A study of two frameworks for supporting the personal development of school leaders: Neuro Linguistic Programming (NLP) and the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH).

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Abstract

This thesis is a study of two training courses and their role in supporting the personal development of school leaders. It compares a Neuro Linguistic Programming (NLP) practitioner course with the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH).

Key drivers for school improvement are the quality and style of the leadership and management of the school (OFSTED reports 1993-2008). Furthermore, the most recent development in the literature on leadership (Begley, 2008; Hargreaves, 2008; Boyatzis and McKee, 2005; Looman, 2003) suggests that there is a need for leaders to demonstrate the skills of knowing one’s own feelings and how one might react to events with the ability to understand and recognise emotions in others which are key features of emotional intelligence or inter and intra personal intelligences. Leadership development courses should therefore contain elements which would support the acquisition of these skills. NPQH (the National Professional Qualification for Headship) was the mandatory training for prospective head teachers until 2012.

The research involves in-depth interviews with five leaders in education who have undertaken a full NLP practitioner programme and compares their responses to five leaders who have undertaken the NPQH leadership programme. The interview questions were designed to draw out examples of any changes in the self in both behaviours and perspective as an individual and as a leader, using Transformational Learning as a lens to understand the data. The selection of the ten individuals was based upon purposive sampling with individuals selected because they met a particular criterion; they are leaders in education who have either completed an NLP practitioner course in the past three years or have completed the required NPQH qualification. The structure and content of both courses were also analysed and compared.

The critical review of literature highlights issues surrounding the research basis for claims about NLP, and the data collection and analysis identifies differences between the two cohorts of leaders. This analysis in turn raises questions about the content and structure of leadership training courses and makes recommendations for the future development of NPQH leadership training. The thesis also suggests ways in which the NLP community could demonstrate the effectiveness of NLP with greater rigour and suggests links between content in the training courses and the development of critical self-reflection through the use of reflective journaling.
I declare that the work in this thesis was carried out in accordance with the regulations of the University of Gloucestershire and is original except where indicated by specific reference in the text. No part of the thesis has been submitted as part of any other academic award. The thesis has not been presented to any other education institution in the United Kingdom or overseas.

Any views expressed in the thesis are those of the author and in no way represent those of the University.

Signed…… Date 07/02/2014
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<td>BERA</td>
<td>British Educational Research Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BTEC</td>
<td>Business and Technology Education Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>CPD</td>
<td>Continuing Professional Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>DCSF</td>
<td>The Department for Children, Schools and Families</td>
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<td>DfES</td>
<td>The Department for Education and Skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>ECI</td>
<td>Emotional Competency Inventory</td>
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<td>ESCI</td>
<td>Emotional and Social Competency Inventory</td>
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<tr>
<td>ILM</td>
<td>Institute of Leadership and Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INLPTA</td>
<td>The International NLP Trainers Association</td>
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<tr>
<td>MSCEIT</td>
<td>Mayer-Salovey-Caruso-Emotional-intelligence Test</td>
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<td>NCL</td>
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<td>NCSL</td>
<td>The National College of School Leadership</td>
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<td>NPQH</td>
<td>National Professional Qualification for Headship</td>
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<td>NLP</td>
<td>Neuro–Linguistic Programming</td>
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<tr>
<td>OFSTED</td>
<td>Office for Standards in Education, Children’s Services and Skills.</td>
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Chapter 1

1.0 Introduction and structure of the thesis

Analysts have argued that the education policies followed throughout the post-war period have had a specific agenda which was to raise standards and to make the economic system in England more productive (Machin and Vignoles, 2006). (I have deliberately used the term 'England' here as the education policies followed by successive administrations have often differed in Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland). The history of policy making in education since the end of World War 2 has been tracked by many commentators who agree on these fundamental trends during this time (McCullough, 2008; Whitty, 2008; Gillard, 2007; Raduntz. 2006; Chitty, 2004; Phillips and Furlong, 2001; Dawtrey, Holland, Hammer & Sheldon, 1995; Lawton, 1992; Knight, 1990).

The Education Act of 1944, instigated by the Conservative government from 1939 to 1944 but actually put into practice under a Labour government, was intended to create greater equality of opportunity. At that time, state education was seen as a cornerstone of economic advancement and improved social welfare for the country in a post war environment, whereas the different administrations since 1976 have all focussed upon the need to raise standards in an ever competitive global and knowledge based economy (Lingard and Ozga, 2007). Central to the process of raising standards is the effectiveness of the school leader because it was argued that schools with effective leadership and management will be successful in
raising the educational standards of the pupils (OFSTED annual reports, 1995-2008).

In this thesis, I will investigate different theories of educational leadership, the training of school leaders through NPQH (National Professional Qualification for Headship) and the training undertaken by a cohort of school leaders through a Neuro Linguistic Programming (NLP) practitioner training course. In chapter one, I will begin with the background to my research which includes the results of a questionnaire that was developed when assisting on NLP training courses. I will then describe my own role as an NLP practitioner and the challenge this poses to researcher reflexivity before describing the initial idea, the research questions that were generated with the research objectives before outlining the next stages in my research project. This will be followed in chapter two by a critical analysis of the literature available to investigate the questions posed. In chapter four, there will be a consideration of the methodology to be used. In chapter five, there will be a description of the findings and a discussion on the findings in chapter six. Finally in chapter seven, there will be suggestions for both future research and for the training of school leaders.

1.1 The background to the project

In 1993, OFSTED had reported that the quality of teaching was the most significant element in raising standards (OFSTED, 1993) but some commentators still recognized the overriding impact of the teacher on a group of pupils (Hill, 2006). By 1995, the quality of educational leadership was considered a significant driver for raising standards (OFSTED annual reports, 1995-2008). This same expectation has been identified as a key
driver in many western countries over the past two decades with leadership of and within schools portrayed as a determinant factor in raising standards (Bottery, 2004). The National College of School Leadership (NCSL) after its launch in 2000, has run a variety of programmes aimed at training and developing school leaders at different levels. By 2008, their expectation of the impact of leadership had gone beyond schools:

The National College for School Leadership works to make a difference to children's lives through excellent school leadership - growing and supporting current and future school leaders so that they can have a positive impact within and beyond their schools. (NCSL, 2008)

However, there are conflicting ideas about leadership and what leadership involves. Timperley and Spillane from NCSL in 2005 supported the concept of distributed leadership in schools in which:

Distributed leadership emphasizes practice rather than personality. (Timperley and Spillane, 2005; 2)

English, however, (2008) suggested that:

The art of leadership is anchored to the moral questions of life around which your being is enveloped. First and foremost it's about you, who you are, what you value, matters of means and ends and what you believe to be good and true. (English, 2008; 2)

The above description resonates with the concepts of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) and with inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983); concepts which can be challenged and this will be covered in the next chapter. However, more importantly, there appears to be a conflict between the two views expressed above in which on the one hand, leadership is concerned with practice rather than personality (Timperley and Spillane, 2005) and on the other, it is about the individual, their values and beliefs (English, 2008). From my perspective as a serving head teacher from
1993 until 2010, leadership was about both. It was what you did and how you did it. For this reason I was drawn to the Neuro Linguistic Programming model of behaviour which consisted of a circle with three interlocking parts covering internal states, cognition and external behaviours (McNab and Byrom, 2003). For more information, please see the Appendix, section 15.3.

An essential component of understanding any behaviour, therefore, was to study the individual's internal world as well as the more obviously demonstrable external behaviours. It was curiosity that led me to question whether training courses could influence the internal thoughts and beliefs of the school leader and whether there were any differences between NPQH and NLP training upon these processes.

As an educational professional with over thirty three years of experience in education and with sixteen years as a head teacher, I was involved in supporting deputy heads through the training for NPQH in order to enable them to apply for headships. NPQH as a course was both time consuming for the participant and extremely expensive for the supporting school at a time of budget cuts (2003-4 and 2004-5). Some newly appointed head teachers were saying that their own experience of taking the NPQH course was also less than favourable as shown by the comment from one of my interviewees, Bronwen, when she reflected on her experience of the NPQH course:

I don't think I developed a lot from it (pause) really. (Bronwen, NPQH)

This is in contrast to the reaction of another of my interviewees, Neil, on his NLP course:
The impact was so big that on the way home, I couldn’t concentrate on the driving and I had to stop in a layby.  
(Neil, NLP)

(The names of the interviewees throughout this thesis have been changed to preserve anonymity).

In the meantime, I was undertaking an NLP practitioner course that was held at weekends, followed by a master practitioner course and NLP trainer training course. My initial interest had been triggered by reading one of the presuppositions of NLP in which ‘There is no failure only feedback’ which had been interpreted as “There is no criticism, only feedback” (Knight, 1995). As a school leader, I felt very strongly that this would be a useful attitude to adopt. Through the NLP courses, I came across several other school leaders who were very positive about aspects of NLP which supported their professional practice and I was curious to investigate the role of both courses in supporting the personal development of leaders in education.

1.2 The evidence from a questionnaire

At the same time, I was surprised by the initial findings from a questionnaire which I had been developing as a result of informal discussions within a training company that specialised in the delivery of NLP training at practitioner, master practitioner and NLP trainer training level. The questionnaire that I devised tracked changes in the self-perception of individuals over the period of an NLP practitioner training course. It was based on a Likert (1932) rating scale. The self-rating scale devised was presented as a simple way of measuring a change from the start to the end of a training course and as such a seven point scale was used which created a numerical score which although not recreating the Likert (1932) scale of 1
to 5, gave a reading. Furthermore the questionnaires and the resulting readings could be replicated over several years.

The questionnaire was administered at the start and end of a ten month period in which delegates took an NLP practitioner course. I expected that the questionnaire would track shifts in their world outlook which would correspond to changes in interpersonal and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983).

The questionnaire consisted of a series of forty statements which were devised to correspond to the areas of self-awareness, social awareness, self-management and relationship management. Each of these areas was further sub-divided into two elements. Self-awareness involved an awareness of the respondent’s own world view and a sense of their own self-worth. Social awareness involved an awareness of others’ maps and a positive regard for other people. Self-management involved being aware and able to make choices in their response to life and achieving desired results in their life. Relationship management involved rating the quality of connection with others and working with others for shared goals. The delegates were asked to self-rate by agreeing or disagreeing with each statement. The first group completed the questionnaires in the autumn of 2009. The scores were calculated for each statement and these were aggregated to provide a score for each area. The results were not released to the respondents until they had completed the same self-rating questionnaire again at the end of May in 2010. (For more on the development of the questionnaire, please refer to Appendix section 9.1).

I acknowledge the criticisms concerning self-rating questionnaires since they rely solely upon the perception of the individual. However, it is
possible for people to evaluate themselves. It is also possible for individuals
to feel differently about themselves as a result of changes in their behaviour
and individuals can also be very aware of their own skills and strengths
(Rajecki, 1990).

From the results that were obtained from the questionnaires, the
percentage increase in the NLP respondents’ agreement or disagreement
with the statements demonstrated a change to a more positive viewpoint.
Respondents felt they had more awareness of self and others, greater regard
for self and others, more flexibility regarding their own self-management and
positive changes to their relationships with others. The results from this
questionnaire have been replicated over a three year period (Tables 20 and
21 in Appendix 9.3) with an average percentage change of over thirty per
cent in the four areas of self-awareness, social awareness, self-management
and relationship management. This suggested that NLP training had
influenced the development of an individual's inter and intra personal
intelligences (Gardner, 1983) and suggested a link between acquiring the
skills of NLP and the development of emotional intelligence, inter and intra
personal intelligence, as embodied in the concept of 'personal development'.
The results of this questionnaire were a factor in developing the initial
research idea.

1.3 The content and structure of NPQH and NLP training courses

In contrast to the Neuro Linguistic Programming training course which
was voluntary, when this research was begun in 2008 it was mandatory for
all state funded primary, secondary and special school education providers
to appoint a head teacher who had undertaken the National Professional
Qualification for Headship (NPQH) unless they had been in post prior to
2000. Thus one of the NPQH trained leaders describes her need to take the
course:

It was a case of getting through as I knew I needed the qualification
at the end of it…
(Bronwen, NPQH).

In 2010, after the coalition government took office, a review into
NPQH was begun. The review was published in 2012 and changes have
been made. The results of this review and a more detailed analysis of the
NPQH course will be undertaken in section 2.2. The original NPQH course
was designed to develop effective school leaders through a mixture of face
to face training, a school based project, networking with other trainee heads
and a coaching element which was based on feedback from colleagues
(NCSL, 2008).

In contrast, there are no requirements to take an NLP practitioner
course; it follows individual interests. As one of the NLP leaders that I
interviewed says:

Well... I've been self-driven with my own development...people haven’t
put me on courses. I choose my own in a way...My own personal
development is driven by curiosity...
(Luke, NLP)

There are also no mandatory requirements for an NLP practitioner course
although training providers often ally themselves to INLPTA (International
Neuro Linguistic Programming Trainers Association), ANLP (The Association
for Neuro Linguistic Programming ) or the Professional Guild of Neuro
Linguistic Programming. These organisations expect that specific topics must
be covered and that certain standards must be upheld. There are many other
training providers but questions remain about the consistency and quality of
much of the training and practice (Hall, 2012). The content and structure of the NLP practitioner course that was taken in this research will be described in section 2.1.2.

1.4 The research idea

As a result of both the different reactions from aspiring and practising school leaders to the NPQH and the NLP training courses and the results from the questionnaire described above, a number of questions were being raised:

1. What was the current thinking about leadership in education?
2. Were the inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983) of an individual important as a leader in education?
3. What was the link, if any, between the concepts of personal development, inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983) and emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000)?
4. What were the differences, if any, in the reaction of school leaders to NLP and to NPQH?
5. What might be different about the content of the two training courses that might lead to different reactions?

It seemed worth comparing the two training courses to see which would support the development of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) or inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983). The subject of my thesis therefore was to investigate the effect of both of these courses on the personal development of school leaders.

1.5 The research questions and the research objectives

As a researcher and a serving head teacher, my initial thinking was that there would be five areas to investigate:
1. Using critical analysis of the concept of NLP and the concepts behind it, what effect does taking an NLP practitioner training course have upon the development of leadership through personal development?

2. Using critical analysis of the NPQH programme and the thinking that underpins the course, what effect does taking the NPQH training course have upon the development of leadership through personal development?

3. What are the links between leadership and personal development, including a critical analysis of the psychological aspects of leadership?

4. Which aspects of both courses support the personal development of school leaders?

5. Which aspects of NLP and the NPQH programme, if any, could be used by educational leaders to become more effective leaders?

These five questions would lead to four objectives which would be investigated using a critical review of literature and a survey of a contrasting cohort of NPQH and NLP trained school leaders as follows:

1. Identify the claims made for NLP and personal development, through a critical review of the literature and available evidence.

2. Identify any links between current leadership programmes, leadership development and personal development through a critical review of theory and an analysis of relevant secondary data.

3. Identify the most recent theories of leadership in education and the link between leadership development and personal development through a critical review of literature available.

4. By undertaking in depth interviews of NPQH and NLP trained leaders in education, identify differences and similarities in their experience of training and how this has supported their development both personally and as leaders.

The questions above formed the basis of the research project that I planned to undertake. There were later additions to these considerations which will be explained later in section 3.0 and were as a result of reading undertaken at a later stage continuing to interact with the data that was being collected (Tracy, 2013: O'Neill, 2005) and as my research journal shows:

3/2/11 Do you ever stop reading? If so when? How come I’ve spent three years doing this research and still come across ideas that could have been useful at the beginning? If only I’d known then what I do now, I could have constructed the
interview questions in a different way. Is it too late to use TL (Transformational Learning)?

1.6 Researcher reflexivity

From the evidence above, it is obvious that I have a considerable background of training and knowledge about NLP and must therefore now consider the effect this may have upon the research that I planned to undertake. Reflexivity can be described as the way research orientation is shaped by the social, political and educational world of the researcher as well as the way in which these will shape the research process in the selection (or elimination of data) and subsequent interpretation (Morrison, 2007). Although the concept of the researcher as ‘reflexive self’ has been criticised as not achievable (Skeggs, 2002; Walkerdine, Lacey & Melody, 2002), I acknowledge and am aware of the ways in which my experience may influence the research that I planned to undertake.

Over the period of my career, I have had considerable experience of school leadership over a changing political and educational landscape. In addition, I have also completed the NLP practitioner programme, master practitioner programme and NLP trainer training and have been involved with NLP as a trainer, assistant and practitioner for over ten years. Furthermore, I am still involved in delivering leadership training with emergent leaders and assess assignments at level 7 for the ILM (Institute of Leadership and Management). In these assignments, leaders must critically review their own leadership styles and behaviours during critical incidents or times of change and keep journals of their personal development as a leader over that time. In addition, I am now Chair of Governors of a large school at a time when school leadership under the new OFSTED framework includes school
governance. Furthermore, if governance is considered to be failing, then regardless of the standards achieved by the teachers, the school can face going into a category of ‘needing to improve’ or ‘special measures’ (OFSTED, 2012). My background therefore demonstrates involvement in both NLP training and leadership training and I have personal experience of NLP and school leadership which includes school governance.

At every stage of the research process, therefore, I needed to be prepared to acknowledge my own perspective and interests and keep in mind Robson’s recommendations to identify areas of bias (2002), paying particular attention to his suggestion to ‘stand back’ and in my case, to answer the question, ‘What else could this mean, imply or suggest?’ I will describe the implications for researcher reflexivity in greater detail in section 4.11 of the Methodology chapter.

1.7 The value of small scale research projects

As the research that was to be undertaken was part of a professional doctorate, I felt strongly that it should be purposeful. Best and Kahn described the purpose of educational research as:

…to emphasise the development of generalisations or theories that will be helpful in predicting future occurrences. (Best and Kahn, 1986; 18)

This corresponds with the viewpoint of Anderson and Arsenault (1998) that research is an attempt to:

…address questions or solve problems through the collection and analysis of primary data for the purpose of description, explanation, generalisation and prediction. (Anderson and Arsenault, 1998; 4)
Their view is backed by Paechter (2003) who adds that educational research should be about answering specific questions in order to influence practice for the better. This raises the question of the utility of educational research. Utility can be defined as having an effect in schools and changing teachers’ practice, influencing government policy and practice or furthering educational knowledge. This idea is supported by The National Foundation for Education Research which describes its role in research:

To equip decision makers, managers and practitioners with the most innovative thinking, practical research and responsive assessment programmes to underpin the drive towards excellence in education and lifelong learning. (NFER; 2008)

As my research was part of an Ed. D which is a professional doctorate and with my focus upon leadership training, I hoped to make a purposeful and useful contribution to the sum of knowledge about leadership training which could inform future development.

1.8 The contribution of small scale research projects

The scope of the research and the resources available to me would place my research firmly in the category of small scale research projects in the field of education and leadership. Regardless of whether research findings have a large impact, even small scale and context specific qualitative studies which Bassey claims can lead to ‘fuzzy generalisations’ could be perceived as having an intrinsic value because they:

…invite replication and this, by leading to augmentation and modification of the generalisation contributes powerfully to the edifice of educational theory. (Bassey, 1998; 1)

This in turn can “critically inform educational judgements and decisions in order to improve educational action,” (Bassey 1992; 39) and may bring about
“worthwhile educational change” (Elliott, 1990; 2). In addition, I believe that any small scale research should be able to contribute to a cumulative effect (Burckhardt and Schoenfeld, 2003), within the constraints of differences in design and rationale that could support generalisability.

I would expect that my research would add to the sum of knowledge that already exists on the subject of the personal development of school leaders and to fulfil the criteria established by BERA (British Educational Research Association) that the two main thrusts of educational research should be to:

…inform understandings of educational issues, drawing on and developing educational theory and in some cases theory from related disciplines (e.g. sociology, psychology, philosophy, economics, history etc.) to improve educational policy and practice, by informing pedagogic, curricular and other educational judgements and decisions. (Brown, 2000; 7)

In the economic climate of 2010, when schools faced budget cuts brought about by the economic downturn, the money made available by schools for CPD (Continuing Professional Development) was often restricted or cut completely. In addition, the changes brought about by the review into NPQH and the establishment of Academies with additional freedoms in staff recruitment, retention and training means that there are more options for the training of senior staff than ever before. There is, therefore, an opportunity for leadership training to include some or all aspects of an NLP practitioner or NPQH training course. Throughout the research, I was seeking to identify, through the data that was collected, those aspects of NLP or NPQH which might make a positive contribution to leadership training.
1.9 Conclusion

With the research questions and objectives as described in section 1.5 in mind, the next stage of my research was to undertake an extensive critical analysis of the literature on associated topics. These are as follows: the background to NLP, the structure and content of the NLP and the NPQH training courses, current and past theories of leadership, with particular reference to leadership in education and the concepts of personal development, inter and intra personal development (Gardner, 1983) and emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000).
Chapter 2

2.0 A critical analysis of the foundations of the research through a review of literature

The purpose of a literature review has been described as providing a critical examination of the literature underpinning the research questions and the identification of gaps in the literature which support the research questions (Finn, 2005). In this study, it is presented as a separate chapter as a critical review of the literature available (Creswell, 2009) with specific reference to theories of leadership and an exploration of personal development. It is used to provide a rationale for the research questions. This purpose was expected to change as the research process continued as it is an iterative process which takes the researcher from “the whole of all (identified) relevant literature to particular texts and from there back to the whole body of relevant literature” (Boell and Cecez-Kecmanovic, 2010; 6). This was particularly important as the time frame for the research as a part time professional doctorate was over five years. The amount of material that was published in that time on the subject of leadership, personal development and the role of emotion in the workplace grew so continued reading was important as it could shape interpretation of the data that was collected (Tracy, 2013).

This chapter explores the background to the research project with a focus upon the questions, identified in section 1.5 with an exploration of some additional concepts which may influence any understanding of the data that I collected. These include the concept of adult learning and experiential learning as well as the concept of emotional intelligence. First, I will explore the questions which I identified from objectives in the plan of the research.
These were intended to provide background information to the interviews that I planned to undertake with the NLP and NPQH trained leaders. The questions were as follows:

1. Using critical analysis of the concept of NLP and the concepts behind it, what effect does taking an NLP practitioner training course have upon the development of leadership through personal development?

2. Using critical analysis of the NPQH programme and the thinking that underpins the course, what effect does taking the NPQH training course have upon the development of leadership through personal development?

3. What are the links between leadership and personal development, including a critical analysis of the psychological aspects of leadership?

2.1 The background to Neuro Linguistic Programming

In this section, I will briefly outline the background to the development of Neuro Linguistic Programming. I will then suggest links between the skills and practices of NLP and personal development through the acquisition of emotional intelligence or inter and intra personal intelligences. Finally, I will describe the content and delivery of the NLP practitioner training programme taken by the leaders in this research.

Neuro Linguistic Programming is a method of describing our subjective experience, based upon the three key words; ‘neuro’ referring to thinking patterns, ‘linguistic’, referring to the language an individual uses and ‘programming’ referring to patterns of behaviour (Dilts and DeLozier, 2004; Andreas and Faulkner, 1996; Knight, 1995; Seymour and O’Connor, 1994). The four principles that underpin NLP are rapport (with self and others), knowing what you want (outcome thinking), sensory acuity (recognising what is happening) and behavioural flexibility (adaptability) (Dilts and DeLozier,
The origins of NLP and the presuppositions that form the epistemology upon which the methodology is based, as well as some of the techniques that have made their way into the body of study that is NLP today have their roots in anthropological or scientific knowledge. These roots are based upon well documented research which in its day was robust in approach and well regarded. For example, the background to the NLP skill of anchoring is based on the work of Pavlov (1926) on conditioned reflexes in which he investigated how a stimulus or conditioned stimulus comes to trigger a secondary reaction or unconditioned stimulus.

Neuro Linguistic Programming as a discipline had its origins in the 1970s at the University of Santa Cruz where Richard Bandler, a doctorate research student and John Grinder, the Professor of Linguistics at the time were intrigued by a small group of therapists whom they believed to be excellent communicators and agents of change. Bandler and Grinder studied the work of Perls, the founder of Gestalt therapy, Satir, the developer of family therapy and Erickson a key developer of clinical hypnotherapy. All three had developed a large following as a result of the success of their own practice. Bandler and Grinder studied their methods and developed skills based upon linguistics, Gestalt therapy and systems thinking. This was developed further in the late 1980s by Grinder and DeLozier and called New Code NLP. This “reformulation of basic NLP principles and processes” (Dilts and DeLozier, 2004; 881) has more techniques, many based on Bateson’s (1972) work on systems theory (Dilts and DeLozier, 2004) and Castaneda’s (1968) writings (Bavister and Vickers, 2004).
Wherever evidence of effectiveness is cited in the NLP world, it is primarily focussed upon detailed case studies of individuals which are frequently anecdotal in style (Bandler and Grinder, 1976; 1975). In literature about NLP, far more is written about the techniques and the refinements of techniques than evidence to support the techniques. The evidence of the success of NLP, therefore, is inconclusive but there are a number of studies on the effectiveness of NLP.

Witkowski (2010) looked at 63 studies and concluded that the weight of research from these projects is not supportive of NLP. A more comprehensive literature review of 111 studies was presented at the international NLP conference in Cardiff in 2010 (Carey et al, 2010). This review demonstrated that there was supportive evidence for some aspects of NLP (language patterns, use of visual, auditory and kinaesthetic language in teaching styles and handling emotional and behavioural difficulties). It also demonstrated that there was considerable research being undertaken in areas such as school leadership and leadership development. However, the quality and depth of research into NLP is variable, it does not take into account existing research as part of the literature review which precedes the research and is often presented at conferences or in journals but goes no further (Carey et al, 2010).

One issue supporting claims about the positive results from using NLP is the variety of sources that contain small scale research. This is particularly true when the research is in a language other than English as it then relies upon an interested party to provide accurate translation. The research by Genser-Medlitsch and Schütz (1997) in Bolstadt, Kammer, Genser Medlitsch, Halberstadt-Wasser and Schütz is a good example. They
undertook a clinical trial of NLP in psychotherapy with positive results. Although I have not been able to access the full report, the commentary on it provided by Bolstadt et al (2012) which includes an analysis of other research into NLP adds yet more evidence to the research that is available.

The NLP research conferences in 2008, 2010 and 2012 have created a forum for academics to interact with other interested parties. The conferences provide an opportunity to share examples of research into NLP and will allow the NLP community to demonstrate a rigorous dialogue which balances scepticism and support to counter the claims that it relies upon anecdotal evidence under a “cloak of respectability” (Roderique- Davies, 2009; 59). The two resulting collections of presentations (Tosey, 2010 and 2008) will contribute to the growing body of research into NLP. They will also contribute to improving greatly the quality of research as the processes and procedures adopted by the conference and the publication adhere to the highest academic protocols in such matters. The request for current research and news into the use of NLP in health care is yet another opportunity for those involved in NLP to provide evidence of its usefulness or indeed to point out its limitations (www.networks.nhs.uk, 2012).

However, there are still critics of NLP. Carey et al (2010) point out that the 1980s produced a small number of papers that were both critical and were based on formal research methods but since that time critical papers have not been evidence based. Critics argue that NLP is a series of strategies rather than a learning theory, (Craft, 2001) and that:

NLP masquerades as a legitimate form of psychotherapy, makes unsubstantiated claims about how humans think and behave, purports to encourage research in a vain attempt to gain credibility, yet fails to provide evidence that it actually works. (Roderique- Davies, 2009; 62)
The one research project which could have been useful and which I believe shared a similar approach to mine in so far as it concerned the use of NLP in the “self-leadership, personal mastery, and the character and thought processes of the effective leader of leaders” (Young, 1995) is only in hard copy at an American University except for the abstract. Young’s abstract (1995) includes the following excerpt which describes how she and her fellow instructors developed a leadership course which included aspects of NLP:

The rationale for this course was rooted in the instructors’ beliefs that at the heart of organizational change is individual change; at the heart of individual change is the capacity to change beliefs, values and perceptions; and this capacity resides in the inner world of the individual. The rationale for the research included the recent emphasis in leadership literature on self-leadership, personal mastery, and the character and thought processes of the effective leader. The objective was to begin to address the marked absence of academic research into the how of effective leadership and to research the use of NLP principles and processes in the area of leadership development. (Young, 1995; i)

The issue therefore is not so much that NLP lacks an evidence base: there is a lot of research but it is scattered in different journals, conference reports, articles, unpublished theses and is varied in subject, scope and methodology.

The interest in NLP continues with both supporters (Wake, 2010) and critics (Gray, 2012) and although it is necessary to be cautious about claims for NLP as it has not been possible to prove or disprove its effectiveness, the criticisms do not match my experience. I agree with those who claim it has a pragmatic usefulness in a variety of different fields as follows:

- Learning (Tosey and Mathison, 2010; Churches and West-Burnham, 2008; Tosey and Matheson, 2003a)
- Teaching and learning (Almond, 2011; Tosey and Mathison, 2010b; Churches and Terry, 2007; Legall and Dondon, 2006; Mahoney, 2003; Tosey and Mathison, 2003a; Milrood, 2002)
- Business applications (Wood, 2006)
- Therapy (Cheal, 2010; Gray, 2008)
• As a tool for exploring individual experience in research (Tosey and Mathison, 2009b; Tosey, Mathison and Michelli, 2005).

It is the intention that this research project will also add to what is known about the effectiveness of NLP in supporting the personal development of leaders at this point in time. It is this approach which is consistent with the contribution of small scale research projects.

2.1.1 The concepts behind Neuro Linguistic Programming

Although there is not a consistent evidence basis for the positive effect of NLP, it is still necessary to explain the concepts behind NLP as these are referred to in the research findings. In addition, the presuppositions are based on evidence from established sources and some aspects of NLP have a basis in research so indicate that there may indeed be a stronger evidence base to NLP than is currently acknowledged.

The presuppositions of NLP are the core concepts, the primary ideas and assumptions from which everything else is derived. Dilts and DeLozier describe them as forming “a philosophy behind all of the NLP models, distinctions and techniques” (Dilts and DeLozier, 2004; 1000). Dilts and DeLozier (2004) have tracked and identified the original sources behind both the presuppositions, as well as the background to many of the techniques used in NLP. The presuppositions have been synthesised from a number of different fields including general semantics (Korzybski, 1933). It was Korzybski who first coined the phrase ‘the map is not the territory’ in which NLP practitioners accept that an individual’s way of understanding the world is different from that of other individuals. Other fields include transformational grammar (Chomsky, 1957), systems theory (Bateson, 1972), cybernetics (Ashby, 1956), pragmatism, (James, 1890) and phenomenology (Smith on
Husserl, 2007). For example, the presupposition that all humans build a model of the world though the nervous system which receives input that is stored as auditory, visual, kinaesthetic, olfactory or gustatory is based upon the work by William James in ‘The Principles of Psychology (1890) but has its history even further back in the book ‘On the Soul’ by Aristotle (350 BC) who categorized all sensory inputs into these same five basic senses. These five senses then provide the mind (or the psyche for Aristotle) with all the information that was being input from the external world.

In addition to the presuppositions with their basis in scientific, sociological and linguistic study, some specific aspects of NLP have a basis in research. Three examples are described here. The communication model, which is an essential feature of NLP, was developed by Mehrabian (1971) who described the relative importance of nonverbal communication in which only 7% of the message is conveyed by the actual words, 38% is conveyed by tone and 55% is conveyed by body language. Despite on-going debates on the accuracy of this theory (Befus, 2005), it has become adopted as a key tenet in NLP. A second is the technique of anchoring which allows an individual to recall a positive experience by a kinaesthetic stimulus (in some cases auditory or visual stimuli can also serve as a trigger). This technique, coming from Erickson (Battino and South, 1997), had its origins in the work of Pavlov (1926). Thirdly there is the concept of feedback which in NLP is very specific and is based on observed behaviours. This is based upon research by Bateson in which he describes how behaviour is learnt and adapted according to the feedback that is received (Bateson, 1972). Other NLP presuppositions and techniques have their origins in well-known bodies
of knowledge such as the cognitive psychology of Miller (1967) and the study of linguistics by Chomsky (1957).

NLP practitioners would argue that NLP remains firmly based upon what works in practice, rather than on theories. As McDermott says:

The developers of NLP asked different questions. They were interested in what actually took place when excellence was achieved, when therapy really worked and clients overcame their problems - both externally, in observable behaviour and internally, in what and how the client thought and felt. They sought to get results not just theorise...it’s based on how people actually think and behave, rather than theories about why they do what they do. (McDermott and Jago, 2002; 8)

Although the basis upon which NLP was developed was grounded in theory, the applications of NLP have neither been systematically measured nor tracked as described in section 2.1 and this remain a serious challenge for the NLP community to address.

2.1.2 The content and delivery of the NLP practitioner course and the link with personal development

When Neuro Linguistic Programming training was introduced into the United Kingdom in the early 1980s, all courses followed a prescribed format of 120 hours of face to face tuition over a minimum of 18 days. By the early years of this century, a number of short five, seven or ten day courses had emerged, delivered in a variety of formats which one NLP interviewee had experienced prior to his Guild accredited training:

It was over 7 days and I had a lovely time in Brighton and then I wanted to do the Master practitioner up in Manchester but he wouldn’t let me do the Master practitioner after only doing 7 days and then I had to reorganise my thinking really and it turned out really well and I did the full practitioner in 21 days. (Luke, NLP).
A group of like-minded trainers of NLP formed the Professional Guild in 2003. Trainers and training organisations which are affiliated to the Guild must deliver a programme which includes 120 hours of face to face tuition over a minimum of 18 days. The content of the courses they deliver will also include ‘state management’ which is recognised as “the ability of an individual to monitor and have influence on their emotional response to situations” (www.professionalguildofnlp.com, 2012). There are allowances, however, so that training providers can follow a specific emphasis of their own choice. INLPTA (The International Neuro Linguistic Programming Trainers Association) was also established in 1993 to provide accreditation for NLP training providers that would ensure certain standards had been applied to NLP training with regard to the ethical application of NLP, the professional conduct of the trainers and the standards achieved by the students (INLPTA, 2012). Practitioner training must consist of at least 130 hours face to face training over a minimum of 15 days and requires students to provide documentary evidence of the application of NLP in either a professional or personal context. Details of the content of these courses can be found in Appendix 11.0 and 11.1.

All of the NLP trained school leaders involved in the research project had taken a practitioner or master practitioner with a Guild recognised NLP training provider and all had taken another training course either at practitioner, master practitioner or trainer training level with a specific company which also required students to establish daily reflective journaling, attendance at regular practice groups and provide written evidence of their development over their practitioner training course.
According to the requirements of a Guild recommended training course, all of the NLP trained leaders would also have been trained to recognise their own emotional state and to create a more resourceful state with others; key elements of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) and inter and intra personal intelligence (Gardner, 1983). The results of the questionnaire described in 1.2 also suggest that this particular type of training course did indeed have an influence on the development of self-awareness, social awareness, self-management and relationship management. I would describe these changes in the perspective of an individual as evidence of ‘personal development’ which can lead to greater emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) or the acquisition of improved inter and intrapersonal skills. Therefore although the NLP practitioner training course does not specify personal development as an outcome, there is an indication that it should contribute to this process. But as with all claims about NLP, they need to be treated with caution as few have a base in research. I will now consider in greater depth the NPQH training course.

2.2 The background to NPQH

The course known as NPQH (National Professional Qualification for Headship) was introduced for prospective head teachers in 1998. This course would enable head teachers to demonstrate focussed and effective leadership (OFSTED annual reports 2011; 2010; 2007; 2000; 1998; 1997). In reading OFSTED reports from 1997, what is noticeable is the changing nature of school leadership throughout this time. This moved from a focus upon the role of the head teacher alone in 1997 through to distributed leadership to include the role of the subject and year group leaders in 2005
and a wider network of leadership opportunities both within and beyond the school by 2010 (OFSTED 2010a). Leadership by 2012 included the role of school governors (OFSTED, 2012). However, the focus on the need for strong effective leadership remains:

Given the importance of leadership and management in securing school improvement, there is an urgent need to build more capacity among school leaders in those schools that are not making enough progress (OFSTED, 2011; 40)

Despite the improvement in the number of schools with leadership judged as good or better between 1997 (OFSTED, 1997) and 2000 (OFSTED, 2000) from the start, there was a suggestion that the NPQH course did not give newly appointed head teachers the support that they needed to become confident heads (Bush, 1998). This point was made by one of the NPQH trained leaders that I interviewed who described her experiences of the course thus:

My NPQH was lovely in theory but it didn’t really give me much of the practical things I needed. I mean I remember sitting through a session on how to talk to the press. Well you don’t talk to the press, because the press office gives you a statement to read so that wasn’t any help. (Clare, NPQH).

By 2008, the numbers of trainees on NPQH was reduced from 4000 per annum to 2000 because only half of previous NPQH cohorts had applied for headships (Barker, 2008). From feedback on the course undertaken by National College of School Leadership (NCSL, 2003a) prospective head teachers identified the areas of expertise that they were thought to be lacking and which deterred them from applying for headships. These were as follows; overall lack of confidence, lack of knowledge of specific skills such as budgeting or finance and uncertainty about interview questions. These findings are supported by the results of a survey undertaken by the National
College of School Leadership in 2003 in which new head teachers felt that they lacked very specific skills in dealing with law, finance, underperforming staff, pupil data and school organization. The qualitative result of the questionnaire administered also indicated that it was the experience of being a deputy head, acting head or head that had given them the skills to be an effective head (NCSL, 2003a).

The findings of a large scale survey on the emotional, physical and mental well-being of head teachers recognized the need for there to be local or national training for interpersonal, negotiation and feedback skills and confidence to undertake difficult conversations with staff, parents and pupils and regard them as ‘creative challenges’ (NCSL, 2007). A study undertaken by the Welsh Inspectorate on the impact of NPQH identified positive outcomes but also limitations were recognized in so far as the course did not give candidates enough support to develop the confidence to become effective school leaders (Estyn, 2010). Further small scale studies on the effectiveness of a variety of leadership programmes in schools also only suggested a “tentative initial indication of a positive association between programme and enhanced leadership performance” (Brundrett, 2006; 485).

The programme prior to 2012 involved developing sufficient evidence against the six criteria of the National Standards for head teachers which were; shaping the future, leading teaching and learning, developing self and working with others, managing the organization, securing accountability and strengthening the community (National Archives, 2009). These involved specific skills (for example of financial management), more generative skills (project management) as well as taking responsibility for their own personal development, reviewing their practice and setting personal targets. The
The whole process was designed to train school leaders to deal effectively with the challenges and changes faced by 21st century leaders (National Archives, 2009).

The White Paper introduced on November 24th 2010 re-affirmed the recommendation for all new head teachers to take the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH). The National College for Leadership of Schools and Children’s Services was asked to review the content as the Conservative / Liberal Democrat coalition government acknowledged that there were areas that needed improving in order to concentrate on the key skills required for headship (www.education.gov.uk, 2010). A review of the course was requested with the final version of the review published in February 2012 (www.education.gov.uk, 2012).

2.2.1 The structure and content of NPQH

Although the qualification known as NPQH will no longer be compulsory after 2012, the research that I undertook involved head teachers who had completed NPQH prior to 2010. The course that I researched therefore was the course that they undertook which was compulsory and consisted of four elements over a period of between eighteen months to two years. The four elements were the development of a project based on their own school situation, the completion of files to demonstrate competencies in required areas of expertise, attendance and involvement in training events and action learning sets that were designed to support professional development based upon questionnaires administered at the start of the
course that identified areas to develop (NPQH, 2010). The method of delivery included face to face training, discussions in small groups in online or face to face communities, individual coaching, role play and information sessions from external experts (such as the press office on how to deal with the press). There were slight differences over the years that the course ran, so individual experiences were not identical and as there were a number of providers who delivered the training under the umbrella of the National College of School Leadership (NCSL) these may have contributed also to differences in delivery and quality of delivery although content was prescribed.

From the content thus described, it does not appear that a focus upon personal development was a specific, intended outcome. In other leadership courses for teachers that were running at the time, there is a recognition that they will at least contribute to increased confidence; ‘Leading from the Middle’ is described as building self-confidence and competence as a team leader and ‘Leadership Pathways’ is described as further developing leadership skills. Both courses included elements of coaching in their programmes (NCSL, 2009a) which could be used to address personal development. The International Leadership Learning Programme, in contrast, does acknowledge an element of personal development. A further extension of this is the three month international placement in conjunction with Voluntary Service Overseas in which:

The placements aim to provide current English school leaders with an opportunity for personal and professional growth and offer the opportunity for future school leaders to experience leadership and stepping up experience.

(NAHT, 2009;3)
Day, Sammons, Hopkins, Harris, Gu, Brown, Ahtaridou, & Kington’s (2009) large scale mixed methods research project had identified systems, behaviour and personal qualities as characteristics of successful school leaders. They cited three specific external actions, described as ‘external strategies’ which consisted of setting direction, developing people and re-designing the organization which are core leadership activities. But they also describe the personal characteristics of successful school leaders. These school leaders were:

….open-minded and ready to learn from others. They are also flexible rather than dogmatic in their thinking within a system of core values, persistent (e.g. in pursuit of high expectations of staff motivation, commitment, learning and achievement for all), resilient and optimistic. Such traits help explain why successful leaders facing daunting conditions are often able to push forward when there is little reason to expect progress. (Day et al, 2009; 15)

Based on this research by Day et al (2009) and the continued use of the word head ‘teacher’ to describe the senior leader in a school, I would argue that there are possibly three elements of leadership which are required in schools today: the ability to develop pedagogy within the school, the creation of the ‘external strategies’ and the personal characteristics described above. Leadership training should be designed to reflect these requirements. But there does not appear to be specific content in NPQH which would address the personal development of school leaders through emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) or inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983). In contrast, the NLP practitioner training course appeared to address personal development as demonstrated by the findings of the questionnaire which I initiated and which has been described in section 1.5.
I will describe the terms emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) and inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983) in sections 2.4, 2.4.1 and 2.4.2. but before this, it is necessary to investigate current thinking on the skills and attributes of leaders that are required in the 21st century for if the inter and intrapersonal skills of the leader are not important, then this would explain why this is not a part of the training programme.

2.3 Leadership and learning

This section will consider the role of theories of educational leadership in the 21st century and the implications for schools of current government policy on leadership within education today. It will include specific reference to transformational and transactional styles and the role of personal development within leadership theories and will also involve a discussion of the difference between leadership and management and the purpose of leadership, particularly in the context of schools. I will also raise the question of the suitability, appropriateness and effectiveness of available training for school leaders.

2.3.1 What is leadership?

The concept of leadership has been of interest through the ages from Plato and Socrates to the array of titles available today in journal or book form. Whether they take the form of scholarly articles based upon research or the “countless self-help manuals” (English, 2008; 160), ideas about leadership abound with an expectation among business, voluntary and public sector organisations that leadership is crucial to performance and effectiveness (Bolden, 2004).
The Chambers dictionary (2006) defines leadership as a noun which is embodied in the office or role of leading or as a trait (as in the ability to lead). There are occasions when a leader may be a figurehead who does not set a particular direction but can have an indirect influence (Carter, 2007). Leadership is described as being concerned with influence (Western, 2008; Lumby and Coleman, 2007; Earley and Weindling, 2004; Bush and Glover, 2003; Sergiovanni, 2001; Grint, 2000), with establishing the strategic purpose of the organization and selecting what is to be done (Gronn, 2003a; Bollington, 1999).

The concept of leadership is often considered as distinct from management or administration (Earley and Weindling, 2004) although the two may be interlinked (Coleman, 2005). However, leadership and management are considered to overlap in so far as they both require motivating others, creating a sense of purpose to the activities and playing a support role in achieving the actions selected (Earley and Weindling, 2004). In addition, leadership and management are both considered to have goals with the focus of leadership to give purpose, direction and movement towards predetermined goals and achievements (Western, 2008; Gill, 2006) and the focus of management to “perform their duties” in the delivery of those goals (English, 2008;13).

In contrast, management or administration organizes the people and resources to achieve a particular goal (English, 2008; Fullan, 2003; Macbeath and Myers, 1999) and it has a distinctly operational focus (Bush, 2003; Bollington, 1999) which is primarily concerned with processes and procedures. These processes underpin effective leadership (Sigford, 2006).
and the perspective of Bolman and Deal is quoted frequently in National
College of School Leadership publications in which:

Leading and managing are distinct but both are important. Organizations which are over managed or under led eventually lose any sense of spirit or purpose. Poorly managed organizations with strong charismatic leaders may soar temporarily only to crash shortly thereafter. The challenge of modern organizations requires the objective perspective of the manager as well as the flashes of vision and commitment wise leadership provides.
(Bolman and Deal 1997, xii-xiv in Bush and Glover, 2003a)

This distinction in emphasis between leadership and management is summed up in a quote from United Technologies in 2002 in which “we manage things but we lead people,” (Gill; 2006; 28). Therefore leadership is essentially a social behaviour and can also be defined as a group process (Collinson, 2006), co-produced between leader and follower (Jackson and Parry, 2008, Earley and Weindling, 2004). Within those groups or organisations, the leader is characterised as having followers (Gill, 2006, Sergiovanni, 2005; Grint, 2000; Bennis, 1975). Despite a continued attribution of success to individual leaders (Meindl, 1995), the effectiveness of the actions of leaders is a result of the effective actions of the followers (Grint, 2000):

Leadership and followership are symbiotically interdependent. It is a reflexive relationship, the followers’ response to leaders helps define how a leader acts and vice versa...the influence is not equal. Leaders have more power, resources, control, authority and therefore more influence than followers.
(Western; 2008; 55)

For the purpose of this research, leadership is defined as essentially strategic in nature whereas the purpose of management is operational and supportive in delivering the strategic outcome. Furthermore, leadership requires the ability to form positive, proactive relationships with diverse
groups within any organisation, as Neil, an interviewee, describes his leadership style after completing his NLP training:

“I’m much, much more inclined to develop a vision with people rather than just have my own and go in my own way and hope that people will follow.”

2.3.2 What is educational leadership?

Just as the purpose of education can be debated and a variety of different perspectives put forward, the same is true of educational leadership. The following have all been cited as examples of the purpose of leaders within education; social justice, (Lumby and Coleman 2007), a moral purpose to make a difference in the lives of others and to treat others fairly (Ryan, 2008; Fullan, 2001), to sustain democracy, (Starratt, 1999) to build excellent schools (Ellis, 1999) and to support teaching and learning (Davies and Brighouse, 2008; NCSL, 2007) which is often described as ‘instructional leadership’ (Bush, 2003). The core purpose of the head teacher is described in the National Standards for Head Teachers as follows:

The core purpose of the head teacher is to provide professional leadership and management for a school.
(DFES, 2004b; 3)
By 2008, the NCSL went further in their definition of the purpose of school leadership:

The National College for School Leadership works to make a difference to children’s lives through excellent school leadership - growing and supporting current and future school leaders so that they can have a positive impact within and beyond their schools.
(NCSL, 2008)

By 2004, this same expectation was at the heart of the Every Child Matters agenda (DFES, 2004a) with the change from dedicated education authorities to a children and young people’s directorate with a wider remit
encompassing health and social services. Educational leadership is expected to be effective within and beyond the school gates.

For the purpose of this thesis, no distinction is made between the terms ‘educational leadership’, ‘leadership of education’ and ‘leadership in education’ as all are in current usage. Any definition of who exercises leadership within schools will also include those who hold a post on the leadership scale as well as those with teaching and learning responsibility roles (OFSTED, 2005). The role of governors in school leadership has also increased immensely since the Education Reform Act of 1988. Beyond this level in 2012 is the leadership of the Local Authority and the leadership of central government ministers and departments. However, leadership of schools is frequently synonymous with the role of the head teacher (Chapman, Ainscow, Bragg, Gunter, Hull, Mongon, Muijs, and West, 2008; DFES, 2007; OFSTED 2007-8; Leithwood et al, 2006; Earley and Weindling, 2004).

2.3.3 Is there an ideal leadership style in education?

Current theories of leadership have moved far beyond the ‘traits theory’ of the ‘great man’ of the 19th century in which key individuals, male, white and Anglican, educated in the public school system were somehow fitted to positions of leadership (Gronn 2003a). After World War Two, the development of an increasingly educated work force and management procedures that came from the world of industry and commerce led to a style of leadership that could reward upwardly mobile citizens (Hoyle and Wallace, 2005). Transactional leadership with its reward base (Burns, 1978; Lott, 2007) for achievement replaced the ‘ascription’ of the earlier traits theory
(Gronn, 2003a) and leaders could be made, not just born. Transformational leadership developed at the time of the late 1970s in order to lead and motivate the workforce. Against the backdrop of these theories is the idea of both ‘style theories’ (Earley and Weindling, 2004) in which the leader is focussed upon either the task or the relationships with the people involved and ‘contingency’ or ‘situational leadership theory’ in which context drives the leader’s preferred behaviour at any time (Earley and Weindling, 2004; Macbeath and Myers, 1999).

Since the late 1990s, ‘distributed leadership’ has been suggested as an appropriate leadership style in education, notably through the influence of the National College of School Leadership in England. Distributed leadership has been described as:

\[\ldots\text{group activity that works through and within relationships, rather than individual action. It emerges from a variety of sources depending on the issue and who has the relevant expertise or creativity.}\]

(NCSL, 2003b; 3)

It is a style of leadership that can also be described as sharing, collaborative, participative, team or democratic (Harris, 2008; Lumby and Coleman, 2007). It is a style of leadership that is claimed reflects the diversity of modern life (Gronn, 2003b) and goes beyond an emphasis upon personality, focussed instead upon practice with values embedded in actions (Timperley and Spillane, 2005).

Instructional leadership (Davies, 2005; Coleman and Earley, 2005; Bush, 2003; Goddard, 2003) has also become a key addition to the lexicon of words to describe leadership styles, yet omitted by Western in his list of 31 styles ranging from action centred to values based, (Western, 2008). For some commentators the role of the leader is specifically aligned with
promoting excellence and equality in education through direct involvement in teaching and learning (Sigford, 2006; Sergiovanni, 2005). The leader as a professional who continues to be involved in pedagogy is described as a key element in the high standards achieved in Finland (Harris, 2008). This viewpoint is supported by NCSL (2008) but has not been developed further.

Yet there is little evidence that leadership has a direct effect upon pupil outcome. The effect is indirect (Hallinger and Heck, 2004), linked with wider contextual changes such as the establishment of high expectations for all (Davies and Brighouse, 2008) or is described as a weak link with other factors including curriculum time and curriculum quality as well as teacher skills also having an influence (van der Grift and Houtveen, 1999). As Lam points out

Early beliefs that the influence of effective schools might be as large as family or community influences now appear misplaced. Different researchers estimate the school effect at different levels but the majority of researchers claim between 8 -18% of variation in student outcomes can be explained by school and classroom factors when we take into account the background of students. Many researchers identify the figures at the lower end of between 8-10 or 15%.
(Lam, 1999; 37)

This view has its roots in early research conducted in the 1970s and 1980s (Smees, Sammons, Thomas and Mortimore, 2001). It was supported in 2007 by research from the independent think tank Policy Exchange (O’ Shaughnessy, 2007). In this research, the influence of the head teacher within their first five years was considered to be limited in the majority of cases and a key factor in school performance was teacher effectiveness. A crucial factor in leadership however was the retention and appointment of excellent teaching staff, coupled with rigorous tracking and assessment. So, rather than focus upon leadership styles, a focus upon recruitment and
retention with systems in place to track pupils’ progress accurately could be more beneficial. As O’Shaughnessy writes, “good leadership is not a silver bullet” with qualities that can be taught (O’Shaughnessy, 2007; 55).

Although Harris (2008) points out that school improvements are not made where leadership is judged to be ineffective or weak, O’Shaughnessy (2007) does not refute the effectiveness of some head teachers, but argues that leadership without good quality teaching and supportive school systems will not produce the desired effect of raising standards.

Despite all these various descriptions of styles of leadership and changed expectations, some theories of leadership have returned to a focus upon the leader as an individual. This individual has certain characteristics which include skills such as the ability to communicate, effective time management and appropriate levels of knowledge (Adair, 2002). But there are other characteristics which are concerned with the personality or personal attributes of the leaders. These do not describe a behaviour that can be observed and are more about a way of ‘being’. They are found not in the external quadrant of observable actions (Wilber, 2001) but in the internal quadrant (Wilber, 2001) of internal characteristics (Looman, 2003). These characteristics are described as being passionate, driven by values, by morality and a desire for social justice (Davies and Brighouse, 2008; Earley and Weindling, 2004, Gold, 2003; Lumby and Coleman, 2007, Fullan, 2001, respectively).

This type of leader recognises and acknowledges emotions (Hargreaves, 2008), is authentic and reflective (Begley, 2008; West Burnham and Ireson, 2005) and can interweave the heart and the head (or feelings and thought) which is described as ‘resonant leadership’ (Boyatzis and
McKee, 2005; Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee 2002). Gardner’s multiple intelligences would suggest that these attributes can be described under his terms of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences as they combine knowing one’s own feelings and how one might react to events with the ability to understand and recognise emotions in others (Gardner, 1983). They demonstrate elements which may be described as emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2002) and which are evidenced by self-management and self-awareness. These characteristics are in addition to a demonstration of a passion for learning, humour and skill in communication;

...a leader should personify the qualities expected in any worker in their field as well as some of the more generic attributes of a leader - for instance, enthusiasm, integrity, toughness and fairness, humanity, energy and resilience. (Adair, 2003; 85)

This style of leadership, in which attention is paid to the emotional landscape of both leaders and followers, it is argued, is characteristic of a feminist leadership style (Blackmore, 1999). Moreover this feminist leadership style is contrasted strongly with the traditional stereotype of a rational, authoritative, white, male leader (Lumby and Coleman, 2007), reinforcing the gender paradigms of Gray (1989) in which women are perceived as caring, creative, sensitive to diversity, tolerant, subjective, informal and non-competitive and uphold the values of collaboration, participation, communication and emotional support (Fine, 2007). Men are perceived as highly regulative, conformist, competitive, evaluative, disciplined, objective and formal (Collard, 2005). Such polarisation simplifies the gender issue as gender is further modified by ethnicity, class and age (Collard and Reynolds 2005). A further dimension of feminist leadership is the suggestion that it is one which is suited to a Postmodern society in which
diversity flourishes and local context in decision making is required (Bush and Glover, 2003; Starratt, 2001; Blackmore, 1999; Hirschorn, 1997). This focus upon the emotional characteristics of a leader is further developed in the description of leadership as spiritual (Woods, 2007) or spirited (Western, 2008). Such leaders, it is argued, demonstrate increased sensitivity to the needs of others and a strong values system. But there is a further dimension which involves:

…the importance of spiritual experience as a phenomenon which enables leaders to be better resourced internally and find deeper meaning, and to provide evidence of the significance and influence of spiritual experience for educational leadership in schools. (Woods, 2007; 137)

I would argue that although the styles of leadership that developed during the 20th century allege a difference from the traits style of earlier years, the importance of an influential if not charismatic character has not gone away. The characteristics may be different and the authority comes neither from birth nor position but from the personal characteristics of the leader. It is this which Sergiovanni claims is preferable to any bureaucratic authority as it contains charisma, motivational abilities and human relationship skills (Sergiovanni, 2001). The pendulum of leadership has swung from one which emphasises features of the internal personal leadership style (traits) through the external organisational and systemic styles with an emphasis upon the ‘what’ and ‘how’ of leadership behaviour (transactional, transformational and distributive) and back to the personal.

However, this style of leadership needs to be underpinned by a strong organisational culture with effective procedures since leadership can be described as both an art and a science (Gill, 2006) combining technical expertise and creativity, underpinned by ethical considerations (Hatch et al,
I would describe leadership in the 21st century as needing to combine and balance three elements: rational and logical (in the ability to select and implement effective systems), emotional and empathic (in supporting and developing the human capital within the organisation) and resilient and highly principled (when times are tough). Such leadership:

...is not teleological, deterministic and the stuff of grand plans and blue prints for a certain future. It is much more about the fostering, nurturing and enabling of the emergence of self-organisation in an unpredictable and turbulent world.
(Morrison, 2002; 198)

The Leadership Qualities programme described by the Centre for Excellence in Leadership research project claimed an essential element that should be in all leadership programmes is self-awareness. This can be developed through coaching, feedback instruments and what they described as ‘quality reflection’ (Hollingsworth and Hodgson, 2005). I therefore conclude that the literature on leadership in the 21st century is as concerned with leadership of self as with the leadership of others. As a result, the concept of the personal development of the leader and the ability of the leader to demonstrate inter and intra personal intelligences is paramount because:

...we found that of all the elements affecting bottom line performance, the importance of the leader’s mood and its attendant behaviours are most surprising. That powerful pair set off a chain reaction: the leaders’ moods and behaviours drive the moods and behaviours of everyone else. A cranky and ruthless boss creates a toxic organisation filled with negative underachievers who ignore opportunities; an inspirational inclusive leader spawns acolytes for whom any challenge is surmountable. The final link in the chain’s performance: profit or loss.
(Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee; 2004; 76)

I will explore the link between personal development and leadership next.
2.3.4 What is personal development in leadership?

It has been suggested in the previous section that 21st century leadership has a strong focus upon the personal qualities of the leader, supported by their acquisition of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) or inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983). These are linked with the concept of personal development in which an individual makes positive changes in their beliefs and behaviours about themselves and others.

The concept of ‘self-development’ in the business world is linked to personal development and involves developing specific skills and qualities, career advancement and improving performance as well as achieving full potential as a human being (Pedler et al, 2007). This idea of personal development differentiates between developing specific managerial skills and the development of the self in which the latter includes the development of personal and interpersonal skills of self-management, recognising and managing stress in self and listening and interpreting nonverbal communication (Routledge and Carmichael; 2007). For David, one of the NPQH trained leaders, this involved recognising an area to develop because “how I manage people is not one of my immediate strengths …” Oscar, an NLP trained leader, recognised he needed to change his view of difficult situations:

“If I find myself becoming annoyed, frustrated or I’m not happy with it then I go back to basics and say why am I here? What’s that about? How does this fit into my life?”
(Oscar, NLP)

Many different courses have been established over the past years to address personal development within a business context, for example, Business Link (www.businesslink.gov.uk, 2010). This government funded
organisation ran over 50 courses on the subject in 2010. These courses included such topics as understanding personal development, identifying strengths and weaknesses, setting goals and monitoring progress (Learn Direct, 2010).

The concept of personal development has a long history. Diehl and Donnelly (2007) have described management acumen using exemplars over thousands of years of human history. Attributes such as self-discipline, fairness despite personal feelings and even handed dealing with others have been recognised through the ages. Through personal development, humans and other organisms have an actualising tendency in which there is a state of “flow of movement towards constructive fulfilment of its inherent possibilities” (Rogers, 1980; 117). Maslow (1943) and Jourard and Landsman view this process as the development of the healthy personality:

Healthy personality is a way for a person to act, guided by intelligence and respect for life so that personal needs are satisfied and so that the person will grow in awareness, competence and the capacity to love the self, the natural environment and other people. (Jourard and Landsman, 1980; 14)

Through personal development, a leader will be able to acquire the skills of ‘authentic leadership’ (George, 2008) which involves leading self as well as others and acting with integrity and principle. This is in addition to the ingredients that are alleged to make up a great business leader (articulate, visionary, a motivator, good people skills, willingness to delegate, ability to see the big picture).

The positive effect of such a leader upon their organisation has been recognised (Barsade and Gibson, 2007). Hill and Lineback (2011) identified management of self as a key element in the development of leaders to enable them to reach their full potential. Their argument is that management
of self is as important as effective management of the network within which the business acts as well as management of the team, whether large or small. It is the personal responsibility of the leader to improve as “all development is self-development” (Hill and Lineback, 2011; 131) and that through such development, effective leadership will emerge.

Effective leaders therefore must combine cognitive skills with interpersonal skills which enable them to lead self as well as others. These interpersonal skills can be demonstrated by their emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) or the inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983) which they display.

2.4 Emotional intelligence and the personal development of leaders

Many different writers have described aspects of educational leadership which are concerned with the personal qualities of the leader (Begley, 2008; Brent and Brighouse, 2008; Hargreaves, 2008; Lumby and Coleman, 2007; Boyatzis and McKee, 2005; West Burnham and Ireson, 2005; Earley and Weindling, 2004; Looman, 2003; Gold, 2003; Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee 2002; Fullan, 2001). Furthermore, I have suggested that these personal qualities have much in common with the acquisition of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) or inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1993) although this has not been established on the basis of critically reviewed research (Morris, 2011; Waterhouse, 2006). It was therefore necessary to explore the links between the development of inter and intra personal skills, emotional intelligence and those aspects of leaders who are described by Day et al (2009) as:
...open-minded and ready to learn from others. They are also flexible rather than dogmatic in their thinking within a system of core values, persistent (e.g. in pursuit of high expectations of staff motivation, commitment, learning and achievement for all), resilient and optimistic. (Day et al, 2009; 15)

In order to do this, I will also describe the theory of multiple intelligences, the theory of emotional intelligence and how these might be interlinked with the development of those characteristics of successful leaders as described above.

### 2.4.1 The theory of multiple intelligences

The theory of multiple intelligences in which ‘intelligence’ is described as a collection of cognitive abilities originated in the work of Gardner in 1983. These are described in the table below.

**Table 1 The multiple intelligences according to Gardner (1983)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTELLIGENCE</th>
<th>STRENGTHS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spatial</td>
<td>Spatial judgement and visualisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic</td>
<td>The spoken or written word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical-mathematical</td>
<td>Logic, abstraction, number, reasoning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bodily-kinaesthetic</td>
<td>Control of the body, handling objects skilfully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Musical</td>
<td>Sensitivity to sound, tones, rhythms and music</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Interaction with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrapersonal</td>
<td>Introspective and self-reflective capacities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naturalistic</td>
<td>Relating to the natural world</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Definitions of the above are clearly linked in some areas to specific areas of the education curriculum; linguistic (languages and communication) mathematics, bodily kinaesthetic (sport and dance) and music. Gardner also suggested that education should cover all of these areas and that they can
bring different ways of learning into the learning environment so that each student can reach goals appropriate to their intelligences (Gardner, 1983). Educators later built upon this theory and recommended different strategies, materials and activities suitable for teaching each intelligence (Armstrong, 1994).

Critics of his theories question whether there could be more than these to include existential, spiritual and moral intelligence and whether these really are all separate intelligences. Furthermore, these eight intelligences are more like a collection of talents, personality traits and abilities and Gardner’s theory and theories of emotional intelligences lack a basis in supporting evidence (Waterhouse, 2006) so that educators should be wary of them because:

… their lack of sound empirical support makes it likely that their application will have little real power to enhance student learning beyond that stimulated by the initial excitement of something new. (Waterhouse, 2006; 222)

Morris (2011) has drawn together a synopsis of critics of Gardner between the years 1983 to 2011 which support Waterhouse. For my part, I agree with Waterhouse and Morris who make a strong case in criticising the limited evidence basis behind the theory of multiple intelligences. However, experience of both teaching and training over a period of more than thirty years has provided me with examples of students who did show differences in the way they acquired information which ranged from drawing diagrams (perhaps suggestive of spatial intelligence) to manipulating objects (perhaps suggestive of kinaesthetic intelligence). Furthermore, students offered a choice of how to represent information made choices that could be thought to reflect these intelligences with some choosing to draw, to make models, to
create flow charts or to write. Whether the term ‘intelligences’ is appropriate is another question as it can be taken to imply a thinking skill (Willingham, 2004) but Gardner himself acknowledged that what he described as ‘intelligences’ could be described as ‘talents’, ‘skills’ or ‘aptitudes’. I would suggest that the word ‘intelligences’ could be replaced by ‘capabilities’ as this would acknowledge that individuals can demonstrate a natural ability in some areas and this ability can be developed through education, training, coaching and practice. As a result I would suggest that Gardner’s theory still has a place in education and training today particularly as he also (1999) suggested that effective leaders needed three of the intelligences he described; linguistic, interpersonal and intra personal which encompass the personal qualities required of leaders in the 21st century (Begley, 2008; Hargreaves, 2008; West Burnham and Ireson, 2005; Looman, 2003).

2.4.2 The theory of emotional intelligence

Despite its origins in the work of Payne (1985) and Salovey and Meyer (1990), the most widely attributed understanding of the concept of emotional intelligence comes from the work of Goleman (1998). Payne described emotional intelligence as “relating creatively to fear, pain and desire” (Payne, 1985). Salovey and Meyer describe emotional intelligence as an abilities based model in which there are four elements;

1. The ability to perceive emotions, including one’s own
2. The ability to use emotions
3. The ability to understand emotion language and to appreciate complicated relationships among emotions
4. The ability to manage emotions which includes the ability to regulate emotions in both ourselves and in others.

They expressed this diagrammatically as in figure 1.
Goleman’s model is based upon the idea that each individual has a general level of emotional intelligence and that the skills and competencies can be learnt and developed. His four main emotional intelligence constructs are as follows:

1. Self-awareness – the ability to read one’s own emotions and recognize their impact on others
2. Self-management – the ability to control one’s emotions and adapt to changing circumstances.
3. Social awareness – the ability to sense, understand, and react to others’ emotions
4. Relationship management – the ability to inspire, influence, and develop others even when managing conflict.

Both models have tools which have been developed to try to measure emotional intelligence. Salovey and Meyer developed a test with a series of problems to solve (Mayer-Salovey-Caruso-Emotional-intelligence Test known as MSCEIT). Goleman has developed a series of tools since 1999; the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) in 1999, the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI) in 2007 and the Emotional Intelligence
Appraisal in 2001 which requires feedback from subordinates, peers and immediate superiors within the workplace.

Critics of the idea of emotional intelligence cite a lack of measurable evidence (Landy, 2005; Eysenck, 1998a) with much research based on a narrow field of data from children, adolescents and college students. But the collection of a body of evidence would require an agreed definition as to what constitutes emotional intelligence and whether it is an ability (Salovey and Meyer, 1990), a trait (Petrides, 2001) or a mix of both (Bar-On, Tranell, Denburg and Bechara, 2003; Goleman, 2000). It would then require research which would reflect this definition. However, what is not in dispute is that emotional intelligence involves both self-awareness and self-management of emotional behaviours and as such, I would argue that emotional intelligence is an integral part of the behaviours required by leaders today as described in section 2.3.3.

There are also criticisms of those tools that have been devised to measure emotional intelligence. The self-reporting required by such instruments as Goleman's can lead to individuals falsifying their responses and those which require problem solving responses can be viewed as measuring only conformity and knowledge. Furthermore, it has been suggested that it is very difficult to devise any objective measures that cover all the aspects of emotional intelligence as self-awareness can only be assessed by the individual (Furnham and Petrides, 2003). Landy (2005) points out that the data from psychometric tools that claim to measure emotional intelligence is not being made known and questions whether it is indeed supportive of the existence of the concept.
Despite these criticisms, Matthews et al (2004) in their critique of emotional intelligence are broadly supportive of the concept of emotional intelligence. They point out that the theory is still in its infancy and the research basis fails to take account of existing psychological evidence which may support the theory. Furthermore, the existence of emotional intelligence is underpinned by theories from neuroscience (Bar-On et al, 2003).

Despite the difficulties involved in assessing emotional intelligence, there is considerable research into some aspects of emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is recognised as an element in forming positive relationships and creating a positive work environment (Salovey and Grewal, 2005). The meta analysis by Joseph and Newman (2010) identified that high levels of emotional intelligence predicted strong performance in those areas of work where a high degree of effective displays of positive emotions were needed. A link between happiness and trait emotional intelligence has been indicated (Furnham & Petrides 2003) and the impact of emotional intelligence on developing collaborative leadership behaviours has also been suggested by recent research (Guillen and Florent-Treacy, 2011). Furthermore, despite criticism of the concept, Zeidner, Matthews and Roberts (2004) acknowledge that emotional intelligence is not to be dismissed as there are domains of work where handling emotions is important. When all of these are taken into consideration, I would argue that there is sufficient evidence for emotional intelligence to be recognised as an aspect of leadership. Developing collaborative leadership behaviours is at the heart of distributed leadership and the very nature of school leadership is that it is a role where the ability to create positive relationships, a positive work environment and demonstrate positive emotions are important attributes.
Despite the reservations described above concerning the meaning, relevance and accuracy of the theory of emotional intelligence, the concept remains a force within the training and business world (Ashkanasy and Daus, 2005). Earlier work by Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) claims that emotional intelligence is indeed linked to other intelligences where some individuals are more ‘endowed’ than others but that it can be developed through training. They agree that it involves the individual’s ability to perceive emotion in self and others and have the skills to understand and to manage those emotions successfully. I have drawn up a table to show the links between emotional intelligence and inter and intra personal intelligences.

Table 2 Links between emotional intelligence and inter and intra personal intelligences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASPECTS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE</th>
<th>ASPECTS OF INTER PERSONAL INTELLIGENCE</th>
<th>ASPECTS OF INTRA PERSONAL INTELLIGENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-awareness</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Introspective and self-reflective capacities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-management</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Introspective and self-reflective capacities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social awareness</td>
<td>Interaction with others</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship management</td>
<td>Interaction with others</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, many writers on leadership (Day et al, 2009; George, 2008; Western, 2008; Woods, 2007; Boyatzis and McKee, 2005; Looman, 2003; Sergiovanni, 2001) refer to self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship management, the quality of interaction with others and introspective and self-reflective capacities as aspects of leadership today. In addition Joseph and Newman’s (2010) view that emotional intelligence is a component of those roles where a high degree of effective positive emotion is required is a part of relationship management and the quality of interaction with others that is an aspect of leadership today.
So, although the concept of emotional intelligence is still subject to challenge and lacks a strong evidence base, it has usefulness as a model to describe certain behaviours and attitudes. Furthermore, if the behaviour and attitudes of emotional intelligence (which includes all of the aspects of inter and intra personal intelligences) can be developed through training and is an aspect of leadership today, then it would be appropriate for leadership training or leadership development programmes to include content which addressed this issue.

2.5 What other theoretical frameworks may influence training courses?

Through the critical reviews so far undertaken, there is little formal evidence for the effectiveness of NLP upon personal development (2.1.1) although the questionnaire described in 1.2 appears to support this claim. There is also little evidence of the links between current leadership programmes and leadership development through personal development (2.2.1). There is a move towards leadership theories, however, which go beyond a focus upon tasks to a focus upon the personal qualities of the leader (2.3.1).

I have already described the structure and content of the courses in sections 2.1.2 and 2.2.1 and this will be explored further in chapter 6. But there may be other factors which can influence training courses. These factors may include the extent to which they are appropriate to adult learning and the effect of experiential learning. It is these that I considered next as they may shed light on the data that will be collected.
2.5.1 Adult learning

In this section, I will consider the concept of adult learning as it would be expected that both training courses that involve adults would follow the principles behind adult learning. In my research journal I noted issues concerning adult learning in the first few months of my research:

20/3/08 Terrible training today. Death by PowerPoint and pinned to our seats for hours. What a difference from the Ed.D input. Surely those in education can do better? Is this why ***** (name removed to retain anonymity) is so fed up with their NPQH? Should I include questions on this? Is it delivery or is it content?

As early as 1983, Jarvis identified five elements that characterise adult learning; adults need to learn at their own rate, they have developed their own learning style; they have extensive experience; they are motivated; they have a defined concept of themselves as learners. His model of the learning process for adults required thought and reflective evaluation as a precursor to changes in the individual. Knowles et al (2005) and Knowles (1970) described education in pre-modern times as predominantly concerned with the education of adults which was through the technique of Socratic questioning. The leader or teacher described a situation, case, problem or issue and the fellow members of the group shared their ideas, thinking and experience to reach an understanding of their own limitations and to suggest an answer or solution.

In 1926, The American Association for Adult Education was founded and research undertaken at that time provided evidence that adults were still capable of being learners although the process was different. Throughout the 20th century, continued research and the parallel development of an understanding of psychology gave rise to the concept of adult learning known as ‘andragogy’ which has specific characteristics. Knowles (1980)
developed the theory of adult learning in which adults are self-directed, autonomous learners with the teachers acting in the role of facilitators.

Knowles (1980) described six characteristics that distinguish andragogy:

- Need to know (why the learning is taking place)
- Foundation (experience is the basis for learning)
- Self-concept (the need to be self-directive in their learning)
- Readiness (the relevance of the learning that will take place)
- Orientation (the learning is problem or action centred)
- Motivation (adults respond to internal rather than external motivation)

The use of theories of andragogy in adult learning and training is well documented in vocational education and training (Choy and Delahaye, 2002) and the use of problem based learning (orientation) is evident in health education (Tavakol and Reichherter, 2003). Rogers (2002) describes learning theories over the past 100 years as all containing three distinct themes; vocational or occupational; socially transformative; for personal growth. He uses the acronym KUSAB to describe this as follows:

K - Learning new information ‘I know…’
U - A new understanding ‘I see…’
S - Learning a new skill or strategy ‘I can…’
A - A change of attitude or belief ‘I believe…’
B - A change in behaviour ‘I do….’

The idea that learning can result in a new understanding, changes of attitude and behaviour resonates with the concept of Transformational Learning (Mezirow, 1990) which will be explored in greater depth in chapter 3. Adult training courses, therefore, should follow the principles of andragogy if a positive learning experience is desired and within andragogy, an important aspect is the part played by experiential learning. I will now consider the concept of experiential learning as this may be a factor in the effect of the two training courses.
2.5.2 Experiential learning

The architect of experiential learning was Kolb (1984) who viewed experiential learning as having four components in which the learner demonstrates:

1. A willingness to be actively involved in the experience
2. The ability to reflect on the experience
3. Decision making and problem solving skills
4. Analytical skills

These translate into a four part learning cycle which is interpreted diagrammatically:

Figure 2 Kolb’s experiential learning cycle

Kolb, 1984: 56

Experiential learning is not mediated or taught, involves direct experience, is empowering, involves reflection, has an active phase, a feedback mechanism and the learner requires some formal intention to learn. The inclusion of experiential learning and practical problem based tasks remain a feature of andragogy. Andragogy too, with the advent of self-directed learning maintains its place as a significant theory of adult education (Merriam, 2001) and as such it can be expected that any adult based training
courses would follow the principles of andragogy and experiential learning. As my thesis is part of a professional doctorate in which the focus is practical and involves evaluating training courses, I hoped to be able to recognise the principles of andragogy or experiential learning in the two courses that the participants had taken. This will be covered in greater detail in chapter 6.

2.6 Conclusions

The objectives of this critical analysis of the literature underpinning this research as stated in 2.0 were to identify the claims made for NLP, NPQH and personal development, any links between current leadership programmes and leadership development through personal development and the link between leadership development and personal development. NLP appears to have supported the acquisition of inter and intra personal skills through personal development as judged by the results of the questionnaire administered and described in 1.2. But the research base for other claims about NLP is small. Much of the data about NPQH prior to 2012 is no longer available but there does not appear to be specific content in NPQH which would address the personal development of school leaders. This is noticeable in data from head teachers in two national studies that are still available who claimed that they needed more confidence as well as specific skills (Estyn, 2010; NCSL, 2003a). However, the NPQH course was not primarily designed around personal development.

Although subject to challenge, the concepts of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) and inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983) can be used as models to describe skills, behaviours and attitudes. Furthermore, the most recent development in the literature on leadership
does suggest that there is a need for leaders to demonstrate emotional intelligence or inter and intra personal intelligences (Begley, 2008; Hargreaves, 2008; Boyatzis and McKee, 2005; Looman, 2003). But the question remains whether existing training programmes can influence this process and will be the subject of the research questions at a later date.

Through increasingly wide reading on the subject of adult learning, I discovered the theory of Transformational Learning. This theory appeared to provide a theoretical framework through which I could explore the data that was collected. It may also suggest a possible explanation for the development of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) or inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983) for one aspect of Transformational Learning, ‘perspective transformation’ involves critical self-reflection. This in turn can shape how an individual can think and behave in relation to others, based upon a challenge to the assumptions that are held. In the next chapter I will outline the theory of Transformational Learning and how it could be applied to the data that I planned to collect.
Chapter 3

3.0 Transformational Learning theory and its role as a process model in the thesis

As explained in chapter 1, my research was focussed upon two training courses to see whether they would support the development of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) or inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983). The subject of my thesis therefore was to investigate the effect of both of these courses on the personal development of school leaders. The personal development of the leader would then be evident in their development of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) or their inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983). In this chapter I will describe the theory of Transformational Learning through critical self-reflection (Mezirow, 1990) and how this was used both as a lens to focus upon the interpretation of the data and as a conceptual framework through which the actions or events might be explained (Dey, 1993). I will also include a brief explanation of the development of Transformational Learning, an analysis of the current state of research into the topic, the relevance to theories of leadership and the relationship between critical self-reflection and Transformational Learning and how these topics relate to personal development shown through the development of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) or inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983). Finally I will describe how I plan to use the theory in my thesis.

3.1 The theory of Transformational Learning

Transformational (or as it is commonly known in the USA ‘Transformative’) Learning originated from Transformational Learning Theory
which was a concept developed in adult education by Mezirow in 1978. In
this thesis, I will use the term ‘Transformational Learning’ rather than any
other variation. In his article entitled “Perspective Transformation” (1978),
Mezirow describes how adults are caught in fixed ways of thinking which
reflect their established values and belief systems. ‘Perspective
transformation’ aims to change the way an individual sees themselves and
their relationships and can lead to changes in both the relationships and their
behaviours with other people.

There are three phases to Transformational Learning; critical
reflection, discourse and then action. Through the process of critical
reflection which “has the power to profoundly change the way in which we
make sense of our experience of the world, other people and ourselves”
(Mezirow, 1990; xxiii) any individual can create a new understanding of self
and the world. This new understanding will challenge the presuppositions
upon which the individual’s world view is based and can fundamentally affect
the underlying assumptions that shape the way an individual thinks, feels
and decides on experiences. Through discourse, this can then lead to action.

Although Mezirow (1991) describes three types of reflection, only
‘premise reflection’ will involve the beliefs and values about the problem or
issue. ‘Content reflection’ concerns the actual experience itself whereas
‘process reflection’ is concerned with thinking about how to handle the
experience. The concept of ‘perspective transformation’ is described as
follows:

... structural change in the way we see ourselves and our
relationships. If the culture permits, we move toward perspectives
which are more inclusive, discriminating and integrative of experience.
We move away from uncritical, organic relationships toward
contractual relationships with others, institutions and society.
Perspective transformation reformulates the criteria for valuing and for taking action. Behaviour change is often a function of such transformation. (Mezirow, 1978; 100)

For Mezirow (1981) there were ten elements in perspective transformation:

1. A challenging dilemma or experience
2. Self-examination
3. A critical assessment of personally held assumptions and a sense of alienation from traditional social experiences
4. Relating one’s discontent to similar experiences of others or to public issues – recognizing that one’s problem is shared and not exclusively a private matter
5. Exploring options for new ways of behaving
6. Developing competence and self-confidence in new roles or behaviours
7. Planning a different action
8. Acquiring knowledge and skills for implementing these changes
9. Initial efforts to try new roles and to assess feedback
10. A reintegration of this changed perspective within the individual.

Transformational Learning contains critical elements which I would suggest are essential to the development of emotional intelligence. The ‘self-awareness’ of emotional intelligence has links with stage 2 and 3 as described above in which there is both self-examination and a critical assessment of one’s own assumptions. The ‘self-management’ of emotional intelligence can be thought of as having links with exploring options for new ways of behaving through stages 6, 7, 8 and 9 as described above.

By experiencing these ten stages of ‘perspective transformation’ an individual changes their understanding of a situation, the relationships they have with others and develops a different set of beliefs or values that then translates into a change of behaviour. My thinking is that this process
encompasses two of the four constructs of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000); self-awareness and self-management. An understanding of ‘Transformational Learning’, its development, use and research into its effectiveness is therefore important in the context of this thesis.

3.1.1 The development of Transformational Learning

In this section, I intend to investigate the theoretical background to Transformational Learning and later developments in the theory to demonstrate the link with one of the four elements of emotional intelligence. It is the self-reflection of stages two and three of Transformational Learning which corresponds to the ‘self-awareness’, which is the ability to read one’s own emotions and recognize their impact on others, of emotional intelligence.

There is a suggestion that Freire’s theory of transformative learning (1970) made a contribution to the development of Mezirow’s theory (McEwen, O’Connor, Lynch, Strachan and Tilbury, 2009) as Freire believed that adult education should foster critical consciousness in which a learner would develop the skill to analyse, question and take action against current social, political, economic, cultural and economic contexts. In his most well-known work ‘Pedagogy of the Oppressed’ (Freire, 1970) he described traditional education as a ‘banking approach’ in which the learner is regarded as an empty vessel who can be filled with knowledge; a process which dehumanises both teacher and learner. In contrast he advocates education which acknowledges an individual’s incompleteness but allows teacher and learner to work together as co-creators of knowledge which will result in the learner being able to understand their reality and to take action to change it. I
would argue however that although this appears to describe a process that takes place outside the individual with action taking place against an external challenge, Freire expects that there will be a change of consciousness on the part of the learner to enable them to understand and to take this action. In this way, change to the individual and their world view will lead to reasoned action (praxis) and a change of behaviour in the external world. For Freire, developing ‘critical consciousness’ was an essential part of learning and this critical consciousness is aligned to the need for self-awareness of emotional intelligence.

Although not specifically mentioned as a key reference in the work of Mezirow, he may have been aware of the work of Vygotsky particularly his theory of social development (1978). In this theory, Vygotsky challenges traditional pedagogy in which the teacher imparts knowledge to the learner. To replace this, he recommends a learning context in which learner and teacher work together to facilitate meaning construction in the students. This is important in the context of adult learning and has similarities with Mezirow as shown in table 3:
Table 3 Links between stages of Transformational Learning and Vygotsky’s theory of learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STAGES OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEARNING</th>
<th>VYGOTSKY’S THEORY OF LEARNING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stage 4</td>
<td>Social interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relating one’s discontent to similar experiences of others or to public issues – recognizing that one’s problem is shared and not exclusively a private matter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 10</td>
<td>Integration of a change of perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A reintegration of this changed perspective within the individual</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, for Vygotsky (1962), the link between thought and word is crucial for the development of concepts in the young child. There could be similarities here with the need for discourse with others as a prerequisite for articulating the issue as a stage in Transformational Learning (Cranton, 2002) for as Vygotsky writes:

The relation between thought and word is a living process; thought is born through words. A word devoid of thought is a dead thing and a thought unembodied in words remains a shadow. (Vygotsky, 1962; 153)

Secondly, for Vygotsky, language as a vehicle for thought is crucial to the development of consciousness; without language the change of perspective experienced by the learner through Transformational Learning may indeed remain simply vague feelings and perceptions:
The transformative learner moves in and out of the cognitive and the intuitive, of the rational and the imaginative, of the subjective and the objective, of the personal and the social. In seeming paradox, the value of the imagination and the power of emotion exist within the rational notion of transformation, and learners rely on analysis to make sense of their feelings, images, and intuitive descriptions. (Grabove, 1997; 95)

The work of Piaget (1969) in which learning is concerned with ‘meaning making’ resonates with Mezirow’s focus upon making meaning of the experiences that the learner undergoes, although Piaget’s model was child related not adult related. For Piaget, as the child develops an understanding of the constructs that they have met, so these meanings must change as they go through the four stages of development (sensorimotor stage, pre-operational stage, concrete operational stage, formal operational stage). So I suggest that there may be links between the stages of Transformational Learning and the work of both Piaget and Vygotsky. However, it is only in the theories of Freire that there is a link between the ‘self-examination’ of Stage 2 and the ‘self-awareness’ of the development of emotional intelligence.

However, by 1990, Mezirow was drawing on Habermas’ four types of knowledge (1984); instrumental, impressionistic, normative and practical or communicative to describe learning as taking place when a learner experiences one or more of four types of learning. These are described as elaborating on an existing point of view, establishing a new point of view, transforming a point of view and transforming an existing ethnocentric view point regarding groups other than our own (Mezirow, 1997). Habermas’ philosophical approach provided the framework for Transformational Learning which for Mezirow created the essential component of adult learning, namely emancipatory learning. Other outcomes of adult learning are described as the acquisition of instrumental knowledge (objective skill or
information based learning) and communicative knowledge in which we understand ourselves, others and the society in which we live (Cranton, 2002). Habermas (1984) also described three types of meaning perspective; epistemic (knowledge and how we obtain knowledge), sociolinguistic (understanding ourselves and the social world through language) and psychological (our perception of ourselves based on early childhood experiences). True Transformational Learning takes place when reflective discourse and the resulting emancipatory insights result in action (Mezirow, 1990). So there is a link between Habermas’ concept of communicative knowledge and the understanding of our perceptions of our self through psychological meaning perspective and the need for self-awareness which is integral to the acquisition of emotional intelligence.

3.1.2 Later developments in Transformational Learning Theory

Taylor (1998) identified two patterns in writings on the subject that have emerged since the first publication of Mezirow’s theory of Transformational Learning. These are published papers with a theoretical critique featuring themes such as social action, adult development and reflection and unpublished student dissertations of empirical evidence. Throughout these writings, the need for self-reflection and the role of Transformational Learning within adult education remain.

His analysis described a critical but supportive view of transformative learning theory and identified issues that still needed clarification. These are whether Transformational Learning is primarily an agent for individual change or social action, the role of context in adult learning, whether Transformational Learning can be a universal model of adult learning, the
importance of rationality, an acknowledgement that there may be other ways of knowing, whether this is a part of adult development anyway and challenges to the model, itself.

Baumgartner (2001) summarises current thinking on Transformational Learning within adult education as follows:

1. Transformational Learning is not necessarily a linear process but a complex interweaving of feeling and thinking in which emotions play a significant part
2. The trigger event may not be a single event but a series of events that accumulate over time
3. Relationships are a significant part in the transformational process
4. Context and culture also play a part, particularly with readiness to change a significant personal contextual influence.

Merriam (2001) challenges Western traditions of education to harmonise approaches between Western and non-Western traditions of education through creating space and listening to voices, adopting a critical stance, attending to policy, developing partnerships, and fostering collective learning and action. She suggests that no single theory of Transformational Learning exists because of differences in context, differences in the teaching and learning style of those involved and the appropriateness of Transformational Learning as a learning outcome at that moment. The concept of Transformational Learning therefore can encompass both a rational, analytical and cognitive process as well as an intuitive emotive and creative process and can take the learner from personal to social learning (Grabove, 1997). But the place of Transformation Learning within adult education remains and so it is important in the context of this thesis as I am investigating adult training courses.
Many other commentators have developed Mezirow’s theories since the initial article (Merriam, 2004; Cranton 2002; Dirkx 2000; Imel, 1998; Boyd and Myers, 1989) and have further refined the theory of Transformational Learning to describe transformation as a change to the personality. Dirkx (2000) described Transformational Learning as a process in which there was a conscious dialogue whereby adults could engage in potentially powerful emotional learning situations and Imel in 1998 pointed out the dilemma between the original theory by Mezirow and Boyd and Myers theory:

...the two views of transformative learning presented here are contradictory. One advocates a rational approach that depends primarily on critical reflection whereas the other relies more on intuition and emotion. The differences in the two views, however, may best be seen as a matter of emphasis. Both use rational processes and incorporate imagination as a part of a creative process. Mezirow’s view emphasizes the rational whereas Boyd and Myers relies most heavily on imagination or the extra-rational. (Imel, 1998; 2)

Her description of how to adopt a critical stance involves adult learners having a duty to increase awareness of inequalities and then advocate beneficial changes. She also makes the point that the level of critical self-reflection for Transformational Learning requires a high level of cognitive functioning and that without this level of cognition, critical self-reflection cannot take place.

What Taylor (1998) and these later commentators do not challenge is that Transformational Learning requires self-reflection and I suggest that if this involves emotion and changes to self-perception, then there is a strong link with self-awareness. So Transformational Learning is a process that requires the self-awareness of intra personal intelligence (Gardner, 1983) which is a component of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000). As Transformational Learning still retains a sometimes contested place in adult
learning theory (Baumgartner, 2001), it would be reasonable to expect that there would be a body of research into its usefulness and effectiveness.

3.2 Research and Transformational Learning

Taylor (2007) drew together recent research into Transformational Learning from 1999-2005. He cites his previous review of research in 1998 in which he demonstrated that Transformational Learning was relevant in effecting a learning shift in adults, the importance of critical reflection, the need for a challenging problem or issue as a catalyst for change and the stages that took place as an individual underwent the change. However he challenged the need for more focus upon other aspects: the role of context, the difference in the catalysts for Transformational Learning, an increased understanding of other ways of knowing, the importance of relationships between learner and teacher and the need for a wider perspective of what is understood by perspective transformation. He also found that there had been little investigation into how to foster Transformational Learning and also questioned its general applicability as a guide for classroom teaching. He concludes that despite these challenges, Transformational Learning remains a highly viable and popular practice within adult education.

From my own experience and through the acceptance of the NLP presupposition, ‘the map is not the territory’ in which the perspective of other people is not only recognised but utilised, this led to a change in behaviour towards non-teaching staff. Whereas previously I would have expected that all staff could deal with the ‘grey areas’ of discipline in which it is difficult to discover exactly what has happened in an incident involving pupils, I now recognised their need for precise rules and regulations. As a staff we
established guidelines that covered the majority of events that may happen and then whenever there was something ‘out of the ordinary’, it was referred on to a higher member of staff. Non-teaching times became calmer, quieter and the stronger relationships between non-teaching staff and pupils were evident in the reduced number of incidents reported on a daily and weekly basis. This supports Taylor’s view, although the example above describes ‘non classroom’ practice:

The present research continues to affirm Mezirow’s conception of transformative learning, through its stability over time, its relationship to expanding the self and pursuit of autonomy, and the applicability for informing classroom practice. (Taylor, 2007; 186)

He argues that within Transformational Learning there are still many areas of challenge that need to be addressed: the quality of critical reflection; the limited context in which Transformational Learning takes place; the need for a supportive context to allow the new learning to be acted upon; student readiness for the learning to take place. Taylor (2007) also agrees with Merriam (2004) that the individual may need to be at a particular level of maturity and cognitive development before Transformational Learning can take place.

The importance of maturity is exemplified in the research undertaken by Liimatainen, Poskiparta, Karhila and Sjogren (2001) which describe how a proportion of the nurses involved in their study only achieved the levels of critical self-reflection after three years and supports the argument by Merriam (2004) that not all adults will achieve the necessary level of cognitive development to be able to do this. Furthermore, there is evidence that not all of those who even admit to the use of reflection can provide evidence that they have participated in the level of reflection which leads to
Transformational Learning which changes assumptions and perspectives (Kreber, 2004). In addition Taylor (2007) also raises the point about the link between affective learning and Transformational Learning, acknowledging the role of emotions and the need for emotional maturity as well as the ability to recognise and handle the emotions of others. Little research has been undertaken on how to do this effectively in the context of Transformational Learning. It may be that a different approach may be required in order to identify whether Transformational Learning has taken place through a different style of questioning which delved more into the inner world of the interviewees as we see in the work of Tosey and Mathison (2009a) and Tosey et al (2005).

For Cranton and King (2003), Jung’s psychoanalytic theory of the process of individuation (1921) in which the individual develops both as an individual but as a separate identity from the collective consciousness is an essential part of being able to question the norms of the society in which they live and work. This in itself is a transformative process which combined with authenticity (expressing self in the community) is part of an ever changing spiral:

In differentiating our self from others, we see where our values are different from and the same as those of others. Transformative learning leads to further individuation as we separate ourselves from the community whose values we no longer share. Transformative learning also leads back to authenticity as we express our views in the community. Being authentic leads to further transformation and individuation. We no longer run with the herd; we make choices based on who we are. The spiral moves upward.

(Cranton and King 2003; 33)

Newman (2012) argues that all learning is transformational in some way; either through the acquisition of new skills, new knowledge or new attitudes and calls instead for a new interpretation of the word ‘learning’. All
learning will have one or more of the following nine components:
instrumental, communicative, affective, interpretive, essential, critical,
 political, passionate, and moral and when all are present, these will constitute ‘good learning’. His description of four of these components has remarkable similarities with Transformational Learning. Of these nine components, ‘affective’ is about how we react to people and events and the emotions involved. ‘Interpretive’ is about our own understanding of ourselves. ‘Critical’ is about questioning and recognising conflicts of interest and ‘moral’:

…involves an on-going debate with ourselves and others, in which we tease out the convictions that inform the judgements we make, and subject these convictions to repeated and rigorous appraisal.
(Newman, 2012; 52)

A recent publication on Transformational Learning (2009) consists of a variety of peer reviewed papers presented at international Transformational Learning conferences from 1998 to 2007. It contains contributions from across different educational settings and involves a variety of different practices which still include critical self-reflection. As the reviewer sums up the texts of the different addresses:

The collective voice of this text suggests that Transformational Learning in practice is also undergoing transformation. What once was confined to individual leaning experiences is now moving toward recognizing the importance of collective transformation to work toward social change.
(Boznak, 2009; 65)

From this it appears that Transformation Learning is returning to the ethos of Freire (1970).

Thus, despite an absence of extensive research into the concept of Transformational Learning, it still retains a place in the theories and practice of education as judged by conferences and research briefings that result
(McEwen et al, 2009). Furthermore, recently published articles which suggest the use of a Transformational Learning lens to understand the scholarship of teaching and learning (Cranton, 2011) and the existence of a graduate level qualitative research programme based upon transformational theory in which critical reflection plays a significant part of the course (Carawan, Knight, Wittman, Pokorny, and Velde, 2011) all point to a theory that still has relevance to our understanding of the concept of learning.

From my own perspective, the research suggests that the use of Transformational Learning as a theory to underpin my research is relevant for two reasons. Firstly, I am investigating adult learning experiences through training courses and secondly, Transformational Learning requires critical self-reflection (Taylor, 2007; Liimatainen et al, 2001; Merriam, 2004) and may involve the emotions (Newman, 2012; Boyd and Myers, 1989) which link it with the self-awareness required in the development of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000).

3.3 Reflective practice and Transformational Learning

As identified in the previous sections on the theory of Transformational Learning, its background and later development, the role of self-reflection is an integral part of the process of Transformational Learning. In this section, I will identify ways in which self-reflection has been developed and how the role of emotion within self-reflection has been handled with particular reference to reflective journaling and how journaling can be an instrument that can support self-reflection. This will then be followed by an example of how my own reflective journals, taken as part of the NLP practitioner course showed some examples of self-reflection. I will then
identify strengths within the training courses that I was investigating and suggest ways to support the quality of self-reflection that is needed for Transformational Learning (Merriam, 2004) and the development of the self-awareness required for the development of emotional intelligence.

3.3.1 What is reflective practice?

Self-reflection is at the heart of reflective practice. Reflective practice originated in the 1980s, based upon the ideas of Schon (1983). It was taken up by social care, healthcare and education professionals (Bradbury, Frost, Kilminster and Zukas, 2010) as a tool for both professional and personal development. Schon’s original (1983) theory was set against the backdrop of an increasing number of professionals within the workplace and increasing criticism of ineffectiveness. His solution was to create an opportunity for the professional to reflect on what they were doing or the problem they were facing and come up with a solution thus becoming a ‘researcher’ in the workplace.

At the same time action research was developing as a research tool. Action research developed from the work of Collier and Lewin in the 1930s and 1940s (McNiff and Whitehead, 2000). It was Lewin (1948) who believed that workers would be more motivated about their work if they were involved in the decision making process through observation, reflection, action, evaluation and then modification of their practice. Corey (1953) advocated the teacher as researcher to improve practice through action research in order to ‘contribute to the solution of future problems or the elimination of future difficulties’ (Corey, 1954; 375). In the United Kingdom this was taken up by Stenhouse (1975) who advocated that professionals should have a
commitment to question their own teaching, a commitment to study their own teaching and then to challenge their practice in order to improve. It is a type of research that is still very evident today (Lomax, 2007) and firmly places critical self-reflection as a significant feature of small scale, classroom based research.

For Carr and Kemmis (1986), action research involved critical thinking. Brookfield (1987) described critical thinking as the process in which an individual will question basic assumptions underlying an issue, be aware of these assumptions, examine issues objectively to become ‘reflective sceptics’. It is a process, not an outcome in which learning about self is frequently cited as the most significant learning. Reflective practice, involving critical thinking, therefore, has a close link with Transformational Learning (Mezirow, 1990) in which an individual changes their perception about an issue and then changes their behaviour, whilst recognizing that they acted on previously held assumptions and not on a critical reflection on the issues (Brookfield, 1987) and this self-reflection is part of the development of emotional intelligence.

3.3.2 Reflective practice today

However, Boud describes the changes that have taken place since the 1990s in our understanding of reflective practice to claim that it has now become “reflection as recipe following, reflection without learning, over intellectualizing reflection and uncritical acceptance of the learner’s experience” (Boud in Bradbury et al, 2010; 27). His alternative was to create a new concept called productive reflection (Boud, Cressey and Docherty, 2006) which is organizational rather than individual in its focus. It connects
learning and work, involves multiple stakeholders and generates possibilities rather than specifics and the process changes over time so that a particular type of reflection is not set as a behaviour that must be followed. This current practice, as described by Cressey (in Boud et al, 2006) has the potential to improve production, and increase the engagement of the workforce using methods which move beyond traditional task based training to create learning at individual, group and organizational level through open ended learning techniques which are responsive to ever changing needs. Despite this, there is still a view that reflective practice today has become a formulaic element of performance management (Bradbury et al 2010). However the very fact that it is still in place suggests that requiring individuals to reflect critically on their practice and to adapt their practice is still considered an important element of continuing professional development today.

Despite these criticisms, I would suggest that the use of reflective practice is an integral part of developing Transformational Learning. Taylor (2000) has described 3 types of reflection; technical which focuses upon task related competencies; practical which focuses upon interpersonal competencies; emancipatory which is about Transformational Learning and relates to roles and power. She ascribes the value of such practice as enabling the practitioner to make sense of their experience and to make changes for the better. This concept of improving both practice and ‘being’ (Johns, 2009) is a feature of the work of Mezirow (1990 and 1978) and Transformational Learning. However, this very act of reflecting on our own strengths and areas to develop can be challenging.
3.3.3 The role of emotion in reflective practice

Changing our attitude to our own performance and being able to be critical of our own practice, however, requires an emotional distance as an essential component of critical thinking. As Clare, an NPQH trained leader admits:

I know that sometimes I upset people and but now I’m confident enough to say no this decision is right and the buck stops with me so I’m making that decision and you can stamp your feet all you like but this time I believe it’s the right decision.

(Clare, NPQH)

This recognition of the existence of emotion and an emotional response whether positive or negative can then either be a barrier to learning or can enhance learning (Boud and Miller, 1996; Boud, Keogh and Walker, 1985). Yet it is the ability to acknowledge and deal with emotions, particularly negative emotions, when required to reflect on performance that is part of emotional intelligence as it involves three of the four aspects of emotional intelligence as described by Goleman (2000). These are self-awareness which is the ability to read one’s own emotions and recognize their impact on others, self-management which is the ability to control one’s emotions and adapt to changing circumstances and social awareness which is the ability to sense, understand, and react to others’ emotions. One method of utilising the possible negative emotions that may emerge in self-reflection is through the use of written journals.

3.3.4 Reflective practice through journaling

Although Taylor (2000) believes that reflection can be recorded in any way, the use of learning journals in a written format has been acknowledged
(Kidd and Czerniawski, 2010; Ghaye and Lillyman, 2006; Moon, 2006, Rolfe, Freshwater and Jasper, 2001). Whether these take the form of a weblog, a diary, a think book or a mixture of sketches and words or are in a traditional format of pen and paper or in audio visual or eformat, the crucial element is that they are a “vehicle for reflection” in which there is an intention to learn (Moon, 2006;1).

Moon (2006) identifies learning as taking place as a result of writing through the process of slowing the learning process down, forcing learners to organize their thoughts and helping to clarify the issue. I would go even further and suggest that using language to describe what may only be a vague sensation enables the learner to interact with the sensation; giving it a concrete form means that it can be manipulated both cognitively by the individual and shared with others.

In 2007 a study into the wellbeing of serving head teachers requested the sample group to complete a reflective journal of critical incidents, high and low points over a period of two weeks (NCSL, 2007). The results were used to analyse the working lives of serving head teachers and their levels of well-being, stress, job satisfaction and work life balance. The value of employee diaries has been recognized in recent research (Amabile and Kramer, 2011) in which 12,000 individual diary reports from employees in seven companies described the high and low points of their daily work experiences. The diaries revealed powerful personal experiences that would otherwise have been lost.

Learning journals have also been used to review critical incidents which may have negative associations (Ghaye and Lillyman, 2006). Rolfe et al (2001) note four stages of reflective writing; descriptive, emotional,
evaluative and restorative in which the practitioner is aware of uncomfortable feelings and thoughts, critically analyses the situation, examines the current feelings and existing knowledge base and then goes on to develop a new perspective. Boud et al (1985) go further and describe how the learner must work through existing attitudes and emotions which may be positive or negative. Boud and Miller (1996) acknowledge that this process may entail looking back on painful experiences. However such emotional issues and the “emotional insight” (Moon, 2006; 29) that they create are a necessary part of a deep learning experience (Boud et al 1985).

Walker (Boud et al, 1985) describes his use of a journal as part of a one year leadership programme within religious communities. He describes how this provided an objectivity that helped participants deal with issues, including difficult issues and helped them make emotions more concrete:

…”there were many feelings and insights captured that might otherwise have been lost. Not only were they captured but they were embodied in a way that enabled the participants to work more constructively and effectively with them. (Walker, 1985; 60)

The importance of a written medium is that it provides objectivity within the learning experience, clarifies the experience by separating ‘feeling’ from ‘learning’, supports reflecting on the event not on the emotion and provides a mechanism for dealing with emotion aroused yet at the same time acknowledging that emotions, possibly negative emotions are an element in the experience (Boud et al 1985).

From this it can be seen that written journals can facilitate learning (Moon, 2006), can support reflection on difficult and challenging issues (Amabile and Kramer, 2011) and can help individuals to continue to reflect
critically on incidents even when powerful negative emotions are involved. These are part of the early stages of Transformational Learning in which stage one is recognising a challenging dilemma or experience, stage two requires self-examination, stage three requires a critical assessment of personally held assumptions and stage four acknowledges one's own discontent. Journaling could also therefore support the self-awareness required for the development of emotional intelligence.

3.3.5 Journaling in practice

In September 2002, as part of the NLP practitioner course on which I was a delegate, all participants were required to complete a daily journal identifying their outcomes for the day and anything that they had learnt. Mezirow (1990) contrasted the Western rationalistic tradition of learning in which reality exists, knowledge is objective and can be imparted through the medium of language and measured against an objective criteria of intellectual standards with ‘transformation theory’ in which a Transformational Learning experience requires the learner to construct a new or revised interpretation of experiences to guide their future behaviours. In the collection of journals that I had accumulated during this time, I expected to find some references to changes which would show reflections on current behaviours, changes to those behaviours through reflection and changes to my ‘world view’ or understanding of self in regard to others. This would then correspond to ‘perspective transformation’ (Mezirow, 1990).

A reflective learning journal has been described as a tool to develop both professional and personal competencies. Moon (2006) outlines different competencies as possible outcomes from the use of learning journals:
1. To record experience
2. To facilitate learning from experience
3. To support understanding and the representation of understanding
4. To develop critical thinking or the development of a questioning attitude
5. To encourage meta cognition
6. To increase active involvement and ownership of learning
7. To increase ability in reflection and thinking
8. To enhance problem solving skills
9. As a means of formal assessment in formal education
10. To enhance reflective practice
11. For reasons of personal development and self-empowerment
12. For therapeutic purposes or as a means of supporting behaviour change
13. To enhance creativity
14. To improve or give ‘voice’ as a means of self-expression
15. To foster communication and to foster reflective creative interaction in a group
16. To support planning and progress in research or in a project
17. As a means of communication between learner and another.

Of these competencies, I would suggest that numbers 2, 4, 5, 7, 10 and 11 are all needed for the critical self-reflection of Transformational Learning.

From my own journals from this time, I found examples of evidence of reflective practice that resulted in changes in self-awareness and subsequent changes in behaviour linked to practical issues to do with leadership. For example, at the start of the leadership of a new and much larger school, I found issues to do with changes of role associated with changes from headship of a small school to a larger school and involving delegation and
building relationships with staff in areas where I would previously have had total responsibility e.g. Special Educational Needs.

This ‘distributed leadership’ can be a tad problematic! Others still want to lead but also want to shift/dump stuff/ responsibility on you. Sometimes you have to grit your teeth and acknowledge that you would have done it better. But now it’s over to them (19/09/07)

(For examples of other journal entries, please refer to Appendix 13.2).

3.4 The use of the theory of Transformational Learning

Despite an absence of extensive research into the concept of Transformational Learning, it remains a part of an understanding of learning (Cranton, 2011). The model of Transformational Learning as described above (Mezirow, 1990) can appear complex and cumbersome with the different levels and what they may or may not mean. My own research journal noted the challenges of identifying these levels in the initial stages of data analysis:

23/1/11 Really difficult task! Where does one level/ stage start and another end and can they intertwine? Can they apply to more than one stage? Should I keep them separate? Will need to start again as the colour coding system I am using is confusing. I’ll need to assign and highlight each stage with a different colour and then double check for any overlaps.

Furthermore, any theory of changes of perception may be too simplistic to explain the complexity of the process which an individual undertakes when changing their perception. Although the theory can be contested (Baumgartner, 2001), an understanding of Transformational Learning, its development, use and research into its effectiveness is important in the context of this thesis.

In this chapter, I have suggested a link between Transformational Learning and the self-awareness and self-management required for the
development of emotional intelligence as these are part of the early stages of Transformational Learning. Stage one involves recognising a challenging dilemma or experience, stage two requires self-examination and stage three requires a critical assessment of personally held assumptions. I have also suggested that reflective journaling may be useful in the context of the development of critical self-reflection. I therefore planned to explore the data that I collected for evidence of critical self-reflection which supports the perspective change of Transformational Learning. Evidence of Transformational Learning may then have indicated a positive shift in emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) or the acquisition of inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983) by the leader. A description of how this was undertaken will be covered in the next chapter on the methodology that was adopted.
Chapter 4

4.0 Methodology

In this chapter I will describe the philosophical background to the research project, the methods selected and the reasoning behind the selection with a consideration of the purpose of educational research. I will then describe how I intended to use the lens of Transformational Learning as a tool to interrogate the data that I collected and finally consider the ethics of my research project.

4.1 Introduction

The objectives of the critical analysis of the literature underpinning this research were to identify the claims made for Neuro Linguistic Programming and personal development, any links between current leadership programmes and leadership development through personal development and the link between leadership development and personal development. One further task remained in order to be able to suggest answers to the research questions as described in section 1.5. The two questions that now needed to be answered were as follows:

1. In what ways have the Neuro Linguistic Programming (NLP) practitioner course and the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) supported the personal development of leaders?

2. Which elements of NLP and the NPQH programme, if any, could be used by educational leaders to become more effective leaders?

This task was to undertake in depth interviews of NPQH and NLP trained leaders in education. Through the questions asked, I would attempt to identify differences and similarities in their experience of training and what impact this has had upon them personally and as leaders. I could then
attempt to identify links between their training, their development of emotional intelligence or inter and intra personal intelligences through Transformational Learning and the effect that the two different training courses had upon this process.

4.2 The philosophical background to research

Adopting a particular stance in educational research and research in general is critical to the way that any researcher designs and conducts their research process (Creswell, 2009; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007; Morrison, 2007). The adoption of a specific paradigm in order to collect and then interpret information will follow from this stance. This practice is described as taking place in the world of education or social science rather than natural science. The paradigms most frequently referred to in both social science research and education research reflect either a positivist or a naturalistic approach (Cohen et al, 2007; Morrison 2007). Only since the 1990s, has the option of combining the two approaches become more acceptable in what is now referred to as a mixed method approach (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998).

Positivism demonstrates underlying assumptions in which objective knowledge can be found by observation of experience. This knowledge is described as value free (Robson, 2002), based on factual evidence and contributes to the development of universal laws which are generalisable. These are frequently cited as being more appropriate to the natural sciences (Howe and Eisenhart, 1990). The development of the term ‘Post Positivism’, based on the writings of 19th Century philosophers such as Locke, Comte, Mill and Durkheim occurred when there was debate as to whether the
scientific methodologies should be adopted in order to study the social world (Smith, 1983). The criticisms of Positivism enabled mid-20th century theorists such as Popper, Bronowski, Kuhn and Hanson to develop ‘Post Positivism’ as a philosophy which could underpin research (Clark, 1998).

The Post Positivist world view has four elements which are shared with Positivism (Creswell, 2009). Firstly, it is deterministic in so far as ‘cause and effect’ can be identified. Secondly, it is ‘reductionist’ in so far as the researcher can create small, discrete sets of data to test (Creswell, 2009) and collect observations through some form of measurement. Thirdly, the data collected will then be used to support or challenge any hypothesis that has been made. Fourthly, the Post Positivists acknowledge that the beliefs and knowledge of the researcher can influence the research process, whilst still maintaining a need for objectivity and a recognition that the ‘reality’ that they are studying can only be partly understood (Robson, 2002).

A ‘Positivist’ approach will direct the researcher towards the use of a quantitative methodology. This methodology will then have certain characteristics which firmly place it within the Positivist or Post Positivist paradigm (Creswell, 2012). These include the collection of sufficient numeric data using a quantitative data collection tool that can be analysed using mathematical procedures (Creswell, 2012). The research process can then be described in terms of eight distinct phases from the formulation of the initial hypotheses, through the development of a system of testing, experimenting and data collection to the development of laws and generalisations and finally to the formulation of new theories (Cohen et al, 2007).
As a result of the criticism of Positivism and Post Positivism and its inappropriateness when applied to the social sciences, particularly psychology, social psychology and sociology (Cohen et al, 2007; Guba and Lincoln, 1994) a different approach emerged. This new approach was developed in the early years of the 20th century and owes much to the rise of ethnography in sociology and anthropology (Vidich and Lyman, 1994). It was naturalistic (studying people, places, events and activities in their own setting) and interpretive (making sense of what was happening through the meanings brought to them by those involved (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). This approach has been called ‘interpretive’ or ‘naturalistic’ (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994) and ‘constructivist’ (Robson, 2002). There is also the further addition of a descriptor to define it as ‘social constructivism’ (Creswell, 2007) in which the researcher’s role is to acknowledge and clarify the complexity of meanings attributed to experiences by those involved (Crotty, 1998). Such research involves the use of a variety of different tools which contribute to a ‘bricolage’:

…a complex, dense, reflexive, collage-like creation that represents the researcher’s images, understandings and interpretations of the world or phenomenon under analysis. (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994;3)

Just as the Positivists stressed the need for the researcher to adopt an objective stance to the research process, so the naturalistic approach recognizes that the researcher can never be completely objective as their interpretations will be defined by their own life experiences, beliefs and values which need to be acknowledged (Morrison, 2007). This ‘naturalistic’ approach has become the paradigm underpinning what is now described as ‘qualitative’ research (Creswell, 2007).
The development of mixed methods research in the later years of the last century combined both quantitative and qualitative methods either sequentially or in parallel. This has been seen as a way of strengthening both the quantitative and the qualitative approach (Creswell, 2009) and an attempt to reconcile the two fields of research (Robson, 2002). A variety of different mixed method approaches have been described in detail (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). In these approaches, the use of either quantitative or qualitative research tools can be balanced, weighted towards one approach or the other, run sequentially or in tandem in order to generate the data that the researcher requires. In this way the researcher is encouraged to use whatever tools will give them appropriate data, given the constraints of time and resources:

Study what interests you and is of value to you, study it in the different ways that you deem appropriate, and use the results in ways that bring about positive consequences within your value system. (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; 30)

The adoption of mixed methods is closely linked with the concept of ‘pragmatism’ in which the focus is upon the research problem and how to generate the data which is also mirrored in a particular philosophical approach called pragmatism. This concept of ‘pragmatism’, based upon the philosophical ideas of Dewey, Mead, James, Rorty and others (Cherryholmes, 1992) suggests that researchers use ‘what works’. Similarities with realism or ‘scientific realism’ (House, 1991) include a rejection of the positivist paradigm, an agreement that research always takes place within a historical, social, political or other context, that the researcher is part of this context and that their interpretation of what they observe will be affected by their own contextual experiences. This idea is relevant here as rather than following a particular philosophical standpoint, the research
process is concerned with what may be discovered although I do acknowledge that my own interest in NLP and my focus on the influence of NLP on the behaviours and beliefs of school leaders as perceived from their standpoint could lead more naturally towards an interpretive viewpoint.

4.3 The Postmodern perspective on research

Although Postmodernism is a contested theory, in this section I will explain my understanding of this perspective and why I rejected a solely Positivist perspective. The development of Postmodernism as a philosophy has shaped research methodology. Post Positivist research is aligned to interpretivism and deconstructionism, recognizing that there are multiplicities of meanings that can be understood from any interaction (Rosenau, 1992). There is also recognition of the interplay of meaning as it is constructed between the interviewer and the interviewee (Scheurich, 1997). The rejection of empiricism, the challenge to the existence of an external authority and the importance of discourse challenged what was described as the Anglo–Saxon, analytical tradition (Griffiths, 1995). Lyotard (1984) requires us to challenge these ‘grand narratives.’ This, combined with the interest in language, subjectivity and seeking meanings that do not adopt one of the ‘grand narratives’ such as Marxism, liberalism or functionalism (Grogan and Simmons, 2002) has led to the acceptance that small scale research projects that reveal individual voices have their place. Furthermore, Postmodernism gives the researcher the opportunity to adopt a theory which may have an emancipatory or critical stance in order to understand what is happening (Robson, 2002). It was this that led me to investigate and use
Transformational Learning (Mezirow, 1990) as a theory to shed light on the data that was collected as explained in chapter 3.

4.4 Selecting a philosophical paradigm for the research

As part of a professional doctorate and with my focus upon leadership training in which I hoped to make suggestions which may inform future training, I was concerned with the development of leadership and the qualities of a leader taken from a consideration of the perception of self and the actions of this ‘self’ on others. As described in section 2.3.1., leadership and ‘followership’ (Western, 2008) are interlinked. Although this study does not consider the qualities of the ‘followers’, the self, here in the form of the ‘leader’ is part of a multiplicity of relationships (Lyotard, 1984) in which the views and opinions of individuals are subject to interpretation and socially constructed. Every response will be individual and unique and each will have its own significance (Cohen et al., 2007) which will be open to both interpretation and the construction of meaning. With this standpoint in mind, a Positivist, experimental paradigm was not considered appropriate.

Furthermore, it was not possible, given the constraints of time and resources to construct an experimental approach in which there is a control group and the only variable is a training course, acknowledging that there are ethical issues concerning the use of control groups (Bryman, 2004). Although it would have been possible to construct a questionnaire in which the effect of two training courses was evaluated, the availability of NLP practitioners who are school leaders was small and certainly less than the suggested number required as a minimum to create statistical analysis of the data (Cohen et al., 2007).
Interrogating an existing set of data would have been an option if sufficient data had been available. The data available from the Welsh Education and Training Inspectorate (Estyn, 2010) showed favourable comments from trainees regarding their preparation for headship, their development as a leader, the ability to create a vision and establish strategic direction having taken NPQH. The questions that were asked, however, did not identify the development of self through the training process except in so far as candidates were asked to comment on the evaluation and assessment process as an element in their development as a leader (Estyn, 2010). This has been described in greater detail in section 2.2. Therefore even using an existing database would not have provided the information required on how training may have supported the personal development of the school leader.

In contrast, naturalistic inquiry (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994) where meanings are constructed by human beings who make interpretations of their experiences and in which meaning is neither completely subjective nor objective and there is no single interpretation (Crotty, 1998) was adopted as the epistemology underpinning the research. Furthermore the approach had much in common with social constructionism (Burr, 1995) in which meaning is made through language and the language in which the perceptions are expressed is then interpreted (Lock and Strong, 2010; Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The underlying presupposition is that the subjects of the research are voicing their views, their opinions, and their perceptions of what they do and how they have changed. This is a social constructionist standpoint as:

Social constructionism denies that our knowledge is a direct perception of reality. In fact it might be said that we construct our own versions of reality (as a culture or society) between us. Since we have to accept the historical and cultural relativism of all forms of
knowledge, it follows that the notion of ‘truth’ becomes problematic. Within social constructionism there can be no such thing as an objective fact. All knowledge is derived from looking at the world from some perspective or other…

(Burr. 1995:6)

Burr also rejects the idea of the individual independent of others which corresponds with the role of the leader whose position and influence is a product of the quality and interaction between leaders and followers (Collinson, 2006). This reaffirms the importance of relationships within the leadership process.

Furthermore Collinson describes ‘followership’ as a key element in distributed leadership which is the leadership style advocated during the first decade of the new century (NCSL 2007; NCSL 2003b) and which is now being developed through the concept of schools working in partnerships either through collaborations, federations and trusts or chains and clusters of schools (NCL 2011).

The Postmodern standpoint also argues that the world cannot be understood through all-encompassing theories or ‘grand narratives’ which Lyotard (1984) requires us to challenge. Individual viewpoints will count towards creating an understanding of the world. This perspective is in keeping with the NLP presupposition that ‘the map is not the territory’ in which NLP practitioners accept that their way of understanding the world is different from that of others (Dilts and DeLozier, 2004). This is traced back to the ideas of Mead in which ‘me’ is constructed as a result of our interaction with society and each ‘me’ will be different (Mead, 1934). As a result of these considerations, a naturalistic approach with an interpretive paradigm in which meaning is constructed was adopted. This establishes the research project
as qualitative and leads to a consideration of the most appropriate methods in order to collect the data.

4.5 The research questions

The research questions as explained in detail in section 1.5 were based upon two ideas. They were that personal or self-development is an important part of leadership and that leadership training which involves critical self-reflection can support personal development. The research questions were designed to investigate how the NLP and NPQH training courses have supported the personal development of leaders and to identify aspects of the programmes used by educational leaders to become more effective leaders.

I hoped to be able to access documentary evidence of personal development over the long term and short term. Evidence was available from the journals of an NLP practitioner and from the data from a cohort of 35 NLP practitioners as described in section 1.2. If this data had been available from the NPQH trained leaders, too, this might have enabled a mixed methods approach. The Complex Mixed Model Design Types VIII (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998) would have been appropriate and this will be discussed as possible post-doctoral research in chapter 7. Phase One of this model is the identification of a qualitative study followed by qualitative data collection and inference. Phase Two of the study involves quantitative enquiry in which the quantitative data illuminates the results from the qualitative data. This also fits with what Creswell describes as 'dominant -less dominant style ' in which the majority of the research is undertaken within one paradigm with a small component of the study drawn from an alternative design (Creswell, 2009).
However, the absence of such data refocused the research upon in depth interviews and a qualitative paradigm.

### 4.6 A consideration of the methods available

Having established my research project within the qualitative research paradigm, the next consideration was the selection of tools used to collect the data.

It would have been possible to carry out a case study of one or more schools, in which one school had a leader trained in NLP and another was trained through NPQH. Successful case studies have been undertaken which have described new approaches to leadership (Hirschhorn, 1997) and the case study is frequently used by the National College of School Leadership to investigate and report on a variety of leadership issues. The use of interviews, observations and the scrutiny of documentation (Creswell, 2009) in order to undertake a case study would then have provided me with data on the leader’s perceptions of their behaviour with observable behaviour. This would not have been an ‘intrinsic’ case study (Stake, 1994) as the focus is not upon one specific leader or on one specific school. The very essence of a case study is that it provides an in depth study of one situation (Robson, 2002). To compare leaders in two different schools would have introduced too many variables. If the focus of the research had been to describe the behaviours of an NLP trained leader on their school, an in depth case study could have been appropriate.

Grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1969) was not considered suitable although it is still highly regarded within education and health settings (Thomas and James, 2006). Grounded theory, in which the focus is
the development of a theory inductively from raw data, could have been appropriate (Creswell, 2012; Strauss and Corbin, 1990). But it would have involved an investigation into the relationships within a school in which the leader was an NLP practitioner or an NPQH trained leader in order to be able to identify themes that emerged and then generate theory. The data sets that are used in grounded theory are similar to other types of qualitative data sets and can include interviews, field observations and documents. This would have supported my selection of a qualitative methodology. However, the ongoing interplay between data collection and analysis which contributes to the creation of substantive theory with resulting hypotheses checked throughout the research process (Strauss and Corbin, 1990) was not appropriate in the context of the research questions.

The thesis was not an ethnographic study as it was not a portrayal and explanation of a particular social group (Cohen et al, 2007; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). If the thesis had been a study of the interaction between the leader and their followers, then grounded theory could have been an appropriate choice.

In selecting the use of interviews as a data collection process, I acknowledge that they may be perceived to lack breadth (Marshall and Rossman, 1999) with questions as to applicability of the data collected (Wengraf, 2001). There can also be issues, particularly with less structured interviews as the interviewer can obtain very different responses from different participants and this can reduce the opportunity for comparability (Creswell, 2009; Cohen et al, 2007; Bryman, 2004). Furthermore, information may be filtered through the perceptions of the interviewees which may be influenced by their relationship with the researcher which can be positive or
negative (Creswell, 2009; Marshall and Rossman, 1999). There are also issues of the expertise of the interviewer (Rubin and Rubin, 2005) which may make it harder for the interviewer to collect the data they require.

Within an interpretive framework, the use of interviews is another example of the way in which knowledge is generated between individuals (Kvale, 2007). They also enable the interviewer to utilise verbal and non-verbal responses and to follow up answers for further classification if required (Creswell, 2009; Cohen et al, 2007; Marshall and Rossman, 1999). However, I was primarily interested in the depth of understanding that can come from interviews (Wengraf, 2001) and the flexibility that this would give for interviewees to provide a variety of answers which would result in rich data providing both complexity and depth of responses rather than breadth (Rubin and Rubin, 2005; Robson, 2002; Marshall and Rossman, 1999) because this:

…allows the researcher to understand the meanings that everyday actions hold for people.
(Marshall and Rossman, 1999: 102)

4.6.1 The use of semi structured interviews

As a result of the considerations explained above, the use of semi-structured interviews was selected. Semi-structured interviews were chosen over open ended questions or focused, predetermined questions that would resemble a survey questionnaire (Robson, 2002). This was because such an approach would accommodate both a sharp focus and the opportunity for the respondents to explain in depth (Cohen et al, 2007; Rubin and Rubin, 2005). This approach would resemble a general guided interview (Marshall and Rossman, 1999; Patton, 1990) which was constructed (Cohen et al, 2007)
and had predetermined questions rather than a conversation which occurred naturally. However, the exact wording, the order, the opportunity for explanation and further clarification (Robson, 2002) was available if needed. It would allow me to follow a set pattern of questions in order to cover the same ground in each interview but still allow for some flexibility so that I could adjust the process for unforeseen and unanticipated developments (Fontana and Frey, 1994). From the standpoint of hindsight, I do believe that it would have been more useful to have had an interview plan which also specifically asked for an example of a changed behaviour since undertaking the training because when these emerged they were very powerful but were not consistent across the samples (see chapter 6 on the findings from the interviews).

However, the important factor was that all participants were able to answer in their own words, expressing their personal perspective (Patton, 1990). As I shared certain characteristics with the respondents, there were some shared concepts and a common vocabulary (Kvale, 2007; Bryman, 2004; Erlandsen et al, 1993) which included pupil progress, OFSTED requirements and the role of a leader and manager in education. With the NLP practitioners, there was also an understanding of NLP, particularly since the NLP leaders and I had all undertaken similar training at either practitioner or master practitioner level. The importance of a positive relationship between the interviewee and the interviewer has been stressed (Cohen et al, 2007; Rubin and Rubin, 1995; Fontana and Frey, 1994) and as all respondents were known to me, this was easy to establish. However, it meant that there was a need for me to avoid becoming over familiar, ensuring that there was sufficient empathy to encourage the respondents to
answer openly whilst maintaining a sense of balance, if complete objectivity and neutrality are not possible (Rubin and Rubin, 1995). The relationship between myself and the respondents made it even more imperative that I acknowledged the influence that this relationship could have upon the answers (Frey and Oishi, 1995) and ensured that in my preamble to the interview, I stressed the confidentiality of the process and that any references to the contents would be non-attributable. Content analysis was then used to identify themes from the data.

4.7 Content analysis

The use of semi-structured interviews enabled me to collect sufficient data from the two groups to be able to undertake a constant comparison in which the responses to each question were compared. Analysis of the responses was planned through data reduction of content analysis (Holsti, 1969). Although content analysis can be used as a quantitative method of data analysis with a statistical approach (Neuendorf, 2002; Bryman, 2001; Krippendorf, 1980; Holsti, 1969), the approach that I adopted used content analysis as a means of identifying themes and patterns which would be illustrated with quotations from the text (Bryman, 2001). This would reduce the data to manageable units of text which could be counted and “may reveal aspects of the text that would not be apparent otherwise” (Weber, 1990: 56).

The use of numbers was used to support the generation of results that could be comparable and could reveal similarities and differences that might otherwise have been difficult to detect (Weber, 1990). It did allow for the use of descriptive statistics which allowed the frequency of topics, themes or even key words to be counted and tabulated using an ordinal
scale to show ranking where appropriate. This had already been used as a data handling process in three studies on Transformational Learning (Glaze, 2001; Liimatainen et al, 2001; Richardson and Maltby, 1995) and in health care research (Sandelowski, 2001; Downe-Wamboldt, 1992). Furthermore, Richardson and Maltby (1995) then used percentages to show the differences between respondents and Glaze (2001) adopted a thematic grid. I used a table to show the spread of responses which is similar to the tabulation adopted by Liimatainen et al (2001) and then converted the frequency to percentages. This was a process which would allow me to present the data in a simplified form and which would offer, “the nuance of qualitative reflections” and “the clarity of quantitative counts” (Wheeldon, 2012; 56). It was never intended to adopt a statistical approach to the collection of the qualitative data but to use the ‘counts’ to help identify patterns, clusters of responses, links between responses and relating responses to a theoretical framework (Robson, 2002). As I wrote in my research journal:

2/2 Data! There’s pages of transcripts piled up, colour coded, on sheets of flip chart paper spread all over the room. I tried Nvivo but felt it was taking me away from the real words that my interviewees were using. But I know that in these responses are clusters of similar responses that show a pattern. There must be a way of combining the frequency of responses with the richness of their words. Back to the reading—there must be a precedent somewhere. Someone must have done this before.

When undertaking content analysis, the size of the unit (Holsti, 1969) varied from a single word, through to a phrase or sentence to a larger section of text which would could be described as a ‘thick description’ (Geertz, 1973) although not providing the context, intentions and processing of the respondents that would make it a true ‘thick description’. Again, the reason for this is that the research is not an ethnographic study of leadership but an
investigation into self-development in leadership training courses as part of a professional doctorate.

The different unit sizes that were adopted for the coding process allowed for efficiency as some questions could be answered with single words, for example when identifying aspects of the courses that they found useful. It also allowed the selection of sufficient of the respondent's words to be able to convey the depth and intensity of emotion behind some of the statements (Holsti, 1969). In presenting these as quotations, my aim was to ensure sufficient of the respondents' words were used to facilitate interpretation. This would present sufficient details to enable the reader to draw their own interpretations and understandings from the data presented (Patton, 1990).

The analysis of the responses went through three stages of data reduction:

Stage 1 Analysing the answers to the questions posed

Stage 2 Analysing the transcripts for evidence of the stages of Transformational Learning

Stage 3 Analysing the transcripts for evidence of changes to self.

At the initial stage, responses to the questions were grouped into two categories; NPQH trained leaders and NLP trained leaders. Each interview question was allocated a code and then the transcripts read through with the question code allocated to each answer. Sometimes the respondents jumped from one question to another or added a further comment as something that had been asked later triggered a new thought. This was particularly true when asked about the impact of aspects of each course. When one NPQH trained leader was being asked what had had a significant personal impact on them, she went back to what she had not experienced on the course
which was about the importance of relationships but which she had later recognized for herself:

I’m racking my brains I really am in terms of recalling specifics but it was when we were talking and in discussions that was when it came out, the importance of relationships...

Anita (NPQH)

(The names have been changed to preserve anonymity.)

Further close reading and subsequent coding of the data within each question followed (Bolton and Hammersley, 2006). This process of coding, categorizing and conceptualization (Lichtman, 2006) was ‘emergent coding’ with the categories being established after the initial reading of the transcripts (Stermler, 2001). Responses to each question were then grouped together to allow themes across the two main groups of NPQH and NLP trained leaders to emerge.

It was expected that some themes might emerge which contained narrative or biographical incidents reported in the data. These would also need to be coded and emergent themes could be analysed in the light of biographical research (Erben, 1998) or narrative theory, (Traher, 2006) but this was not needed because only one interviewee provided an anecdote to clarify an answer to a question.

Whenever I undertook an analysis using codes, I searched each transcript for evidence of one code at a time as this helped with ‘immersion’ (Brenner et al, 1995). I also went through the process of ‘stepping back’ from the data (Robson, 2002) by returning to read through the transcripts again, after a period of time had elapsed to check my initial coding. I acknowledge that this process may be challenged as the researcher can become attached to the first findings (Miles and Huberman, 1998). This was one of the reasons
why I made detailed colour coded transcripts and charts of occurrences of the codes with references to line counts in each transcript rather than use a computer assisted program. It meant that I was continually returning to the data and could keep asking the question, “Does this really fit here?” Adjustments could then be made accordingly and any counter examples identified.

After the initial scrutiny of the interview transcripts in response to the interview questions, they were scrutinised again using the lens of Transformational Learning (Mezirow, 1990).

4.8 Transformational Learning as a theoretical framework

As explained in chapter 3, the theoretical framework which was used as a process model to understand the data collected was Mezirow’s theory of Transformational Learning (1978). This was because there appears to be a link between the early stages of Transformational Learning and the self-awareness and self-management required for the development of emotional intelligence. The interview transcripts were therefore scrutinized for evidence that suggested that Transformational Learning had taken place.

The interview questions were designed to draw out examples of any changes in the self in both behaviours and perspective (Mezirow, 1990) both as an individual and as a leader. The two questions which I used when trying to understand the experiences of both samples of leaders were as follows:

- What evidence is there of Transformational Learning having taken place?
- If there is no evidence of ‘Transformational Learning’, is there any evidence of self-reflection?
In order to identify whether Transformational Learning had taken place, the transcripts were analysed using content analysis but based on the stages of Transformational Learning as described by Mezirow (1981). The analysis required the text of the transcripts to be allocated to a code which corresponded to a stage of Transformational Learning (Mezirow, 1981). The stages of Transformational Learning are described below:

1. A challenging dilemma or experience
2. Self-examination
3. A critical assessment of personally held assumptions and a sense of alienation from traditional social experiences
4. Relating one’s discontent to similar experiences of others or to public issues – recognizing that one’s problem is shared and not exclusively a private matter
5. Exploring options for new ways of behaving
6. Developing competence and self-confidence in new roles or behaviours
7. Planning a different action
8. Acquiring knowledge and skills for implementing these changes
9. Initial efforts to try new roles and to assess feedback
10. A reintegration of this changed perspective within the individual.

Although there were a number of different coding systems that could have been adopted to allocate text to a stage of Transformational Learning (Redmond, 2006; Glaze, 2001; Liimatainen, et al, 2001; Richardson and Maltby, 1995; Powell, 1989), I adopted the coding from Liimatainen et al (2001) and acknowledge their research in this matter. This descriptive study is based on the work of Argyris and Schon (1974, 1978) and Schon (1983) and includes a combination of methods. Their approach to examining reflective practice was to use:

… a qualitative, open ended form of inquiry to uncover and describe the complex, abstract processes of reflection used in professional practice…

(Richardson and Maltby, 1995: 236)
The reason I adopted this approach was that it appeared to provide enough different codes to classify the data into mutually exclusive groups.

Also, Liimatainen, et al (2001) used a code which described the identification of the need for further learning and this would be useful when identifying the effect of the two training courses.

As a result of this consideration, the following codes were adopted which describe an ascending sequence of self-critical responsiveness and reflection:

**Thoughtful action without reflection**
Level 0. Non reflective thoughtful action
Experience is described in an impersonal way without analysing or evaluating the experience. This is a descriptive account of events.

**Consciousness - ‘how’ questions concerning process and content**
Level 1. Reflectivity: awareness, observation, description
The learner becomes aware of a specific perception, meaning or behaviour of her own and she is able to verbalize her new experiences and perceptions.

Level 2. Affective reflectivity: awareness of feelings
The learner is aware of the way she feels about her perceiving, thinking or acting in the situation.

Level 3. Discriminant reflectivity: assessment of the current situation with a judgement as to its usefulness or appropriateness.

Level 4. Judgemental reflectivity: being aware of value judgements and the subjective nature of these
The learner becomes aware of value judgements made by her and colleagues as well as the inconsistency this can bring to practice and actions.

**Critical consciousness (involving critical reflection)-‘why’ questions**
Looking for reasons and consequences of perceiving, thinking or action

Level 5. Conceptual reflectivity assessment of whether further learning is required to assist in decision making.

Level 6. Psychic reflectivity
The student recognizes the habit of making precipitant judgements about people based on limited information about them.
Level 7. Theoretical reflectivity: at this stage, the student now has the awareness that their perceptions may not always be helpful and allows changes in perspective to occur. (Liimatainen, et al, 2001; 654)

Each transcript was read through for each code and where it was found, that part of the transcript was highlighted in a colour specifically attributed to that code (Glaze, 2001). This also ensured that text could not be used twice and each code was mutually exclusive (Robson, 2002).

In the second stage of data analysis to identify Transformational Learning, I read through all of the transcripts again but this time identifying ‘premise reflection’ which will involve the beliefs and values about the problem or issue, ‘content reflection’ which concerns the actual experience and ‘process reflection’ which is concerned with thinking about how to handle the experience (Mezirow, 1991). These were coded separately with Code 1 assigned to ‘premise reflection’, Code 2 assigned to ‘content reflection’ and Code 3 assigned to ‘process reflection’ but the scores were then aggregated. This was because I had ascertained that there were differences between individuals which will be discussed in chapter 6. In the final part of the data analysis, I read through all of the interviews again and identified references to specific actions that had been taken and references to an emotional response either through the description of a feeling or a reaction to an event or occurrence.

There were considerable issues with this process of coding of the responses and these focussed on the following three areas of challenge:

1. To decide how much to include as a reference in order for it to be counted
2. Whether to count a complete ‘process’ story or anecdote as one example or more
3. Whether to balance a process driven anecdote with evidence of an emotional reaction as one of each.

The resolution was to include and count any references that could stand alone and be understood in their own right as an action or emotional reaction. So where there was an anecdote, it was counted in its entirety as it reflected either an action or an emotional reaction. Finally, only where there was very specific evidence of an emotional reaction was this counted. For example, the following was counted as an example because of the tonal marking of the words.

   But it was nothing compared with just setting foot and being here on your first day and thinking ‘Right now what do I do?’

Anita (NPQH)

The stress on the word ‘nothing’ and the phrase ‘Right now what do I do?’ indicates an emotional response to her first day as a newly appointed head teacher. However, in the following example, there was no indication of emotion in the language used. It is reported as a ‘matter of fact’ issue;

   …when you are in a school in challenging circumstances it’s the fact that the governors are always on your back…

Clare (NPQH)

This is in contrast to the same interviewee who used an emotive word ‘shoved’ to describe their earliest experience as a head:

   …if I hadn’t been shoved in at the deep end.

Clare (NPQH)

A count was not included unless it could be identified though tonal changes of the language used or evidenced by the content and so demonstrating the link between cognition and affect (Barsade and Gibson, 2007; Russell, 2003; Russell and Barrett, 1999). However, I do acknowledge that language is always subject to interpretation.
The issues associated with coding reflect the challenge of qualitative content analysis in which the creation and adoption of a coding scheme is reliant upon the human process with all its ‘deficiencies’ (Robson, 2002). Of the twelve ‘deficiencies’ he describes, the biggest concerns for me as a sole researcher were what he describes as ‘first impressions’ and ‘confidence in judgements’. He suggests that early analysis tends to be left unrevised because it makes a powerful impression at the early stage of data analysis (first impressions). Then once a judgement has been made, it is frequently adhered to (confidence in judgement). To counter this effect, after analysing the data once, the process was repeated six months later using unmarked transcripts in a different font. Discrepancies were noted and explored. Of greater concern throughout the research process and particularly when undertaking content analysis, however, was researcher bias which will be explored in greater depth in section 4.10.

4.9 Sampling

The selection of the individuals was based upon non-probability sampling described as ‘purposive sampling’ (Robson, 2002; Cohen et al, 2007). This would provide cases for study in depth (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The individuals were selected because they had particular characteristics; they were leaders in education who have either taken NPQH or an NLP practitioner course in the past three years. I was disappointed that I could only find 5 leaders within education who had taken an NLP practitioner course and who were willing and available to undertake an interview, despite using different media, including social media to request possible interviewees. Had I extended the study to leaders in health, I would have had
easier access as there is growing interest in NLP amongst health care professionals (www.networks.nhs.uk, 2012). However, I intended to ensure that the interviews were sufficiently in depth to provide data for my investigation. This sampling could be described as ‘intensity’ sampling in which information rich cases are selected but is closer to ‘homogenous sampling’ in which two small subgroups which exhibit certain key characteristics are selected for study in depth (Patton, 1990). The characteristics were that each individual was a senior leader in education and had either undertaken the NPQH or an NLP practitioner course.

I acknowledge that this sampling may not represent the wider population (Cohen et al, 2007) and may not contribute to the generalisability of the research (Robson, 2002). Although the possible numbers of respondents who have taken NPQH is very large, the possible numbers of respondents involved in NLP as education leaders is small so it was not possible to utilise any sample other than purposive sampling in which the focus is upon a limited population (Hessler, 1992). As the ten interviewees were all invited to participate and agreed, there are issues that are associated with volunteer sampling in which there may be personal motives for agreeing to participate (Cohen et al, 2007). The respondents were also known to me as individuals either professionally through the local head teacher association or through the NLP training group and this also confirms the need for caution about claims for generalisability (Cohen et al, 2007).
4.10 The challenge of validity in small scale research projects

In this section, I will consider the challenge of validity within small scale research projects and describe the approach that I have taken. This will include a consideration of triangulation and generalisability.

Validity is an essential prerequisite for research whether it is quantitative or qualitative (Cohen et al, 2007). The Chambers dictionary (2006) traces the word from the Latin ‘validus’ meaning robust or strong. Validity is concerned with the accuracy between the claims of the research and what really has taken place (Robson, 2002). Within the Positivist framework, validity can be either internal or external (Creswell, 2009) and will be linked with generalisability, replicability and controllability (Cohen et al, 2007). Within qualitative data collection, the application of the same terminology has been challenged and replaced by ‘authenticity’ (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) and ‘understanding’ (Maxwell, 1992).

Some proponents of qualitative research have adopted the terms ‘credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability’ (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The debate is described in detail in Cohen et al (2007) but I feel drawn to the idea from Hammersley (1992) that validity about the certainty of our results is replaced by confidence. This confidence, I believe can be achieved by rigorous and accurate application of an appropriate methodology and when the researcher retains detachment from the process of the research. Furthermore, when claims regarding generalisability are made, they are within the limits of small scale research projects within a Postmodern world which recognizes the plurality and subjectivity of views (Grogan and Simmons, 2004). It is this approach that I have followed whilst
acknowledging the threats to validity that come from description, interpretation and theory (Maxwell, 1992).

4.10.1 Threats to validity from description, interpretation and theory (Maxwell, 1992)

The issue regarding ‘description’ concerns the accuracy and completeness of the data. As the interviews were all recorded and transcribed with attention to pauses, tonality, stumbling and changes of direction, I believe that the data as transcribed is accurate. In addition, notes were taken at the time to convey changes in body language and notes were made if anything occurred after the recorder was switched off. I also ensured that I went through each interview transcript on different occasions to check the accuracy of what was said against the actual transcripts that were made.

Interpretation of the data can be subject to a threat to validity if meaning is imposed before and during rather than after the data has been collected and analysed (Robson, 2002). For Maxwell (1992) this includes the inferences that are drawn from the data which, along with the descriptive account, are subject to the researcher’s own constructs but which must also respect the perspective of the interviewees. He describes the need for a shared understanding of terms used. As I share both the NLP leaders’ and the head teachers’ understanding of terminology from being part of both communities, I do not see this as a problem. More challenging is the need for vigilance that I may always be in danger of imposing my interpretations on the data that is collected.

Theoretical validity comes from the validity of the account to provide an explanation of what has been observed and interpreted. From this, comes
the application of a theory to what has been observed and whether there can be any agreement on the appropriateness and accuracy of this application. In terms of the use of Transformational Theory (Mezirow, 1990), there were case studies that could be used as a comparator (Liimatainen et al 2001). In addition, the explanations that I describe in chapter 6 were also subject to challenges from a range of theories which will also be explored in chapter 7. In this way, there were a number of challenges to the data collected that contributed to a robust approach.

4.10.2 A consideration of internal and external validity

Although based within a Positivist research framework, (Maxwell, 1992), external and internal validity still have relevance to qualitative research (Cohen et al, 2007). Analysis of the data that will be collected will require coding of responses, particularly linguistic responses. Internal validity will be evident if the coding reveals similar patterns of responses across all sets of data (Opie,2004) and is re-checked for consistency (Gibbs,2007). Although I am very aware that my own preconceptions could come into play in the act of coding the data, continual awareness of research bias and references to these as the research is written will support validity (Creswell, 2009). Furthermore, considerations of plausibility and credibility, the consistency, quality and quantity of data collected as well as the claims made will all need to be considered (Hammersley, 1992). External validity is not applicable as the data will not be generalised out to the wider population for, as Creswell argues:

...particularity rather than generalisability is the hallmark of qualitative research (Creswell; 2009; 193)
4.10.3 Generalisability, transferability and reliability

A frequent challenge to the generalisability of the findings from qualitative research is that the findings are not representative. Unlike quantitative research, in which the sample can be representative of the normal population and statistical inference can used to generalise to a wider population (Creswell, 2009), qualitative research will focus upon a more specific setting. Having accepted that the results of a qualitative study may not be generalised out to the wider population but give a picture of “what is, what may be and what could be” (Schofield, 1990; 183), the question of reliability still remains. Lichtman (2006) is critical of the replacement of the traditional concepts of validity, reliability and objectivity (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) by credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Trochim, 2004). Whatever terms are used, the challenge will remain for the researcher, particularly the small scale researcher to ensure that their research can provide evidence of generalisability, transferability and reliability.

Triangulation is a method of establishing validity through the use of two or more different types of data for purposes of comparison (Cohen et al, 2007). There are opportunities within the qualitative paradigm to adopt triangulation in order to support validity as a form of ‘cross checking’ (Bush, 2004). This would involve methodological triangulation in which several methods explore the same issue and respondent triangulation which consists of asking the same questions to different participants. In this study, I expected that the use of in depth interviews would yield sufficient data to identify satisfactory responses so did not use different data sets. Theory triangulation is criticized by Lincoln and Guba (1985) as “epistemologically
unsound and empirically empty,” (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:307) since they claim that if the research findings are consistent within two or more theories this suggests a similarity within the theories. I have utilised Transformational Learning as a theory through which to review the initial findings from the data in order to subject it to a different view point to challenge my personal analysis of the data (Cohen et al, 2007) but have focused upon reliability trustworthiness and credibility.

Cohen et al (2007) enumerate a variety of practices that the qualitative researcher could employ to support reliability, even though reliability that supports replication relates more to quantitative research. Such practices would include the following:

...fidelity to real life, context and situation specificity, authenticity, comprehensiveness, detail, honesty, depth of response and meaningfulness to the respondents. (Cohen et al, 2007; 149)

This is similar to the recommendations to qualitative researchers to be thorough, careful and honest and to be able to demonstrate these characteristics through an audit trail of a full record of activities undertaken, field notes, a research journal and details of any coding analysis and data analysis (Robson, 2005).

The approach that I have taken throughout the research process is one of “openness to having one’s expectations about the phenomena disconfirmed” (Schofield, 1990; 199). This approach includes consistently acknowledging one’s own perspectives and reflecting upon subjectivity and bias, having an open ended stance upon data collection and analysis, collecting and engaging with ‘rich’ data, balancing descriptions of data with interpretation, providing transparent analysis that is grounded in the data and
offering plausible alternative analysis and conclusions (Lichtman, 2006). If these criteria are followed, then I believe this would address the problem of researcher and data trustworthiness and credibility. Qualitative data may then be able to make “appropriate claims” through “cautious detachment” and “restrained sense” (Holliday, 2007; 164).

4.11 Reflexivity for the small scale research practitioner

As previously described in section 4.2, the expectation that the researcher would be able to adopt an objective standpoint was very much part of the Positivist epistemology. The development of interpretivism, constructionism and social constructionism in which meaning is socially constructed acknowledges the impact of the researcher’s own experience on their research process. I also need to acknowledge my own experience as outlined in section 1.6, since addressing the issue of reflexivity is part of the matrix of research (Cohen et al, 2007).

The challenges for me as the researcher were apparent at every stage of the research process. As an experienced head teacher who had run two different schools, I was aware of the impact of the early days of headship on the newly appointed leader. Also having moved from a successful school where I had been head teacher for nine years and had strong relationships with the pupils, parents, governors and the local community, I knew the challenge of having to create those relationships again from the beginning and the power that positive, trusting relationships have, particularly when changes have to be introduced. I was also an experienced NLP practitioner and recognised how I used NLP in order to maintain a positive state, understand others, use language appropriately and be both aware of and
accept the plurality of viewpoints. This could have created expectations when reading the data which could lead me to interpret the results with a positive view of the NLP research findings and a less than positive view of the NPQH findings.

In addition, specifically seeking out counter examples within the data would contribute to balancing the data and resembles negative case analysis (Robson, 2002). Self-awareness, which here describes the ability of the researcher to be aware of how their background has affected the research process (Cohen et al, 2007) is a component part of NLP and so should be accessible for an experienced practitioner such as myself. In order to try to adopt this approach, I followed Robson’s list of recommendations to identify areas of bias (2002), paying particular attention to his suggestion to ‘stand back’ and in my case, to answer the question, “What else could this mean, imply or suggest?” Furthermore, although I was not using thick descriptions (Geertz, 1973) with details of context and emotions, I did plan to use sufficient of the respondents’ words so that others reading the results can understand and draw their own interpretations.

4.12 The ethics of research

I planned to follow the guidelines as set out in The University’s Research Ethics Handbook of Principles and Procedures (University of Gloucestershire, 2011). I was not involved in research which involved:

…biomedical or clinical intervention, deceptive research where the investigator actively sets out to misrepresent themselves, certain classes of covert research, research where participants are under 18, research into sensitive topics or research involving vulnerable groups…
(University of Gloucestershire, 2011),
My proposal, therefore, was not sent for special consideration to the Research Ethics subcommittee.

I did ensure that I followed the guidelines as set out in the handbook and that my interviewees were volunteers and signed the consent form for the use of the data that was collected, including the use of non-attributable quotations. A sample of a consent form can be found in section 10.0 of the Appendix.

I was very aware that I must pay attention to the “research participants (including themselves): to ensure as far as possible that their physical, social and psychological well-being is not detrimentally affected” (University of Gloucestershire, 2011) as any questioning of an individual which raises issues about personal development may elicit a negative response. However with my NLP training and my on-going attendance at practitioner training as an assistant from 2004-2012, which involved sometimes dealing with delegates in an emotional state, I was confident that if any issues did arise, I would have the capabilities to help the individuals back to a positive, resourceful state. This would of course include the resources to support my own wellbeing throughout the course of the research process.

4.13 Conclusion

The interpretative nature of the research questions in which individuals were asked about their experience of training courses led to the selection of a qualitative paradigm. A criticism of qualitative data is the effect of the researcher on the data in the selection of the questions that are to be asked and the selection of the data to be used. This however, can be
considered an element of all data collection and selection (Bogdan and Taylor, 1975). In the context of this study, which involves the subjective responses of leaders to their training experiences, a qualitative methodology, with all of the issues of reliability, validity and generalisability was still considered more appropriate because:

...we can explore a wide array of dimensions of the social world, including the texture and weave of everyday life the understandings, experiences and imaginings of our research participants, the ways that social processes, institutions discourses and relationships work and the significance of meanings that they generate...by using methodologies that celebrate richness, depth, nuance, context multidimensionality and complexity.
(Mason, 2002; 1)

Amongst the tools available, semi structured interview questions in which the responses would be analysed using content analysis was expected to provide sufficient evidence. Transformational learning theory was also used as a lens through which to view the data and to support identification of personal development. It was expected that the qualitative data collected and analysed in this way would indeed provide such a rich tapestry of experiences, perceptions and interpretations of leadership within education today.
Chapter 5

5.0 The data from the interviews

The original research questions, developed between 2008 and 2010 as explained in detail in section 1.5 were based upon two ideas; that personal or self-development is an important part of leadership development and that leadership training programmes can support the personal development of an individual. The critical analysis of literature had attempted to identify if the NPQH (National Professional Qualification for Headship) and NLP (Neuro Linguistic Programming) training programmes supported personal development, if there were any links between current leadership programmes and leadership development through personal development and identify the most recent theories of leadership in education and the link between leadership development and personal development.

One further task remained in order to be able to suggest answers to the research questions. The task was to undertake in depth interviews of NPQH and NLP trained leaders in education. Through the questions asked, I would attempt to identify differences and similarities in their experience of training and any links between their training and their development of emotional intelligence or inter and intra personal intelligences through Transformational Learning.

In this chapter, I will describe issues with the data collection process before describing the findings from the data that I collected. As described in section 4.7, I used content analysis to organise the data. The use of descriptive statistics allowed the frequency of topics, themes or even key words to be counted. This had already been used as a data handling process
in three studies on Transformational Learning (Glaze, 2001; Liimatainen, et al, 2001; Richardson and Maltby, 1995) and in health care research (Sandelowski, 2001; Downe-Wamboldt, 1992). It was not intended to be a statistical approach to the collection of the qualitative data but to use the ‘counts’ to help identify patterns, clusters of responses, links between responses and relating responses to a theoretical framework (Robson, 2002).

The interviews were recorded with hand written notes which I made as the interview took place and immediately afterwards e.g. one comment was made after the recorder was turned off as described below:

Then when the reordering device was turned off, the following conversation took place:

Of course I've really had to work on myself a lot…really go to the bottom of what makes me tick and find out about yourself as an individual. It's not been an easy time I have had to really build up my own self-knowledge and deal with it.

Bronwen (NPQH)

When transcribing the interviews, I listened to the content first and transcribed the words. The interview was then listened to again and attention was paid to non-verbal elements such as pauses, silences, overlaps, laughter, tone and volume (Cohen et al, 2007). I included pauses by using ellipses, strong tonality by using bold text, comments on the style of voice by using italics and my own interjections I set in brackets. I did not use conventional notation for conversation analysis (Drew and Heritage, 1993) as I preferred to put more information into the transcript to convey the immediacy for me but not so that the meaning was obscured by the complexity of the procedure (Flick, 2002). The importance of this was made very obvious in the first interview I conducted when the emotion of a statement needed to be conveyed very clearly as it was a significant
comment on the contrast between training and the experience of the first day of being a head teacher in their own school:

But it was nothing compared with just setting foot and being here on your first day and thinking “Right now what do I do?” (Interviewer and interviewee both laugh)

Anita (NPQH)

Having transcribed all of the interviews manually, I began the first analysis by comparing the answers given to each of the questions. The resulting analysis took account of the interplay of words and the non-verbal information that had been captured from the interview process (Fitzgerald, 2007). This was particularly important where emphasis was evident and contributed to the meaning (Keats, 2000). An example of an interview transcript can be found in Appendix 6.

As explained in section 4.7, there were three stages of data reduction:

- Stage 1 Analyse the answers to the questions posed.
- Stage 2 Analysing the transcripts for evidence of the stages of Transformational Learning which in turn lead to a further sub stage to identify premise, content and process reflection.
- Stage 3 Analysing the transcripts for evidence of references to self, with particular reference to any actions that were taken which were as a result of self-reflection.

At Stage 2, although premise reflection is specifically linked to the change of perception of Transformational Learning, I was also interested in examples of content reflection, concerning the actual experience itself and process reflection, concerning thinking about how to handle the experience. This is because I was curious to discover if the number of examples of content and process reflection in the interviews was reflected in the findings of the initial
analysis of the interviews in which the NPQH trained leaders had revealed more factual information about their experiences than the NLP trained leaders.

The research questions as described in section 1.5 were designed to provide information on the aspects of NLP and the NPQH programme which may be used to support leaders in their personal development. The actual interview questions asked were as follows:

1. Describe for me your experience of NPQH/NLP
2. What skills do you think you have developed as a leader as a result of this experience?
3. At a personal level, what impact do you think this course has had upon you?
4. What do you understand by the term 'personal development'?
5. What do you think has been the impact of this course upon your personal development, if any?
6. If you could change anything about this course, what would it be?
7. Is there anything else you would like to add about your experiences to date?

The use of the word ‘impact’ in these questions is an example of how the questions were written using a common language which I shared with the school leaders (Weber, 1921/1990). The concept of ‘impact’ here is shared with the OFSTED frameworks (OFSTED, 2005; OFSTED, 2007; OFSTED, 2012). As from 2005, all schools were expected to have completed a school self-evaluation form which described actions that the school had taken in order to raise standards and the impact that this had had upon those standards. Schools were also recommended to have an ‘action and impact’ committee (OFSTED, 2005) as part of school governance. The most recent framework also requires school governors to be very aware of the decisions that they take and their impact on school standards (OFSTED, 2012). Therefore the concept of ‘impact’ as being an action or an experience and
the effect it had was understood by the interviewees and as such was part of this shared experience (Weber, 1921/1990).

Although this would appear to be a very structured set of questions, they were in fact used as a semi-structured interview (Marshall and Rossman, 1999; Patton, 1990). In this way, it was possible to ask follow up questions in greater depth in both sets of interviews where required. For example, in three interviews with the NPQH trained leaders, it was obvious that they were not aware of the concept of ‘personal development’. In the example below, it is interpreted as the effect on their ‘personal life’:

I did it before I had my family so it didn’t have as much impact although it probably did have on my husband but the state that my personal life was then I didn’t have any other commitments.
Anita (NPQH)

As a result, I was then able to pursue a slightly different line of questioning to try to elicit an answer. The later response from the same respondent showed that there were issues that they could recall concerning their personal development:

**Experience!** *(strong tone and then a long pause and a quieter voice)*… It’s actually going through quite **difficult times** *(enhanced and higher pitch)* **really**… staffing issues, coming out of serious weaknesses at that time...
Anita (NPQH)

I acknowledge that this may mean that different data could have been collected and that this is an issue with semi-structured interviews (Robson, 2002; Patton, 1990) but it did enable me during the interview process to collect data relevant to the research questions through this style of partly standardised interviews (Flick, 2002; Patton, 1990). When conducting the early interviews, I also recognised in myself three areas of concern; a fear of not keeping to the interview schedule, a fear of taking too long (Hopf, 1978 in
Flick, 2002) and a dilemma as to whether to keep exactly to the questions or to allow myself some flexibility as the example from my field notes below describes:

I need to stick to my questions to ensure that I have got the data that I need but I feel as if I am imposing my beliefs on them. Does this really need to be about personal development? How important is that? Is it just another leadership gimmick? What really has made a head a ‘good head’ if it is not experience and doing it already? What data can I get that will be of use? (Personal Research journal; 8/5/2010)

As it transpired, all interviews were conducted in a very similar way, in which questions following the exact structure were interspersed with questions that followed the structure more loosely. There were occasions when the wording of some questions was slightly altered with the addition of prompts and probes where needed (Robson, 2002). For example, when interviewing Esther (NPQH), the question “What do you understand by the term ‘personal development’?” was not understood. I then modified question 6 “What do you think has been the impact of this course upon your personal development, if any?” to “What impact has this had upon you personally?”

My decision eventually was to use the questions as a guideline and allow flexibility to adjust should this have been necessary during the course of the interviews and so I relied on my own sensitivity to the process of the interview and the interaction between myself and the respondent (Flick, 2003; Robson 2002).

5.1 The findings from the NPQH interviews

The NPQH interviews were undertaken in the summer of 2010 with a group of serving head teachers who were all on their first headship having completed NPQH within the previous three years. Their ages ranged from
late thirties to early fifties and the group consisted of four women and one man. Their experience of education and teaching was very different, however and ranged from David who had risen to the post after only eight years of teaching to Clare whose choice of teaching was her second career. I have included some biographical details of each leader but as this is not an ethnographic study, I have restricted this to age, role, experience, gender and any other salient factors that may have had an influence e.g. second career. The names given to the interviewees have been changed to preserve anonymity.

Table 4 Biographical details of interviewees; NPQH

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTERVIEW</th>
<th>ROLE</th>
<th>YEARS IN POST</th>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>ANYTHING ELSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anita 1</td>
<td>Small school teaching head</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Mid thirties</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Experience of subject leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bronwen 2</td>
<td>Large school non-teaching head</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Late forties</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Reluctant to become a head</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clare 3</td>
<td>Large school non-teaching head</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Early fifties</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Successful first career involving leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>David 4</td>
<td>Large school non-teaching head</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Early thirties</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Chose to teach after trying other careers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esther 5</td>
<td>Small school teaching head</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Mid forties</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Extensive experience as a deputy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Having transcribed all of the interviews manually, I began the first analysis by comparing the answers given to each of the questions. This was not as simple as it appeared as the respondents frequently moved from one question to another and back, adding extra comments and occasionally asking to hear the question again, particularly when additional items were
remembered during the course of the interviews. In the example below, the respondent completely forgets which question is being answered:

…that doesn’t mean that I’m not aware of other people’s feelings and…actually I need to…to temper that by...what to do that by... I’m on a complete tangent here...what was the question again?

David (NPQH)

Considering the transcript as a whole, however, allowed me to pull together phrases and sentences scattered throughout the narrative to create key words and themes that were identifiable across the samples. As I allowed the interviewees to respond and expand on their answers as they felt best, some of the actual transcripts became rambling at times but the evidence collected from the first analysis of the interviews was that five distinct themes emerged from their experience of NPQH:

1. Each took something different from the course.

2. They recognized the importance of the school based project in giving them a structure for future project management.

3. Everyone recognized the power of relationships within the process of headship although this was not made specific in the course.

4. Although there was an implicit understanding of personal development on the part of one of the respondents, this was not understood by the others.

5. All were involved in some form of self-reflection, though not necessarily as a result of the course.

I will now provide further data on each of the above themes.

5.1.1 References to individual experiences

The respondents each identified different aspects of the course that had had the most impact on them. The data from this can be found in Table 5:
Table 5 Individual learnings from NPQH

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>TOPICS MENTIONED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| ANITA | Practical information  
Engaging with other candidates  
Reflection  
360 degree feedback  
School based task |
| BRONWEN | Strategic overview of role  
Confidence in interviews/ I can do the job |
| CLARE | Confidence in interviews/ I can do the job |
| DAVID | Engaging with other candidates  
Reflection  
School based task |
| ESTHER | Engaging with other candidates  
School based task  
Experiencing different scenarios |

As can be seen from the above table, the responses are not consistent. Only Anita, who had not been a deputy head, identified the value of practical information and the 360 degree feedback on her leadership style. Of the topics identified by more than one interviewee, the opportunity to interact with others and the importance of the school based task were rated by three out of the five interviewees.

5.1.2 The importance of the school based project for NPQH trainees

Consistent across three NPQH respondents (Anita, David and Esther) was the recognition of the usefulness of the tasks that had to be undertaken and their value. The school based project, in particular, was credited as providing a blueprint for future school development projects:
But if nothing else that has sort of enabled me to sort of refine my school development planning here and make it personal so that everyone has an input in the subject’s review and that sort of thing fine-tuned it in that respect…

Anita (NPQH)

The task of putting together files with competency based evidence was referred to positively but not necessarily for providing the knowledge required as a new head teacher:

I never came away thinking now I know how to do the job or now I know more about it, really

Bronwen (NPQH)

Putting the files together was described as helping them to recognise their ability to handle a variety of tasks at the same time and to receive rigorous feedback from an external source:

... it was useful to be able to spin lots of plates at the same time and make sure everything was covered. I think I found it was a very worthwhile activity putting that file together and actually having the assessor come in and tell and I think that rigorous feedback brought home a lot of my expectations...

David (NPQH)

Although there was criticism of the paperwork that was required, they acknowledged the relevance of the paperwork:

For me in terms of the main things I can remember…there was still a lot of paperwork (yes) needing to be able to provide the evidence of what you were doing but at least that felt it was more making it more purposeful in… in terms of the tasks that I was undertaking.

Anita (NPQH)

5.1.3 Relationships and the role of the leader

In sections 2.3.2 and 2.3.3, the importance of relationships within leadership was identified, particularly within distributed leadership (NCSL, 2003b). But this was recognized by only one of the respondents, David
(NPQH), who describes the need for a team that can hold the school together like ‘glue’:

… and some people need to be the glue that holds all of this together. In a small school the head can almost do that but the bigger the school gets, the more you need more people to be that glue…

David (NPQH)

That NPQH highlights the significance of relationships through the learning sets is evident by positive comments from the same respondent. But the importance of establishing and sustaining relationships throughout the school community was not recognised. The importance of developing these relationships was mentioned by one respondent who gained this information from the outgoing head teacher:

…it goes back to my predecessor…and she drew me a grid and it had very important tasks and important tasks and urgent and not so urgent and that was just really thoughtful about the really important things like getting to know the children and especially the staff.

Anita (NPQH)

A further respondent recognized the importance of knowing who to contact when in need of information (Clare; NPQH). Consistent across the sample was recognition of the value of networks once in post, in particular in small schools where they shared expertise. Yet the importance of relationships was not considered to be a major part of the course:

I think … I mean I’m racking my brains I really am in terms of recalling specifics but it was when we were talking and in discussions that was when it came out, the importance of relationships...

Anita (NPQH)

5.1.4 The concept of personal development

When asked the question about personal development, the respondents did not reply as expected. Through their answers to the questions, the NPQH trained leaders appeared not to recognise the concept
of personal development as described in section 2.3.4. This issue involves the challenge of finding a common language that can be used between interviewer and the interviewees and will be dealt with in section 6.3.2.

Consistent across the sample, however, was the effect that the early months of headship had upon them in shaping their behaviours and beliefs about themselves and their role. As Bronwen explains, being in post and doing the job was challenging:

…actually doing the job (yes) which is scary enough but by then it’s a bit late to do anything about it …

Bronwen (NPQH)

Two respondents recognised the changes to their perception of themselves which took place over the early years in headship (David and Bronwen) and Bronwen’s comment which was made after the recording machine had been switched off shows the level of her self-reflection:

Of course I’ve really had to work on myself a lot…really go to the bottom of what makes me tick and find out about yourself as an individual. It’s not been an easy time. I have had to really build up my own self-knowledge and deal with it.

Bronwen (NPQH)

Although, therefore, they did not respond to the question about personal development, they did acknowledge that they had changed as a result of their early experiences of headship. This also supports the idea that they had all undergone some self-reflection.

5.1.5 The evidence for self-reflection

As described in section 2.2 on the structure and content of the NPQH course, part of the training involved the use of action learning sets and coaching to promote reflection and personal development (NPQH, 2010).
Although the course is not referred to specifically for supporting their self-reflection, except for one transcript (David, NPQH), the evidence for self-reflection is consistent across the sample.

For one respondent, self-reflection was brought about by the awareness of the pressure they were under to be both head teacher and an exemplar of good class teaching:

You’re two different people… I mean I’m the head in the morning and then I’m the class teacher in the afternoon and you’re sure you’re not doing both jobs really, really well because the expectation in the morning is that you’re standing in front of the children delivering well planned lessons …

Esther (NPQH)

Bronwen and David’s transcripts clearly demonstrated evidence of self-reflection even though one acknowledgement was made after the audio recorder had been turned off (Bronwen, NPQH). David acknowledged that he was already a highly self-reflective person and the course gave him even more opportunities to behave in that way and Anita (NPQH) recognised the opportunity to reflect on her leadership style which was triggered by the findings from the feedback she received from colleagues.

Evidence that the respondents recognised that they had changed in some ways can also be found. Anita (NPQH) recognised from the feedback she received during the course that there were things that could be done differently and so made changes to school improvement planning. Bronwen recognised “I’ve had to do a lot of work on myself” and Clare acknowledged that “I don’t actually have to toe the party line.”

Whether these changes were the result of the course or the early years of their headship will be discussed in the following chapter. But David succinctly sums up what has had a major impact on him:
Mistakes are what have had an impact upon me…Events…that has been a very strong part of my learning journey…

David (NPQH)

Negative experiences in the early day of headship are also acknowledged as having had an influence on the way they developed as a head teacher:

… it’s all those challenges that they suddenly throw at you…you know our pump was always going wrong well touch wood it’s actually now working because I’ve gone away from the usual people who did it and got someone in who knows what they are doing and knowing that I don’t have to do exactly what it says and then after all that being left to get on with it…

Clare (NPQH)

One respondent also remembered negative experiences as a deputy and as a teacher. That individual did not want to behave in the same way once they were heads themselves and this influenced how they behaved in their first headship:

I know with the heads that I’ve worked with up until then they did everything themselves so you didn’t get any experience really. You were told about the decisions at SLT that had already been made so you weren’t part of the decision making so I’ve always tried to make sure that people are involved.

Clare (NPQH)

5.2 The evidence for Transformational Learning

In chapter 3 I described how I planned to use the theory of Transformational Learning through critical self-reflection (Mezirow, 1990) both as a lens to help with the interpretation of the data that was collected and as a conceptual framework through which the actions or events might be explained (Dey, 1993). Transformational Learning (Mezirow, 1978) describes how adults are caught in fixed ways of thinking which reflect their established values and belief systems but through ‘perspective transformation’ can change the way an individual sees themselves and their relationships and
can lead to changes in their relationships with others which can then lead to a change in behaviour.

In this phase of data analysis, I considered the evidence for Transformational Learning in the interview transcripts as described in section 4.8. I used the following two questions when trying to understand the training experiences of both cohorts of learners:

1. What evidence is there that this learning experience involved critical self-reflection which resulted in a change of perspective and possibly a subsequent change in behaviour? (This is in contrast to self-reflection which primarily described a change of behaviour or thought).

2. What evidence is there of Transformational Learning having taken place?

In order to do this, each transcript was read through for identification of evidence for each code assigned to the levels or stages of Transformational Learning. A simplified heading was assigned to each level as follows:

Level 0 Code 0 Action
Level 1 Code 1 Reflection on actions
Level 2 Code 2 Awareness of feelings
Level 3 Code 3 Usefulness of judgements
Level 4 Code 4 Subjectivity of judgements
Level 5 Code 5 Learning required
Level 6 Code 6 Hastiness of judgements
Level 7 Code 7 Perspective change

(From Liimatainen, et al, 2001; 654)

Every transcript was then read for evidence of code 0, then code 1, code 2 and continued until each code had been completed. This was to try to develop greater consistency as I was only concerned with one type of code at a time. This process also enabled me to get a sense of the whole interview
and helped me to obtain a sound understanding of each code as it was covered (Creswell, 2009). The results were tabulated. For more information on the process, please also refer to the section on content analysis in section 4.7 of the methodology. For individual responses, please see appendix 16.

Table 6 The evidence for Transformational Learning from NPQH

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CODE</th>
<th>EXAMPLE</th>
<th>PSEUDonym of individual respondent where example can be found</th>
<th>NUMBER OF EXAMPLES FOUND AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 Action</td>
<td>We had lots of face to face meetings.</td>
<td>ESTHER</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Reflection on actions</td>
<td>Anything that was part of the project or the course could be relevant and it was therefore personable and wasn’t just bolted on.</td>
<td>ANITA</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Awareness of feelings</td>
<td>This year there have been some horrible things I hadn’t bargained on how much of that there was...</td>
<td>BRONWEN</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Usefulness of judgements</td>
<td>Now I’m confident enough to say no this decision is right and the buck stops with me so I’m making that decision and you can stamp your feet all you like but this time I believe it’s the right decision so...</td>
<td>CLARE</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Subjectivity of judgements</td>
<td>There was almost a witch hunt going on and I didn’t really want to end up in that position.</td>
<td>CLARE</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Learning required</td>
<td>That you didn’t realise you didn’t know what to do about it...there are just so many new things to learn aren’t there? I am still constantly learning. There’s always a new thing comes up that I’m not sure about.</td>
<td>BRONWEN</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Hastiness of judgements</td>
<td>I’m learning to take my time to respond and not fly in (laughs to self). I’m learning to step back and think about it.</td>
<td>CLARE</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Perspective change</td>
<td>I almost looked down upon the people who laid the screws out on the paper and the more I think about it and the more I track back through my life it’s the way I’ve done things and the more I realised that I’m a person who needs order...</td>
<td>DAVID</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This shows the greater number of references to code 0 or ‘actions’ i.e. factual details of their experiences in contrast to code 7 which indicated ‘perspective change’. There are small differences in individual responses across other levels with very few examples across all transcripts of
identifying code 4 (Judgemental reflectivity: being aware of value judgements and the subjective nature of these) and code 6 (Psychic reflectivity: recognizing the habit of making hasty judgements about others based on limited information about them).

Individual responses highlight the difference between David and the other leaders. David makes only 3 references to actions compared to Anita who makes 12 references, Bronwen who makes 11 references and Clare who makes 11 references. David also admitted his tendency to adopt a highly self-reflective, critical process about whatever happened in school:

....You need to be able to step outside yourself and not make the easy mistake of getting self-righteous about things because as soon as you get into that ‘God, I’m right’ then you’re never going to learn in that situation you’re never going to think ‘How can I ?’... you’re not going to... am I actually listening to these other points of view? Am I actually being open to these …?

David (NPQH)

He also acknowledged his tendency to see the bigger picture:

I don’t think that needing that bigger picture is something I ever really struggled with…

David (NPQH)

His interview contains both detail and reflection and provides an example of behaviour by the staff and the reflection on this behaviour:

I need to talk to so and so.... I haven’t had these results . . . you know...why haven’t I had these? Have they forgotten or do I have to go and chase up on these .... that they understand my expectations and it’s that sense of being able ...to be able to step back and take that bigger picture and itemise what needs doing and what it is that needs checking in order to explain my expectations and be clear about that my expectations are...

David (NPQH)

Despite the evidence for self-reflection on David’s part, the evidence of Transformational Learning and a change in perspective is consistent with the other NPQH interviews.
The overall pattern that can be identified from the data is the greater number of responses that describe events or actions which is code 0 or stage or level 0 in which “Experience is described in an impersonal way without analysing or evaluating the experience.” This is a “descriptive account of events” (Liimatainen, et al, 2001; 654).

5.3.1 Further data reduction to identify Mezirow’s three types of reflection

In the second stage of data analysis related to Transformational Learning, I read through all of the transcripts again but this time identifying the three types of reflection identified by Mezirow (1991). They are premise reflection which will involve the beliefs and values about the problem or issue, content reflection, which concerns the actual experience and process reflection which concerns thinking about how to handle the experience. These were coded separately with code 1 assigned to premise reflection, code 2 assigned to content reflection and code 3 assigned to process reflection but the aggregate scores of the NPQH trained were totalled as were the scores from the NLP trained leaders. As premise reflection involves the change of beliefs and values but does not necessarily include acting on insights (Mezirow, 1990), it does not reflect the number of examples coded 7 which provide evidence of Transformational Learning in the earlier analysis.
Table 7 Evidence and examples of premise, content and process reflection from the NPQH interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CODE</th>
<th>EXAMPLE</th>
<th>PSEUDONYM OF INDIVIDUAL RESPONDENT WHERE EXAMPLE CAN BE FOUND</th>
<th>NUMBER OF EXAMPLES FOUND AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PREMISE REFLECTION CODE 1</td>
<td>I have more patience with things and not wanting to do everything and not expecting the children to achieve because you know when you’ve got your SATs and you think I mean I’ve targeted you for a 5a and it’s not happening and all that sort of anxiety but it’s there you know I’m a bit more sort of pragmatic about it.</td>
<td>ESTHER</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONTENT REFLECTION CODE 2</td>
<td>I never came away thinking now I can do the job.</td>
<td>BRONWEN</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROCESS REFLECTION CODE 3</td>
<td>I thought I was the sort of person who could cope with disorder.</td>
<td>DAVID</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This stage of analysis did not prove easy as the interview questions were not designed to be specific about incidents and how the respondents reacted. The issues and challenges raised by this will be considered in greater depth in chapter 7.

However, from the data that was collected there is some consistency across the three types of reflection. NPQH trained leaders all provided evidence of reflection upon content i.e. reflection upon an experience. For example, an NPQH trained leader describes a school trip and the mistake he made in detail:

… the day before we all made sandwiches- jam sandwiches and spam sandwiches all wrapped them in grease proof paper, nice and authentic and I had taken the box down from the fridge and then realised I had only got one of the boxes but I was absolutely mortified. But it was that sense that by making that mistake it’s that attention to
detail actually that you think if I ever do this again I am going to learn from this mistake…
David (NPQH)

Also all NPQH trained leaders provided a similar level of evidence of reflection upon process i.e. how to handle an experience. For example an NPQH trained leader describes an encounter with an Advisory team:

The Early Years teachers didn’t like the fact that I’d said that I wanted them all to make 4 points progress on the scale and they said ‘oh but that’s not what it’s for…’ .... and they didn’t like that and I said ok and even if I tell you I’m not taking notice of it, here, I will somewhere.
Clare (NPQH)

What also came across was evidence that the NPQH leaders reflected on the beliefs and values that underpin an event or experience but did not necessarily provide evidence as to how or if they had changed their behaviour. For example, Anita describes the importance of getting people on board but then does not describe how this is made to happen:

…and unless you’ve got the relationships with your parents, you’re not going to get them on board to do things like coming into help or just to get their general support and if you don’t know the staff and know their strengths, weaknesses interests so that then you can then implement things like get them involved…
Anita (NPQH)

Similarly, there is a description of how the head teacher feels when taking the whole school to church, the realisation that they can run a school and write a new vision and values but nothing further is described about how they went about the task:

It’s great …taking them to church and filling the church and thinking you know I can do some good here. I can do something. I can run a school …writing a new school vision and values that was a high point.
Bronwen (NPQH)

In hindsight, this would have been an ideal question to follow up with a further question to ask what they now did differently. There would also be a possible source of further research if serving head teachers with between
five and seven years headship could be asked to identify changes to their practices since they started. This will be described in greater detail in chapter 7. However, from the data, the pattern that I identified is that all NPQH trained leaders provided examples of Mezirow’s three types of reflection; premise, content and process.

5.3.2 Further data reduction to identify references to action or an emotional response

In the final part of the data analysis, I read all of the interviews again and identified references to actions that had been taken and references to an emotional response either through description of a feeling or a reaction to an action as described in section 4.8. Again, to give a clear idea of the data, I have identified examples from the interview schedules.

Table 8 Evidence and examples of references to actions and emotive responses from the NPQH interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXAMPLE OF REFERENCES TO ACTIONS</th>
<th>EXAMPLE</th>
<th>PSEUDONYM OF INDIVIDUAL RESPONDENT WHERE EXAMPLE CAN BE FOUND</th>
<th>NUMBER OF EXAMPLES FOUND AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EXAMPLE OF REFERENCES TO ACTIONS</td>
<td>If you were in difficult circumstances and you couldn’t figure a way forward then you knew that there was someone outside...someone else to talk to that was the thing I found most useful.</td>
<td>DAVID</td>
<td>61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXAMPLE OF REFERENCES TO EMOTIVE RESPONSES (which include value judgements)</td>
<td>But I know what’s expected of me and I can actually fight my corner.</td>
<td>CLARE</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data above shows more references to actions than to an emotive response. With the NPQH trained leaders, the references to an action or a
process are demonstrated by the use of process or action words such as “How do you do performance management?” (Bronwen). The aspects of the training that were identified as useful also referred to actions they had taken rather than how they felt. They referred to the school based project (Esther), things that they learnt which included the role of governance and finance (Anita), the importance of the people they met (David) and the opportunity to reflect and have experience of an overview of the role (Bronwen). Where there are references to emotive responses, these are sometimes a result of actually being in the post of head teacher:

I think times like whole school assemblies when they’re all there and you think gosh I’m in charge, I’m in charge of all this…this school… I can do some good here…I can do something I can run a school…

Bronwen (NPQH)

From this data set, I would conclude that there are more references to actions rather than emotive responses. But within the text are frequent references to the early days of headship and the realisation of both the scope and complexity of the role:

But it was nothing compared with just setting foot and being here on your first day and thinking “Right now what do I do? (lot of laughter)

Anita (NPQH)

In one case it concerned the role of the teaching head and the effect this has on the opportunities to embark on school improvement (Esther, NPQH) and an awareness of the complexity of the role and the breadth of issues that they had to handle:

…and that you didn’t realise you didn’t know what to do about it…there are just so many new things to learn aren’t there? I am still constantly learning. There’s always a new thing comes up that I’m not sure about and either you use your own common sense and think ‘that’ll do alright’ or else you have to make a phone call or research it.

Bronwen (NPQH)
These early experiences can challenge the newly appointed head teacher and cause them to reflect upon their behaviours and attitudes. Similar responses are consistent across all the NPQH transcripts and this corroborates the experiences of newly appointed head teachers for whom the early months of headship are powerfully formative (Earley and Weindling, 2007). Such consistency across the data generates generalisability, although the individuality of each of these must be taken into consideration too.

5.4 The findings from the NLP interviews

The NLP interviews were conducted during the autumn and winter of 2010 with a group of leaders in education. The ages ranged from early forties to mid-fifties and the group consisted of four men and one woman. Their experience of education and teaching was very different however and ranged from an assistant head teacher with responsibility for a large department, including budget in a very large comprehensive to a senior leader who was about to change career and enter teacher training. All had experience of senior leadership but none had undertaken the NPQH or been a head teacher, prior to the date of the interviews. As with the NPQH trained leaders, I have included some biographical details but as this is not an ethnographic study, I have restricted this to age, role, experience, gender and any other salient factors that may have had an influence e.g. second career. The names given to the interviewees have been changed to preserve anonymity.
Table 9 Biographical details of interviewees; NLP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTERVIEW</th>
<th>ROLE</th>
<th>YEARS IN POST</th>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>ANYTHING ELSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LUKE</td>
<td>Assistant head teacher</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Late forties</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Due to leave to take up post in teacher training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MANDY</td>
<td>Senior leader</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Mid forties</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEIL</td>
<td>Assistant head teacher</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Mid fifties</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OSCAR</td>
<td>Senior leader</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Early forties</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Due to leave to establish own business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHIL</td>
<td>Senior leader</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Late fifties</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(The names have been changed to preserve anonymity.)

I utilised the same approach when transcribing the interviews as described in section 5.1. The evidence collected from the first analysis of the interviews was that four themes emerged from their experience of NLP:

1. Although each took something different from their experience of NLP, there was some commonality amongst the topics they cited as having had an impact on them.
2. There was recognition of the importance of working with people and developing relationships.
3. There was an understanding of personal or self-development.
4. There was an understanding that learning NLP involved self-reflection.

I will now provide further data on each of the above themes.

5.4.1 References to individual experiences

As with the NPQH trained leaders, each individual cited different aspects of the NLP training course which they claimed had been of value or had had an influence. This was usually in answer to questions 1, 3 and 7 in which they could reflect on their training experience. This is expressed in the
following table which identifies the topics mentioned by the NLP trained leaders:

Table 10 Individual learnings from NLP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>TOPICS MENTIONED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LUKE</td>
<td>Language skills/ listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Logical Levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spatial Anchoring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MANDY</td>
<td>Language skills/ listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Presuppositions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2nd position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEIL</td>
<td>Language skills/ listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Presuppositions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flexibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OSCAR</td>
<td>Presuppositions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2nd position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flexibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHIL</td>
<td>Presuppositions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flexibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2nd position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Language skills/ listening</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As before, I used the data to identify patterns, clusters of responses, links between responses and relating responses to a theoretical framework (Robson, 2002). As can be seen from the table, there are clusters of responses that are associated with specific NLP skills. These are the use of the presuppositions, the skill of second positioning and the ability to adopt flexibility. I have included a description of these skills in sections 15.0 and 15.5, in the appendix. The presuppositions, particularly ‘the map is not the territory’ are referred to as helping individuals to understand perceptions of others from the view point of the leader:

I think most people assume the map is the territory and I am sure I used to think that inadvertently. You get sucked in to it by the world, whatever but then …when I sleep on stuff… I see things afresh the following day and then I can see from an objective third position. I can come at it from a different angle.

Phil (NLP)
A second presupposition that was referred to by the NLP trained leaders was ‘there is no failure, only feedback’ and which they claimed supported how they gave feedback to students and colleagues:

I’ve had many things just looking at the whole of education very, very differently with the presuppositions of course, like there is no failure only feedback which is enormously powerful when you are talking to students.

Neil (NLP)

But all identified the importance of the language skills. These included the ability to listen:

Oh listening....absolutely there is no doubt In my mind...listening and to listen to not just to students and also colleagues’ language and what that language tells them about students’ beliefs about their learning and to challenge it...

Neil (NLP)

The ‘challenge’ mentioned in the above quotation refers to the use of the Meta Model which is a descriptive term for a set of questions used by NLP practitioners to seek clarity in spoken interactions.(For more information on both the Meta Model please see the Appendix section 15.2). Such language skills are also referred to for the value they have in day to day interactions on topics such as coaching students in their course work (Mandy) and the use of specific words to help with lesson transitions (Oscar).

5.4.2 Relationships and the role of the leader

Consistent across the sample was the recognition of the importance of establishing positive relationships. This can be with pupils (Mandy, NLP; Oscar, NLP) or with colleagues (Neil, NLP; Phil, NLP) and the role NLP played in supporting this process:

You know if you haven’t got rapport with the class then I guess there are some classrooms where you think what’s going on here? I
suppose by rapport, I mean that the teacher has respect you know and sort of likes them in a way…

Luke (NLP)

Another describes how they have changed in their role as a leader since taking the NLP practitioner course:

Also I’m much, much more inclined to develop a vision with people rather than just have my own and go in my own way and hope that people will follow.

Neil (NLP)

When the NLP practitioners mentioned aspects of the course which supported the development of positive relationships, they specifically referred to three things. Firstly there was the presupposition, ‘the map is not the territory’ which every respondent referred to at some time during the interviews. Secondly, they referred positively to the development of the skill of rapport and thirdly they referred to the NLP technique which concerns understanding other people and is described as ‘second positioning’. (There is an explanation of these terms in section 15.0 of the Appendix.)

5.4.3 The concept of personal or self-development

Consistent across the sample was an understanding of personal or self-development and what it could entail. This could be through recognition of the possibility of change in self (Oscar; NLP) or through a desire for self-improvement:

I am curious about work. I want to get better at things...whatever I do, I want to get better at…

Luke (NLP)

When asked about their understanding of self-development they could identify curiosity about themselves and a desire to improve (Luke, Mandy
and Phil) or self-examination (Mandy and Phil). It is summed up by Oscar as follows:

I think it is the antithesis to most education...so most education is focussed to an external level, assessment processes, course, criteria whatever and this tips that completely on its head now for me ...working out where you are at as an individual, what’s important to you and therefore what do you want to do...
Oscar (NLP)

5.4.4 NLP involves self-reflection

Consistent across the sample was the understanding that learning NLP involved self-reflection. This may be manifest in self-awareness which can result in quite uncomfortable realisations about themselves and previously held beliefs about themselves:

...there have been other moments on the practitioner but especially on the master prac when there have been things... have been some quite uncomfortable moments.
Neil (NLP)

Self-reflection also supported their ability to understand other people better:

Pre NLP I would have not realised all of this and I would have thought that the world would be a much better place if everyone thought the same that I thought.
Phil (NLP)

This self-reflection could also go deeper and focus upon fundamental changes that the individual could make in their life (Oscar, NLP). For one NLP leader, there was a specific moment on the NLP practitioner course that they can remember which changed their beliefs about themselves:

I’ve always had ‘I’m not good enough’ and he did a belief change... it was profound for me and encouraged me to go further.
Mandy (NLP)

This level of self-reflection and self-awareness is mentioned by all of the NLP trained leaders.
5.5 The evidence for Transformational Learning

I then went through the same process to identify Transformational Learning as described in section 5.2.

Table 11 Examples of evidence at each code from NLP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CODE</th>
<th>EXAMPLE</th>
<th>PSEUDONYM OF INDIVIDUAL RESPONDENT</th>
<th>NUMBER OF EXAMPLES FOUND AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 Action</td>
<td>I did the full practitioner in 21 days and then 2 years later did the Master practitioner.</td>
<td>Luke</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Reflection</td>
<td>The only question is whether the illusion is useful or not.</td>
<td>Phil</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on actions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Awareness</td>
<td>Pre NLP there would be a point where I would become frustrated or annoyed that all my experience was not being formally recognised.</td>
<td>Oscar</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of feelings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Usefulness</td>
<td>It’s more to do with flexibility, the ability of mind really and to see things really and being in a place where you can you know question the intent of things is always very interesting.</td>
<td>Neil</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of judgements</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Subjectivity</td>
<td>I recognised that I had strong views around them that seemed to be different from other teachers who were much more...they would talk about their behaviours which were important to them...which are important to me and the things that drove my behaviours and my environment were things that I believed about children.</td>
<td>Luke</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of judgements</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Learning</td>
<td>Definitely much more aware of different people and kind of what it is that drives and influences people and where they come from ...and how to then relate to them in a way that works for both of us.</td>
<td>Oscar</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>required</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Hastiness</td>
<td>I see things afresh the following day. I can bang my head against a brick wall and say...you need to realise that what you were doing and what you were thinking might actually not be perfect</td>
<td>Phil</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of judgements</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Perspective</td>
<td>I think in the past I may have seen my role as defining a path and pointing it out...ok let's go down this way... but whereas perhaps now if anything I would be far more collaborative and I would ...I suppose I'd listen a lot more...and take on people's ideas and work with them more</td>
<td>Neil</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data above shows that the interview transcripts from the NLP trained leaders provided most examples of both their ‘Reflection on action’ (code 1) and ‘Perspective change’ (code 7). As with the NPQH interviews, there are small differences in individual responses across other levels with
very few examples across all transcripts of identifying code 4 (Judgemental reflectivity: being aware of value judgements and the subjective nature of these) and code 6 (Psychic reflectivity: recognizing the habit of making precipitant judgements about others based on limited information about them).

As with the NPQH responses, there is also a difference between the NLP responses in one interview. Mandy was focussed on factual information with twice as many references compared to the other interviewees. For Mandy, there is no evidence of Transformational Learning with a resulting change in behaviour (Mezirow, 1981). For individual responses, please see appendix 16.

5.5.1 Further data reduction to identify Mezirow’s three types of reflection

I followed the same procedure for data analysis as described in section 5.3.1. Again, to give a clearer idea of the data, I have identified examples from the interview schedules as can be seen in table 12:
Table 12 Examples of premise, content and process reflection from the NLP interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CODE</th>
<th>EXAMPLE</th>
<th>PSEUDONYM OF INDIVIDUAL RESPONDENT WHERE EXAMPLE CAN BE FOUND</th>
<th>NUMBER OF EXAMPLES FOUND AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PREMISE REFLECTION CODE 1</td>
<td>When observing a teacher before one would just observe the behaviours. You might not have thought of asking more probing questions...around their beliefs as a teacher... what they thought of themselves as a teacher...but now what were their beliefs was there some bigger thing ...that’s a big one for me..</td>
<td>Luke</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONTENT REFLECTION CODE 2</td>
<td>It helps me with language skills with coaching and what they needed they’ve got their outcomes, setting outcomes with them and that sort of thing.</td>
<td>Mandy</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROCESS REFLECTION CODE 3</td>
<td>When the kids are coming in at the beginning of the day and after lunch is classic and they’re feeling tired and down and as they come in I will give them an animated and warm “afternoon” with some humour to each of them as they come into the class which has got more energy...</td>
<td>Oscar</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Again, this did not prove an easy task as the interview questions were not designed to be specific about incidents and how the interviewees responded. However, three themes emerged. Firstly, NLP trained leaders provided evidence of premise reflection, i.e. reflecting on the beliefs and values around the experience e.g. an NLP trained leader describes the changes in the way they think about their role in school:

…it got to the point that I was bringing more skills to the situation than they can and that started to creep in whereas now I’m always very clear about why I’m doing it, what it is I that I want to give, and what it is I am getting out of it myself.

Oscar (NLP)
Secondly, NLP trained leaders were aware of the beliefs and values that surround their perception of an event and recognise that they are in a position to behave differently and make changes to what they do:

I think in the past I may have seen my role as one of, if you will as defining a path and pointing it out. Ok let’s go down this way....and almost accepting a path but whereas perhaps now if anything I would be far more collaborative and I would, I suppose I’d listen a lot more...and take on people’s ideas and work with them more and channel them.

Neil (NLP)

Thirdly, there were fewer examples of content reflection compared to premise and process reflection.

Within two of the transcripts, there is the use of metaphors which go some way to revealing the emotional content that is behind the description. One NLP leader describes their learning of NLP as “spiky, they are like a very sort of spiky graph” (Neil, NLP) which is evocative of a sudden increase in learning and a sharp point at which they realise something different and then a gradual assimilation of the learning until another developmental spurt begins. Another refers to therapeutic horsemanship as a comparison with his leadership style after he had undertaken the NLP training course (Oscar, NLP). Within therapeutic horsemanship there is a move away from the process of breaking a horse by using force towards working with the horse by forming a relationship of trust (Roberts, 1997):

One of my ex colleagues is into therapeutic horsemanship and she was talking about leadership and how not to do it and a classic you know old style leader in that sort of situation will go round to the front of the horse grab it by the reins and drag it forward and she’d look at me and say ‘that’s you isn’t it?’ To which I would reply ‘and I would say you’ve forgotten to mention the whip and the spurs’

Oscar (NLP)
5.5.2 Further data reduction to identify references to action or an emotional response

In this stage of data reduction, I followed the process as described in section 5.3.2. Again, to give a clearer idea of the data, I have provided examples from the interview schedules.

Table 13 Evidence of references to actions and emotive responses from the NLP interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXAMPLE OF REFERENCES TO ACTION</th>
<th>EXAMPLE</th>
<th>PSEUDONYM OF INDIVIDUAL RESPONDENT WHERE EXAMPLE CAN BE FOUND</th>
<th>NUMBER OF EXAMPLES FOUND AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>So I set up a whole school coaching ... I ran various twilight sessions and also influenced I think how we observe lessons better</td>
<td>Luke</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Better at listening to other people and also recognising the need to demonstrate that I have listened, reflected and taken on board what they have said</td>
<td>Oscar</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Within the responses from the NLP trained cohort, there is similarity between the number of references to the actions taken and the emotional response. Examples of the emotional responses described comparisons with the reactions of others in a given situation:

I recognised that I had strong views around them (*his sense of identity as a teacher*)...that seemed to be different from other teachers...who were much more...they would talk about their behaviours which were important to them ... which are important to me and the things that drove my behaviours and my environment were things that I believed about children

Luke (NLP)

They also included reflections on the effect that they had upon others:
Pre NLP I would forget that other people look at me to see how I am and what I am doing. You know, if I'm looking fed up, tired, annoyed whatever and they think that it’s about them…

Oscar (NLP)

It also included self-disclosure about their values and how these drove their behaviours at times:

I’ve had many things just looking at the whole…the whole of education very, very differently with the presuppositions of course, like there is no failure only feedback which is enormously powerful when you are talking to students…

Mandy (NLP)

What was consistent across all transcripts was the interweaving of action and reaction. The NLP trained leaders were aware that what they did had an effect on others and reflected on that:

You do have to give it (a lesson observation) a grade as well… that the head was pushing for all the time. Like how many 1s how many 2s, 3s so there was always that tension and to be honest that was one of the things for me that I didn’t line up with really, I suppose this huge emphasis upon grading. I suppose I didn’t see it as a successful way of helping people develop although I understood the head’s point of view but there were those tensions really.

Luke (NLP)

5.6 A comparison of Transformational Learning in both cohorts

In chapter 3, I posited a link between Transformational Learning and the self-awareness and self-management required for the development of emotional intelligence. So far, I have explored the data for evidence of critical self-reflection which supports the perspective change of Transformational Learning which may then have indicated a positive shift in emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) or the acquisition of inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983) by the leader. In this section, I will compare the data from the two cohorts. The following table compares the totals for the two
different cohorts of trainees. Individual responses can be found in appendix section 16.

Table 14 A comparison of Transformational Learning in both cohorts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CODE NUMBER</th>
<th>Actions</th>
<th>Reflection</th>
<th>Feelings</th>
<th>Usefulness</th>
<th>Value judgements</th>
<th>More learning</th>
<th>Hasty judgements</th>
<th>Perspective change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NPQH</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUMBER OF EXAMPLES FOUND AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NLP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUMBER OF EXAMPLES FOUND AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The evidence collected from the individuals showed the following patterns:

1. David’s NPQH interview transcript is different from the others in the NPQH cohort.

2. Mandy’s NLP interview transcript is different from the others in the NLP cohort.

3. Within cohorts, other differences between individuals are small.

4. There are few examples across all transcripts of identifying code 4 (Judgemental reflectivity: being aware of value judgements and the subjective nature of these) and code 6 (Psychic reflectivity: recognizing the habit of making precipitant judgements about others based on limited information about them).

5. There is evidence of individual Transformational Learning but evidence for the individuals having undergone all stages of the process is not clear.
When comparing the data from the two cohorts, the following patterns can be identified:

1. The NPQH transcripts show more examples of code 0 which describe actions than the NLP transcripts.

2. The NLP transcripts show more examples of code 7 which describe perspective change than the NPQH transcripts.

3. The NPQH transcripts show more examples of code 5 which describe the need for more learning.

4. Both sets of transcripts have similar numbers of examples of code 1 which is reflection.

5. Both sets of transcripts have low numbers of examples of code 4 (Judgemental reflectivity: being aware of value judgements and the subjective nature of these) and code 6 (Psychic reflectivity: recognizing the habit of making precipitant judgements about others based on limited information about them).

6. For codes 2, 3, 4 and 6, the differences between the two sets of transcripts are small.

I then considered the aggregated data from the individual responses as shown in Table 15 concerning evidence for premise, content and process reflection (Mezirow, 1990).

Table 15 Aggregated totals for premise, content and process reflection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTERVIEW</th>
<th>PREMISE REFLECTION CODE 1</th>
<th>CONTENT REFLECTION CODE 2</th>
<th>PROCESS REFLECTION CODE 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NPQH</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUMBER OF EXAMPLES FOUND AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NLP</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUMBER OF EXAMPLES FOUND AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The responses in respect of the evidence for premise, content and process reflection show more examples of premise reflection with the NLP trained leaders and fewer examples of content reflection than the NPQH responses. The higher number of references to premise reflection identified in the transcripts of the NLP trained leaders is reflected in the higher number of references to code 7 (the perspective change of level 7). Both cohorts, however, show evidence of the perspective change of Transformational Learning (premise reflection). Finally, I compared the evidence for actions or emotional responses as shown in the table below for the cohorts. For individual responses, please see appendix section 16.

Table 16 Totals of actions and emotive responses in both cohorts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NPQH INTERVIEWS</th>
<th>NLP INTERVIEWS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>REFERENCES TO ACTIONS TAKEN</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUMBER OF EXAMPLES FOUND AS</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REFERENCES TO EMOTIVE RESPONSE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUMBER OF EXAMPLES FOUND AS</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When considering evidence of either reference to actions taken rather than an emotional response, the NPQH trained leaders referred more consistently to actions rather than emotional responses. But interestingly, there is only a small difference between the numbers of references to the emotive responses in both cohorts.

5.7 Conclusion

Content analysis of the interviews and the use of Transformational Learning as the theoretical underpinning have identified a number of patterns...
of similarities and differences between the two cohorts of leaders. These are as follows.

Similarities across the NPQH and NLP interviews:

1. Each respondent identified something different from the course that had an influence on them.
2. All respondents were involved in some form of reflective learning.
3. All respondents recognized the importance of relationships within their role.
4. One member of each cohort showed marked differences in their responses in comparison with their fellow respondents. David’s interview transcript is different from the others in the NPQH cohort and Mandy’s interview transcript is different from the others in the NLP cohort.
5. Within cohorts, apart from the transcripts mentioned above, numerical differences in the data collected from individuals are small.
6. There are few examples across all transcripts of identifying code 4 (Judgemental reflectivity: being aware of value judgements and the subjective nature of these) and code 6 (Psychic reflectivity: recognizing the habit of making precipitant judgements about others based on limited information about them).
7. There is evidence of individual Transformational Learning but evidence for the individuals having undergone all stages of the process is not clear.

Differences across the NPQH and NLP interviews

1. The NPQH transcripts show more examples of code 0 which describe actions than the NLP transcripts.
2. The NPQH transcripts show more examples of code 5 which describe the need for more learning than the NLP transcripts.
3. NPQH trained leaders focus more upon tasks and processes rather than relationships.
4. The NLP trained leaders were more consistent in their understanding of the concept of personal development than the NPQH trained leaders.
5. NLP trained leaders focus more upon relationships and the beliefs and values that underpin the tasks.
6. The NLP transcripts show more examples of code 7 which describes perspective change than the NPQH transcripts.
Although there is evidence for Transformational Learning in both sets of interviews that were undertaken with both NPQH and NLP trained leaders, greater consistency across the responses and more examples have been generated by the NLP trained leaders. I will be discussing these findings and attempting to suggest reasons for both the similarities and the differences in the following chapter. In order to do this, I will be using readings from the critical analysis of the literature and the importance of reflective practice in Transformational Learning as a framework to interrogate both the findings and the methodology.
Chapter 6

6.0 Discussion on the findings from the interview data

In this chapter I will return to the conclusions that were drawn from the data in chapter 5 and discuss them with reference to the content and delivery of the two courses and to the question of how individual differences may have shaped the findings. I will also critique the methodology that was selected because through undertaking the research, issues with regard to the choice and suitability of the methodology have arisen. In addition, undertaking the process of the research has led to more questions regarding the theories that were adopted to underpin it and it is this issue that I will consider first.

6.1 The criticisms of the theories underpinning the research

From the starting point of research into two different training courses, it would have seemed logical to interrogate them using theories about learning. However, the fact that one of the training courses involved NLP (Neuro Linguistic Programming) which is described as the ‘study of the structure of subjective experience’ (Dilts and DeLozier, 2004;849), led towards a consideration of how individuals perceived their training courses. With the emphasis upon the personal qualities of the leader in recent theories of leadership (Begley, 2008; Brent and Brighouse, 2008; Hargreaves, 2008; Lumby and Coleman, 2007) I thought it possible that training could lead to changes in the personal qualities of the leader through the identification of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) which
encompasses inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983). Such leaders are described as:

…open-minded and ready to learn from others. They are also flexible rather than dogmatic in their thinking within a system of core values, persistent (e.g. in pursuit of high expectations of staff motivation, commitment, learning and achievement for all), resilient and optimistic. 
(Day et al, 2009;15)

In this light, I was interested in the pragmatic usefulness that training through NLP (Neuro Linguistic Programming) or NPQH (National Professional Qualification for Headship) may or may not have had on leadership development.

The NPQH leadership training course was introduced for prospective head teachers in 1998. This course would support improvements in standards of school leadership (OFSTED annual reports 2011; 2010; 2007; 2000; 1998; 1997). From the start, there have been criticisms that the course did not necessarily support newly appointed head teachers (Estyn, 2010; NCSL, 2007; NCSL, 2003a; Bush, 1998). When my research was begun in 2008, NPQH was mandatory and so was the only leadership training course that was available for prospective head teachers. With the changes brought about to NPQH in 2012, it is no longer mandatory and so a variety of training courses could have been investigated. Although the content of NPQH was not specifically designed to address the personal qualities of the school leaders or their personal development through emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) or inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983), I planned to identify aspects of the course which newly trained leaders described as having had an impact on them or were of use in addressing the issues they faced as newly appointed leaders. Furthermore I had hoped to
be able to identify examples of their acquisition of emotional intelligence through the course.

Despite criticisms of the concept of emotional intelligence and inter and intra personal intelligences ((Morris, 2011; Waterhouse, 2006), they remain models which help to explain the behaviours which are expected of leaders today (Joseph and Newman, 2010; Salovey and Grewal, 2005). Although all models are subject to change and development, the theory of emotional intelligence maintains a place in training and development within leadership in the commercial world (Guillen and Florent-Treacy, 2011). As my research was part of a professional doctorate with a practical application in leadership training, the theory of emotional intelligence has relevance, although future research which will build upon the model currently in place may dispel this. I therefore used the model as a description of behaviours or attitudes which would correspond to behaviours expected by leaders today.

The model of Transformational Learning (Mezirow, 1990) which underpins the research can appear complex and cumbersome with the different levels and what they may or may not mean. The theory was influenced by Habermas’ four types of knowledge (1984); instrumental, impressionistic, normative and practical or communicative to describe learning as taking place when a learner experiences one or more of four types of learning. These are described as elaborating on an existing point of view, establishing a new point of view, transforming a point of view and transforming an existing ethnocentric view point regarding groups other than our own. But any theory of changes of perception may be too simplistic to explain the complexity of the process which an individual undertakes when changing their perception. I question whether it is possible to create a model
which can take into account the complexity of individual change in one single model and whether our existing questioning techniques can draw out the evidence so that questions which can probe more effectively into the inner world of the interviewee should be adopted (Tosey et al, 2005: Tosey and Mathison; 2009b). But Transformational Learning still remains a useful model which can help to identify and explain changes of perception on the part of the learner as opposed to changes in skills or knowledge.

I have used these theories to describe and explain the data that I collected and to shed light on whether the NLP or NPQH training courses supported the development of the personal qualities of the leader through the identification of examples of Transformational Learning. I used the model of Transformational Learning to explore the data that I collected for evidence of perspective change which would support claims for changes in emotional intelligence or inter and intra personal intelligences. Although these models have their limitations, they have a pragmatic usefulness in describing the behaviours expected by leaders today and which I used to describe the changes that my interviewees noticed through their training courses.

In the light of this, I will now discuss the findings from chapter 5, for despite the issues that I will raise with regard to the methodology and generalisability which I will discuss here in greater depth, there was consistency within the findings. I will also suggest possible reasons for these findings and in order to do this, I will be returning to the readings from the critical analysis of the literature. In particular, I will be interrogating the data in the light of theories of adult learning, experiential learning and the use of Transformational Learning as a framework to understand the findings. I will
also question the differences within the two data sets in the light of personal differences between the interviewees.

6.2 The findings

The summaries from chapter 5 showed similarities and differences across the NPQH and NLP interviews. I will consider each in turn.

6.2.1 Individual differences

Each cohort of respondents demonstrated that they had taken something different from the courses that they had undertaken. There was consistency amongst the NPQH trained leaders citing the school based task and the opportunities to interact with other candidates as being of use. There was consistency amongst the NLP trained leaders citing the different language skills as being of use. However, references to specific skills show greater diversity so that a key theme from the data collected was that each individual took something different from each of the courses.

This could be a result of both courses allowing individual differences to shape their experiences as both courses demonstrated andragogy which is the term for teaching strategies that engage the adult learner. As explored in section 2.4.1, theories of adult learning (Knowles, 1980 & 1970) describe six features of andragogy (Jarvis, 1983). They are:

1. Need to know
2. Foundation (experience is the basis for learning)
3. Self-concept (as a learner)
4. Readiness to learn
5. Orientation (problem or action centered learning)
6. Motivation (adults respond more to internal rather than external motivation).
There is evidence that the NPQH course involved some of these features. The school based task was based on a real experience which is consistent with the idea of ‘Foundation’ and this aspect of the course was action and problem centered which is consistent with the idea of ‘Orientation’. The personalized tasks which had to be completed also provided opportunities for self-directed learning (Self-concept) which reflected the individual’s learning needs. The course fulfilled some aspects of the ‘Need to know’ for Anita who cites the increased understanding of Governance and finance as a useful part of the course. However, the learner’s motivation to do the course demonstrates external rather than internal motivation; it was something that had to be done (Bronwen and Clare). Although I do not have sufficient evidence to comment on the respondents’ readiness to learn, I would suggest that the NPQH does not fulfill all of the features of a course that has andragogy as a basis.

The NLP course involved learning from experience as the method of training consisted of a four stage training and delivery method which involves drawing from the learner some reference experiences before the introduction of a new skill (Foundation). The training delivery is problem and action centered with demonstrations and instructions followed by delegates putting into practice what they have seen (Orientation). The opportunity to undertake an individual project as part of the NLP practitioner course provided an occasion for self-directed learning (Self-concept) which reflected the individual’s learning needs.

Both courses provided opportunities for individual learning which followed the individual’s needs and may have contributed to the differences reported by the interviewees. A second factor could have been individual
differences that were the result of personality differences. This will be explored in greater detail in section 6.5 when I consider why there were differences within the cohorts.

However, the majority of the NLP learners choose to do the course; it is optional. Many will be self-funding and will have made considerable effort to attend weekends. By doing this, it suggests that that they have a need to know, a readiness to learn and are self-directed (Self-concept). More importantly, this suggests that they are motivated. Skinner and Croft’s (2009) study of undergraduates who voluntarily chose to attend an NLP based training module on writing dissertations outperformed their peers who did not attend and were motivated by greater career opportunities as well as personal achievement which again supports the power of motivation for the adult learner. As expressed by Bronwen (NPQH) and Clare (NPQH), the NPQH course was something they had to do which for both of them was a drawback. This may be because Clare had already had a successful career which involved leadership and management and Bronwen was originally reluctant to take on the post of head teacher, preferring to remain a deputy head. This difference in motivation amongst the participants is one element of andragogy that distinguishes the two training courses.

6.2.2 All respondents were involved in some form of reflective learning

Both courses included aspects of reflective learning and the role of reflective journaling has already been described in section 3.4.6. Within the NPQH training course, there were opportunities to undertake reflection through the feedback from colleagues and the use of action learning sets but
the participants were not required to complete a reflective journal. In contrast
the NLP trained leaders were expected to complete self-reflective journaling
throughout the course. This may have meant that the NPQH trained leaders
underwent self-reflection in a different way or that there were fewer
opportunities for them to engage in high quality self-reflection that can be
provided by journaling, as described by Boud et al(1985):

Learners need to describe their experiences, work through the
attitudes and emotions which might colour their understanding, and to
order and make sense of the new ideas which they have retained.
(Boud et al, 1985; 11)

6.2.3 The importance of relationships within their role

Although not specifically referred to in the syllabus of either training
course, both sets of interview transcripts contained references to the
importance of relationships in their role as a leader. Consistent across the
sample from the NPQH trained leaders was recognition of the value of
networks once in post, in particular in small schools where they shared
expertise. Yet the importance of relationships was not considered to be a
major part of the course as shown by the responses from Anita, Clare and
David.

When the NLP practitioners mentioned aspects of the course which
supported the development of positive relationships, they specifically referred
to three things. Firstly there was the presupposition, ‘the map is not the
territory’ which every NLP respondent referred to at some time during the
interviews. This presupposition requires NLP practitioners to accept that their
way of understanding the world is different from others and they may need
flexibility to adopt more useful behaviours. Secondly, they referred positively
to the development of the skill of rapport which involves establishing positive
non-verbal communication between individuals. Thirdly, they referred to the NLP technique which concerns understanding other people and is described as ‘second positioning’. (There is an explanation of these terms in section 15.0 of the appendix.). The NLP practitioner course may therefore have had components which contributed to recognition of the importance of relationships and this explains the greater emphasis within their transcripts.

6.2.4 Each cohort showed one data set that was markedly different

One member of each cohort showed marked differences in their responses in comparison with their fellow respondents. David’s interview is different from the others in the NPQH cohort and Mandy’s interview is different from the others in the NLP cohort. There are certain characteristics demonstrated by these two individuals that are consistent with a theory of type (Myers Briggs, 1980). David (NPQH) demonstrates an attitude that would be consistent with a preference for ‘Intuition’ (seeing the bigger picture) and ‘Introversion’ (a focus upon reflection upon self rather than external events) whereas Mandy (NLP) demonstrates a preference for ‘Sensing’ (a focus upon specific details) and ‘Extraversion’ (a focus upon events in the external world).

Similarly, the differences that they both demonstrated in the evidence for Transformational Learning (2 and 0 respectively) are at level 2 (affective reflectivity: awareness of feelings in which the learner is aware of the way they feel about perceiving, thinking or acting in the situation). This would be consistent with David (NPQH) showing a Myers Briggs Type Indicator preference for ‘Feeling’ whereas Mandy (NLP) may have a preference for ‘Thinking’ which values making decisions based on logic rather than
individual values. These differences could only have been identified if an appropriate psychometric test had been administered and the results reported.

Although I cannot provide an explanation for the reason why these two individuals exhibited markedly different responses from their colleagues, I would suggest that they are as a result of individual differences that were manifest during the interview process and acknowledged in my research journal:

28/6 Easy interview - a dream. Just asked the questions and got lots on self-reflection. *(Interview with David, NPQH)*

3/9 This interview was a mess - could not get on track. Should I have butted in more? Asked more questions? Changed the interview more? Or would this have made it even worse? This issue of conducting the interviews and knowing how to negotiate to get the info is really tricky. I don’t want to appear as if I’m manipulating the process. *(Interview with Mandy, NLP)*

The idea of exploring individual differences will be discussed in chapter 7 where I suggest recommendations for further research.

### 6.2.5 Within cohorts, numerical differences are small

The small differences may be a result of the methodological difficulties that I encountered. These concern the quality and appropriateness of the interview questions and I acknowledge that the questions were not designed to draw out different aspects of Transformational Learning and could have been constructed to provide more evidence of change in behaviours or attitudes. These issues will be discussed in greater detail in section 6.6.

These small differences could also be because the respondents were at a similar stage of their career. The NLP respondents were experienced
senior leaders and the NPQH respondents were all in the early years of a first headship. That a head teacher will change over time in post has been well documented (Woods, 2002; Weindling, 2000; Brighouse and Woods, 1999; Day and Bakiogiul 1996). Brighouse and Woods (1999) describe three phases in headship; ‘initiation’, ‘development’ and ‘decline and withdrawal’. In the initial phase, the head teacher is dealing with many new issues which all compete for attention. In the second phase, the head teacher is established and able to drive school improvement more easily. The final phase describes a loss of power unless revitalized by a new enthusiasm. These findings were similar to those of Day and Bakiogiul (1996) who researched the career lives of secondary head teachers and described four phases in the career life of a head teacher. These were: initiation; development; autonomy; disenchantment.

It also has much in common with Tuckman’s model of stages of group development (1965). Although all models remain work in progress, the concept of four stages of organisational change in which teams or organisations demonstrate particular behaviours from forming, storming, and norming through to performing (Tuckman, 1965) maintains a place in organisational theory (Bonebright, 2010). The early stages are characterised by a highly directive style on the part of the leader and only as the team develops maturity and abilities can relationships establish and the leaders adopt a different leadership style. This has links with both Hersey and Blanchard’s situational leadership style (1969) which describes a model which goes from ‘telling’ to ‘selling’ then ‘participating’ through to ‘delegating’ and Tannenbaum and Schmidt’s (1958 and 1973) model in which the leader’s or manager’s use of direction reduces and becomes more detached, more
delegating and more encouraging as the team matures. Within this model, the early phase of ‘forming’ in which there is high dependence on the actions of the leader may help to explain why the NPQH leaders were so focussed upon tasks and upon establishing themselves in their new posts (Anita, Bronwen and Esther). The NLP trained leaders, however, had been in post for some years and could focus upon the relationships that supported school development (Luke, Neil, Oscar) which is closer to the stage of ‘norming’ in which leadership is shared and decisions are reached through consensus. This reinforces the idea that there were small individual differences within cohorts because the respondents were at a similar stage of their career.

6.2.6 Lack of codes 4 and 6

As described in section 5.6, there are few examples across all transcripts of code 4 (Judgemental reflectivity: being aware of value judgements and the subjective nature of these) and code 6 (Psychic reflectivity: recognizing the habit of making precipitant judgements about others based on limited information about them). The difficulty in identifying the different stages may be an indicator that the process is not linear (Baumgartner, 2001) and that even amongst those who acknowledge the use of reflection, there are difficulties in identifying the different stages of critical self-reflection that support Transformational Learning (Christie, 1999). However, as the interview questions were not designed to elicit responses about the different stages of Transformational Learning, it is not surprising that such specific evidence is difficult to identify. This issue will be explored later in the section on methodological considerations.
6.3 Differences between the two cohorts

As shown in section 5.8, there were six areas in which I identified differences from the data that was collected. They were:

1. NPQH trained leaders focus more upon tasks and processes rather than relationships.
2. NLP trained leaders focus more upon relationships and the beliefs and values that underpin the tasks.
3. The NLP trained leaders were more consistent in their understanding of the concept of personal development than the NPQH trained leaders.
4. The NPQH transcripts show more examples of code 0 which describe actions than the NLP transcripts.
5. The NPQH transcripts show more examples of code 5 which describes the need for more learning than the NLP transcripts.
6. The NLP transcripts show more examples of code 7 which describes perspective change than the NPQH transcripts.

I will consider these differences next.

6.3.1 The different foci

As described in the critical analysis of literature in section 2.3.1, leadership is a social construct set within and by the social and cultural context of the organization. If leadership is a group process (Collinson, 2006), co-produced between leader and follower (Earley and Weindling, 2004; Jackson and Parry, 2008) in which the leader is characterised as having followers (Gill, 2006; Sergiovanni, 2005; Grint, 2000) and in which the effectiveness of the actions of leaders is a result of the effective actions of the followers (Grint, 2000), then it would be expected that the creation of relationships within this process would be a component of leadership training. It could be expected, therefore, that both sets of leaders would acknowledge the importance of relationships within the organisations they
were leading. This was not the case; the NLP trained leaders showed greater recognition of the significance of establishing positive relationships.

Those trained in NPQH appear to focus more upon the task and the process rather than the relationships, beliefs and values that underpin the task. I would suggest that there are three possible explanations for this. Firstly, it may be because it was necessary to produce the files with evidence that would demonstrate their competencies through examples of actions taken. Secondly, it may be as a result of the way the tasks were described and that the importance of the school based task did indeed involve a focus on the individuals and the relationships but this was not made explicit.

Thirdly, it may also be linked to the development of a specific leadership style. The understanding of the difference between the terms ‘leadership’ and ‘management’ is described fully in section 2.3.1 with management focussing on the process but leadership focussing on influence, values and vision (Bush, 2003). In a small school, the management systems in place frequently rely upon the head teacher to provide direction and accountability for monitoring and evaluation (Gunter, 2001) as well as to provide leadership; a fact recognised by the National College of Leadership (NCL):

As organisations, small schools have a high degree of complexity, stemming from the small numbers of staff they employ and the intricate remit they fulfil. In particular, head teachers have fewer opportunities to delegate their work and as a result are more likely to have to engage directly with diverse groups of stakeholders. (NCL, 2009; 2) The challenge of dealing with ‘management’ issues was recognised by the NPQH trained leaders at the start of their headships. As a result, they felt they needed more support in the early days, particularly to check decisions they had made and what needed to be done.
Consistent across all examples of NPQH trained leaders was a focus upon describing actions (code 0) which would link with a more ‘transactional’ (Burns, 2003) or task based leadership style and fewer examples of behaviours which could be described as ‘transformational’ (Burns, 2003). Consistent across all examples of NLP trained leaders was less focus upon describing events and more examples of behaviours which could be described as Transformational Learning. These behaviours are characterised by features which may be linked to a Transformational Leadership style and include perspective change, values change, and increased self-awareness (Gabriel, 2008).

The research into the problems experienced by new head teachers (NCSL, 2003a) documented primarily task based issues; budget, buildings, time management of tasks and priorities, implementing new government initiatives, dealing with the legacy of style and problems of the outgoing head teacher and issues with staff alongside feelings of professional isolation and loneliness. Research into the experiences of the early years of headship (Weindling, 2000) reveal a consistent pattern of initial challenges and the need to establish control followed by stability, then consolidation and finally personal autonomy (Weindling, 2000). Again, this has a link with Tuckman’s model of group development (1965) in which early stages are characterised by a highly directive style on the part of the leader and only as the team develops maturity and abilities can relationships establish and the leaders adopt a different leadership style.

Regardless of gender, age or teaching experience, the recently appointed head teachers who had completed their NPQH were all coming into a new situation which required a focus upon tasks and descriptions of
events (Code 0). They needed to develop those behaviours which correspond more to a transformational leadership style (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978) in which the leader seeks to establish themself as a role model by gaining followers’ trust and confidence (Eagly and Carli 2008) and then is able to involve and delegate to others takes time (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958).

The predominantly male NLP leaders and their focus on relationships and evidence of Transformational Learning and the predominantly female NPQH leaders with their focus upon tasks and actions challenges the traditional stereotype of a rational, authoritative white, male leader (Lumby and Coleman, 2007) with men perceived as highly regulative, conformist, competitive, evaluative, disciplined, objective and formal (Collard, 2005). This may be because gender is further modified by ethnicity, class and age (Collard and Reynolds, 2005). The biographical details of the interviewees do not suggest that age and gender were factors explaining the differences that were recorded.

What may be more important is the fact that the NLP leaders interviewed were all (except Oscar) established as leaders and had been in post for longer than three years which is seen as the change point from early headship (NCSL, 2006). This early stage is characterised by short-term, high-impact strategies and a ‘pace setting’ (Goleman, 2000) leadership style lasting up to three years. The following stage is middle headship lasting 3-9 years which is characterised by tackling longer term, deeper rooted issues and a distributed (NCSL, 2008) or system leadership style (Hopkins and Higham, 2007) in which of four key capabilities (setting direction, managing teaching and learning, developing people, developing the organisation) two are components of transformational leadership. As Neil (NLP)
acknowledged, the school had been through a difficult OFSTED but the situation after two years was different and this had shaped his leadership style so that he was aware of developing a more collaborative and flexible approach.

I would suggest that the stage of leadership could have had an influence upon the responses of the two cohorts. This may also link with the theory of ‘situational leadership’ (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969) in which leaders can adopt a leadership style that is appropriate to the situation and that this style can change over time.

6.3.2 The understanding of the concept of personal development

It has been noted that the NLP trained leaders were more consistent in their understanding of the concept of personal development than the NPQH trained leaders. I would not suggest that this means that the NPQH leaders were not involved in personal development. It was possibly the use of the terminology that was not understood. Perhaps if I had used the more widely known terms ‘emotional intelligence’ or ‘inter and intra personal intelligence’ this might have yielded different responses. Although there is criticism over the concepts of emotional intelligence and inter and intra personal intelligence, emotional intelligence in particular retains a place in attempts to explain aspects of leadership and management. I acknowledge the criticisms but use these terms to support an understanding of Transformational Leadership in the context of leadership development through training.

However, the question of the suitability of the language that surrounds the concept of ‘personal development’ for a highly educated work force of
school leaders remains. Although the terminology is used in business (section 2.3.4), I would suggest that perhaps greater use of the term ‘emotional intelligence’ would encourage more leaders within education to involve themselves in such developmental training, particularly as mainstream education has been involved in the SEAL project (Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning) since 2005 (DFES, 2005). This project acknowledges the role of emotional intelligence in behaviour and learning and so would be familiar language for leaders in education. However, at no time did the NPQH course pretend to be about personal development and I acknowledge that the questions that I drew up as part of the interview process could have been more skilfully worded to draw out aspects of personal development that would have been understood by both cohorts. This is therefore a weakness in the design of the research and will be returned to in chapter 7. I will now consider the differences in the responses of the two cohorts with regard to evidence of Transformational Learning.

6.4 Differences in evidence of Transformational Learning

From the data collected, I identified the following three differences:

1. The NPQH transcripts show more examples than the NLP transcripts of code 0 which describes actions.

2. The NPQH transcripts show more examples than the NLP transcripts of code 5 which describes the need for more learning.

3. The NLP transcripts show more examples of code 7 than the NPQH transcripts which describe perspective change.

The two sets of interviews demonstrated differences in Level 0, Level 5 Level 7 (which for data analysis purpose I have called ‘codes’). These are described below with the aggregate results in table 17.
Level 0. Non reflective thoughtful action: experience is described in an impersonal way without analysing or evaluating the experience. This is a descriptive account of events.

Level 5. Conceptual reflexivity: there is assessment of whether further learning is required to assist in decision making.

Level 7. Theoretical reflectivity: at this stage, the student now has the awareness that their perceptions may not always be helpful and allows changes in perspective to occur.


Table 17 A comparison of Transformational Learning in both cohorts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>0 Actions</th>
<th>5 More learning</th>
<th>7 Perspective change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>NPQH</strong></td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NLP</strong></td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although the model of Transformational Learning that was adopted can be challenged in so far as it is not easy to identify different stages, the stages are not linear and all responses are subject to the perception of the researcher, the consistency of the results and the differences in the number of examples identified in the table suggest that the data has demonstrated a pattern. As can be seen from the table above, the NPQH trained leaders cited more examples of code 0 (non reflective action) than the NLP trained leaders. It has been suggested in section 6.2. that this focus upon ‘actions’ may reflect their focus at an early stage of their career as leaders. Another
difference is at code 5 (conceptual reflexivity; assessment of whether further learning is required to assist in decision making). Again, the NPQH trained leaders were at an early stage of their career and so identified opportunities where they felt that they needed additional training in order to be able to function effectively (Anita, Bronwen, Clare). This was particularly to do with issues that could be described as the 'management of the school', such as how to undertake performance management (Clare, NPQH). This reflects the findings from the research by Richardson and Maltby (1995) in which the evidence for the different levels of Transformational Learning were heavily weighted towards the lower end of reflectivity i.e. at levels 0, 1 and 2.

However, the NLP trained leaders described more examples of Transformational Learning at code 7 in comparison with the NPQH trained leaders. I do not believe that this suggests that only NLP trained leaders can identify and recognise a learning experience in which they change their perspective to adopt a more helpful understanding of situations. The NPQH trained leaders also identified these situations. But the difference is that the NLP trained leaders identified more of them. The challenge is to try to unpick whether this could be the result of the NLP training that has been undertaken in contrast to the NPQH training course.

6.4.1 Possible explanations for differences between the data sets

Explanations for the differences in the evidence that was collected may be as a result of the content and delivery of the courses. It may also be influenced by individual differences or a combination of these factors. Firstly I will consider the content and delivery of the courses.
6.4.2 The content and delivery of the courses

The two courses have been described in depth in the critical review of the literature in sections 2.1.2 and 2.2.1. From the description of both courses, it can be seen that they are very different both in content, structure and delivery. This may be a reason why the evidence for Transformational Learning is different. The NPQH training course was described as a leadership training course for school leaders but what was evident from the respondents was that they felt that there was very little that was specific about the day to day running of a school. This may be related to an issue to do with our whole understanding of the differences between the leadership and management of a school as described in 2.3.1 which may influence the content of leadership courses. This will be explored further in chapter 7 when I describe the implications for leadership training as a result of this research. In contrast, the NLP practitioner course was not designed as a leadership training course. Neither course was specifically designed to support the development of Transformational Learning. I would suggest that there were elements common to both courses that supported Transformational Learning as there were examples of this learning in both cohorts. However, the aspect which is unique to the NLP training course is the teaching of the NLP presuppositions.

6.4.2.1 The underlying presuppositions of NLP

As described in section 2.1.1, the presuppositions of NLP are the core concepts, the primary ideas and assumptions which Dilts and DeLozier describe as forming ‘a philosophy behind all of the NLP models, distinctions and techniques’ (Dilts and DeLozier, 2004; 1000). The NLP practitioners who
were interviewed all mentioned these at some time in their interviews as something that they had adopted. The difference between the higher number of examples of Transformational Learning in the transcripts of the NLP trained leaders may be a result of this aspect of the NLP training particularly the NLP presupposition ‘The map is not the territory’ (Dilts and DeLozier, 2000; 1001) in which NLP practitioners accept that their perception of an event is not an accurate representation of that event.

There are two further presuppositions that may have contributed to this viewpoint. They are as follows; “People make the best choices available to them given the possibilities and capabilities that they perceive available to them from their model of the world.” (Dilts and DeLozier, 2004; 1003) and “At some level all behaviour is (or was at the time) positively intended” (Dilts and DeLozier, 2004; 1004). Although NLP does not claim that these statements are true, they are operating principles which NLP practitioners accept and which provide a framework for an understanding of self and others. Thus when an NLP trained leader describes going into a class, there is acceptance and curiosity when he observes a class teacher as demonstrated by Luke (NLP) and there is also a lack of blame and a willingness to accept and do something differently when the behaviour they are doing is not getting the results they want (Neil, NLP).

Within NLP, the presuppositions are supported by the ‘three legs of NLP’ (Dilts and DeLozier, 2004). The three legs are outcome thinking (know what you want), sensory acuity to notice what is happening and behavioural flexibility to change behaviour in order to get a different result. Thinking and behaving according to these principles is an essential aspect of successful NLP practitioners (Seymour and O’Connor 2003). Therefore it is possible
that when an NLP trained leader encounters an unexpected behaviour, they are able to look beyond the behaviour, question their own beliefs and values about the situation and consider possible different actions. They are adopting an approach which is fundamental to Transformational Learning. However, it may be that differences are also due to the delivery of the courses which I will consider next.

6.4.3 The delivery of the courses

The NLP practitioner training course consisted of at least 130 hours face to face training over a minimum of 15 days and required students to provide documentary evidence of the application of NLP in either a professional or personal context. In addition, they were required to attend a weekly practice group and to complete a daily journal. The method of delivery was through face to face learning with regular practice of the skills as an integral part of the 130 hours. The NPQH training course was undertaken over a period of between eighteen months to two years. The method of delivery included face to face training, discussions in small groups in online or face to face communities, individual coaching, role play and information sessions from external experts. The NLP training course therefore appeared to show more opportunities for experiential learning than NPQH and required all participants to undertake reflective journaling which may have had an influence on the difference in outcomes of the two training courses.
6.4.3.1 The role of experiential learning

The importance of andragogy for adult learners has already been described in section 2.5.1 and the concept of ‘Foundation’ in andragogy appears to be very close to the concept of experiential learning (Kolb, 1984). The structure and content of the NPQH course did contain elements of experiential learning; the school based task, the opportunity for role play and the action learning sets (Revans, 1980) which require participants to bring a problem to a group and discuss a way forward. The school based project was referred to positively by the respondents. However, action learning sets do not necessarily have experiential learning as their main focus; they are primarily concerned with developing reflection on the experience and a model of learning that the participant can use in the future (Mumford, 1996). The NLP practitioner course was grounded in experiential learning as this was the method of delivery through explanation, demonstration, practice and reflection. In this way, the greater focus upon experiential learning in the NLP practitioner training course may have contributed to the differences described in section 6.2.

Although both courses had opportunities for critical self-reflection, what is very different is the requirement in the NLP practitioner course to complete self-reflective journaling on a daily basis. Although the journals were not taken in and assessed, delegates were expected to comment on how they used them at the start of each training weekend. In addition, the three pieces of written work which were also course requirements expected the practitioner to reflect on the difference that the course had made upon their lives and interactions with others in the course of their everyday life. The effect of self-reflection through journaling will be explored next as it has
already been suggested as a contributor to the development of reflective practice in section 3.2. If the key elements of Transformational Learning involve developing the skills of critical self-reflection and flexibility of behaviour then an NLP practitioner course which includes these is likely to produce more evidence of Transformational Learning than a course that does not contain these elements.

### 6.4.3.2 Reflective journaling

Although the use of reflective journaling in itself may not ensure critical self-reflection as this may be subject to levels of maturity and cognition, (Imel, 1998) the further requirement for the NLP practitioners to undertake a reflective journal on a daily basis and the expectation that this would result in ‘double loop learning’ may have been factors. In ‘double loop learning’, behaviour goes beyond the correction of errors of ‘single loop learning’ to change the underlying values and assumptions which then results in changes of behaviour (Argyris, 2002; Argyris and Schon, 1978 &1974). The importance of making the journal part of a daily habit has been documented (Taylor, 2000). The requirement for the NLP practitioners to reflect not only on what has happened but what they can do differently in the future when faced with a similar situation reinforces ‘double loop learning’.

‘Double loop learning’ resonates with the concept of ‘Transformational Learning’ (Mezirow, 1978) in which the individual changes their perspective which can then result in changes of behaviour (Mezirow, 1990). I would therefore suggest that the requirement to undertake self-reflection through journaling as an essential component of the NLP practitioner course could have supported the development of
Transformational Learning for the participants. It could also explain the difference between the larger numbers of examples of Transformational Learning within this cohort. However, differences could also be explained by the NLP students having a more developed vocabulary than the NPQH cohort. This may then enable them to express ideas in a way which is synonymous with Transformational Learning. Difference could also be explained by personal differences which I will consider briefly next.

6.5 Individual differences

The personal characteristics which I identified from the individuals and described in Table 4 for the NPQH interviewees and in Table 9 for the NLP interviewees point to ten individuals with different life experiences. Although I have not used true ‘thick descriptions’ (Geertz, 1973) by providing the context, intentions and processing of the respondents, I recognise that these life experiences will affect the individuals concerned and I accept that there may be individual tensions that may be present within the interviewees which my methodology did not uncover. However, as I was interested in the effect of training courses, I continued to focus upon the patterns and trends that I identified in section 6.23 but whether these differences were influenced by the age and personality of the individual concerned is beyond the scope of this research. An ethnographic approach or case study approach may have identified aspects of the life experiences of the interviewees which affected their experience of training and this is a possible area for future research which will be returned to in chapter 7.
Throughout this chapter I have raised issues concerning the findings that are linked to the methodology that was adopted and which may have affected the data collection process. I will now consider this in greater detail.

6.6 Methodological considerations

In this section I will describe the issues that I found in the methodology that was chosen and also the issues regarding research into NLP. In section 6.1.6, I acknowledged difficulties in identifying the different levels of Transformational Learning. As described in section 4.8 of the methodology, the coding system for the purpose of content analysis was adapted from the work of Liimatainen et al (2001) with their focus on the use of reflective learning in nurse education. The levels of Transformational Learning which they used and which I adopted as codes for the purpose of content analysis appeared to encompass a sufficient number that would help to classify the data into mutually exclusive groups. However, I would now use an adapted version of this system which would make the process simpler as it would involve merging some of the levels.

I would now merge Levels 3 and 4 which would allow the respondent to judge the current situation and its appropriateness and also to recognize the subjective nature of these judgements. I would also merge Levels 5 and 6 to allow the respondent to reflect on whether they made swift judgements on the situation and whether more learning was needed in order to change their understanding of the situation.

This reduction in levels (and subsequently coding categories) reflects the approach adopted by Powell (1989) and Richardson and Maltby (1995).
which in turn is based upon Mezirow’s seven levels (1981). The new levels would now be as follows:

**Level 0.** Non reflective thoughtful action

**Level 1.** Reflectivity: awareness, observation, description

**Level 2.** Affective reflectivity: awareness of feelings

**Level 3.** (which combines Level 3 and Level 4): being aware of value judgements and the subjective nature of these

**Level 4** (which combines Level 5 and Level 6): assessment of whether further learning is required to assist in decision making

**Level 5** (previously Level 7) Theoretical reflectivity: at this stage, the student now has the awareness that their perceptions may not always be helpful and allows changes in perspective to occur.

Finally I would add an additional level which I describe as Level 6 in which respondents could provide evidence of a change in their behaviour which may entail a change of thought or a different course of action which has resulted from the learning. In this way I have adapted the coding system from both Mezirow (1981) and Liimatainen, et al (2001). This may then provide specific evidence to identify whether there had been a shift in perception and behaviour.

The individual’s response to the interview questions through self-reporting is open to misinterpretation on the part of interviewer and interviewee and I have at all times attempted to acknowledge my own bias towards NLP. What may be less open to interpretation is evidence which clearly describes a difference in perspective or of behaviour. For example, when Neil describes his leadership style before and after his NLP training he describes his early style of leadership as: “...defining a path and pointing it out” but after his NLP experience, he describes a more collaborative approach in which he is:
...much, much more inclined to develop a vision with people rather than just have my own and go in my own way and hope that people will follow... (Neil, NLP).

If I had asked him to give an example of how he now developed the vision and contrasted this to what he would have done earlier, this would have provided evidence of Mezirow’s Level 10 in which there is a “reintegration of this changed perspective within the individual” and would support the identification of Transformational Learning with particular reference to any resulting changes of perception and behaviour.

I also think that had I utilised interview techniques which could draw out the inner world of the interviewee, then it may have created different data sets. These questions would then be in line with suggestions by Tosey et al (2005) and Tosey and Mathison (2009b) that Transformational Learning can be reported through a system which they describe as ‘guided introspection’ in which the interviewer “facilitates the learner’s exploration of their own sensory and/or symbolic ‘inner landscape’ of experience,” (Tosey and Mathison, 2009b:10)

I acknowledge that the interview questions were not designed to elicit the different levels of Transformational Learning. Furthermore, within the development of the interview questions, greater attention could have been paid to the structure of the questions and perhaps some examples so that the interviewees had a better understanding of what was required of them. In this way, I could have probed for examples of changes of behaviour and explored the reasons for them which may have resulted in greater consistency in the reporting of the stages of Transformational Learning and particularly at level 7. The use of the term ‘personal development’ has also been identified as a possible drawback in the design of the interview
questions (section 6.2.2). Greater attention to the design, structure and language of the interview questions could have provided clearer answers to the research questions as posed in section 1.5.

With regard to research into NLP, the methodology selected could also have been less reliant upon self-perception. In section 4.4, I describe how NLP as ‘the study of the structure of subjective experience’ (Dilts and DeLozier, 2004; 849) might be thought to lead towards a naturalistic approach with an interpretive paradigm in which meaning is constructed, an alternative approach could have been adopted. Although I will describe this in greater depth in chapter 7, selecting a methodology in which examples of changes in perception, reported by the leader could be supported with examples of changes in behaviour reported by the leader or observed by their followers would provide evidence that Transformational Learning had taken place. In NLP training this could require NLP students to provide evidence of changes. Furthermore, since leadership is linked with ‘followership’ (Western, 2008) and is the product of the quality and interaction between leaders and followers (Collinson, 2006), there is a need for the opinions of the followers to be canvassed. I would suggest that this lack could be a flaw in any study on leadership.

6.6.1 Challenges to generalisability

These drawbacks within the methodology could have had a detrimental influence on the quality of the data that I collected but as the same questions were asked of all the respondents, the responses generated came from a consistent approach. What is more open to challenge is the small number of interviews that were carried out. As described in section 4.9,
the selection of the individuals was based upon non-probability sampling described as ‘purposive sampling’ (Robson, 2002; Cohen et al, 2007) which would provide cases for study in depth (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) but will not contribute to the generalisability of the research (Robson, 2002).

However, the evidence is consistent across cohorts, apart from the one exception in each. Any findings are within the limits of small scale research projects within a Postmodern world which recognizes the plurality and subjectivity of views (Grogan and Simmons, 2004). I therefore do not claim that these results are generalisable but may simply indicate areas of future research and may suggest small scale additions to leadership training which may be of benefit in the future. Both of these issues will be explored in greater depth in chapter 7.

6.7 Conclusions

At the beginning of this chapter I questioned the value of the models of emotional intelligence, inter and intra personal intelligences and Transformational Learning but maintained that they had usefulness in this research project. Emotional intelligence and inter and intra personal intelligences can be used to describe the behaviours which may be of use to leaders today. Transformational Learning describes a process that might or might not be taking place as individuals change their perception of a situation to adopt a different attitude or behaviour. Transformational Learning also contains elements which are part of emotional intelligence. The ‘self-awareness’ of emotional intelligence has links with stage 2 and 3 of Transformational Learning in which there is self-examination and a critical assessment of one’s own assumptions. The ‘self-management’ of emotional
intelligence can be thought of as having links with exploring options for new ways of behaving through stages 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 of Transformational Learning. It is ‘perspective transformation’ whereby through critical self-reflection, an individual changes their understanding of a situation, the relationships they have with others and develops a different set of beliefs or values that then translates into a change of behaviour. It is this process that encompasses two of the four constructs of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000); self-awareness and self-management. Transformational Learning and emotional intelligence are therefore linked.

As part of a professional doctorate my research is primarily concerned with what may or may not be of use in training courses for school leaders. This will include identifying whether NLP has had an influence on the acquisition of emotional intelligence through the process of Transformational Learning which is of relevance if the personal qualities of the leader are important in leadership today. Despite issues with the methodology which I adopted and despite critiques of the concepts of emotional intelligence, inter and intra personal intelligences and Transformational Learning which I acknowledge, I would suggest that my research has demonstrated that the larger numbers of examples of Transformational Learning within the NLP trained leaders could have been a result of two elements of the NLP practitioner course:

- the adoption by the NLP trained leaders of the presuppositions of NLP
- the requirement to complete self-reflective journals.

I will consider what they mean in the next chapter where I will also draw together ideas for future research. This will include recommendations for the
NPQH course and I will also suggest how NLP could benefit from adopting aspects of practice from NPQH.
Chapter 7

7.0 Conclusions and recommendations from the research

Bassey (1998) described the purpose of small scale research projects as leading to “fuzzy generalisations” yet such projects will also provide knowledge which “will be of interest or use to an audience” (Hammersley, 2001; 14). It was in this spirit that I undertook my research. As part of a professional doctorate which involves practitioner research, I hoped to identify aspects of training courses which would support the personal development of leaders. This in turn would contribute to a working model of leadership training to inform future training programmes. In this chapter I will draw together the main findings from my own small scale research project which will include recommendations for future leadership training courses. I will also suggest further areas of research and make recommendations concerning the methodology as a result of my experiences. First, however, I will briefly outline the original research questions which explored two training programmes, undertaken by senior leaders within education; the NPQH (National Professional Qualification for Headship prior to 2010) and a practitioner training course in NLP (Neuro Linguistic Programming), and then outline the findings.

7.1 The research questions

My original idea was to compare two training courses to see which would support the development of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) or inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983). The subject of my thesis therefore was to investigate the effect of both of these courses on the
personal development of school leaders. This would be demonstrated in the leaders’ development of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) or inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983). Through personal development, they would demonstrate self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. The research used Transformational Learning both as a lens to focus on the interpretation of the data and as a conceptual framework through which the actions or events might be explained (Dey, 1993). The reason for this focus upon the personal development of the leaders, rather than any particular organisational skills, was the recognition that the negative behaviours of any leader can have a negative effect upon the emotional landscape of the organisation that they lead (Barsade and Gibson, 2007). The management of self, therefore, is as important as management of others (Hill and Lineback, 2011). Leaders in the 21st century must:

…personify the qualities expected in any worker in their field as well as some of the more generic attributes of a leader- for instance, enthusiasm, integrity, toughness and fairness, humanity, energy and resilience…
(Adair, 2003; 85)

For the purpose of my research, as outlined in chapter 1, I established five research questions:

1. Using critical analysis of the concept of NLP and the concepts behind it, what effect does it have upon the development of leadership through personal development?

2. Using critical analysis of the NPQH programme and the thinking that underpins the course, what effect does it have upon the development of leadership through personal development?

3. What are the links between leadership and personal development, including a critical analysis of the psychological aspects of leadership?

4. Which aspects of both courses support the personal development of school leaders?
5. Which aspects of NLP and the NPQH programme, if any, could be used by educational leaders to become more effective leaders?

I developed these five questions into four objectives which would be investigated using a critical review of literature and an in depth survey of a contrasting cohort of NPQH and NLP trained school leaders as follows:

1. Identify the claims made for NLP and personal development, through a critical review of the literature and available evidence.

2. Identify any links between current leadership programmes and leadership development through personal development through a critical review of theory and an analysis of relevant secondary data.

3. Identify the most recent theories of leadership in education and the link between leadership development and personal development through a critical review of literature available.

4. By undertaking in depth interviews of NPQH and NLP trained leaders in education, identify differences and similarities in their experience of training and how this has supported their development both personally and as leaders.

To address objectives one and two as described above, I will draw together the findings from the critical review of literature

7.2 The findings from the critical review of the literature

NLP has been a topic of discussion for over thirty years (Kong and Farrell, 2011). It remains a contentious subject with critics (Gray, 2012; Witkowski 2010; Roderique- Davies, 2009; Craft, 2001) arguing that it lacks an evidence base and is a series of strategies rather than a theory. As Roderique-Davies writes:

NLP masquerades as a legitimate form of psychotherapy, makes unsubstantiated claims about how humans think and behave, purports to encourage research in a vain attempt to gain credibility, yet fails to provide evidence that it actually works. (Roderique- Davies, 2009; 62)
However, there are also those who recognise it can have a positive impact in a variety of different areas learning ranging from teaching and learning (Almond, 2011; Tosey and Mathison, 2010; Churches and Terry, 2007; Legall and Dondon, 2006; Mahoney, 2003; Tosey and Mathison, 2003a; Milrood, 2002) to therapy (Cheal, 2010; Gray, 2008).

Through the critical review of literature, NLP did appear to have had an impact on personal development (Carey et al, 2010). The evidence from a questionnaire which I developed and administered pre and post an NLP practitioner training course and which was conducted with three separate cohorts of NLP practitioners and my experience as an NLP practitioner and trainer over 10 years both suggested that NLP helped participants to shift their self and world view as described in section 1.5.

Much of the data about the NPQH prior to 2012 is no longer available, but from the data that is available, the effect of NPQH upon personal development appears to be small although the course was not primarily designed around personal development. This is noticeable in data from head teachers in two national studies that are still available who claimed that even after their course, they needed more confidence as well as specific skills (Estyn, 2010; NCSL, 2003).

The most recent development in the literature on leadership, however, does suggest that there is a need for leaders to demonstrate the skills of emotional intelligence or inter and intra personal intelligences (Begley, 2008; Hargreaves, 2008). Although the concepts of ‘emotional intelligence’ and ‘inter and intra personal intelligences’ themselves are subject to challenge, (Morris, 2011; Waterhouse, 2006), they remain models which help to explain the behaviours which are expected of leaders today.
(Joseph and Newman, 2010; Salovey and Grewal, 2005) and although all models are subject to change and development, I used the models in the context of this research as a description of behaviours or attitudes expected by leaders today.

Subsequent reading suggested that the impact of self-reflection through learning journals (Kidd and Czerniawski, 2010; Ghaye and Lillyman, 2006; Moon, 2006; Rolfe et al, 2001) was an essential part of training and development. Although the NPQH course contained opportunities for reflection, this was not in the format of reflective journals. The NLP practitioner programme that the NLP trained leaders undertook, however, required them to undertaken reflective journaling. This use of reflective journaling may have been a factor in the personal development of the NLP trained leaders and came from the training design and delivery rather than from any specific NLP skills.

My conclusions were that NLP, though contested in its effectiveness, did appear to support shifts in the personal development of individuals. NPQH also supported shifts although it was not primarily designed as such. Furthermore, leadership today requires leaders to demonstrate emotional intelligence which can be developed through personal development. In the data collected from the interviews, therefore, I was primarily concerned with trying to find evidence on the particular aspects of the training programmes that supported the personal development of school leaders. In order to do this, the answers to the interview questions were analysed in four different ways, firstly by comparing answers to each individual questions.

Secondly I analysed the data using the theory of Transformational Learning to shed light on the process and the changes that individuals may
have described. The theory of Transformational Learning to explain changes of perception may be too simplistic to explain the complexity of the process involved. I also question whether it is possible to create a model which can take into account the complexity of individual change in one single model. However, Transformational Learning still remains a useful model of learning which can help to describe changes of perception on the part of the learner as opposed to changes in skills or knowledge. As a result, I used the theory and the stages of Transformational Learning (Mezirow, 1990) as a coding system to support data analysis. The third stage of data analysis involved further data reduction to identify content, process and premise reflections which are types of reflection associated with Transformational Learning. Finally I identified references to actions and emotive reactions to situations to attempt to discriminate between those which involved critical self-reflection and those which were actions without reflections, because critical self-reflection is an integral aspect of Transformational Learning (Merriam, 2004).

7.3 The findings from the data

From the data that was collected and analysed, my research shows that there were three similarities between the initial responses of both cohorts of leaders to the interview questions; each took something different from the course, each was involved in some form of self-reflection and each recognised the importance of relationships within their role. The fact that they all took something different from the courses they experienced, poses a challenge to leadership training courses which will be described in detail in section 7.5. It also suggests that devising a ‘one size fits all’ course is untenable and more focus should be upon leaders identifying their
developmental needs and then being able to undertake tasks which require them to demonstrate their development. The strengths of the NPQH course, which were referred to in the interviews, were the school based task and the development of a portfolio of evidence to support the development of skills and competencies. Both of these tasks can provide developmental opportunities that are based on individual needs and the value of the inclusion of such tasks will be referred to again in section 7.5.

There were however, two main differences between the NLP trained leaders and the NPQH trained leaders as follows:

1. The NLP trained leaders were more consistent in their understanding of the concept of personal development than the NPQH trained leaders.

2. The NLP trained leaders showed more examples of Transformational Learning than the NPQH trained leaders.

These differences do not suggest that the NPQH leaders were not involved in personal development but may be as a result of the terminology used which was unfamiliar. Use of the terms ‘emotional intelligence’ or ‘inter and intra personal intelligence’ might have yielded different responses.

Of more significance, however, is the finding that NLP trained leaders showed more examples of Transformational Learning than NPQH trained leaders. Despite scepticism about the evidence for Transformational Learning (Tosey et al, 2005), the Guild of NLP accredited NLP training courses that these particular leaders undertook included learning experiences that possibly supported the development of Transformational Learning. Through their development of Transformational Learning, they perhaps demonstrated higher levels of emotional intelligence or inter and intrapersonal intelligences. The learning experiences in the NLP practitioner
course which may be of relevance here are the adoption of the NLP presuppositions, particularly ‘the map is not the territory’ in which NLP practitioners accept that their perception of an event is not an accurate representation of that event.

The shifts that individuals made in their world and self-view in the pre and post NLP practitioner questionnaire support this. In addition, the structure of the NLP practitioner course required self-reflection through journaling and the use of reflective journaling too may have made shaped the differences described above.

However, I do acknowledge that there are issues within the methodology that was adopted which challenge these findings. I will suggest how the methodology could be improved and adapted in the next section.

7.4 The findings from the methodology

Within my consideration of the chosen methodology, there are four issues which have arisen and which, were the project to be repeated, I would do differently. In addition there is an issue which arose as the interviews were being analysed which for me reaffirms my use of counts as a data analysis process in which I used descriptive statistics which allowed the frequency of topics, themes or even key words to be counted.

Firstly there is the difficulty in identifying whether Transformational Learning took place. The questions asked did not elicit examples which were easy to interpret. In order to improve this, I would have included within the interview schedule, questions which required the respondent to describe a situation that they had found personally challenging and how they dealt with
it before their training. I would then ask for information on how they had dealt with a similar situation after their training. I would also allow for supplementary probes to elicit additional information. In this way, it would enable more accurate clarification of changes in perception and subsequent changes in behaviours.

Secondly, there is the difficulty of identifying the different levels of Transformational Learning. This could have been improved by using questions which reflected these levels. Also, rather than use the coding system from Liimatainen et al (2001), this could have been simplified to identify the stages of Transformational Learning by merging some of the coding categories and ensuring the interview questions reflected these categories. The additional level that I suggested would then require them to provide evidence of change in behaviour that may have resulted from their learning. This level would correspond to level 7 of Mezirow’s model of the 10 levels of Transformational Learning (1981) and would support greater clarity in the identification of Transformational Learning with particular reference to the identification of any resulting changes both of perception and subsequent behaviour.

Thirdly, the use of the terms ‘personal development’ in the interview questions could have been replaced by language that may have been more easily understood by the respondents as described in section 7.3 above. A pilot study with 2 interviews coded appropriately could perhaps have identified these issues but the use of Transformational Learning as an interpretive lens was not adopted until well into the data collection period as it was very much a result of the on-going interaction between data and further reading (Tracy, 2013; O’Neill, 2005).
This approach, however, would still not have provided evidence of changes of perspective that was not as a result of self-disclosure by the respondents and any positive response may have been influenced by the positive relationship between myself and the respondents (Robson, 2002; Flick, 2002). An alternative methodology would have been to adopt an ethnographic approach, using participant observation but the time constraints would have been impossible unless it was limited to an in depth case study which was not considered appropriate (chapter 4.6).

Finally, I acknowledge the issue of validity which is linked to generalisability, replicability and controllability (Cohen et al, 2007). There are limitations to the generalisability of the research due to the small number of interviews that were carried out. However, the research was carried out with rigorous and accurate application of an appropriate methodology and with the researcher retaining detachment from the process. Furthermore, the research is replicable and controllable (Cohen, et al, 2007).

Although it is difficult to ensure that in qualitative research the same conditions are found (Bryman, 2004), the detail that I have provided would allow other studies to be undertaken on training courses and the development of Transformational Learning. In this way, other studies could be undertaken which may support generalisation of the findings if they found similar results (Robson, 2002). Acknowledging and using existing models of research could then build on studies already undertaken and create more findings that could add weight to generalisability.

The issue which arose when analysing the interview transcripts concerns the use of names, albeit invented names to identify the different transcripts. I found this process challenged reflexivity as I began to be drawn
into identifying with the respondents more closely than when I used numbers rather than names. I believe that I remained able to challenge the data because of the use of counts which supported reflexivity. As I read and re-read the data from certain individuals, I felt at times drawn towards what they were saying because I could remember personal attributes about them. When I put this aside and returned to the process of counting responses, it made it easier for me to put this data into context. I also followed Robson’s list of recommendations to identify areas of bias (2002), paying particular attention to his suggestion to ‘stand back’ and review the data again. This situation, however, has made me even more aware of the challenges for the small scale researcher.

By consistently acknowledging my own perspectives and reflecting upon subjectivity and bias, adopting an open ended stance upon data collection and analysis, collecting and engaging with ‘rich’ data, balancing descriptions of data with interpretation, providing transparent analysis that is grounded in the data and offering alternative analysis and conclusions (Lichtman, 2006), I believe I attempted to address the problem of researcher and data trustworthiness and credibility. Any findings, I would suggest are within the limits of small scale research projects within a Postmodern world which recognizes the plurality and subjectivity of views (Grogan and Simmons, 2002). Such small scale research projects can then make “appropriate claims” through “cautious detachment” and “restrained sense” (Holliday, 2007; 164). It is in this spirit that I would like to suggest the following considerations for adopting within training in leadership, within NPQH and within the NLP community.
7.5 The implications for leadership training

The literature review in section 2.5.1 describes the importance of opportunities for adult learners to be able to learn according to their perceived needs. The need for personalisation within leadership training was recognised in the Fast Track scheme (Churches et al, 2009). In this scheme, those who had the potential for leadership were supported and trained according to their individual needs. Furthermore, this scheme provided opportunities for the development of ‘self’ through coaching in order to provide:

…real-life leadership learning and experience of the interpersonal and intrapersonal challenges that may need to be encountered in order to achieve effective early leadership development.

(Churches et al, 2009; 284).

However, the Fast Track Scheme was stopped in 2008 after seven years and is an example of how politics shapes education much as in the same way NPQH is no longer compulsory as from 2012.

The critical analysis of literature in my research project demonstrates that there is indeed a need for effective leaders to be able to lead self as well as others and combine cognitive skills as well as emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) or inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983) (section 2.3). This supports the argument for a strong differentiation between leadership and management (as discussed in section 2.3.1) for my research shows that the NPQH course resulted in leaders who focussed upon tasks but were still concerned that they did not have the necessary knowledge of day to day school management.
As described in chapter 2.2.1 of the analysis of the literature, by 2008, 50% of all those who had trained in NPQH had not taken up a headship (Barker, 2008). The reasons given included a lack of confidence, a lack of knowledge of specific skills such as budgeting or finance and uncertainty about interview questions. These findings were replicated from earlier surveys (NCSL, 200a; NCSL, 2007). The programme undertaken by the NPQH respondents included learning specific skills (such as financial management), learning more generative skills (such as project management), taking responsibility for their own personal development, through reviewing their practice and setting personal targets and included the need for knowledge about the significance of interpersonal relationships and the ability to acknowledge and give feedback.

However, there was little evidence from the NPQH interviews that the trainees had acquired such knowledge and skills. Only Anita acknowledged acquiring practical information although three respondents acknowledged the impact of the school based task (Anita, David and Esther). Two respondents acknowledged the importance of reflection (Anita and David) and two acknowledged increased confidence (Bronwen and Clare). That the NPQH interviewees acknowledged different aspects of the course that they felt had been useful may be because of the difficulty in tailoring any course to the individual needs of teachers who are entering into a leadership role as they will all come with a variety of school experiences and life experiences.

I would like to suggest, therefore, that any leadership training must involve opportunities for the leader to develop the knowledge or the knowledge based skills that they have identified that they need. The school based task and the development of a portfolio of evidence to support the
development of skills and competencies in the NPQH training programme could be enhanced further after diagnostic assessment, coaching had contributed to the development of a competency based framework which was based upon the individual needs of the leaders rather than a generalised framework.

One key area within the NPQH training undertaken by this cohort was described as ‘Developing self and working with others’ which involved showing self-awareness (NCSL, 2009a). This was acknowledged by two of the NPQH interviewees and is in contrast to the responses from the NLP practitioners who acknowledged the changes to themselves and an increasing level of self-awareness:

> Definitely much more aware of different people and …kind of what it is that drives and influences people and where they come from ....and how to then relate to them in a way that works for both of us. (Oscar, NLP)

The NPQH course also used feedback from the colleagues of the trainees and the use of coaching which could have contributed to their personal development but this was not acknowledged. The National College of School Leadership’s final review of the impact of coaching on its ‘Leading from the Middle’ course identified four areas where participants and observers perceived improvement; leading innovation and change, increasing knowledge and understanding of the middle leaders’ role, developing competence as team leaders and improved management of resources (Jones, 2006). This would correspond to the viewpoint of Whitmore (2004), Skeffington and Zeus (2005) and Tolhurst (2006) that coaching is about impacting upon management outcomes and people development.
However, the question remains whether existing training programmes can influence the acquisition of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) or inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983). Again I acknowledge the criticisms of these theories and the theory of Transformational Learning and have used them as a means of describing the process whereby an individual can reflect on what has happened and change their perspective and their actions to a more useful one through the process of self-reflection; an idea which has been at the heart of this research. I have described the relationship between Transformational Learning and both emotional intelligence and inter and intra personal intelligences in table 18:

Table 18 Links between emotional intelligence and Inter and Intra personal intelligences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASPECTS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE</th>
<th>ASPECTS OF INTER PERSONAL INTELLIGENCE</th>
<th>ASPECTS OF INTRA PERSONAL INTELLIGENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-awareness</td>
<td></td>
<td>Introspective and self-reflective capacities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-management</td>
<td></td>
<td>Introspective and self-reflective capacities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social awareness</td>
<td>Interaction with others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship management</td>
<td>Interaction with others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gabriel (2008) links Transformational Learning with the development of transformational leadership behaviours. Participants across the majority of the nineteen leaders in her research acknowledged the following amongst the outcomes of Transformational Learning; perspective change, values change, increased confidence, self-awareness and autonomy. However, all but two of her sample acknowledged changes to their leadership framework as well. This leadership framework consisted of seven attributes; credibility, communications, care, creativity, confidence, follower centred, visionary and principled. Moreover, the entire sample acknowledged changes to their skills
and knowledge. Again, this evidence supports my findings that current leadership courses provide opportunities for skills and knowledge growth but fewer opportunities for perspective change which would lead to Transformational Learning and this needs to be re addressed to help leaders to develop the personal qualities that they need (Begley, 2008; Hargreaves, 2008; Boyatzis and McKee, 2005; Looman, 2003).

I wish to emphasise that the ‘perspective change’ of Transformational Learning (Mezirow, 1978) is at the very heart of NLP through the presupposition that ‘the map is not the territory’ in which NLP practitioners accept that their way of understanding the world is different from that of others and they may need flexibility to adopt more useful behaviours. The response from the NLP trained leaders showed that they recognised the value of these skills and showed evidence of more examples of Transformational Learning than the NPQH trained leaders. This suggests that taking an NLP course could have supported the development of these attributes. The recommendation that I wish to make, therefore, is that leadership training should involve some aspects of NLP. Those aspects of NLP that may be of use can be seen in the following table in which I have identified the level of Transformational Learning and attempted to identify where inter personal and intra personal intelligences may overlap.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stages of Transformational Learning</th>
<th>Evidence of inter (interaction with others) and intra personal (introspective and self-reflective capacities) intelligence</th>
<th>Links to NLP skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level 0. Non reflective thoughtful action</td>
<td>Inter personal intelligence</td>
<td>Sensory acuity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 1. Reflectivity</td>
<td>Inter personal intelligence</td>
<td>Well-formed issue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 3. Discriminant reflectivity</td>
<td>Intra personal intelligence</td>
<td>Present state compared to desired state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 4. Judgemental reflectivity</td>
<td>Intra personal intelligence</td>
<td>‘The map is not the territory’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 5. Conceptual reflexivity</td>
<td>Intra personal intelligence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 6. Psychic reflectivity</td>
<td>Intra personal intelligence</td>
<td>‘People have all the resources that they need’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘People do the best they can with the choices they think are available to them’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘There is a positive intention behind every action’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 7. Theoretical reflectivity</td>
<td>Inter personal intelligence</td>
<td>New Behaviour Generator to create further choices of behaviour</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Therefore if a leadership training course involved the NLP skills as described in the column above, it would support the personal development of the leaders. I would also like to suggest that any training course that is established should follow the best practice of andragogy and use experiential learning to ensure that the adults were fully involved and fully motivated and
not just going through the motions in order to gain the qualification as described below:

It was a case of getting through as I knew I needed the qualification at the end of it so I didn’t find it particularly useful. Bronwen (NPQH).

Furthermore my research demonstrates the positive impact of journaling when undertaking critical reflective practice (3.3.5) so training should also involve the use of reflective journals. This needs to be coupled with trainers who were also skilled facilitators and could demonstrate their own high levels of emotional intelligence would mean that if, and when, emotional issues were raised, there could be adequate support. This could then further support Transformational Learning, particularly at Level 2 (Affective reflectivity: awareness of feelings), Level 4 (Judgemental reflectivity: being aware of value judgements and the subjective nature of these) and Level 6 (Psychic reflectivity: the habit of making precipitant judgements about people based on limited information about them) when the issues raised could be challenging for some.

I suggest, therefore, that any leadership training course involves some critical reflective practice, facilitated by tutors who are able to handle the emotions of themselves and others. I would also like to propose that any leadership training course involves the acquisition of some NLP skills (as described in table 19) which may facilitate the development of emotional intelligence by improving inter and intra personal intelligence as described. The impact of NLP training upon the personal development, the impact of self-reflection and the importance of establishing positive relationships was acknowledged by the NLP trained leaders. Within the NPQH course, a greater focus upon self-reflection could then be balanced with specific tasks
linked to the head teacher competencies that included acquiring some of the basic day to day information that was described as lacking by the NPQH respondents (Bronwen and Clare).

7.5.1 Recommendations for the new NPQH course

As of 2013, the current NPQH has been revised to demand tougher entry level requirements, more demanding content and a focus on the key skills of leading teaching and learning, managing behaviour and managing teacher performance. The new course will include both compulsory modules as well as some which will offer more choice. There will also be a move towards a licensed approach to provision which will allow a wider range of providers and will be open to schools, academies, charities, Higher Education Institutions and private companies to offer the course (NPQH news, 2011). Potentially this could create an opportunity for providers to include elements in the course which will help support the wider development of the head teacher and move away from a transactional focus. It will be particularly useful if there can be elements to help the new head teacher deal with the emotional challenges of dealing with teacher underperformance which is a major part of the new course outline.

However, the content of the NPQH in 2012 is primarily task based, whether this is leading a project in a challenging placement school or their own school, tackling school improvement projects or undertaking the three compulsory modules described as ‘Leading and improving teaching’, ‘Leading an effective school’ and ‘Succeeding in headship’. Training delivery includes optional coaching in order to create an opportunity to:
Draw together, synthesise and integrate your learning
Reflect on progress, build on strengths and identify any further development required
Build self-awareness and improve your own leadership
Build coaching behaviours into your own leadership

(NPQH, 2012)

There will also be opportunities in the compulsory part of the NPQH course for trainees to reflect on their own leadership development needs and their school’s leadership needs, with reference to the leadership behaviours of highly skilled leaders. From the content as described above, there is still a strong commitment to developing leaders by developing certain behaviours of leaders, linked to practical tasks. One of the elective modules is on the subject of leading teams, but nowhere is there any mention of the need for self-management or relationship management, although the latter may be included in the finer detail of the training schedule and staff management will certainly be a large part of the school based tasks. My conclusion, however, is that the revised NPQH course is still very much based upon the tasks a leader should carry out. Only the coaching element possibly involves developing the skills of self-management and this element is optional. I recommend that this element should be enhanced.

From 2012, however, NPQH was no longer compulsory for new head teachers. This does challenge the very need for the existence of the NPQH. If it is not compulsory and if there is limited funding available, then it begs the question as to why any potential head teachers would either expect their school to commit the several thousands of pounds it currently costs, not including supply cover costs or be in a position to fund the course themselves during the recession, pay freeze and rising prices that have been evident since 2010. Government policy created the requirement for the
training and within thirteen years, government policy has rescinded the requirement.

This is an example of a policy that has been created by hierarchy (Colebatch, 1998; Hill, 1993) with a purpose to raise standards of pupil achievement in the context of yet another annual OFSTED report that still cites 33% of all schools inspected in 2011 with standards of leadership and management at satisfactory or inadequate and only 14% as outstanding (OFSTED 2011). In 2001, this figure was 24% with 40% very good or excellent (OFSTED 2001). This may be a result of the changes to the OFSTED criteria but also may question the very validity of the measurements taken and the judgements made. It may also challenge the value of top down government policies and extensive investment which has not been corroborated or challenged by at least a small pilot study or case study; a point made by Riddell, Weedon, Fuller, Healey, Hurst, Kelly and Piggott (2007) when they describe how local factors can affect how national policies are delivered in different contexts.

7.5.2 Recommendations for NLP training

In section 2.1.2, I described the issues associated with NLP and its acceptance as a credible body of skills that can be taught. The strength of the NPQH course that was acknowledged by the respondents was the school based project. Although some NLP training courses require the participants to learn the NLP skill of modelling and to submit a project in which they demonstrate their ability to use this skill (INLPTA, 2012), it would add more rigour to the NLP training course if this was a general requirement. Similarly although the NPQH trained leaders were critical of the scope of the
files which they had to gather to demonstrate a variety of competencies, a similar approach within NLP training would again add rigour. NLP is still subject to criticism (Craft, 2001; Roderique-Davies, 2009; Gray, 2012) and yet advocates recommend its applications can be taken seriously in a variety of fields from teaching and learning (Almond, 2011; Churches and West-Burnham, 2008; Tosey and Mathison, 2003a and 2010) to therapy (Cheal, 2010; Gray, 2008). The NLP community needs to demonstrate that it is prepared to demand quality training from providers whose students can then provide systematic and rigorous evidence of their capabilities. Increasing the credibility and rigour of NLP training in this way may then inspire others to research its effectiveness. Furthermore, this may encourage greater professional and critical dialogue between the academic research community and those who support NLP but do not have a voice within the academic world; a point cogently made by Tosey and Mathison as early as 2003 (Tosey and Mathison 2003b). The areas for future research as suggested from this research will be described next.

7.6 The contribution of the research to the body of knowledge

As my research was part of an Ed.D. which is a professional doctorate and with my focus upon leadership training, I hoped to make a purposeful and useful contribution to the sum of knowledge about leadership training which could “critically inform educational judgements and decisions in order to improve educational action,” (Bassey, 1992; 39) and may bring about “worthwhile educational change” (Elliott, 1990; 2) I also hoped that my research would add to the sum of knowledge that already exists on the subject of the personal development of school leaders.
I acknowledge that the methodology which I adopted and the small sample of interviewees mean that the findings may not be generalisable. But I hope that this small scale research can contribute to a cumulative effect (Burckhardt and Schoenfeld, 2003) on what is known about leadership, NLP and personal development and in particular contribute to the growing body of research into NLP. In addition, such small scale research that is limited in application can form the basis for a wider research project which could be more generalisable (Fuller, Healey, Bradley and Hall, 2004) could support the evidence basis of other NLP research projects (Carey et al, 2010).

From my readings, I think that my research does have uniqueness in so far as I have suggested the usefulness of creating conditions for transformational learning in the context of school leadership. Firstly, these conditions include the adoption of aspects of NLP in the training which may support the development of critical self-reflection. These aspects are the adoption of the presuppositions, notably ‘the map is not the territory’ in which NLP practitioners accept that their way of understanding the world is different from that of others. Secondly the training course design needs to include reflective journaling.

I have also made assertions about the links between transformational learning and emotional intelligence. Firstly, there may be a link between the critical self-reflection required for the perception change of Transformational Learning (Mezirow, 1990) and the self-awareness and self-management of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000) and inter and intra personal intelligences (Gardner, 1993). Secondly, the critical self-reflection required for Transformational Learning, the development of emotional intelligence and inter and intra personal intelligence may be supported by the use of reflective
journaling. I have attempted to express this complex interrelationship diagrammatically as shown below:

Figure 3

Finally, I make the link that if leadership today requires leaders to be able to lead self as well as others, then these are skills which can be developed through the acquisition of emotional intelligence. I acknowledge that these are tentative links and fully accept that each of these issues requires extensive further research.

7.7 Future research

From the research that I undertook, three issues arose which could form the focus for future research. Firstly, if I was to undertake the research again, I would modify the interview questions in order to identify more easily the different stages of Transformational Learning. In addition, I would require both before and after measures: the interview questions would request the
respondents to think of challenging situations and to describe how they handled these situations both before training and after training. This could draw out changes to the way they perceived the situation and establish whether this corresponded to a change in behaviour. For example, from my own experience I have known teachers who have been very upset by a complaint from an aggressive parent and have acted defensively and the situation has got worse. Others have recognised that the parent was behaving in that way because of their concern over their child, demonstrated that they understood this concern and were able to solve the problem. I believe the second scenario demonstrates a change in perspective and subsequent change in behaviour and is evidence of Transformational Learning.

Secondly, I would change the methodology to reflect a mixed methods approach in which a large scale questionnaire which provided quantitative data on aspects of school life which leaders found most challenging. From this, a small group of school leaders would be offered an NLP practitioner training course and they could be interviewed in depth before and after the course about any of the type of incidents that had been identified through the large scale questionnaire to identify any changes in both their perspectives and their behaviours. As a contrast, a similar sized group of leaders who did not take the course could also be interviewed and any changes in both their perspectives and their behaviours identified. This might then indicate the effect of NLP on the perspective and behaviours of leaders on those occasions when leadership is required which is:

…much more about the fostering, nurturing and enabling of the emergence of self-organisation in an unpredictable and turbulent world…

(Morrison, 2002; 198)
The questionnaire would contain limited personal details to reveal the age profiles of the leaders and the stage of their career because a third question that requires research is the influence of individual characteristics on the acquisition of emotional intelligence. The information collected could also shed light on personal characteristics which may be a factor too in the type of people that are attracted to NLP. Post-doctoral research would provide the opportunity to create this large scale, statistically significant mixed methods approach.

The issue of whether individual differences had an influence on the development of emotional intelligence or inter and intrapersonal intelligences of the NPQH and NLP trained leaders has been raised in section 6.5 and remains unresolved. The use of a diagnostic tool for school leaders before they commence their training might reveal data about individual differences and perceived learning needs which could suggest areas to develop through the coaching element of NPQH. It might also reveal whether particular personality traits were dominant within either the NLP trained leaders or the NPQH trained leaders. It might also support the concept that some aspects of emotional intelligence overlap with standard personality factors (Zeidner et al, 2004).

As explained in section 2.1, access to relevant materials can be problematic. It is easy to identify an abstract which is helpful to a certain extent but sometimes there are texts which are difficult to access but may have provided useful perspectives on proposed research. For my part, I was disappointed not to be able to access Young’s study of NLP and leadership (Young, 1995) as this may have provided a useful insight into leadership and what she describes as ‘self-mastery’. Although there are now collections of
theses available online through the British library (http://www.ethos.bl.uk), it might be useful for future research that all new theses are automatically in digital form and stored centrally on a database available for students and interested parties. This would then enable students to take into account existing research as part of the literature review which precedes their research and is sometimes presented at conferences or in journals but goes no further (Carey et al, 2010).

However, this will not solve the issues of the many theses that are still only in hard copy and held in university or college libraries and so not available to the majority of students. It would be hoped that eventually all such materials could be available online but as the process is costly and as academic institutions face budget cuts, this is unlikely to happen soon but remains an aspirational target. Access to research has become easier since I began as a research student in 2008, as the power of the internet and the resources that are available online increase each year and as search engines become ever more sophisticated.

In addition, in order to overcome the issue of the absence of any conclusive research into the effectiveness of NLP, I would also like to suggest that some form of analysis of all existing research into NLP is developed. An investigation into relevant, existing research should be a prerequisite to any new research (Carey et al, 2009). This process should bolster the existing knowledge base as students will be able to augment their research with examples or counter examples found elsewhere. This could contribute to the cumulative effect of research (Burckhardt and Schoenfeld, 2003) acknowledging that individual differences of rationale and methodology would need to be taken into consideration. Furthermore, if
research into NLP was more focussed upon critically appraising its relevance to issues as Tosey and Mathison (2010) have demonstrated with regard to teaching and learning, it might have more credibility and encourage others to develop research projects which would support its use in a variety of fields.

7.8 Final thoughts

This thesis began as a study of two training courses and their role in supporting the personal development of school leaders. It compared a Neuro Linguistic Programming (NLP) practitioner course with the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH). My analysis of documentation demonstrates that the NPQH leadership training course was predominantly task focussed. The NLP training course, with the use of reflective journaling as a tool for learning, involved critical self-reflection which supported personal development.

Theories of human development are complex, yet NLP can support an understanding of the behaviour of self and others, particularly through the presuppositions of NLP. I would finally like to conclude that my research shows that there is a link between acquiring some of the skills of NLP and the development of emotional intelligence or inter and intrapersonal intelligences that can be identified through the evidence of Transformational Learning. But this is by no means automatic. It requires critical self-reflection, practice of the skills of state management and a willingness to accept the NLP presuppositions, particularly, ‘the map is not the territory’ in which NLP practitioners accept that their way of understanding the world is different from that of others and they may need flexibility to adopt more useful behaviours. The evidence from the questionnaire described in section 1.2 suggests that
this is a process that can happen over a period of six to nine months. NLP training may need to take place over an extended period of time and one issue that this research has not investigated is the differing length and quality of NLP training courses that are available to would be practitioners which may be a factor in the acquisition of the skills of NLP and the development of emotional intelligence or inter and intrapersonal intelligences.

The most recent development in the literature on leadership (Begley, 2008; Hargreaves, 2008; Boyatzis and McKee, 2005; Looman, 2003) suggests that there is a need for leaders to demonstrate the skills of knowing one’s own feelings and how one might react to events with the ability to understand and recognise emotions in others- key features of emotional intelligence or inter and intra personal intelligences. Recognising emotions in self and others is a regular part of working life. So leadership training courses should include practices which support the recognition of emotions. This can make the difference between a leader who is creating a positive, empowering and high achieving organisation and one whose organisation may be successful in the short term but ultimately is dysfunctional. For:

The evidence is overwhelming that experiencing and expressing positive emotions and moods tends to enhance performance at individual, group, and organizational levels. (Barsade and Gibson, 2007:51)

From the minute the school gates open on a Monday morning until they close again on a Friday evening, the school will contain the fluctuating ebb and flow of many different emotions. It is the leaders who must be able to steer a smooth passage and maintain a strong hand upon the tiller of their own emotional journey. If a head teacher acquires the skills of NLP and can demonstrate them through an NPQH style portfolio of competency based
evidence, that head teacher becomes a leader with more tools to create a positive, high performing organisation at the very heart of school improvement.
8.0 References


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### 9.1 The pre and post NLP practitioner survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I know how different feelings express themselves in my body</td>
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<tr>
<td>I am happy with myself and who I have become</td>
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<tr>
<td>I sense what’s really important to other people (i.e., their values and motivations)</td>
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<tr>
<td>I understand that people do the best they can, given the options they think are available to them</td>
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<tr>
<td>Where appropriate, I can choose a more resourceful way of thinking</td>
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<tr>
<td>I achieve my outcomes in life</td>
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<tr>
<td>I can achieve high quality rapport with a wide range of people</td>
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<tr>
<td>In everything I do, I aim for a positive impact for myself, for others and the wider community</td>
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<tr>
<td>I make good use of ideas generated from both my conscious and my unconscious minds</td>
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<tr>
<td>I have belief in myself</td>
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<tr>
<td>I am aware of other people’s differing needs regarding social interaction, and respond accordingly</td>
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<tr>
<td>I can feel compassion for other people, even those whose behaviours I disagree with</td>
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<tr>
<td>I am able to select a different emotional response to certain situations</td>
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<tr>
<td>In my life, I acknowledge the past, appreciate the present moment and can plan for future eventualities</td>
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<tr>
<td>I have high levels of satisfaction with my human interactions</td>
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<td>I can use conflict or potential conflict as a positive resource</td>
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<tr>
<td>I am aware of my life purpose</td>
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<tr>
<td>When things go wrong, I can reflect on what I have learnt</td>
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<tr>
<td>I am aware of people’s different thinking strategies and can use this to improve communications with others</td>
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<tr>
<td>There is no such thing as a difficult person</td>
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<tr>
<td>I select language (words, language patterns and tonality) according to different situations</td>
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<tr>
<td>My life purpose is on track</td>
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<tr>
<td>I maintain effective relationships, even with people I disagree with</td>
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<tr>
<td>In dealing with others, I can maintain a balance between dealing with the current issue and the longer term relationship</td>
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<td>I am aware of my beliefs and the impact they have on my life</td>
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<tr>
<td>I have all the internal resources I need to lead a fulfilled life</td>
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<tr>
<td>I am very good at noticing the details of other people’s expressions, behaviours and feelings</td>
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<tr>
<td>I respect other people, even those whose behaviour I do not like</td>
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<tr>
<td>I have choice in how I act</td>
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<tr>
<td>The life I lead is consistent with my core values</td>
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<tr>
<td>I give priority, quality time to sustain key personal relationships in my life</td>
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<tr>
<td>Where necessary, I compromise but without ever going against my core values</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

| Strongly disagree | | Strongly agree |
| --- | --- |

| I know what my core values are and I live by them | | |
| I use my internal dialogue as a positive internal coach | | |
| I am very good at anticipating how people are likely to respond to new situations | | |
| There is a positive intention for everything everybody does | | |
| When challenges arise, I can easily choose the most resourceful response | | |
| When my life goes off track, I know how to get it back on track | | |
| I understand and appreciate the views of those with whom I disagree | | |
| In any group, my role is purposeful, and takes account of the roles and responsibilities of others | | |
9.2. The development and design of the questionnaires

The origin of the questionnaire came from a conference held in September 2007 in which an NLP training organisation (John Seymour Associates now jsnlp) invited former NLP practitioners to a one day event to record interviews and discuss their perception of the impact of NLP upon their lives. It was suggested that a delegate should design a prototype of a questionnaire to be administered at the start and at the end of a ten month period in which delegates took an NLP practitioner course. It was suggested that this could indicate shifts in their world outlook which would correspond to changes in personal development.

Over a six month period, a series of statements were devised to correspond to the four areas of self-awareness, social awareness, self-management and relationship management. Each of these areas were further sub divided into two elements. Self-awareness involved an awareness of the respondent’s own world view and a sense of their own self-worth. Social awareness involved an awareness of others’ maps and a positive regard for other people. Self-management involved being aware and able to make choices in their response to life and achieving desired results in their life. Relationship management involved rating the quality of connection with others and working with others for shared goals.

A final forty statements which it was thought were appropriate were selected with each of the eight elements having five associated statements. These statements were designed to elicit a response agreeing or disagreeing with the statement. The statements were then arranged throughout the questionnaire so that each statement was next to one in a different category so that planned patterns of responses to these areas could not easily be
undertaken unless someone knew the theoretical underpinning which was unlikely at the start of the course. It is possible that by the end of the practitioner course some respondents may have been able to identify those associated with the NLP presuppositions, notably ‘the map is not the territory’ and those associated with key skills that were taught, particularly the use of ‘Well-formed outcomes’ and outcome thinking but as the respondents had a short time to complete the questionnaire, it is not likely that they would have had sufficient time to work this out and then decide on a suitable response.

The statements generated are shown below.

- I know how different feelings express themselves in my body
- I am happy with myself and who I have become
- I sense what’s really important to other people (i.e. their values and motivations)
- I understand that people do the best they can, given the options they think are available to them
- Where appropriate, I can choose a more resourceful way of thinking
- I achieve my outcomes in life
- I can achieve high quality rapport with a wide range of people
- In everything I do, I aim for a positive impact for myself, for others and the wider community
- I make good use of ideas generated from both my conscious and my unconscious minds
- I have belief in myself
- I am aware of other people’s differing needs regarding social interaction, and respond accordingly
- I can feel compassion for other people, even those whose behaviours I disagree with
- I am able to select a different emotional response to certain situations
- In my life, I acknowledge the past, appreciate the present moment and can plan for future eventualities
- I have high levels of satisfaction with my human interactions
- I can use conflict or potential conflict as a positive resource
- I am aware of my life purpose
- When things go wrong, I can reflect on what I have learnt
- I am aware of people’s different thinking strategies and can use this to improve communications with others
- There is no such thing as a difficult person
- I select language (words, language patterns and tonality) according to different situations
- My life purpose is on track
- I maintain effective relationships, even with people I disagree with
In dealing with others, I can maintain a balance between dealing with the current issue and the longer term relationship
I am aware of my beliefs and the impact they have on my life
I have all the internal resources I need to lead a fulfilled life
I am very good at noticing the details of other people's expressions, behaviours and feelings
I respect other people, even those whose behaviour I do not like
I have choice in how I act
The life I lead is consistent with my core values
I give priority, quality time to sustain key personal relationships in my life
Where necessary, I compromise but without ever going against my core values
I know what my core values are and I live by them
I use my internal dialogue as a positive internal coach
I am very good at anticipating how people are likely to respond to new situations
There is a positive intention for everything everybody does
When challenges arise, I can easily choose the most resourceful response
When my life goes off track, I know how to get it back on track
I understand and appreciate the views of those with whom I disagree
In any group, my role is purposeful, and takes account of the roles and responsibilities of others

The initial run of twenty five questionnaires was administered in the autumn of 2009. Respondents completed the questionnaires in the autumn, the scores were calculated for each statement and these were aggregated to provide a score for each quadrant. The results were not released to the respondents who completed the same self-rating questionnaire at the end of May in the following year. The scores were then calculated again and the percentage change was calculated before the questionnaires were returned to the respondents in June. A second run of the questionnaire was implemented in 2010-11 and a third year was completed in May 2012. It is possible that by the end of the practitioner course some respondents may have been able to identify those associated with the NLP presuppositions , notably ‘the map is not the territory’ and those associated with key skills that were taught, particularly the use of ‘Well-formed outcomes’(Dilts and
DeLozier, 2004) and outcome thinking but as the respondents had a short time to complete the questionnaire, it is not likely that they would have had sufficient time to work this out and then decide on a suitable response.

The rating scale went from ‘Strongly Agree’ to ‘Strongly Disagree’ with a mid-point which could have provided a default position which proved popular but this was not the case. A seven point scale appeared to give sufficient flexibility in responses so that respondents selected either side and demonstrated that they held views that were either positive or negative. For calculation purposes, the scale was rated as ‘Strongly agree’ with a rating of 5 down to ‘Strongly disagree’ with a rating of 0 and intermediate points calculated equally so that the scoring was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>4.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The intervening points were not named to allow the respondents to select whatever they felt appropriate without any linguistic bias.
### 9.3 The results of the questionnaire

Table 20 The results of the self-rating questionnaire 2009-10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUADRANT</th>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>2009-10 % POSITIVE CHANGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1 SELF AWARENESS</strong></td>
<td>Awareness of own world view</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sense of self worth</td>
<td>52.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. SOCIAL AWARENESS</strong></td>
<td>Awareness of others’ maps</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive regard for others</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. SELF MANAGEMENT</strong></td>
<td>Choices in my response to life</td>
<td>31.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Achieving results in my life</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4. RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT</strong></td>
<td>Quality of connection with others</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Working with others for shared goals</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QUADRANT</td>
<td>THEME</td>
<td>2009-12 % POSITIVE CHANGE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 SELF AWARENESS</td>
<td>Awareness of own world view</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sense of self worth</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 SOCIAL AWARENESS</td>
<td>Awareness of others’ maps</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive regard for others</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 SELF MANAGEMENT</td>
<td>Choices in my response to life</td>
<td>31.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Achieving results in my life</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT</td>
<td>Quality of connection with others</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Working with others for shared goals</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10.0 The consent form

DATA COLLECTION CONSENT FORM 2010-2012

In accordance with the University of Gloucestershire Research Ethics Handbook of Principles and Procedures, your consent is requested to use the data that has been collected from the interviews which you completed during 2010-2012. The data collected will be used to contribute to the research undertaken as part of the Ed D thesis by Pamela Keevil. This may entail some sections of the research being made public at conferences or through academic articles.

At no time will any individual names be attributed, neither will it be possible to trace respondents as there is no reference to age, gender, position or size and type of education establishment. After use, the transcripts will be shredded and destroyed. However, I would like permission to use quotes from the interview transcripts but nothing of a personal nature or where something has been said ‘in confidence’ or ‘off the record’ will be included. I am particularly interested in the four following areas:

1. Each person finding a different aspect that made an impact on them (linked to Jungian type)
2. As above but linked to logical levels
3. The strength of self-reflection (linked to Meta cognition) and self-awareness
4. The awareness of different ‘styles’ of leadership (i.e. whether relationship or task based)

I give permission for the data generated from the interviews to be used as described above.

Name of participant

Date............

[Signature]
11.0 Guild of NLP practitioner core content

Well-formed outcomes
Presuppositions
State management
Rapport
Sensory acuity
Calibration
Representational systems
Perceptual positions
Meta model
Milton model
Anchors
Sub modalities
Strategies
Frames

http://www.professionalguildofnlp.com/
11.1 INPTA practitioner content
(As this is an American website, the spelling conforms to their common usage.)

- The Presuppositions of NLP
- The Legs of NLP
- The Present to Desired State Model
- Well Formedness Conditions for Outcomes
- State Management
- Rapport
- Pacing and Leading
- Calibration
- Sensory acuity
- 7+/−2
- Uptime/Downtime
- Representational system
  - Primary
  - Lead
- Reference
- Predicates
- Eye Patterns
- Synesthesia
- Overlapping
- 4-tuple, 6-tuple
- Inventory
- Association and Dissociation
- Meta-Model
- Deep and Shallow Metaphors
- Basic Inductions
  - Pacing and Leading
  - Overlapping
- Anchoring
  - Basic Anchoring
  - Stacking anchors
  - Collapsing anchors
  - Chaining anchors
  - Future Pacing
  - Change Personal History
  - Circle of Excellence
- Self-Editing
- Strategies
  - TOTEs
  - Well Formedness Conditions for Strategies
  - Eliciting, Calibrating, and Utilizing Strategies
  - Pattern Interrupts
- Submodalities
  - Analogue and Digital Submodalities
  - Critical and Driver Submodalities
- Phobia Cure
- Swish Pattern
- Designer Swish
- Standard Belief Change (mapping across Submodalities)
- NLP Frames:
  - Outcome frame
  - Backtrack frame
  - Relevancy frame
  - As If frame
  - Open frame
  - Discovery frame
- Contrast frame
- Ecology frame
- Agreement frame

- Secondary Gain
- Triple Descriptions
- Reframing
  - Content/Context reframe
  - 6 Step reframe
  - Negotiating Between Parts
  - Creating a New Part
- Simultaneous and Sequential Incongruity
- Visual Squash
- New Behavior Generator
- Chunking and Sequencing
- Basic Timeline work
- In time - Through time
- Anchoring Skills
  - Basic anchoring in all representational systems
  - (Visual - Auditory - Kinaesthetic - Auditory digital -VAKAd)
  - Collapsing Anchors
  - Chaining Anchors
  - Future Pacing
  - Change Personal History
  - Self-Editing
  - Circle of Excellence
- Ability to Work From and Maintain Ecology Frames
  - Ability to Check Ecology
- Ability to Milton Model to do Milton Model Work
- Ability to Create Deep and Shallow Metaphors
- Ability to do Reframing Patterns
  - Content
  - Context
  - 6 Step
  - Negotiation Between Parts
  - Creating a New Part
  - Visual Squash
- Ability to Work With Strategies
  - Ability to Elicit, Detect, and Utilize TOTEs Ability to Detect, Install, Separate, and Utilize Synesthesia patterns
  - Ability to Design a Well Formed Strategy
  - Ability to do Effective and Ecological Pattern Interrupts
- Ability to Do Submodality Work
  - Basic elicitations
  - Working with critical and driver submodalities
  - Basic mapping across
  - Standard belief change
  - Swish patterns
  - Phobia cure
  - Designer swish
  - Basic timeline work
- Ability to Facilitate The New Behavior Generator
- Ability to do Triple Descriptions when Relating with Others

http://www.inlpta.co.uk/
## 11.2 The revised NPQH course contents and structure

| Induction                                      | Seven hours of face-to-face learning, during which you will:                                                                 |
|                                               | have the opportunity to use our 360 degree diagnostic tool                                                               |
|                                               | plan your activities for NPQH                                                                                           |
|                                               | select a placement school                                                                                               |
|                                               | decide whether you would like the support of a coach throughout NPQH                                                     |
|                                               | reflect on the desired leadership development outcomes for whole-school learning in both your home and placement school   |
|                                               | gain an understanding of the assessment process                                                                          |
|                                               | learn with peers                                                                                                        |

| Development phase                            | A number of integrated activities including work at a placement school and in your home school driven by essential and elective modules. |

| Placement school                             | A placement of a minimum of 9 days at a selected school, during which you will:                                         |
|                                               | lead on a strategically challenging project                                                                            |
|                                               | participate in agreed activity alongside the head teacher of your placement school                                      |
|                                               | learn from an effective role model                                                                                    |
|                                               | practise and develop your leadership in a different context                                                          |
|                                               | reflect on key leadership behaviours of highly effective leaders, and identify how to develop your own leadership      |

| Home school                                   | Engage in day-to-day leadership development in your current school, during which you will:                            |
|                                               | lead on a strategically challenging project                                                                           |
|                                               | engage in challenge and support from your head teacher                                                              |
|                                               | integrate learning from NPQH into your leadership practice                                                           |
|                                               | negotiate and tackle specific school improvement priorities                                                         |
|                                               | Those not currently working in a school will undertake these activities in the school that you have identified, and who has committed to support you. |

| Modules                                       | NPQH modules contain a blend of work-based, online, reflective and facilitated learning. The balance of each module will vary, however typically at least half of the module activity will be work-based. |
|                                               | You will complete three essential modules, built from outstanding practice, and will be able to choose two elective modules to complete |
Optional coaching for leadership improvement will be available through licensees. Coaching will give you the opportunity to:

- draw together, synthesise and integrate your learning
- reflect on progress, build on strengths and identify any further development required
- build self-awareness and improve your own leadership
- build coaching behaviours into your own leadership

Your work throughout the development phase will be assessed on completion. Details of the final assessment are to be confirmed.

The modules available:

**Essential**

- Leading and improving teaching
- Leading an effective school
- Succeeding in headship

**Elective**

- Curriculum development
- Achievement for all
- Closing the gap, Using data and evidence to improve performance
- Leading staff and effective teams, Leading change for improvement
- Leadership in diverse contexts, School improvement through effective partnerships

http://www.education.gov.uk/nationalcollege/index/professional-development/npqh/npqh-programme-details/npqh-modules.htm
12.0 The NPQH framework prior to 2010.

After the initial application that included evidence of experience across the six areas of standards for head teachers, each candidate undertook self-assessment and feedback from colleagues which identified the areas to be developed. After this, a personalised ‘pathway’ was developed which included the following:

- Placement in another context lasting 5-20 days
- Peer learning with fellow trainees
- Work based learning in current placement
- Attendance at regional and local training event
- Up to 7 hours of individual coaching
- Use of NCL learning materials
- Access to online communities

The NPQH student would create a portfolio of evidence to be presented to a panel interview with assessors including serving head teachers.

13.0 The evidence from learning journals

The journals covered a period of time from November 2003 until December 2010. They were very much part of the NLP Practitioner course that I undertook from September 2002 to June 2003. I continued with the learning journals and the following analysis covers the years 2002-2010.

13.1 The findings from the journals

What I found from the journals could be grouped under the following headings:

- Self-awareness - what I do now and the impact
- Social awareness - what is happening around me
- Self-management - what I can change and how this happens
- Relationship management - how I interact with others
- ‘Ouch moments’ - those times when emotions are raw
- Reflection on the above
- Subsequent changes in behaviours
- Changes in self-concept
- ‘Emancipatory moments’ as expressed by stories or anecdotes

Despite changes of format, length of entry and styles of writing, what is consistent across the early samples is the use of affirmations. At first these are expressed in the format of “I am” and then translated into commands “Be…” or even ‘Maintain..” as in the examples below. Some are behavioural and some are about identity states as described below. Some are highly specific with details of desired behaviours with individuals identified by initials (indicated here by asterisks).
Throughout the journals there are specific references to NLP techniques as follows; New Behaviour Generator; Establishing rapport; Recognizing negative internal states,

“IK- (negative internal kinaesthetic) –fed up! My issues! Dull wet miserable day! Deal with it! (1/10/07)

There is consistency across the journals with references to self-awareness, social awareness, self-management, references to difficult ‘ouch ‘ moments, reflection on these and subsequent changes of behaviour and changes in self which are described as changes to self-concept and ‘emancipatory moments’ when there has been a breakthrough of learning or understanding. Although there are also many examples of sparse entries, there are also moments when the journal represents an internal dialogue.
### 13.2 Excerpts from the learning journals

Table 22 Examples taken from learning journals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Example and date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self awareness- what I do now and the impact</td>
<td>“wonderful revelation how one’s state affects others like ripples”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social awareness- what is happening around me</td>
<td>Act tough at staff meeting and see staff take on board greater levels of professionalism (11/4/05)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self management- what I can change and how this happens</td>
<td>“I can get very grouchy. Why? I think it’s giving up elements of my control...how is that important to me? Linked to ‘being the best’? ok so how would it feel to let go I can have more time and fun!” (16/1/08)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship management- how I interact with others</td>
<td>Give positive feedback to *** and *** and be warm and generous in my praise.(8/2/07)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Be tough and stand firm with *** (13/2/04)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Ouch moments’- those times when emotions are raw</td>
<td>A challenging day- all the crap about *** (8/5/05)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflection on the above</td>
<td>A real stretch of a week but a learning-don’t expect people to be able to do things unless they have the skills or are prepared to learn. (12/5/05)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subsequent changes in behaviours</td>
<td>Notice the negative emotions and deal with them.(15/5/05)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Checkout my own negative self-talk- who cares what it says unless it is positive or useful.(6/6/05)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I need to develop the strategy of taking more time to talk to people (17/5/05)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes in self concept</td>
<td>There are references to becoming an authoritative figure (2003-2005), then to a leader who consults with others and ‘talks less and listens more’ (2006-8), wants to share leadership responsibility (2007-2009) and finally wants others to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emancipatory moments’ as expressed by stories or anecdotes</strong></td>
<td>set up new structures and systems (2009-2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What a day! Heat, strain and a really big issue. However what are the learnings?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. pay attention to detail at all times</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. when requested ask for space and time to respond</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. focus upon the positive when the ***** hits the fan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. use my intellect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(18/7/07/)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This reflection on the day was followed by outcomes for the 19/7 as follows:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Focus upon the positive!</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Use my intellect and pay meticulous attention to detail.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Sharpen up my intellect and pay attention to negative K.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Treat difficult tasks as exams.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This was followed by a reflection on the day:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This was a much more productive day.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(This was followed by later outcomes which were about involving others more in difficult situations and involving other at an early stage so that the responsibility and leadership was distributed.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“This ‘distributed leadership can be a tad problematic! Others still want to lead but also want to shift/dump stuff/reponsibility on you. Sometimes you have to grit your teeth and acknowledge that you would have done it better. But now it’s over to them.’ (19/09/07)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELEMENT</td>
<td>EVIDENCE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self-awareness</td>
<td>Interesting day full of difficult situations but am aware of ways to improve my feelings- learn use of empathy to disagree. (14/11/02)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(This was a reference to the use of rapport.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Daunting feeling of exclusion. (6/12/02)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>social awareness</td>
<td>Saw a fascinating scenario of how a negative state affected others-it was a complete knee jerk reaction. (16/12/02)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Speak to *** about how he feels and get him to recognise that this is how others feel when he uses this language to them. (14/3/03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hear lots of negative talk today so need to challenge when it happens. (16/1/03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Challenge negative assumptions. (17/1/03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self management</td>
<td>Don't feel at all well today. I feel as if I am suffering from a king size hangover. Feel very, very wobbly inside. I need to be in a quiet state today to rest and regain mental state. (25/11/02)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physical well-being was very low yesterday so it made a real difference to my mental state. Today I feel more alert and on the ball. (26/11/02)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relationship management</td>
<td>Strong does not have to mean nasty. (4/12/02)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Used rapport and second position to understand someone was nervous of me so I could be forceful but very gently. (22/11/02)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use rapport in interaction with *** to get outcome. (16/6/03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive interaction with [ there follows a list of people to interact with ]. (11/7/03)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
14.0 An example of an interview transcript

For me in terms of the main things I can remember- there was still a lot of paperwork (yes) needing to be able to provide the evidence of what you were doing but at least that felt it was more making it more purposeful in… in terms of the tasks that I was undertaking now I was coming from a… in a situation where I wasn’t the deputy. I was leading a subject .I was leading literacy erm I was a member of the senior leadership team so there was a lot of it that I didn’t know and have experience of so going onto things like going on the Governing Body just opened it up because I can remember when you are a teacher and you were seeing the decisions that were being made and had really no understanding in terms of the financing and you’re thinking ‘oh yes we’re getting a nice repair job building something there but why aren’t we getting this in the classroom and it’s that it’s just that …a simple understanding now that that money is being ring fenced and so I’m thinking well my staff now probably think the same….and so in that respect it was just eye opening in terms of actually getting involved in more at a governors level and seeing decisions being made being part of that umm finance and obviously apart from managing my literacy budget and I hadn’t ever done anything like that and I think it was useful for me…it was useful for me because I hadn’t had any deputy experience by the time I started and I did start at the access stage and…erm…at the time we started and I went through the whole experience so in that respect that was where I was coming from (long pause) but it was nothing compared with just setting foot and being here on your first day and thinking “Right now what do I do?” (lot of laughter)
15.0 NLP terms and their meanings

The Well-formed Outcome

This is described as ‘the set of conditions an outcome must satisfy in order to produce an affective and ecological result’ (Dilts and DeLozzer, 2004:1548). When an individual sets themselves an outcome, a goal or a target, to have greatest chance of achievement, the outcome must meet five conditions;

P It must be stated in the positive

E It must be ecological i.e. be something that the individual wants with a recognition of any consequences for achieving the outcome. For example, someone may want promotion but be concerned that it might mean more time away from the family. In this case, the outcome might be to again promotion but still be able to spend time with the family.

S It must be specific to a time and place and be appropriate to the occasion. For example, it may be a useful outcome to be diligent in replying to emails within 24 hours of receipt but this may not be appropriate every day of the week.

E There must be evidence that is sensory based to show when the outcome has been achieved. These are usually visual, kinaesthetic or auditory, based upon an internal dialogue.

O The outcome must be achievable be the individual concerned; it must be their ‘Own part’.

Internal dialogue

This describes the ‘silent self-talk’ (Dilts and DeLozzer, 2004) that we experience. It can be either helpful or destructive.

Spatial anchoring

The concept is described as “the use of different physical positions or locations as ‘anchors’ or ‘triggers’ for particular states,” (Dilts and DeLozzer, 2004:1283).

Second positioning

This describes the skill of being able to perceive another person’s point of view as if you were that person and could experience what they heard, saw and felt.
15.1 The behaviour model

This is sometimes described as the 4 legs of NLP. This means that an NLP practitioner can move from their present state to a desired outcome if they follow a strategy as follows;

- select an outcome
- take action,
- notice if the desired outcome is happening
- if not, be flexible to take a different course of action.

This is sometimes expressed in a diagram:

Figure 4 The behaviour model of NLP

(McNab and Byrom, 2003)
15.2 The language patterns of NLP

The Meta Model

The Meta model was originally developed by Richard Bandler and John Grinder (Bandler and Grinder, 1975). They recognised that how we make meaning is subject to three patterns: generalisations, distortion and deletions. The underlying meanings can be retrieved by the use of very specific questions, as shown below from the training manual of an NLP training provider:

Figure 5 Examples of language patterns from an NLP Practitioner Manual

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language pattern</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Meta Model</th>
<th>Milton Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Deletions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified Noun</td>
<td>What or whom is not specified</td>
<td>&quot;Who specifically?&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;Enjoy!&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;What specifically?&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified Verb</td>
<td>How is not specified</td>
<td>&quot;How specifically?&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;...and you can learn&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominalisation</td>
<td>Process words turned into nouns</td>
<td>&quot;Understand: how are you understanding?&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;You have new understanding...&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Referential Index</td>
<td>Does not specify who it refers to</td>
<td>&quot;Who learns?&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;People learn, you know!&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple Deletion</td>
<td>Information is deleted</td>
<td>&quot;Do what?&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;Simply do it!&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative Deletion</td>
<td>Ty who or what is it being compared?</td>
<td>&quot;...than what, or whom?&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;It's better!&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Distortions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complex equivalence</td>
<td>Implying two things are equal</td>
<td>&quot;How does x mean y?&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;That means...&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lost Performative</td>
<td>Value judgement - by who?</td>
<td>&quot;Who says?&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;And it's good to...&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mind Reading</td>
<td>Claiming to know someone's thoughts</td>
<td>&quot;What leads you to believe that?&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;I know you are considering...&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause and Effect</td>
<td>Implying one thing causes another</td>
<td>&quot;How does x make you feel y?&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;If you are curious, then...&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presuppositions</td>
<td>Assumptions</td>
<td>&quot;What is the assumption here?&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;You will enjoy learning this&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Generalisations</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universal Quantifiers</td>
<td>All, every etc.</td>
<td>&quot;Are there any exceptions to that?&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;It's always good to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modal Operator of Necessity</td>
<td>Most, should etc.</td>
<td>&quot;What would happen if you didn't?&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;You should find it very easy to...!&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modal Operator of Possibility</td>
<td>Mights, could etc.</td>
<td>&quot;What would happen if you did?&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;You could x, couldn't you?&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Milton model

The Milton model is considered to be the antithesis of the Meta model (Dilts and DeLozier, 2004) and was originally developed by Richard Bandler and John Grinder based on the language patterns that they heard from the hypnotherapist Milton H. Erickson. It is deliberately vague and can create a trance like effect. Common patterns are to use nonverbal markings to emphasise a word or phrase through voice tone, touch or eye movements.

VAK language

This describes the type of language that we habitually use when we talk. It can be predominantly visual, auditory or kinaesthetic. Some words, phrases and metaphors used are shown below.

Table 23 Examples of visual, auditory and kinaesthetic language patterns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VISUAL</th>
<th>AUDITORY</th>
<th>KINAESTHETIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vision</td>
<td>Call</td>
<td>Feel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watch</td>
<td>Talk</td>
<td>Handle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appears to me</td>
<td>Call on</td>
<td>Get in touch with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>See eye to eye</td>
<td>Give an account of</td>
<td>Hang in there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viewpoint</td>
<td>Pay attention to</td>
<td>Not following you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>See to it</td>
<td>Voice an opinion</td>
<td>Start from scratch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seem to me</td>
<td>Loud and clear</td>
<td>Firm foundation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In view of</td>
<td>Out-spoken</td>
<td>Hold on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crystal clear</td>
<td>Clearly expressed</td>
<td>Lay your cards on the table</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clear cut</td>
<td>Lots for words</td>
<td>Can you grasp it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Let’s look at this closely</td>
<td>Sounds good</td>
<td>Hold on a minute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Try to see things my way</td>
<td>Strikes a chord</td>
<td>I need a hand</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(McNab and Byrom, 2003)
15.3 The Mercedes Model or the TEA model (McNabb and Byrom, 2003)

Figure 6 The Mercedes model or TEA model

McNab & Byron, 2003; 5
15.4 The presuppositions or operating principles of NLP

There are two types of presuppositions within NLP, the linguistic presuppositions which must be accepted to make sense of a statement and the epistemological presuppositions which are “deep and often unstated beliefs that form the foundation of a particular system of knowledge” (Dilts and DeLozier, 2004; 998). For the NLP practitioner, these are accepted and form the background against which the skills are learnt. An example of how this is set out in an NLP manual is set out here.

NLP Operating Principles

The art and science of NLP consists of many skills and a set of operating principles and assumptions. The operating principles, whilst not being the ‘truth’, do provide a potential context for acting effectively and creating results.

1 We do not operate directly on the World. We create maps from our sensory experiences, then operate and communicate from our maps. However, the map is not the territory. Most human problems are caused by the maps in our heads. It is easier to change the map than the territory.

2 If you do what you’ve always done, you’ll get what you’ve always got, so if what you’re doing isn’t working, do anything else! It is easier to change your own behaviour than other people’s.

3 There is no failure, only feedback; no mistakes, only results, no errors, only learning. Every experience may be viewed as an unprecedented opportunity to learn.

4 The individual with the greatest flexibility of thought and behaviour can (and generally will) control the outcome of any interaction. Excellence comes from having many choices. Wisdom comes from having multiple perspectives.

5 It is not what happens to you that makes the difference; it’s what you do with what happens to you.

6 You cannot not communicate; you can only choose to do so unconsciously, or else to be conscious of the effects you create. 93% of communication is nonverbal.

7 The meaning of your communication is the response you get, which may be different to the one you intended. There is no such thing as a resistant person, only an inflexible communicator.

8 There is a positive intention behind all human behaviour. To believe otherwise is to create it so. With others, seek the positive intention. With yourself, remember that you are not your behaviour. There is a distinction between self, intention and behaviour.

9 All human beings share the same neurology, so what’s possible for one is possible for anyone. The only question is, ‘How specifically?’ If anyone else has ever done it, then it is possible for me to learn how to do it.

10 Memory and imagination use the same neurological circuits and potentially have the same impact. Each of us already has, or can create, the resources we need.

NB None of this is true; it does, however, have profound consequences ...
16.0 The raw data from the interviews

NPQH interview results for evidence of Transformational Learning

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### NLP interview results for evidence of Transformational Learning

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Individual and cohort interview results for Transformational Learning

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<th>3 Usefulness</th>
<th>4 Value judgements</th>
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NPQH and NLP interview results for evidence of actions and emotions

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<th>REFERENCES TO EMOTIVE RESPONSE</th>
<th>INTERVIEW</th>
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