with student employer feedback (which does not occur often).* *TNA – this is a term that I am familiar with, this could be an example of where I am bringing bias into the analysis.* *This reflects the views on credibility and being seen as a professional.*

personally think, given the autonomy that I'm given, that that's more important than just about anything else.		
INT: Where do you feel your responsibilities lie towards the institution, towards the industry?		
RES: I think they ... to a degree they can be much the same.		
INT: So ...		
RES: Because I think they're all, you know, the student has expectations, our employer has an expectation that I will need those needs. If the student's employed and paying for their training or education they under expectations that the students' needs are expected. A lot of the time - not necessarily the case at the University, a lot of the time the student is going to know what their needs are within the context of their own professional environment so if the employer is not happy with what the student receives and the way they perform after the education and training they will make that ... their feelings clear, so they all have expectations and so the industry expectation, the expectations of my employer and the expectations of the students are likely to be fairly similar and that, and that ... and as is the case in my experience.	Meeting audit expectations Technical expectations Academic expectations	*This includes student, employer and the organisation's expectations.*
INT: Okay.		
RES: So I don't think you have to necessarily think of them as a separate entity.		
INT: What are the constraints on your teaching ... this is in terms of responsibility? You know, what are the limitations or the pressures ...		
RES: It's, it's largely time. Even with the long courses we have 2 hour sections, for example, with the ... up at the University so I think time might be one. And if you're going to try something innovative in your short course it tends to be group exercises and things like that, they tend to be very time consuming, so I think you have to be very careful in how you select the	Lesson development	

exercises, these techniques, so time is probably one of them. Um, as I said earlier on, teaching the familiarisation courses to people who are very young and inexperienced, that ... there's a constraint there because again you're, you're conveying information that has very little context in.

Knowing your learners

INT: Okay.

Knowing your learners

RES: But again that goes back to knowing your learners, that's why knowing your learners is so important.

INT: Okay, thanks for that. But what I'd like to do now then is just move ... are you still okay for time by the way?

RES: Sure.

INT: Yeah. Just move and just focus on, er, relationships with people that you work with or else professional relationships. How would you categorise them, who would you say you have professional relationships with?

RES: The people immediately around me. There's somebody I share this task with at the moment, so we do similar work, and helping each other and being reliable towards one another is important, but whilst we, we do similar work we all have ... we, we both, for example, have our different ... I wouldn't say specialisms, but interests, and again, I think being a professional as I was suggesting earlier on, you don't just think about your function, you're thinking about the industry you're involved in, and I talked about research earlier on so I know the areas that I ... I mean, I'm doing my PhD at the moment so I know the areas I'm interested in and I pursue them. Not all of that is immediately related to the ... what you're doing in the classroom, there is a relationship but it may not necessarily apply to all the people that you're teaching. And then my, my oppo has his pursuits and interests and we ... as I understand my other fellow professionals in the same office, in the same part of the organisation, they, they do in a very similar way and actually, even if we're talking about pursuing research, that in itself is a common factor so we

Mutual respect/trust

Working with colleagues

Academic identity

Providing support to colleagues

can compare notes and compare experiences in the way that we pursue those interests and gather that information and carry out research.	Shared experience/ communication	
INT: So how important are professional relationships to you?		
RES: Again very important. I think if you were in an organisation where you're very isolated in terms of your, your work and your topic areas, that would be a lot more difficult than I find it at the moment. So professional relationships, even outside the institution is, is important. Okay.	Professional relationships	
INT: Okay. Er, who else do you have professional relationships with? I mean, I mean, just big handfuls to give me an idea of the groups? So you've talked about your immediate colleagues.		
RES: Yeah.		
INT: Who else?		
RES: Again, membership of professional bodies helps as well. Um, I've talked about the Energy Institute earlier on. Most of that is on an academic basis rather than a professional basis but there's an element of, you know, should is say industrial relationship should I say. So most of that is academically based but again, very important. So, that's, um, I think that ... it was years after I was attracted into these organisations and they give you promise rather than marketing technique, you know, they give you promises about, oh this will increase your, your industrial network and add to your professional status and all the rest of it, and over time I found that to be the case although, I mean, professional status, however you define that, is very ... in an abstract sense I think it has added to me, certainly hasn't added in terms of, you know, salary or anything like that.	Being a member of a professional body Academic identity Networking status	
INT: Okay. What professional institutions are you a member of and at what level?		

RES: Nautical Institute member, Energy Institute member, Higher Education Academy fellow. INT: Okay. And why do you feel it's important to belong to these institutions? RES: Because they ... I think the best and biggest part of it is that they give you an idea of what people like oneself are doing in other organisations and you, you exchange knowledge, um, technical knowledge and maybe non-technical knowledge as well. INT: Okay. Are you aware, are you familiar with the terms dual professionalism? RES: No. INT: Okay. Well, dual professionalism is looking at people like yourself, for example, who have got professional in one area of an industry and also professional in another area as teaching and therefore they, they've got obligations for both, so would you ... do you recognise that in yourself? RES: Mm, possibly in, in terms of educating and training members of that profession. INT: Do you think there's any contention between those two roles? RES: I don't think so. (Makes noise) I find if, if that's what I could be described as I find that complimentary. INT: If you were meeting someone for the first time in a professional capacity, how would you describe your role? RES: Um, well, I'd start with being Senior Lecturer at a University.	Being a member of a professional body Knowledge exchange Networking Technical identity	

INT: Right. RES: And then, depending on the nature of the conversation, go into my background. INT: But you first and foremost see yourself as a Senior Lecturer? RES: Yeah. INT: With relevant Maritime experience. RES: Yeah. INT: Rather than a professional Mariner who teaches, would that be accurate or am I ... RES: Yeah. INT: ... putting words into your mouth? RES: No, I think you're right, I'm a university lecturer with an industrial background. INT: Do you think having ... I'm going to talk in terms of dual professionalism even though I recognise it's probably a new term to you or term that you're not completely familiar with, but do you recognise that that brings on certain obligations that you wouldn't have if you were just really ... if you hadn't become a lecturer? RES: Expect ... well, I'm not quite sure what you mean by obligations. Expectations it would, yeah. INT: Such as?	 Dual professionalism	

RES: Well, when you're involved in the education and training relating to the people that you're speaking to on the background of your own experience.		
INT: Mm.	Relating to others in an academic role	
RES: So an understanding of the, the responsibilities and challenges they have in their own work having been through something very similar oneself.		
INT: So in terms of keeping up to date as a professional, between these two professions where would you say your effort lies?		
RES: In industry rather than academia, but that's not at the expense ... one would not be the expense of the other but the emphasis would be more on one side than the other.	experience	
INT: So if you had to split it would it be 50/50, 60/40, 80/20?		
RES: 70/30 I should think.		
INT: In favour of industry. So your efforts mainly subject knowledge, keeping up to date ...		
RES: Yeah.		
INT: ... as opposed to pedagogic practice, etc?		
RES: What do you mean by ... do you mean changing, developing pedagogic practice?		
INT: Yeah really. Best practice. It's the same in both, you know, keeping yourself up to date on ... or do you see your education side, your professional lecturer as a skill and once you've got that that's it, it doesn't change?		*The term 'dual professionalism' is obviously new to Adam. I need to be aware of whether I am creating an issue here where there isn't one.*
	Dual professionalism Technical identity	

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RES: Well, no, I don't think you can close your eyes to what's happening around you but I don't think the pedagogical element is going to change as much as, as the industry changes.		
INT: So you think a 70/30 split is your common ... you're happy with that?		
RES: Mm, yeah, but I don't want to give the impression that I'm ... I wouldn't ... I'd be closing my mind to pedagogical ...		
INT: No.		
RES: ... development.		
INT: Okay, thank you for that. How do you feel you're supported by the organisation in your role as a professional?	Belonging to a professional body	
RES: I think that they're open to the idea of involvement in those professional bodies. I should also perhaps have mentioned the International Maritime Lecturers Association which, amongst other things, as well as giving me a platform to speak and express my (laughs) distorted views, um, it's close to the industry in terms of giving me a seat the International Maritime Organisation which is a very important part of the industry. So that, that ... I think that adds enormously to the, the industrial side of things, the industrial focus, um, and I think the, the organise ... you know, the institution that employs me is open to the, the benefit of being involved in those organisations.	Organisational support	
INT: So do you feel you're supported as a professional?		
RES: I'm supported in being given that autonomy but they don't ... and I don't mean this as an insult to the employer, they don't go out and find the opportunities for me. If I go out and develop those opportunities they're happy to support me in terms of giving me the opportunity.	autonomy organisational support	
INT: Do you feel ...		

RES: So they're over-minded in that sense.

INT: Do you feel you're treated as a professional by the organisation, feel you're regarded as a professional?

RES: Well, who exactly do you mean by the organisation? By the people I work with and see on a day to day basis, yeah, by my immediate managers, yes.

INT: Okay. Are there any conflicts in ... between the organisation and yourself in terms of professionalism that you feel?

RES: I haven't found anything yet. I think a lot of it's down to time management and that could be in any, any work even study.

INT: Yeah. Okay. Is there ... thank you for that, you've answered all my questions and I really do appreciate your openness and honesty with that. Again, I will assure you of confidentiality and anonymity and again you will have the opportunity to go through the transcription or even listen to the recording. Is there anything else you'd like to add or something that you think I haven't asked that you think I'd be interested in?

RES: Can you explain your ... when you just mentioned in your last ... the organisation, can you ... who do you mean by the organisation?

INT: It can be anything. From the organisation I'm talking about your immediate manager to the head of department, to the faculty itself, or even beyond to the University, the wider University.

RES: At the moment and in the past, no.

INT: That's great. Thanks very much. Are there any other questions?

RES: Can I, can I put this away now?

INT: Put what ... (Laughter) RES: No, nothing else thank you INT: In that case thank you very much. [End of Recording]		

Appendix C Example of a Theme, its sub-themes and supporting codes

Codes	Sub-themes	Theme	Properties of the Theme
Body language (in the classroom)	How I communicate with my students	How I communicate	This theme is derived from the data and reflects the inter-relationships between the participants and with their students. The theme is supported by the assumption that communication is more than just a verbal exchange, it includes meaning, respect, exchange of knowledge and body language. The data extracts were brought together under this theme because they suggested communication in some form and within the context of participant to peer or participant to student. There was a discernible difference between these two categories that, as the data extracts were examined, it became obvious to me that there should be two sub-themes to support the theme of 'How I communicate.
Developing knowledge			
Describing concepts			
Ensuring Confidentiality			
Dealing with cultural diversity			
Making time for students			
Putting students first			
Using varied and appropriate delivery styles			
Knowing your learners			
Being honest	How I communicate with my peers		
Being honest			
being appreciated			
Body language			
Networking			
Being friendly			
Providing support			

Appendix D Participant Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet: Key Participants

Study Title*: **An investigation into the effectiveness of using technical experts as technical trainers in a maritime training environment.**

Researcher: Mark Bee
Ethics number: 3713

Please read this information carefully before deciding to take part in this research. If you are happy to participate you will be asked to sign a consent form.

What is the research about?

The aim of this study is to investigate lecturers' perceptions of their own professional identity and to compare that to current views on the professional identity among lecturers at HE and FE within the research literature. Particularly, this study will explore how lecturers express their own professional identity and what aspects of professionalism are important to them. The study will seek to explore if there are any tensions, gaps or contradictions between subjects and between the subjects as a group and the common notion of professionalism. The outcome of this study will be beneficial to understanding what motivates individual lecturers and help to focus professional development needs for lecturers in similar circumstances.

In order to research the problem the following questions will be addressed;

How does an individual manage the change of a role from a technical expert to a lecturer in tertiary education?

How do lecturers in the MET Institution describe their role as a lecturer in terms of professional identity?

Why have I been chosen?

I would like to interview you because of your role in the organisation as a Key Participant and your expectations that the Training Service is delivered in a professional manner. As I am using a case study method to carry out my research it is important that the views of key participants such as yourself are included to help provide a full understanding of the situation and to place it in context.

What will happen to me if I take part?

I will conduct an interview with you of approximately 1 hour duration. This will be recorded. I will send you a transcript for your approval before I submit my thesis. On completion of my thesis I will send you a report of the findings and recommendations if you so wish.

Are there any benefits in my taking part?

I hope that my research will identify how lecturers view their own professional identity and identify what aspects of being a professional lecturer is important to them. Your involvement will help inform the process and help provide an accurate picture of the role of a lecturer in a Maritime Education and Training Institution.

Are there any risks involved?

No

Will my participation be confidential?

All questionnaire replies and interviews will be anonymous. The generic term 'technical training' will be used rather than subject matter specific terms. Equally, this study will only look at generic training skills as opposed to subject specific skills. I will use some anonymised direct quotations from the interviews as illustrative evidence and will include extracts from the transcripts in an appendix to indicate my analytical process. All data will be handled in accordance with the Data Protection Act/University policy.

What happens if I change my mind?

Your participation is voluntary and you may withdraw at any time without giving reason. If you change your mind and decide to withdraw, all records of your interview and survey responses will be destroyed and will not be used in the study.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case that you have cause for concern or complaint, I can provide an independent contact who is not involved in the research but may be the chair of the ethics committee, the research governance office, a school manager, or any other authoritative body.

Appendix E Ethics Approval

From: ERGO [DoNotReply@ERGO.soton.ac.uk]
Sent: 18 August 2012 12:23
To: Bee M.
Subject: **Your Ethics Submission (Ethics ID: 3713) has been reviewed and approved**

Submission Number: 3713
Submission Name: An investigation into the effectiveness of using technical experts as technical trainers in a maritime training environment.
This is email is to let you know your submission was approved by the Ethics Committee.

Comments
1.The process of gaining ethical consent has changed, and we no longer use the forms that you have supplied. But never mind, since this is an application for small changes to an already approved project, we can ignore that. Good luck with your research.

Click here to view your submission<http://www.ergo.soton.ac.uk>

ERGO: Ethics and Research Governance Online
http://www.ergo.soton.ac.uk

DO NOT REPLY TO THIS EMAIL

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