The Changing Nature of Educational Leadership
Best wishes for the continued advancement through education and participation in JUCCI.
Journal of the University College of the Cayman Islands

Published by
University College of the Cayman Islands
CONTENTS

Aims and Scope ...................................................................................................................................... 1

Editorial Board ....................................................................................................................................... 2

Editorial: The Changing Nature of Educational Leadership
Caribbean and International Perspectives .............................................................................................. 3

Paul Miller

Education Reform: Building an Infrastructure for Raising Standards and Improving the Quality of Provision in the Cayman Islands .............................................................. 8

Jo Wood

Principals’ Leadership Traits and Their Relationship to Student Performance in Mathematics in the Grade Six Achievement Test .............................................................. 28

Cynthia Onyefulu and Floyd Kelly

Undergraduate Student Perceptions of Employability Skills at a Select University in Kingston, Jamaica: An Evaluation .............................................................. 54

Desmond McKenzie and Andrea Pusey Murray

The Impact of the Use of Part-Time Faculty on the Student Experience at a Recently Upgraded University in Jamaica ...................................................................................... 76

Jennifer Ellis, Cebert Adamson and Paul Miller

Proposal for the Implementation of the Balanced Scorecard in Managing Higher Education Institutions .............................................................................................................................. 94

Charmaine Bissessar

Reconceptualising Learning and Teaching about Early Years Leadership, Management, and Multidisciplinary Roles .............................................................................................................................. 118

Shirley Allen, Beverly Barnaby, Carolyn Morris and Victoria Burghardt
An Investigation into Students at Risk of Permanent Exclusion who Succeed in Secondary Education ........................................................................................135

**Tom Mann**

Educational Leadership Approaches to Improve School Preparedness of Children with Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) .............................................165

**Linford A. Pierson**

Towards a Model of Educational Leadership for the Caribbean: Making the Case for Distributed Leadership Principles ..................................................................................184

**Clinton Beckford and Chrispina Lekule**

Notes on Contributors .........................................................................................................203

Guidelines for Contributors ........................................................................................................207
AIMS AND SCOPE

The Journal of the University College of the Cayman Islands (JUCCI) seeks to create a voice for the faculty, staff, and students of the University College of the Cayman Islands, as well as the wider community, in such a way as to express and catalyse the views, emotions, and values that represent and strengthen the environment.

It is our aim to reinforce and reflect the images that represent the society, its roots, and its relationships with the wider Caribbean and the world in ways that encourage excellence in research, analysis, creativity, and discourse.

JUCCI will be a multidisciplinary journal covering a broad spectrum of topics and perspectives. Being eclectic in nature, the journal will publish ambitious works that reflect a wide range of critical and analytical approaches. Under the supervision of an editorial board, manuscripts of exceptional academic merit on a variety of subjects are published.
EDITORIAL BOARD

Livingston Smith, PhD (Chair)
Chair, Department of Social Sciences, UCCI and Director, Research and Publications, UCCI

Lyndel Bailey, PhD
School of Music, University of Florida

Anne-Maria Bankay, PhD
Senior Lecturer, Modern Language Education, University of the West Indies

Tom Bisschoff, DEd
Senior Lecturer, School of Education, University of Birmingham

Roy Bodden
President, UCCI

Calvin Bromfield
Professor, Department of Social Studies, UCCI

Christine Callender, PhD
Lecturer in Teacher Education, Institute of Education, University of London

Stephanie Fullerton-Cooper, PhD
Lecturer, Arts and Humanities, UCCI

Erica Gordon
Acting Chair, Arts and Humanities, UCCI

Donna Hope, PhD
Institute of Caribbean Studies, University of the West Indies, Mona

Despina Maroucha, PhD
Senior Lecturer, Loanis Gregoriou School of Business, Cyprus College

Brian Meeks, PhD
Professor, Department of Government, University of the West Indies, Mona

Paul Miller, PhD
Professor, Educational Leadership, School of Graduate Studies, Research, and Entrepreneurship, University of Technology, Jamaica

Mark Minott, EdD
Associate Professor, School of Education, UCCI

Gertrude Shotte, PhD
Associate Professor, Department of Education, Middlesex University

Paul Sze, PhD
Lecturer, Faculty of Education, Chinese University of Hong Kong

Racquel Warner
Campus Program Coordinator, International Foundation Program and MA TESOL Program, Middlesex University, Dubai

Robert Weishan, PhD
Professor and Chair, Business Studies, UCCI

Allan Young, PhD
Professor and Dean of Academic Affairs, UCCI
EDITORIAL

THE CHANGING NATURE OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP
CARIBBEAN AND INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES

PAUL MILLER
Guest Editor

This special edition of the Journal of the University College of the Cayman Islands on the subject of educational leadership and its changing nature is timely. Faced with external factors such as the recent economic meltdown, globalisation and changing borderland narratives and shifts in government policy, education institutions the world over are being forced to “do education differently.” This shift is as much about the leadership of policymakers in education departments and ministries as it is about the practice of leadership by school leaders and teachers at all levels. Much less is being spent on education in real terms by many governments, when more is being demanded; fewer teachers are being employed at a time when some systems are experiencing growth in pupil numbers and class sizes; and education institutions are struggling to respond in a timely manner to changes in their environment brought about by the impact of information and communications technology. That said, educational leadership in these unpredictable and swiftly changing times requires an approach that is neither top-down nor bottom-up, but that is encompassing, synergistic, innovative, and practical.

The significance of sound leadership and management for successful leadership of education systems, colleges, and schools is well recognised (Bush, 2003; Miller, 2013). Sound leadership is the bedrock of any effective education system and its educational institutions. From nurseries to institutions of higher education, leadership that is innovative and creative; that is responsive to changes in the environment and to the needs of the client; that is supportive of staff and students; and that is visionary in outlook, is required to lead institutions towards their goals and towards better outcomes for all who work and study in them. Put simply, if sound leadership at the policy level is a seed of development, then sound leadership of educational institutions and at the classroom level is arguably a flower of development.

The Caribbean occupies a unique place in the study of educational leadership since there are but few written accounts on this subject within this region (Miller,
This special issue therefore is a welcome account of leadership within and across the Caribbean region and within, between and across types of educational institutions. Simultaneously, this special issue presents views and accounts of educational leadership well beyond the Caribbean region, drawing on a range of critical incidents, approaches and theories. In short, what this special issue has done is to provide a “melting pot” of ideas about the practice, theory and enactment of leadership in a single volume so that different communities can benefit from a variety of ideas and experiences regarding the challenges and opportunities associated with educational leadership and the imperative of “doing leadership differently.” This special issue has therefore achieved its objective of exploring educational leadership as discursive practice and as performative instrument.

In her article, Education Reform: Building an Infrastructure for Raising Standards and Improving the Quality of Provision in the Cayman Islands, Jo Wood interrogates how educational leadership at the national policy level in a small island state can impact educational activities at the level of practice. Wood debates cultural narratives and archetypes associated with the practice of leadership in an educational system that is being overhauled through various programs of reforms.

Cynthia Onyefulu and Floyd Kelly in their article, Principals’ Leadership Traits and Their Relationship to Student Performance in Mathematics in the Grade Six Achievement Test, present a robust empirical analysis of school principals in Jamaica and the relationship between their leadership traits and pupils’ academic performance. Their findings challenge established notions of leader traits – such as being articulate, determined, friendly, outgoing, and trustworthy – influencing academic outcomes for pupils, since they found no evidence of this nexus.

In their article, Undergraduate Student Perceptions of Employability Skills at a Select University in Kingston, Jamaica: An Evaluation, Desmond McKenzie and Andrea Pusey Murray take us to the field of higher education and to the important issue of employability skills. Using empirical data, they shed light on which employability skills students believe to be more valuable, while simultaneously highlighting recent media soundings with industry players in Jamaica about the kinds of skills they feel graduates need to demonstrate at work.

Jennifer Ellis, Cebert Adamson, and Paul Miller, in their article, The Impact of the Use of Part-Time Faculty on the Student Experience at a Recently Upgraded University in Jamaica, continue the discussion on higher education in that country. Using university data, they argue that the engagement of part-time faculty can be a minefield, for on the one hand part-time faculty reduce staff costs, but on the other, they may compromise the quality of teaching and learning.
Charmaine Bissessar also debates issues in higher education in her article, Proposal for the Implementation of the Balanced Scorecard in Managing Higher Education Institutions. Bissessar argues for a system of Balanced Scorecards, which focus on the customer, internal business processes, learning and growth, and financial matters. She argues that this approach can enhance the capacity of educational institutions, since it not only takes into account the present intellectual, organisational, fiscal, and technological needs of an institution, but includes issues such as succession planning, instructional design and delivery, the development of reflective praxis, and professional learning communities.

In their article, Reconceptualising Learning and Teaching about Early Years Leadership, Management, and Multidisciplinary Roles, Shirley Allen, Beverly Barnaby, Carolyn Morris, and Victoria Burghardt take us to the opposite end of the spectrum. They present a compelling and reasoned narrative on the organisation of teaching and leading in early years education in England. Drawing on their experience as early years practitioners and early years educators in university programmes, they argue that effective early years leadership, especially at national policy level, is indispensable to effective system performance.

Keeping the discussion within the British Isles, Tom Mann’s An Investigation into Students at Risk of Permanent Exclusion who Succeed in Secondary Education, is a persuasive account of transformation through patience at work. Mann presents case studies of how teachers’ belief in and support for pupils classified as “at risk” helped to bring them back from the brink of failure. Through his piece, Mann challenges all involved in educational leadership and practice to become reacquainted with the meaning of the “purpose of education.”

Linford A. Pierson addresses another topic that crosses borders and educational phases. In his article, Educational Leadership Approaches to Improve School Preparedness of Children with Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), Pierson advocates for teachers, parents, and other stakeholders to play a central role in initiatives to design and implement interventions for improving the working memory of children and simultaneously tackling ADHD. This cooperative approach, coupled with sound classroom management, can enhance pupil outcomes.

In their article, Towards a Model of Educational Leadership for the Caribbean, Making the Case for Distributed Leadership Principles, Clinton Beckford and Chrispina Lekule end the discussion by examining educational leadership as a contested field of inquiry and by proposing a model of leadership they believe could be suited to educational institutions across the Caribbean. They do not propose distributed leadership as a panacea, but as an approach geared to greater participation
by others in leadership and as an alternative to current top-down leadership practices evident in Caribbean societies.

Each article in this special issue has its own particular focus and methodology. However, when read together, they contribute to our understanding of leadership in educational contexts that are diverse, yet which share the experience of confronting and managing constant change at all levels and phases of education.

**References**


EDUCATION REFORM: BUILDING AN INFRASTRUCTURE FOR RAISING STANDARDS AND IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF PROVISION IN THE CAYMAN ISLANDS

JO WOOD*

Abstract

In 2009, with a change in government, a new minister of education was appointed. Passionate about education, he was determined to raise standards and improve the quality of education in the Cayman Islands. Drawing on global research of school and system improvement, as well as first-hand observation of best international practice, a major reform program was initiated. This new program would contribute significantly to nation-building and the development of a bespoke education system for the Cayman Islands.

This synergetic study outlines some of the research on education reform in systems around the globe and makes particular reference to the design and implementation of education reform in the Cayman Islands under new leadership. It identifies some of the Cayman Islands’ national priorities for school improvement and the steps taken to create the architecture to support the development of a world-class education system. Set against the backdrop of local and international experience of improving school systems, this study reviews progress already made, identifies the challenges ahead, and maps out a pathway for continuing improvement.

KEY WORDS: Cayman Islands, education reform, progress, challenges, path ahead

Introduction

The Cayman Islands is a British Overseas Territory located in the western Caribbean. The territory comprises three islands: Grand Cayman, Cayman Brac, and Little Cayman. The Cayman Islands are located south of Cuba and northwest of Jamaica, and have a population of 54,397 (2010). Total school population is 7,646 students, of whom 4,164 are in primary schools and 3,482 in secondary. Seventeen of these schools are government schools and 11 private. The majority of students in government schools are Caymanian. This study concentrates predominantly on education reform in government schools, but some initiatives, such as the establishment of national professional standards for teachers and quality assurance measures, have significance for all schools.

*Jo.Wood@gov.ky
Over the last few decades, education systems around the Caribbean have been subjected to a raft of initiatives designed to bring improvement without changing the fundamentals of the education systems built in the colonial past, but no longer having relevance in 21st century schools. Jules (2010) argues that these externally driven initiatives have often been designed to address perceived deficits in children, and have had little actual impact on learning outcomes. He describes these efforts as “tinkering” with a system that needs to be redefined, explaining that “we are at a historical juncture in the Caribbean when we must take careful stock of where we are, where we seek to go, and how we intend to get there” (Jules, 2010, p. 8).

The need to redefine the purpose and construct of education is not unique to the Caribbean. Children and young people around the globe are growing up in a very different world from the one we knew just a short time ago. Yet our education systems were largely founded on models developed in the 19th and 20th centuries, models built to suit an entirely different world and social order. We are living in times of exponential change, constantly fuelled by a wealth of shared, accessible knowledge through the web and other digital communication systems. In response to ever-changing contexts, rapidly changing skill requirements, and the need to compete in the global knowledge economy, many countries, irrespective of economic wealth, have recognised the important role that education plays in their social well-being and economic growth. Countries from Qatar at one end of the wealth spectrum to South Sudan, the most recently formed country in the world, have chosen to make substantial investments in education reform programs and made an absolute commitment to improving education systems founded on the strong belief in the need for strategic building of human capital to support future national prosperity. At the 2012 World Education Conference in London, attended by ministers of education and education policymakers from around the globe, the minister for education in South Sudan, a former freedom fighter, explained that he had swapped the fight to win independence for his country for the fight for education and a better future for the next generations.

In 2011, the Cayman Islands Chamber of Commerce published its Future of Cayman strategic plan for public-private partnership:

Today’s climate in the global economy has made it necessary for countries around the world to improve upon their attractiveness and competitiveness to ensure their success. Communities must implement new strategies as available talent, resources education, and quality of life become the necessary focal points on which families, individuals, and investors base their decisions. (p. 3)
Leadership for delivering this mission was taken up by the new minister of education for the Cayman Islands, who stated:

As minister for education, my mandate, in the simplest of terms, is to do all that I can do to help students, teachers, and school leaders to succeed. My continuing commitment is to listen, communicate, promote dialogue and synergy, leading with passion, and championing a positive and strategic direction for our education system. (Anglin in Cayman Islands Education Stabilisation Plan, 2011, p. 1)

** Investing in Education**

While governments are making commitments and investing in education reform, international assessments, for instance PISA (the OECD’s Program for International Student Assessment) and TIMMS (international tests in mathematics and science) indicate that the level of a government’s financial input is not in direct relation to educational outcomes (Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber, 2010). The discrepancies in student performance between different systems suggest that some are much more successful and more efficient than others, even when spending is at a similar level. For instance, Singaporean students consistently scored at the top or very high in TIMMS, despite the fact that the amount spent per student was lower than in almost any other developed country. Further, Barber and Mourshed (2007) found that:

Despite substantial increases in spending and many well-intentioned reform efforts, performance in a large number of systems has barely improved in decades. Few of the most widely supported reform strategies (for instance, giving schools more autonomy, or reducing class sizes) have produced the results promised for them. (p. 10)

Of course, there cannot be a simple *quid pro quo* equation when it comes to spending and student performance, as there are many contributory factors affecting the relationship between input and outcome. However, set against the backdrop of worldwide financial constraints, governments still want value for money as well as the best possible educational outcomes. Some systems, such as that in Abu Dhabi, have committed to and invested in high-cost, whole-system intervention, drawing
heavily on consultancy-based change management at whole system and individual school levels. Others, for instance in some districts of South Africa, have focused their resources on top priorities for system reform, such as leadership development. In Zimbabwe, the distribution of adequate textbooks was seen as real change that has brought about improvement for teachers and learners (World Education Forum, seminar, London, 2012).

**What Works?**

Fullan (2000) asserts that while there is successful reform at the school level, it is often far less successful at large scale, because we fail to institutionalise best practices or realise that both local school development and the quality of the surrounding infrastructure are critical to the success. His analysis of the dynamics of reform has three elements or “stories”: the inside story, “what we know about how schools change for the better in terms of their internal dynamics”; the inside-out story, “what effective schools do as they contemplate the plethora of forces impinging on them”; and the outside-in story, “how agencies external to the school organise themselves effectively in accomplishing large scale reform at the school level.” According to Fullan, the synergy created between these three elements produces the capability to achieve education reform “on a scale never seen before” (Fullan, 2000, p. 7). Alignment between these three elements or “stories” is certainly one of the most critical but difficult things to achieve in whole-system reform, and needs to be carefully crafted in order to achieve the necessary synergy. The connectivity between these three elements is critical to the individual parts, as these cannot stand alone if synergy and coherence are to be achieved. In Fullan’s view, successful schools are selective in the initiatives they take on, and they ensure that there is coherence and relevance, so that the external pressures do not overwhelm and produce chaos. At large scale, Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber (2010) found similarly, that systems also need to be selective in the interventions they prioritise and introduce, based on locally defined needs.

Many systems have planned and implemented their own well thought-through designs for educational improvement, some of which have required substantial structural reform. Fullan (2010) emphasises that it is not simply top-down structures and accountabilities that bring about successful change in education systems, but rather creating the right conditions and developing organisational and individual capacity. This experience is substantiated by the New Zealand policymaker who commented, “it was naïve to assume that classroom quality would improve just because we changed
our structure” (Barber and Mourshed, 2007, p. 11). Fullan (2000) emphasises the need for cultural change in schools and identifies the school principal as the key player in leading that process, coupled with external “pressure and support.” He warns that teachers and schools can suffer from change exhaustion, which can undermine sustainable improvement, and that school and teacher engagement are critical factors in improving education systems. Barber and Mourshed found that “the main driver of the variation in student learning at school is the quality of the teaching” (Barber and Mourshed, 2007, p. 7). Similarly, Hargreaves and Fullan (1998) state that at school level, teachers must be more “skilled in assessment,” that is to say, they must be able to interpret their students’ achievement data, using them to plan learning and improve student learning. Twelve years on, in the foreword to the 2010 McKinsey report, Fullan writes:

Only recently are we beginning to see that interest [in whole system reform] turn in to specific questions about how you go about whole system reform. What pathways, from what starting point, are going to get the best results in reasonably short time frames? How do we actually “raise the bar and close the gap” for all students? The world needs to become much more wise about what lessons to extract from systems at different starting points. (Chijoke, Fullan, and Barber, 2010, p. 10)

It appears, then, that in relation to successful education reform, there are critical interdependencies at system and school levels that need to be planned and harmonised. In the McKinsey Report for 2010, How the world’s most improved systems keep getting better, Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber (2010) focused on the identification of the main factors contributing to the success of the 20 most improved education systems, and considered what other systems might learn from their successes. A key finding was that improvement depends on “a system thing not a single thing” (Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber, 2010, p. 29). In other words, there needs to be a range of key actions tailor-made to the particular system and faithfully implemented across that system. The report examines exactly what ignites education reform and school improvement, what builds momentum, and how it can be sustained. They found that once systems are stabilised, they can make headway on their improvement journey. In summary, three key building blocks were found to be necessary in constructing and sustaining this improvement journey:

- Benchmarking of where the system currently stands
  (the performance stage)
• Identification of the right set of interventions to improve student outcomes (intervention cluster), appropriate to the stage of the system’s improvement journey
• Adaptation of the interventions to the context, taking account of history, culture, politics, and structure of school system and the nation (contextualising) and careful steering of the selected interventions through to success.

While ambition and commitment to education reform is vital to any system reform, creating and implementing the right set of interventions, dependent on priority needs and context, is a critical undertaking for any system. It requires careful assessment, local knowledge and understanding, as well as stakeholder engagement. Fullan writes that the clarity and insights into education reform in the McKinsey report will “catapult the field of whole system reform forward in dramatic ways” (Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber, 2010, p. 6).

Laying the Foundations for Education Reform in the Cayman Islands: The Building Blocks

In the Cayman Islands, a key objective of the Chamber of Commerce’s strategic plan (2011, p. 14) was to “ensure successful educational performance at every level.” This would include developing quality early childhood education; valuing education and the role that parents play; skilling up the workforce; and creating an ethos of lifelong learning. In parallel with the Chamber’s commitment to education as a key driver of the country’s socioeconomic success, a major reform of the education system was already taking shape under the leadership of the newly appointed minister of education and the chief officer (permanent secretary). Dedicated and committed leadership is a key to driving forward any ambitious education reform program, which will inevitably be difficult and complex. “Acquiring a new leader is the most significant factor – all the improving school systems in our sample had appointed a new strategic leader at the start of their reform, and over half had a new political leader, whatever other circumstances prevailed” (Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber, 2010, p. 107).

The new minister set out his vision in the 2011 stabilisation plan, which defined the key objectives and the actions designed to achieve those objectives. The stabilisation plan was ambitious in all that it set out to achieve in just two years. It signalled the beginning of a major, strategic education reform program unequalled in the history of the Cayman Islands. The minister stated: “There are no easy answers,
but neither can there be compromises in our line of work: my job, and the job of our educators, is to ensure that every child in our care succeeds” (Anglin in Cayman Islands Education Stabilisation Plan, 2011, p. 1).

The first step was to benchmark where the system stood, referred to as “the performance stage” by Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber (2010). A health check of the education system was conducted. Large amounts of hard and soft data were available (inspection reports; Terra Nova tests; SATs UK in English and mathematics at the ages of seven and eleven; and end of Key Stage 4 examination results for GCSE and CXC). Analysis of the system data helped identify the challenges facing the education system. Most importantly, the political leader (the minister) and the strategic leader (chief officer) embarked on a round of consultation meetings in schools, talking directly and at length to teachers and school leaders as well as parent teacher associations, eliciting from them their concerns, the challenges they see, and their views on what was going well in their own school and in the wider system. As a result of the local research, a health check report was produced that informed the priorities for a stabilisation plan that would reflect school and system needs, and in turn, set the baseline for further reform. The stabilisation plan was launched in January 2011 and explicitly recognised the relationship between the country’s social and economic growth and well-being on the one hand, and the quality of education and training on the other:

Education and training can and should help to develop the capacities needed for the people of the Cayman Islands to seize new job opportunities that emerge … In short, our challenge is to build, implement and support an education system that creates citizens who can contribute to the economic and social growth of the country … We need to produce people our economy can use. We cannot harbour illusions that the market will sort out our workplace needs. We need to plan strategically. (Anglin in Cayman Islands Education Stabilisation Plan, 2011, pp. 3-4)

The stabilisation plan identified four strategic priorities for education reform in the Cayman Islands:

- enhancing leadership and governance;
- enhancing student performance;
- enhancing skills and work readiness; and
- expanding and improving early childhood care and education.
Under these strategic priorities, the sets of actions specifically designed to respond to the challenges identified as hindering student performance, and described by Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber (2010) as “interventions clusters,” were carefully designed. These were intended, through rigorous and consistent implementation, to point the system in the right direction for achieving world-class standing, capable of producing young people able to compete in the global economy.

**Establishing the Architecture for System Improvement**

System improvements cannot be carried out in a vacuum, nor can they depend on old structures that have failed to achieve excellence. A number of important steps were therefore taken to ensure that reform of the education system could progress within a supportive framework. These included:

- Establishing a strategic stabilisation plan to provide the overall framework for initial system priorities and focus the energies and activities of human capital;
- Restructuring the Ministry of Education and the Department for Education Services (DES), clarifying their respective roles, and establishing a policy and planning unit in the ministry;
- Establishing the new key role of senior school improvement officer to operate as school improvement partner by interacting directly with school principals and their teams;
- Introducing new policies and guidance in priority areas such as teaching and learning, school discipline and student behaviour, literacy, and special educational needs;
- Establishing a data unit to collect, analyse, and make use of data;
- Establishing mechanisms for consulting key stakeholders, including a principals’ consultative council;
- Establishing common and transparent standards such as the national qualifications framework, graduation requirements, and national professional standards for teachers in the Cayman Islands;
- Establishing an early childhood care and education unit;
- Restructuring secondary education, establishing two all-through Years 7-11 high schools and a new Year 12 program at CIFEC (Cayman Islands Further Education College) on Grand Cayman; and
- Adding new classrooms in those primary schools under pressure from increases in local populations and removing temporary and inadequate modular classrooms.
In addition to changing structures, policies, and procedures, there were efforts to value professional educators who had complained of feeling marginalised, being subjected to many changes, and of not being treated as professionals. A campaign was started to try to engage professional educators more in the process of decision-making by ensuring that principals and teachers were consulted and given opportunities to be involved in designing and piloting initiatives before implementation, and to gather their opinions on proposals that would impact on their practices. Of particular significance was the establishment of the principals’ consultative council, intended to increase principals’ participation in decision-making and in the design of interventions for the system. Equally important was the involvement of the teaching workforce in advising the ministry on the new national professional standards for teachers on the Cayman Islands. The engagement of principals and teachers through new consultation processes ensured greater relevance for the professional standards and a better product for the Cayman Islands education system.

**Right Interventions for Our System: Contextualising**

With new structures in place and a set of interventions identified to address system issues organised in the stabilisation plan under the four key drivers, the building blocks for reform were in place. But first, and very importantly, consideration had to be given to selecting and customising the right interventions for the Cayman Islands – in the words of Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber (2010), “taking account of history, culture, politics,” a key ingredient of successful reform.

Improving systems tailor how they implement the intervention clusters in each performance stage, to their context. The interventions are unlikely to achieve their full impact without this. Contextualising tends to be aimed at gaining the support of stakeholder groups and, in particular involves making decisions about when the system should mandate action or when it should be made compulsory. (Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber, 2010, p. 61)

Engaging with key stakeholders has been critical in adapting the interventions to the particular Caymanian context. While opportunities for educators to engage with the ministry in professional conversations and consultation have increased, further opportunities are being systematically introduced through a wider range of mechanisms. Unlike larger systems, the small size of the education system on the Cayman Islands lends itself well to regular, direct dialogue with all professional
educators in schools.

A debate that has taken place regarding each intervention has been about how we “Caymanise,” rather than simply “borrow” or “build on.” With regard to our education provisions, there are strong historical and political connections with the United Kingdom, and also for geographical and economic reasons, with the United States and the rest of the Caribbean. Public and private schools offer a choice and sometimes a mixture of English and American curricula and are staffed by teachers from countries around the Caribbean, as well as the UK the US, and other parts of the world. This “melting pot” has many benefits in that the system benefits from teachers with a wealth of different experiences and strengths. On the other hand, this has also contributed to inconsistency, conflicting expectations and approaches, as well as avoidance of establishing clearly what is right and best for the Cayman Islands. Historically, the country has been a recipient or follower rather than the producer of a unique education system or one to be emulated, but this is rapidly changing. The pace of change is not always consistent: it proceeds at variable speeds to accommodate schools’ ability to assimilate and embed the changes.

Ensuring that our education system is Caymanian and world class is a work in progress, and there are important considerations at every step of the education reform journey. For example, in a system where our teachers come from all parts of the globe, from New Zealand to Jamaica, the establishment of the Cayman Islands national professional standards for teachers means that, for the first time, clear and consistent expectations of all teachers working in Cayman Islands schools, government or private, have been transparently set out. These will underpin a newly introduced performance management system that is more pertinent to teaching and learning than previous systems.

The detail of the “intervention clusters” is extensive. For the purposes of this paper, a small number are highlighted on account of their importance to effecting system improvement and increasing student achievement. Two of the top priority interventions identified for action were selected because of generally weak student performance in literacy and, to an even greater extent, mathematics. The Cayman Islands National Strategic Framework for Literacy (NSFL) is a framework grounded in research and professional learning. It has been subject to consultation and piloting before being rolled out to all primary schools. Implementation of the strategy will be fully in place by September 2012. In principle, the strategy aims to:

- act as a catalyst to promote collaborative instructional leadership and inquiry, focused on student learning and achievement in literacy;
- build school capacity to identify strengths and areas in literacy that require
attention, including individual student support;

- establish assessment procedures to monitor student performance and skills development;
- support accountability and transparency regarding the literacy learning outcomes of our students; and
- support the professional learning of all staff by sharing the best practices in the teaching of literacy.

Analysis of recent test results revealed that this intervention has had a significant impact on achievement in English by the end of Key Stage 2 (Year 6). In 2011, around one-third (32.6 per cent) of Year 6 students in government schools achieved the national expectation of a Level 4 or higher. This increased in 2012 to 50 per cent of students achieving a Level 4 or higher, an increase in just one year of 17.4 per cent. The prediction is that this improvement will continue as the interventions penetrate the system more deeply and we learn more and more from our experience of what works best for our students. The second stage of our literacy strategy begins in September 2012, when there will be a strong focus on secondary school interventions, of which a key component is a cross-curricular approach to improving literacy by supporting all teachers through a coaching model.

The first stage of the strategy to improve performance in mathematics focuses on performance in primary schools and the first two years of secondary school. It has been carefully developed over the last year to address the specific issues relating to teaching and learning in our own system, informed through analysis of performance data, feedback from our quality assurance mechanisms, and dialogue with teachers and principals. The strategy and related interventions have been selected and streamlined through the lessons learned from piloting prior to full implementation in September 2012. The most significant changes include support for teachers in developing more practical and problem-solving curricula, and the introduction of a leadership in primary mathematics program. The latter will help each school develop its own experts in primary mathematics, with the skills to support other teachers and the school leadership in developing a strategic approach to mathematics in the school. The increase in leadership in mathematics and the skills and confidence of classroom teachers is essential to building school and system capacity. Alongside these interventions is the introduction of a mathematics recovery program to support those students who are struggling with mathematics and who have already fallen behind. After just less than a year of focusing on mathematics in primary schools, and even before the mathematics strategy has had sufficient time to become embedded, there
has been an increase of 16.6 per cent in students achieving the national expectation of a Level 4 or higher, from 25.1 per cent in 2011 to 41.7 per cent in 2012.

When lessons are disrupted by behaviour issues, the learning of a whole class can be affected. Consequently, managing behaviour has been identified as a top system priority. Policies are being developed to support and guide schools in relation to developing safer schools. The stabilisation plan also identified the key interventions intended to support individual students identified as being at risk. Behaviour centres were set up in high schools, policies for behaviour were developed, training for teachers in behaviour management was provided, alternative education services were reorganised, and a new interim therapeutic community and rehabilitation facility was established. As part of a new interagency approach, BEST (Behaviour for Education and Support Teams) was set up to provide a more holistic approach to support students experiencing multiple or complex issues. This has proved to be a very successful early intervention strategy and has helped sustain the inclusion into the mainstream of some of the students most at risk.

A highly successful after-school program has been established and has benefited almost 1,000 students. Activities range from homework clubs to scuba diving, all intended to support young people and keep them engaged in constructive activities. The partnership with churches, community groups, and other ministries and services has contributed to the success of this program, since partners have added to our capacity to deliver a broad and interesting program of activities to a large number of students.

A raft of other interventions is now in place to raise standards. These include the support of newly introduced school improvement officers, experienced school principals who mentor and challenge principals and their school teams to focus on improving standards and the quality of teaching and learning, including making more use of rigorous assessment to inform planning and learning. A robust data strategy has been formulated, a critical ingredient in overall efforts to raise standards. Without quality system data, there would be no baseline or reference grid against which to measure progress, identify with certainty the specific issues needing attention, or plot the exact path of the improvement journey. Systems have been established for the collection and analysis of schools’ contextual and performance data to:

• establish national benchmarks and set targets for improvement;
• analyse and interpret trends in relation to student performance;
• identify issues that require attention;
• improve planning and make better management decisions;
• make better use of resources;
• inform teaching and learning; and
• engage in professional dialogue with school principals about issues facing the system and their schools in particular.

In 2012, the first national education data report was published and each school received its own data report. This latter will underpin the improvement conversations between the principal and senior school improvement officer. The collaborative discussion, supported by the performance data, now informs school improvement planning and helps track student performance to ensure that each student is working towards achieving her or his own potential.

The Ministry of Education has invested in an ongoing program of professional development based on national priorities. This has included training in literacy intervention strategies, behaviour for learning programs, and leadership courses in primary mathematics. In addition to providing continuing professional development for serving teachers, the ministry has committed to improving the quality of initial teacher training through a partnership with the University College of the Cayman Islands. A steering group with representation from key stakeholder groups was formed to oversee the development and implementation of a stronger postgraduate initial teacher education program to prepare new teachers for the particular challenges and opportunities they will encounter in schools in the Cayman Islands. Units of study specific to the Cayman context, such as values education and the use of national literacy and mathematics strategies, will be compulsory elements of the program. An extended teaching practicum, with mentoring from good classroom practitioners, will form the basis of the “apprenticeship” of student teachers. There will also be a leadership development dimension to the program, so that a start can be made in preparing school leaders of the future. The first cohort of Caymanian student teachers will enter the new program in 2012 and the intent is to attract strong candidates into the teaching profession and increase the number of local teachers. This is an important feature of the reform program, given current reliance on many teachers from outside the Cayman Islands and the need to increase national capacity.

In the Cayman Islands, family and church are significant stakeholders in educating and raising children. Given the organised nature of the churches, the objectives of church and school are often interlinked and mutually supportive. For instance, many churches provide after-school activities for students, linked to the ministry’s behaviour-support strategy, and support parents who need safe, after-school care for their children. A family learning strategy is currently in development and looks to a strong partnership with parents, families, churches, and parent teacher
associations. All of these actors will play an important role in supporting children and young people on their journey towards adulthood as young citizens of the Cayman Islands.

Both the Future of Cayman strategy and the stabilisation plan identified the need to provide high-quality education to our youngest citizens. Consequently, the early childhood care and education unit has been established to drive this strategic priority. In just over one year, there has been substantial progress in the provision for young children. The Cayman Islands early years curriculum framework has been developed and is being formally piloted in 12 early years centres. Two hundred and twelve staff from 44 early years centres (including reception classes) have received training in understanding and implementing the curriculum. Additionally, nine new reception classes have been established to serve our youngest students, who are being provided with the high quality learning environments and the foundations for their future success.

Designing the Next Steps

The Cayman Islands reform journey continues. As we look back and consider the distance travelled and the milestones achieved, they are significant. What have we learned from the experience so far and can this experience, as well as the research, provide us with further guidance on the best way forward?

Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber (2010) found that a system can make significant improvement from its starting point in six or less years, and as the system improves, the “non-negotiables” can be relaxed and the “negotiables” increased. Our review of what we have achieved so far in relation to the targets set out in the stabilisation plan, and of the improvement in student performance, reveals that we have made clear progress. This is encouraging, but it is recognised that much more remains to be done. The reform would not have been possible without full support at ministerial level and without a clear agenda to ensure that all reform initiatives were suited to the culture and people of the Cayman Islands. The interventions are still new and now need to be embedded so that they become part of the very fabric of the education system. We are sensitive to what Fullan refers to as “initiative fatigue.” Although opportunities for consultation have been increased, further improvement is possible by drawing much more, and much more routinely, on teacher, student, and parent voices (Fullan, 2010, p. 8).

The next major step in the improvement journey is the finalisation of a five year national strategic plan for education, currently subject to extensive consultation.
involving professional educators and a wide range of stakeholders. The strategic goals of the plan have been identified through analysis of performance data, dialogue with stakeholders, and evaluating the progress since the establishment of the education stabilisation plan. Translated into workplans, these goals will be operationalised over the next five years, and will be monitored by stakeholders as well as professionals. Importantly, the plan sets out the vision, mission, and values intended to define the aspirations and culture of the Cayman Islands education system.

Conclusion

While large-scale education reform programs often benefit from outside leadership, the Caymanian reform program has benefited by having insider leaders. Caymanian leaders know the particular context and dynamics of the system, and have helped to successfully navigate the changes through a complex “obstacle course.” Nevertheless, education systems around the world have been brave enough to share their successes and failures, and we have undoubtedly learned from their experimentation and experiences. Commonly found signposts on the improvement journey, as identified in the McKinsey report (Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber 2010), give the reassurance that while the Caymanian education system is rightly being “Caymanised,” the project has also been going down the right path. The Cayman Islands has set its sights high and has set sail on its improvement journey. It is ambitious for its future and for the future of its children and young people. Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber advocate that one should “prescribe adequacy” but “unleash greatness.” This will be the next stage of the journey, from “good to great” (Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber, 2010, p. 44).

References


PRINCIPALS’ LEADERSHIP TRAITS AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO STUDENT PERFORMANCE IN MATHEMATICS IN THE GRADE SIX ACHIEVEMENT TEST

CYNTHIA ONYEFULU* AND FLOYD KELLY †

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to determine the leadership traits possessed by principals in selected primary schools in Jamaica, and to determine if there is any significant relationship between these traits and the performance of students in mathematics in the Grade Six Achievement Test (GSAT). The study was guided by four research questions and a cross-sectional survey was used to provide answers. Stratified random sampling was used to select principals and the vice-principals (n = 60) of primary schools in Clarendon and St. Catherine parishes in Jamaica. The Leadership Trait Questionnaire (LTQ), which was an adaptation of the Northouse (2007) survey, was used. The findings showed five leadership traits mostly possessed by the principals: articulacy, determination, friendliness, being outgoing, and trustworthiness. The ANOVA test showed a significant difference for two traits “outgoing,” and “trustworthy.” The GSAT results for 2008 and 2009 showed a weak relationship between the principals’ leadership traits and the average score obtained by students in mathematics. The findings also showed that seven of the primary schools in the study had scores slightly above the mean of 50 per cent and there was no distinctive pattern in the traits possessed by the principals whose schools were better performing and those whose schools were not.

KEY WORDS: leadership, leadership traits, mathematics, student performance

* Faculty of Education and Liberal Studies, University of Technology, Jamaica. All correspondence should be sent to conyefulu@utech.edu.jm
† Ministry of Education, Jamaica
Introduction

In today’s world, there is a need for effective leaders in schools. This is due to the demand for accountability with regard to student performance and moral behaviour, both of which impact school effectiveness. Educational leaders are, therefore, expected to identify and address barriers that may impair such effectiveness. Most studies in the field focus on various leadership styles and/or behaviours. For example, Bass (1998) examined transformational leadership and its industrial, military, and educational impact, while Howell and Avolio (1993) and Judge and Piccolo (2004) studied transformational and transactional leadership. Walumbwa et al., (2008) examined transformational leadership and job performance; Sosik and Dinger (2007) looked at leadership styles; and Bono and Judge (2004) examined leadership behaviour. Although there are many studies on leadership styles, fewer have been done on leadership traits (Stogdill, 1948 and 1974; Mann, 1959; Lord et al., 1986; Kirkparick and Locke, 1991; Kouzes and Posner, 1987 and 2007, as cited in Northouse, 2007).

Over the years these scholars have examined the similar and sometimes different leadership characteristics/trait that an effective leader should possess. Similarly, several studies have sought to understand the distinctiveness of institutions classified as effective or successful schools (Lezotte, 1991; Blasé and Kirby, 2000; Johnson et al., 2000; Leithwood and Riehl, 2003).

From the literature, it is clear that many studies on leadership are conducted in developed countries of the world. Most of the studies done in the Caribbean are on leadership styles. For example, Irving (2008) looked at school leadership, partnership, discipline, and student outcomes in the United States of America, while Caesar (2009) examined leadership approaches, models, and styles, and their influence on capacity-building in small island states in the Caribbean. Davis (2009), on the other hand, conducted a case study on how a principal’s leadership style influenced teacher redeployment and the influence of this on student achievement. Another study was undertaken by Johnson and Ezenne (2008), which examined principals’ and teachers’ perceptions of principals’ instructional leadership roles in primary schools in Jamaica. The common theme in all these studies was leadership. Apart from the abovementioned studies by scholars such as Stogdill (1948 and 1974); Lord et al., (1986); Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991); Kouzes and Posner (1987 and 2007); and Northouse (2007), all of which were undertaken outside the Caribbean, not many studies have examined the characteristics/trait principals possessed and their impact on the ability to lead and student performance in Jamaica. Clearly, research is needed
to examine principals’ leadership traits and their relationship to student performance in Jamaica.

Researchers hold different views about leadership traits and/or personal characteristics and their links to a principal’s leadership. However, studies have shown that principals play a vital role in setting the direction for successful schools. The purpose of the present study is twofold. First, we examined the leadership traits possessed by principals, and second, we determined if there was any significant relationship between these traits and the performance and score of the principals’ students in the Grade Six Achievement Test (GSAT) for mathematics. We are aware of no prior research that has examined these two variables (leadership traits and student performance). In this study, we attempt to fill this gap.

The purpose of this study, therefore, was to determine the leadership traits possessed by principals in selected primary schools in Jamaica, and to establish whether there was a significant relationship between these traits and student performance in mathematics in the GSAT.

**Research Questions**

The research questions guiding the study were: (1) What leadership traits do most principals of the selected schools in Region Six possess? (2) Is there a difference in the leadership traits identified by the principals and their vice-principals? (3) Is there a relationship between the principals’ leadership traits and the average scores obtained in GSAT mathematics from 2008 to 2011? and (4) Do principals in the schools with consistent average to above-average scores in GSAT mathematics possess similar leadership traits?

It is believed the findings of this study will add to our knowledge of education leadership and leadership traits in Jamaica. In addition, the findings can be used in understanding the leadership traits of the principals and their relationship to student achievement in the GSAT for Jamaica.

The rest of the paper is organised into four sections. The review of literature is presented first and is followed by the research methodology in the next section. In the third section, the results of the study are discussed. This is followed by the conclusion and implications of the findings in the final section.
Review of the Literature

The literature review showed that there are six major categories of leadership that dominate contemporary writing about school leadership. These are “instructional leadership, transformational leadership, moral leadership, participative leadership, contingency leadership, and managerial leadership” (Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2008, p. 114). These six categories of leadership contain three important concepts: first, there is no agreed definition of leadership; second, all six categories are distinct; and third, some aspects of these leadership categories are similar (Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2008).

Several scholars have tried to define leadership, but no common definition has emerged. This is because leadership is not easy to define. According to Bass (2007), “more than 3000 empirical investigations have examined leadership” (as cited in Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2008, p. 114). Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008) echo this view by stating that many researchers and practitioners have defined leadership since the earlier part of the 20th century. More recently, Northouse (2012) cited the views of Rost (1991) by stating that “in leadership literature, more than 100 different definitions of leadership have been identified” (p. 1). Northouse went on to state that “despite these many definitions, a number of concepts are recognised by most people as accurately reflecting what it is to be a leader” (p. 1).

To Yukl (2002), the definition of leadership is arbitrary and very subjective (as cited in Bush, 2003, p. 5). Bush (2003) added that there is no agreed definition of leadership. Lussier and Achua (2007) share the same view when they state that “there is no universal definition of leadership because leadership is studied in different ways that require different definitions” (p. 5). However, Lussier and Achua defined leadership as the “influencing process of leaders and followers to achieve organizational objectives through change” (p. 6). To these scholars, leadership has five key elements: influence, organisational objectives, people, change, and leader-followers. The definition of leadership provided by Ezenne (2003) was similar to Lussier and Achua’s. According to Ezenne, leadership is a “process of influencing the activities and behaviors of an individual or a group towards goal achievement” (p. 143). To be able to define leadership, Bush (2003) examined three dimensions. These include leadership as influence, leadership and values, and leadership and vision. The dimension of leadership as influence looks at the different definitions of leadership as having “a process of influence” (p. 5). These definitions include that provided by Cuban (1988), who defined leadership as “people who bend the motivations and actions of others to achieving certain goals; it implies taking initiatives and risks” (as...
cited in Bush, 2003, p. 5), and by Ogawa and Bossert (1995), who “see this influence as an organizational quality flowing through the differing international networks of the organization” (as cited in Bush, 2003, p. 5).

Similarly, there is no single definition of the term “trait.” According to Zaccaro et al., (2004), “the term trait has been the source of considerable ambiguity and confusion in the literature, referring sometimes and variously to personality, temperaments, dispositions and abilities, as well as to any enduring qualities of the individual, including physical and demographic attributes” (p. 103). Allport (1961) defined trait as a “neuropsychic structure having the capacity to render many stimuli functionally equivalent, and to initiate and guide equivalent (meaningfully consistent) forms of adaptive and expressive behavior” (as cited in Zaccaro et al., 2004, p. 103). Northouse (2012) defined trait as a “distinguishing quality of an individual, which is often inherited” (p. 3). He added that defining leadership as a trait means that each individual brings to the table “certain qualities that influence the way he or she leads” (p. 3). He is of the view that everyone is born with unique traits that could have a positive impact in terms of leadership. Northouse added that how we think about leadership will influence how we practise leadership.

**Traits of Effective Leader**

According to Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008), “the literature on traits of effective leaders can be organized into three categories of studies” (p. 119). The first category indicates that leaders are assessed based on the performance of their “organisational units.” The second category focused on subordinates and supervisors, and the use of self-ratings to evaluate leader effectiveness. The focus of the third was on effectiveness by identifying ineffective leaders, and the findings showed that “leadership incompetence is associated with arrogance, untrustworthiness, overcontrol, exploitation, micromanagement, emotional instability, aloofness, and an inability to delegate or make good decisions” (Hellervik, Hazucha, and Schneider, 1992, as cited in Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2008, p. 120). To Lussier and Achua (2007), there are 10 traits associated with effective leaders: dominance, high energy, self-confidence, locus control, stability, integrity, intelligence, emotional intelligence, flexibility, and sensitivity to others. These traits are slightly different from those identified by Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008). The literature shows that there is no one set of traits. However, some are more common than others, for example, self-confidence, emotional intelligence, and trustworthiness.

Wasserberg (2000) suggested that “the primary role of any leader [is] the
unification of people around key values” (as cited in Bush, 2003, p. 6), while to Greenfield and Ribbin (1993), “leadership begins with the character of leaders, expressed in terms of personal values, self-awareness and emotional and moral capability” (as cited in Bush, 2003, p. 6). According to Eden (1992) “one of the key roles of an effective leader lies in his or her ability to insert high confidence among his or her followers” (Eden, 1992, as cited in Zhu et al., 2009, p. 599).

Davy et al., (2001) conducted a study of 12 effective schools in England and Wales. They concluded that “good leaders are informed by and communicate clear sets of personal and educational values which represent their moral purposes for the schools” (as cited in Bush, 2003, p. 6). Bush (2003), on the other hand, believed that “vision is increasingly regarded as an essential component of effective leadership” (p. 6). Zhu et al. (2009) added that “one of the key roles of an effective leader lies in his or her ability to insert high confidence among his or her followers” (Eden, 1992, as cited in Zhu et al., 2009, p. 599).

**Trait Approach to Leadership**

“The trait approach to leadership suggests that select individuals have fundamental characteristics that differentiate them from nonleaders” (Silva and Carter, 2009, p. 3). The trait approach underlay one of the first attempts to study leadership “and was explored throughout the twentieth century” (Silva and Carter, 2009, p. 3). Two important leadership trait studies were undertaken by Stogdill (1948 and 1974). In his first study, he identified eight traits and 26 years later he identified 10 (see Table 1). These traits he believed were the main characteristics of effective leaders. However, Lord et al. (1986) used the meta-analysis approach to determine the characteristics associated with leadership. The three traits they identified were different from those identified by Stogdill. The next set of scholars who identified leadership traits were Kirkparick and Locke (1991), who outlined six characteristics. This was followed by the five identified by Kouzes and Posner (1987 and 2007). It was not until 2007 that Northouse identified 10 leadership traits of an effective leader (see Table 1). These traits, which included being articulate, perceptive, self-confident, self-assured, persistent, determined, trustworthy, dependable, friendly, and outgoing, were used in this study to determine the personal leadership attributes of the 30 principals in Region Six. See Table 1 for the actual traits identified by these different scholars.
Table 1. Leadership trait studies and personal characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>Drive</td>
<td>Honesty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alertness</td>
<td>Persistence</td>
<td>Masculinity</td>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>Forward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insight</td>
<td>Insight</td>
<td>Dominance</td>
<td>Integrity</td>
<td>Inspiring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>Initiative</td>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>Competent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiative</td>
<td>Self-Confidence</td>
<td>Cognitive Ability</td>
<td>Competent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistence</td>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>Task Knowledge</td>
<td>Credibility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Confidence</td>
<td>Cooperativeness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>Tolerance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Influence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Silva and Carter (2009)

Mathematics Programs and Student Performance

All over the world, school leaders face the challenge of building academic excellence and equity in student academic performance. The case is not different in Jamaica, where the Ministry of Education is facing mounting criticism over student performance in the GSAT at the primary school level and in the Caribbean Secondary Examination Certificate (CSEC) at high-school level. See Table 2 for the national average for GSAT mathematics from 1999 to 2012.

Table 2. GSAT mathematics national average in Jamaica (1999-2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>National Mean</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>National Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Caribbean Centre of Excellence in Mathematics Teaching (n.d.)
As shown in Table 2, for the 12 years reported the national average for mathematics in the GSAT was between 42 and 62, with 2011 having the highest mean. According to Goldberg and Cole (2002), “there is a great deal of pressure to achieve a range of performance expectations in a climate of student performance and financial accountability” (p. 8). In the state of Texas in the United States, Goldberg and Cole examined an exemplary school district and their study revealed that it “successfully transformed its approach to education by redirecting its goals and processes to assure the success of every student” (p. 8).

Recognising the need for a solution to this problem and also to implement one of the recommendations made in the Task Force on Educational Reform Report (2004), the Ministry of Education established the National Mathematics Team in 2008. The idea of establishing a mathematics program was in line with the recommendations of Ng and Renshaw (2009), who stated that to diagnose student-achievement problems and to develop solutions, schools need to adopt innovative programs that involve collaboration between school leaders, teachers, and other stakeholders. To Slavin and Lake (2007), mathematics programs should include activities related to instructional approaches, classroom management, and motivation, all of which have a strong positive effect on student academic performance.

The National Mathematics Team in Jamaica comprised 56 mathematicians, including a national mathematics coordinator, eight regional mathematics coordinators, and 47 cluster-based mathematics specialists who worked in all 14 parishes of Jamaica (Ministry of Education Jamaica, 2008). The aim of this team was to build human-resource capacity in schools that would help improve student performance in mathematics. The team was also charged with engaging school leaders in instructional leadership as well as with initiating non-academic programs such as math clubs, math fairs, and competitions that would help ease student fears of mathematics (Ministry of Education Jamaica, 2008). It should be pointed out that the vision of the National Mathematics Team was similar to that of the National Council on the Teaching of Mathematics (NCTM), which had been established in 1920 by a group of mathematics educators (NCTM, 2004). According to the Ministry of Education document, the idea behind mathematics programs is strengthening content knowledge and teaching skills, which should be supported in an attempt to unlock full student potential and improve performance.

To solve the problem of teaching mathematics, Cuoco and Goldenburg (1996), Ng and Hu (2006), Taylor and Galligan (2006), and Ng and Renshaw (2009) have recommended several approaches. For instance, Ng and Hu (2006) recommend...
the use of interactive simulation strategy for the teaching of mathematics, while Leithwood (2008) suggested the collaborative approach, involving the establishment of cooperative working relationships among stakeholders in order to improve schools and by extension student performance.

To improve the latter in mathematics, Van De Walle (2007) emphasised the use of a structured program and equity in the teaching and learning process. Van De Walle was also of the view that equity should involve catering to the needs of students through differentiated instruction, which would result in improved understanding of mathematical concepts and ultimately improved performance.

**Research Methodology**

A cross-sectional survey was used to determine the principals’ leadership traits, and the relationship between these traits and student performance in the GSAT in mathematics. In Jamaica, the Ministry of Education groups schools into six regions (Directory of Public Educational Institutions, 2010/11). Each region comprises a number of parishes. For instance, Region Six, which was studied, is referred to as Old Harbor, and consists of two parishes, namely Clarendon and St. Catherine. Both parishes have primary, all age, and primary and junior high public schools (N = 160). These schools were included in this study because the GSAT is administered at the end of the primary school curriculum and usually during the last week in March of each year. Primary schools with an infant section were not included.

It should be noted that some of the studied schools operate under the “whole day” system, while others operate a “shift” system. For the former, school starts at 8:00 am and ends at 2:00 pm, while the latter operate from 8:00 to 12:00 during the morning, and from 1:00 pm to 5:00 pm for the afternoon shift. Schools in the shift system have one principal and two vice-principals, that is, one for each shift, while whole day schools have one principal and one vice-principal. See Table 3 for the distribution of schools in both parishes in Region Six.
Table 3. Population and sample of schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parish</th>
<th>School Type</th>
<th>Number of Schools in Population (N)</th>
<th>Number in of Schools Sample (n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clarendon</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All Age</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary and Junior High</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Catherine</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All Age</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary and Junior High</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>160</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Directory of Public Educational Institutions (2010/11) was the sampling frame used to select the schools to be studied. This frame covered all educational regions in Jamaica and the sampling selection process is described below under two main sub-headings: selection of schools and selection of participants.

Selection of schools

To guide the sampling process, the researcher retained the Ministry of Education’s stratification of Region Six (Clarendon and St. Catherine) and school classification (primary and infant, primary, all age, and primary and junior primary public schools), within each parish. Stratified random sampling was used to select 30 per cent of each school type stated above (n = 48, right column of Table 3). This was considered adequate for the type of statistical analyses employed by the researchers and also adequate given other considerations, such as timeframes and budget to conduct the study (Gay and Airasian, 2003)

Selection of participants

Within each whole day school, the principal and vice-principal were asked to participate in the study, so no sampling was done. However, in shift schools, the principals were also asked to participate, but only one vice-principal was selected by means of the ballot system. This was achieved by placing the names of vice-principals in each school into a box, and through the use of sampling without replacement, nine vice-principals in the nine shift schools were selected. The sample size for the main study was (n = 96), that is, 48 principals and 48 vice-principals.
Data Collection and Analysis

Leedy and Ormrod (2005) recommended the use of interviews and/or questionnaires for collecting data for survey research. However, data for this study were collected through the use of questionnaires and the GSAT results.

During the data-collection phase, the four ethical issues in research outlined by Leedy and Ormrod were observed by researchers. This included protecting the participants from physical harm, using informed consent, maintaining the participant’s right to privacy, and maintaining fairness and honesty during the study.

Two separate but similar questionnaires were used to collect data on the leadership traits of the principals from both principals and vice-principals. The Leadership Trait Questionnaire (LTQ) used was obtained from a website, and was an adaptation of the Northouse (2007) survey. Before the questionnaire was used, a letter of permission was written to Northouse, but no reply was received.

The LTQ consisted of 10 statements that measured leadership traits. Each item had a response format of strongly disagree, with a value of 1, to strongly agree, with a value of 5. The questionnaires were administered by the researchers, who provided an oral and written explanation of the purpose of the study, and the role of the participants in it. Informed consent was also obtained before data were collected from participants.

The GSAT results from 2008 to 2011 were obtained with permission from the Ministry of Education. The data set only contained the average scores for each school in Region Six and for all four exam papers, that is, mathematics, English, social studies, and composition. However, the average scores for only mathematics in the 48 schools were identified, coded, and entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 19. The 10 Likert-type items were treated as ordinal scale. This was due to the response format of strongly disagree to strongly agree in the questionnaires. For the profile items, gender was treated as a nominal variable, while the length of time teaching or working as a principal was treated as ordinal data. Descriptive statistics (frequency and percentage, mean and standard deviation) were used for the demographic data, while inferential statistics (Analysis of Variance and Correlation) were used to analyse the Likert-type items in the questionnaire that addressed the research questions, and document analysis was used for the GSAT data.
Reliability and Validity

For this study, reliability was ensured by using the single test administration (Cronbach’s alpha) method. This method was ideal for study since the LTQ data were collected once (Wiersma, 2009). The Likert-type items yielded an alpha (a) value of 0.805. According to Bryman and Cramer (2006), “the rule of the thumb is that the result should be 0.8 or above” (p. 77). Content validity was achieved by ensuring that the items in the questionnaires answered the research questions.

Discussion of Results

The number of participants selected was (n = 96). The actual number who participated was (n = 60). The response rate for the study was 62.5 per cent. Of the 60 participants who responded to the questionnaire, 29 (48.3 per cent) are male, while 31 (51.7 per cent) are female. See Table 4 for the gender distribution.

Table 4. Cross-tabulation of position and gender of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>13 (21.7%)</td>
<td>30 (50%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice-Principal</td>
<td>19 (31.7%)</td>
<td>30 (50%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>28 (46.7%)</td>
<td>60 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Length of years and gender of principals: Of the 30 principals who participated in the study, approximately 23 per cent had put in 16 years or more in the position, while approximately 27 per cent had 10 years or less as principals (see Table 5).
Table 5. Cross-tabulation of length of years and gender of principals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 and below</td>
<td>1 (3.3%)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>5 (16.7%)</td>
<td>4 (13.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>4 (13.3%)</td>
<td>2 (6.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>5 (16.7%)</td>
<td>6 (20.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 and above</td>
<td>2 (6.7%)</td>
<td>1 (3.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17 (56.7%)</td>
<td>13 (43.3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Length of years as an educator:* At the time of this study, 26 (86.7 per cent) of the principals have had 11 years and more as educators. By comparison, the vice-principals had 10 years or less as educators (see Table 6 for details).

Table 6. Cross-tabulation of length of service as an educator and position of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>Vice-Principal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 and below</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>8 (13.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>4 (6.9%)</td>
<td>20 (34.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>8 (13.8%)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20 years</td>
<td>18 (31.0%)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30 (51.7%)</td>
<td>28 (48.3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No Response = 2

*Research Question One:* What leadership traits do most principals of selected schools in Region Six possess?

To answer this question, the data collected from principals were graphed (see
The five leadership traits mostly possessed by the principals were that they were articulate (93 per cent), determined (96 per cent), friendly (96 per cent), outgoing (96 per cent), and trustworthy (93 per cent).

**Research Question Two:** Is there a difference in the leadership traits identified by the principals and the vice-principals?

The data collected to answer this question were analysed using the One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test. This was done at the significance level of 0.05. As shown in Table 7, the mean values for the principals were higher for two traits (outgoing and trustworthy) when compared with the mean scores of the vice-principals, and the standard deviation for the principals was smaller than that for the vice-principals.
The Changing Nature of Educational Leadership

Table 7. *Descriptive statistics for principals and vice-principals*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>(n)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Outgoing</td>
<td>Principals</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>.568</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vice-Principals</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthy</td>
<td>Principals</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>.621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vice-Principals</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>.776</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Levene test was used to check for the assumptions that the variances of the two groups did not differ significantly as the significance levels were greater than .05. The findings showed that the homogeneity of variance assumption was not violated. The ANOVA results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8. *ANOVA summary table comparing principals and vice-principals on two traits*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Outgoing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.600</td>
<td>9.600</td>
<td>13.030</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>42.733</td>
<td>.737</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>52.333</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.267</td>
<td>4.267</td>
<td>8.633</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>28.667</td>
<td>.494</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>32.933</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Of the 10 leadership traits identified by the principals and the vice-principals and tested using the ANOVA test, the results showed a significant difference for two traits: F (1, 58) = 13.030, p = .001, for “Outgoing,” and F (1, 58) = 8.633, p = .005, for “Trustworthy.” In the studies reviewed by Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008), credibility and trustworthiness were found to be the most important traits considered by subordinates.

The analysis was also done by gender. However, no gender differences between the two groups of participants were found. Morrison et al. (2008) discovered that “female leaders are more adept at mentoring, fostering trust, building positive working relationships, and motivating others – all characteristics of sociability” (as cited in Silva and Carter, 2009, p. 12). By contrast, Grisoni and Beeby (2008) observed that “male leaders are more adept at decision-making, problem solving, negotiating, and communicating verbally – all of which are associated with intelligence” (as cited in Silva and Carter, 2009, p. 12).

**Research Question Three:** Is there a relationship between the principals’ leadership traits and the average score obtained in GSAT mathematics from 2008 to 2011?

To answer this question, the Pearson Product Moment correlation was computed. The total score obtained for the leadership trait was correlated with the average score of students in mathematics from 2008 to 2011. The correlation coefficients for the four years were r = -.123, -.159, -.082, and .005, respectively. The results for 2008 and 2009 showed a weak relationship between principals’ leadership traits and the average score of students in mathematics. However, there was no relationship between the principals’ leadership traits and the average score of students in mathematics in 2010 and 2011. No study was found to support this finding. However, Johnson and Ezenne (2008) stated that “many principals spend most of their time focusing on mundane and routine exercises and not enough time on the instructional component” (p. 182). To Young and Kings (2002) the effect of principals on student performance could be indirect (as cited in Johnson and Ezenne, 2008). According to work done by Bulach et al. (1995), Erpelding (1999), and Hirase (2000), “the extent to which school leaders work to create positive learning environments that are both supportive and conclusive to student learning and teacher behaviors may have a direct effect on student achievement” (as cited in Shouppe and Pate, 2010, p. 87). It should be noted that student performance in mathematics may be affected by other factors not considered in this study. These include learning
environment, attendance, motivation, study habits, stress, teaching methods, learning style, to name just a few.

Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008) note that in a study conducted by Farh and Dobbins (1989), the findings showed that subordinates and supervisors had a correlation coefficient of 0.5 when they were asked to assess the target leader’s performance. In another study by Lunenburg and Columba (1992), the findings showed that “Factor E (dominant), M (imaginative), Q2 (self-sufficient), and A (warm) were consistent predictors of supervisor performance” (as cited in Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2008, p. 120). Peters and Waterman (2005) showed that Factor E characteristics (assertiveness, self-confidence, and independence) were displayed by superior leaders (as cited in Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2008).

Research Question Four: Do principals in the schools with consistent average to above-average scores in GSAT mathematics possess similar leadership traits?

To answer the above question, the leadership traits of the principals and the average score obtained from 2008 to 2011 were used. The findings showed that seven or 23.3 per cent of the schools had scores slightly above the mean of 50 per cent (“better performing schools”). This is compared to the six or 20 per cent of schools that had scores consistently below the mean of 50 per cent (“poor performing schools”).

When the leadership traits of the principals were examined to determine if there was a pattern in the principals whose schools were better performing and in those whose schools were not, the results showed that the former group of principals possessed the following leadership traits: they were articulate, self-confident, persistent, dependable, and friendly. This is compared to the leadership traits of the principals from poor performing schools, who were trustworthy, friendly, outgoing, and determined. Thus, the only common traits were friendliness and being outgoing. Furthermore, the gender of the principals made no observable difference to student performance in mathematics. It should be noted that there was significant improvement in student mathematics performance from 2010 to 2011 for eight schools, while there was a decline in three schools. Furthermore, student performance in four schools did not move above one point within this period and two achieved the same average score in both years. Given the fact that the mathematics teachers and the principals of the schools studied had undergone the training and workshops provided by the National Mathematics Team, one wonders why a consistent performance in GSAT mathematics was not seen across the 30 schools.

These findings are not consistent with the findings of Goldberg and Cole.
(2002), who examined the effects of the Brazostat eight-step instructional process pilot program designed to improve student performance in reading, writing, and mathematics. The findings showed that there was a significant increase in student performance in all three subjects. This cannot be said of all 30 schools from Region Six used in the study. According to Goldberg and Cole (2002), the Brazostat program had “a clear mission and vision and community support, [and] used disaggregated data to identify individual student learning needs” (p. 20), and the principals were held accountable for their students’ performance.

This study has some limitations that should be acknowledged. First, the findings are based on 10 leadership traits and not all the traits identified by Northouse (2007). Second, only questionnaires were used and this did not allow for probing for additional data. Third, only 30 principals and 30 vice-principals in Region Six were used. Thus, the findings cannot be generalised to other primary schools in Jamaica beyond Region Six.

**Conclusion**

The study provides the findings on the leadership traits possessed by principals in selected primary schools in Jamaica, and seeks to determine if there was any significant relationship between these traits and the GSAT performance in mathematics of the students in the schools studied. We focused on 10 leadership traits adapted from Northouse (2007). The findings showed that five leadership traits mostly possessed by the principals were articulacy, determination, friendliness, being outgoing, and trustworthiness. There was a significance difference between two traits “outgoing,” and “trustworthy.” The GSAT results for 2008 and 2009 showed a weak relationship between the principals’ leadership traits and the average score obtained by the students in mathematics. The findings also showed that seven of the primary schools used in the study had scores slightly above the mean of 50 per cent. The traits possessed by the principals whose schools were better performing and those whose schools were poor performing were similar. No clear pattern was established. The consensus on whether the leadership traits of the principals had any relationship with student performance remains elusive. We note that we have contributed to existing knowledge as it relates to leadership traits of principals in primary schools in Jamaica. Based on the identified limitations of this study, we anticipate that further studies could be conducted using a larger sample size and a variety of data-collection methods.
References


UNDERGRADUATE STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF EMPLOYABILITY SKILLS AT A SELECT UNIVERSITY IN KINGSTON, JAMAICA: AN EVALUATION

DESMOND N. MCKENZIE* AND ANDREA PUSEY-MURRAY†

Abstract
This paper presents the perceptions of employability skills of undergraduates at a university in Kingston, Jamaica. A total of 150 (88 female, 62 male) registered students were the respondents for the study. One overall research question guided the study. Using quantitative methodology, this descriptive survey aimed to determine the extent to which undergraduate students valued employability skills. One questionnaire was administered as the primary tool for data collection. Data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The results showed that across the five fields of study (Business Management and Administration, Health Sciences, Engineering, Architecture and Construction, Education and Training) respondents agreed that employability skills were important for both today’s workforce and that of the future.

KEY WORDS: Employability skills, Jamaica, university, undergraduates

*School of Technical and Vocational Education, Faculty of Education and Liberal Studies, University of Technology, Jamaica (Papine campus), desmck83@gmail.com
†Caribbean School of Nursing, College of Health Sciences, University of Technology, Jamaica (Papine campus) aepusey@gmail.com
Introduction

Twenty-first century jobs demand high-level competency from individuals, who must continually change to remain competitive (Bennett, 2006). Such changes underpin growing calls for employees and graduates to have an appropriate balance of technical, employability, and academic skills for the workplace. Globally, industry players have acknowledged the importance of employability in education, which should necessarily focus on the development of key skills and work experience. Although there are several definitions of employability, Yorke (2006) defines it as “a set of achievements – skills, understandings and personal attributes – that make graduates more likely to gain employment and be successful in their chosen occupations, which benefits themselves, the workforce, the community and the economy” (p. 8). Additionally, according to Hillage and Pollard (1998), “employability is about having the capability to gain initial employment, maintain employment and obtain new employment if required” (p. 1). This acknowledgment is perhaps even more important in developing economies such as Jamaica’s. As noted by Smith (2009), the credentials the labour force demands have changed over time. This, therefore, requires graduates to be not just holders of a degree or other qualifications, but people who can add value to the workforce.

As at January 2011, the Planning Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ) estimated that 163,500 adult persons were unemployed in the Jamaican labour market, or approximately 12.9 per cent of the 1,269,900 persons in the labour market out of a total national population of 2,705,800 (PIOJ, 2011). The output of graduates from higher education institutions who possess the necessary employable skills is a critical issue for the country. Smith underscores this point by pointing to unemployed university graduates who remain unsuccessful in finding jobs because they lack critical employability skills. This implies that such skills are not only necessary at the beginning in seeking a job, but also throughout to maintain that job and to find other jobs. This is further elaborated by Hillage and Pollard (1998):

In simple terms, employability is about being capable of getting and keeping fulfilling work. More comprehensively employability is the capability to move self-sufficiently within the labour market to realise potential through sustainable employment. For the individual, employability depends on the knowledge, skills and attitudes they possess, the way they use those assets and present them to employers and the context (e.g. personal circumstances and
As a result of the constant global expansion in higher education plus the recent economic downturn, which has also affected Jamaica, there is intense competition for jobs among graduates (Saunders and Zuzel, 2010). It is becoming ever more important for graduates to be able to apply their knowledge and skills learnt in higher education institutions to the workforce (Crebert et al., 2004b). As Evers, Rush, and Berdrow (1998) note, there is a need for a fundamental shift in emphasis towards general skills in education. Also, researchers have intimated that entry-level graduates are not fully equipped with the general transferable skills necessary for employment and thus are unprepared to enter the workforce (Becker, 1993; Brown et al., 2003; Crebert et al., 2004b; Peddle, 2000; Tetreault, 1997).

To compete in the present labour market, graduates are expected to be able to transfer essential skills from one occupational or business context to another. In other words, merely being in possession of employer-relevant knowledge, skills, and attitudes is not enough, for individuals also need the proficiency to exploit their attributes to become more marketable (Hillage and Pollard, 1998). The development of undergraduates from a purely (or mostly) theoretical stance to the combination and balance of both theory and practice is an essential modern-day need for Jamaica. Practice will not only hone relevant skills, but also enhance employability prospects. Employees must be able to view career possibilities through several lenses in order to align themselves with the new waves in business, which will demand a unique set of skills in those seeking to compete successfully in this environment (Bennett, 2006).

Employers have raised important questions about the competence of university graduates to perform essential employment skills. As Hillage and Pollard (1998) point out, an individual’s employability skill-set should include basic, intermediate, and high-level skills. This is important, for individuals are required to be able to transfer “these skills [from] one occupational or business context to another for employability” (p. 2). They further note that employers are also paying increased attention to the softer attitudinal skills in selecting employees. Basic skills include personal attributes such as reliability and integrity; intermediate skills would include occupation-specific skills such as communication and problem-solving; while high-level skills entail the team work, self-management, and commercial awareness that contribute to organisational performance.

Do university education programs adequately prepare students to be society-ready? A key reason many students invest in such education is to improve their employment prospects. However, while the successful completion of courses to satisfy the requirements for academic qualifications is highly valued, it is no longer
sufficient to secure employment. Instead, employers are seeking potential employees who possess a wide array of skills and practical experience (Yorke, 2006). How then can university courses be streamlined to better meet the demands of the Jamaican people and employers? This is an issue of serious concern, and a study of Jamaican university students’ perceptions of the importance of employability skills is vital to generating insights and assisting universities in implementing courses of study to develop such skills.

Employability skills are often viewed as a company’s most important raw material (Perry, 2003). The information gathered from this study on employability skills could be used to create awareness among curriculum developers and for universities to be more involved in apprenticeship programs. It is also hoped that the strategies recommended will not only inform interested parties, but will also serve as a catalyst for meaningful education reforms to be undertaken in Jamaica. Ultimately, it is hoped that this study will prompt further investigation into the subject of employability skills in Jamaica to promote a culture of empirical work-based opportunities within the confines of the traditional brick-and-mortar classroom.

**Twenty-First Century Workforce**

Twenty-first century workers are expected to operate independently in roles that require problem-solving and decision-making skills, and employers are demanding that students be equipped with these skills to be effective in a dynamic environment. This skill set can drive an organisation to be more efficient and to employ strategies that improve production, service, and product quality. Employers need creative, flexible workers who have a broad range of interpersonal and managerial skills to improve worker collaboration in addition to teamwork (Bennett, 2006).

Titimaea notes that Goleman defines emotional intelligence (EI) as “as the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions well in us and in our relationships” (Goleman, 1998, p. 32). Goleman’s model of EI comprises five skill areas, three relating to personal competence and two to social competence. The personal competencies include: Self-Awareness (“knowing one’s internal states, preferences, resources, and intuitions”); Self-Regulation (“managing one’s internal states, impulses, and resources”); Motivation (“emotional tendencies that guide or facilitate reaching goals”) (Goleman, 1998).

Sala, Druskat, and Mount (2006) have examined the effect of individual EI and individual self-awareness on team effectiveness and found a significant relationship
between EI and team process effectiveness, and between emotional self-awareness and overall team effectiveness. The higher a person advances in an organisational hierarchy, the greater the degree of EI required for effectiveness (Goleman et al., 2002). Employers today expect that university graduates will be equipped with the requisite employability skills so that they can make a direct contribution to the organisation when employed. For some employers, the discipline studied is not as important as the graduate’s ability to handle complex information and communicate effectively (Knight and Yorke, 2000). Recruiters tend to seek employees with a variety of other skills and personal and intellectual attributes rather than specialised subject knowledge. Oral communication, teamwork, self-management, problem-solving, and leadership are all important (Warn and Tranter, 2001).

The advance of new technologies changes the way in which work is done and brings about a shift in workforce requirements, from low skills to being well informed and highly skilled (Bakar and Hanafi, 2007). In this ever-changing world, rapid technological advancement, propelled largely by global competition, has led to a redesign of the workplace into an innovative, high-performance work environment (Overtoom, 2000). Therefore, there is an expectation that present employees at all levels will solve problems, create ways to improve the work methods they use, as well as engage effectively with co-workers. Hence, employees who possess employability skills, demonstrating highly skilled and adaptive blends of technical competence and human relations, are recognised as an employer’s primary competitive edge.

Additionally, the cognitive workers expected to be able to work functionally across many tasks and situations. As cooperation and united activity become more prevalent, employees need well-developed social skills, including teamwork and collaboration, relationship-development plus networking abilities, besides learning and growth relationships. Law et al. (2004) suggest that one of the central mechanisms by which higher levels of employee EI can influence work outcomes is through the quality of the interpersonal relationships such individuals form within the organisation. These relationships and the reciprocal exchanges associated with them might, in turn, allow employees higher in EI to perform more effectively on the job.

In similar vein, George (2000) posits that leaders high in EI may be more likely to cultivate increased trust and cooperation from subordinates. Only a few studies have attempted to assess the impact of EI on performance, over and above general mental ability. Lam and Kirby (2002) considered whether EI predicts cognitive performance. Three hundred and four undergraduate students completed the multifactor EI scale, a measure of IQ, and a performance task. It was shown that, over and above general mental ability, EI contributed to individual cognitively based
performance. They concluded that individuals high in EI may be better equipped to segregate emotions and hence resist the negative, inhibitory effects of intense emotional states and concentrate better on cognitive tasks.

Prati et al. (2003) proposed that EI is “essential to effective team interaction and productivity” (p. 21) and that the EI of the team leader has an important bearing on the effective functioning of the team. The leader serves as a motivator for collective action and facilitates supportive relationships among team members.

According to Tomlinson (2007), individuals who are aware of and develop their abilities and capacities for growth are assumed to be more satisfied and productive, since they perform duties more in keeping with their potential. Employers increasingly want graduates who have self-theories that are marked by confidence, optimism, and a belief that they can make a difference. They want graduates who can adapt to the workplace culture, who can use their abilities and skills to evolve the organisation, and who can participate in innovative teamwork (Harvey et al., 1997; Little, 2001). Employers also value critical thinking, as this is required for innovation and anticipating and leading change (Harvey et al., 1997). The stronger the link between universities and businesses, the greater the opportunities will be to integrate and develop employability skills in undergraduates. On the other hand, Nielsen (2001), in exploring employer satisfaction with graduate skills, concluded that employers had very few complaints in regard to the course content of university study programs. The exception they noted related to the fast-developing and advanced disciplines of information technology and electronic communications.

According to Richardson and Kabanoff (2003), Carnevale et al. (1990) stated that “employers and the business community perceive that higher education programs are failing to achieve specific, real-world goals in the preparation of students” (p. 5). An education that provides such competences plays a role in preventing the isolation of the individual from social and cultural contexts. It thus becomes a basic instrument in economic and social activity (Williams, 2005). In this perspective, social involvement is viewed both economically and socially. If individuals have the required competences to enter the labour market, they will no longer be excluded from society, but will have a job to sustain their lives (Gray, 2000). Bridgstock, (2009) has stated:

Graduate employability is agreed to be a key influence on economic growth in the worldwide knowledge economy and the significance of universities to this agenda is self-evident. Recent policy moves towards support of universities in this task [include] strategic employability funding; enhancement of teaching and learning for employability; work-integrated learning programs; and calls
The current trend of placing emphasis on key graduate skills therefore dictates that the higher education curriculum incorporates opportunities to develop such skills in conjunction with subject-specific skills and knowledge. Such an approach, by producing “business ready” graduates, should enhance the applicant’s potential for successful recruitment and ability to make a dynamic start and to rapidly adapt to change.

Saunders and Zuzel (2010) remark that “to this end, different academic programmes in different universities are adopting various strategies by, for example, offering work experience, work-related learning and employability skills modules, and ‘ready for work’ events, as well as involving employers in course design and delivery” (p. 2). Additionally, according to Saunders and Zuzel (2010, p. 2), Cranmer (2006) states that “in many cases, with employability skills already embedded in the curriculum, universities employ a range of initiatives to make them more explicit to students.”

Barrie (as cited in Richardson and Kabanoff, 2003) notes that there is a “lack of research clarifying the underlying conceptual basis of graduate attributes and suggested that there is a difference in academics’ understandings of the concept of generic attributes and the processes by which graduates develop such attributes” (p. 3). He goes on to state that he “observed that this variation in academics’ understandings was one of the many impediments in systematic curricular reform and teaching development aimed at achieving key competencies in graduates as a core outcome of university education” (Richardson and Kabanoff, 2003, p. 3).

Various surveys (Archer and Davison, 2008; Bunt et al., 2005; Canny, 2004; National Employers Skills Survey, 2007; Stephens and Hamblin, 2006) have been conducted to identify the skills required for graduate employment and considerable agreement exists among employers on the skills most valued. However, McCowan and Richardson (1999) showed that differences exist between skills the graduates perceive as needed by their workplace and the skills their immediate manager suggests are essential for the same position (as cited in Richardson and Kabanoff, 2003, p. 5).

This suggests that at present employer assessments of the value of university study lack the reliability required by universities and government. After reviewing volumes of literature for this study, we conclude that most authors agree on the point that no meaningful and lifelong job placement can occur if the individual lacks specific employability skills and that at present employers are seeking graduates with a balance of both theory and practical skills. It is also very clear, based on the literature review, that 21st century employers need reliable, responsible employees who can...
solve problems and have the social skills and attitudes to work with co-workers. Employees with these skills are in high demand and are considered valuable human capital by such companies. It is clear that these employability skills are not only desired attributes in prospective employees but are requirements for employment in the 21st century and for continuing lifelong education programs beyond the university.

**Method**

The study employed a descriptive survey. Data collection was by questionnaire. The main focus was to ascertain undergraduate perceptions of employability skills offered at a select university in Kingston. For reasons of confidentiality, the university was coded as University A. The study focused on students registered at the said university, and included respondents from disciplines such as Business Management and Administration, Health Sciences, Engineering, Architecture and Construction, and Education and Training. Stratified random sampling was used for selection of participants. A pilot test was conducted, but those results are not included here. Data for the main study were collected over two weeks in March 2012. Permission to conduct the study on the university campus was formally obtained from the relevant authorities.

**Findings**

The findings of the study revealed that the students agreed that employability skills were important to meet the demands of the present and future workforce. It was observed across each discipline, using the grand mean, that all employability skill items were agreed upon by all the respondents as being important (see Appendix A). Of the 150 participating respondents, 123 (82 per cent) were unemployed, 24 (16 per cent) were employed, and three (2 per cent) were self-employed. There were 93 female respondents (62 per cent) and 57 males (38 per cent) (see Table 1).
Table 1. *Gender cross-tabulation on employment of respondents*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender/Employ Cross-tabulation</th>
<th>Employed</th>
<th>Unemployed</th>
<th>Self-employed</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the total sample size of 150, 122 (81.3 per cent) of the respondents were between the ages of 16 and 25, 22 (14.7 per cent) were between 26 and 35, and six (4 per cent) were between 36 and 45 (see Table 2).

Table 2. *Gender cross-tabulation on age of respondents*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age/Gender Cross-tabulation</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-25</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-35</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-45</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The work experience pattern of respondents indicated that a significant number, 52 (34.6 per cent) had less than 12 months of work experience, 41 students
(27.3 per cent) had between 1 and 5 years of experience, and 31 (20.8 per cent) had no working experience. At the other end of the spectrum, 18 (12 per cent) had 6-10 years of work experience, and 8 (5.3 per cent) had just over 10 years of such experience. Even though this indicated that the largest category of respondents had little work experience and the smallest group had the most years of work experience, all the respondents across the various disciplines agreed that employability skills were important. Regarding their plans after the completion of their studies, 56 (37.3 per cent) students intended to work in a business organisation and a further 56 suggested they intended to work in a government agency/department. Twenty-seven (18 per cent) indicated they would pursue further studies while 10 (6.7 per cent) wanted to own their businesses. One student (0.7 per cent) suggested she would like to pursue a career in athletics.

In terms of highest current qualifications, 57 students held associates degrees, 36 students diplomas, 28 students certificates, 16 students had Bachelor’s degrees, 10 students held Caribbean Examinations Council Advanced Proficiency Examination (CXC/CAPE) qualifications, and 3 students had postgraduate degrees (see Table 3).

Table 3. Gender cross-tabulation on qualification of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>female</th>
<th>male</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>certificate</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>associate</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diploma</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>postgraduate</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CXC, CAPE</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>93</strong></td>
<td><strong>57</strong></td>
<td><strong>150</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The overall findings show that the perceptions of the undergraduates at the Jamaican university in question, within the five disciplines, on the importance of the employability skills needed in the present and future workforce were the same: all agreed they were important (see Appendix A). Time-management, punctuality, self-efficacy, prioritising, commitment, teamwork, oral communication, and work attitude were the employability skills selected as of highest importance (very important and moderately important) by respondents across all disciplines.

Overall, the lowest grand mean was 3.58, risk management, and the highest was 4.12, time management. On an individual discipline analysis, the employability skill with the lowest mean (3.13) was prioritising from the Engineering respondents. The second lowest (3.37) was risk management from the respondents of the same school. Time management was the employability skill with the highest mean (4.50) and listening the second highest (4.40) among Architecture and Construction respondents (see Appendix A).

**Discussion**

The focus of the study was the skills and qualities needed by undergraduate students to enhance their employability. As noted above, Hillage and Pollard, (1998) identified basic, intermediate, and high-level employability skills, including reliability, communication, problem-solving, teamwork, self-management, and commercial awareness. This mirrors the views of the respondents: there were several similarities between the employability skills respondents perceived to be important and those outlined by Hillage and Pollard. All skills identified had mean scores of 3.00 and above, indicating moderately important or very important.

Analysis of individual disciplines reveals that oral communication and cooperation were valued most in Nursing and Architecture and Construction and cooperation, creativity, and listening had the least important value in Business Management and Administration. Furthermore, risk management and work attitude were the employability skills with the lowest mean, though they were above 3.00. A high mean score for time management was noticed in Business Management, Nursing, Education and Training, and Architecture and Construction while financial management had a low mean in all the fields except Architecture and Construction.

According to Godfrey (1997), financial management and business studies should be included in vocational programs in order to expose students to the business and industrial world. Within the individual disciplines, the items of flexibility, work attitude, and punctuality had no significant relationship. Also, it was noted that
individuals who had work experience of over 10 years had a low mean, which was nonetheless still above 3.00 and hence important. According to Knight and Yorke (2000), work experience opportunities need to be well managed to be educationally valuable, but good work experience can enhance learning and employability. In general, Bibby et al. (2000) found that students understood the relationship between work experience, reflection, and skills development. Velde and Cooper (2000) reported that the experiences gained through programs on employability skills are also important in providing students with the confidence to decide on their futures. Crebert et al. (2004b) opined that it is becoming increasingly important for graduates to be able to apply the knowledge and skills learned in institutions to the workforce.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Although communication is fundamental to most jobs, a student who works in a team may have more to offer than someone with basic interpersonal skills. Access to a self-assessment tool would encourage students to test their own skills, identify gaps, and develop plans to improve these skills. Parties such as the industries, parents, as well as instructors in the institutions should work together to shape employability skills in students, regardless of gender or field of study, that will benefit them and by extension the wider community. This would be in line with Yorke’s (2006) definition of employability as “a set of achievements – skills, understandings and personal attributes – that make graduates more likely to gain employment and be successful in their chosen occupations, which benefits themselves, the workforce, the community and the economy” (p. 8).

There is a need for training received by students to be researched and revised in terms of its effectiveness in ensuring that students are clear about their future job prospects. Further, instructors should practise employability skills during teaching and learning sessions in order to assist students in applying the skills by themselves. Consideration should be given to summer programs and workshops that would encourage and enable business executives and managers to emphasise the value of employability skills to secondary business/marketing educators. Also, the educational curriculum needs to be examined from time to time to ensure that undergraduate education is relevant and up to date.

This study was conducted with the objective of identifying undergraduate views on the employability skills needed in the 21st century and beyond. The study showed that Jamaican undergraduate students view the importance of employability skills as being moderately high using the grand mean. It also recommends further research in this area to better identify which employability skills are lacking.
### Appendix A

*Employability skills needed to meet present and future workforce needs*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item #</th>
<th>Employability Skills</th>
<th>Business Management and Administration</th>
<th>Nursing</th>
<th>Engineering</th>
<th>Architecture and Construction</th>
<th>Education and Training</th>
<th>Grand Mean</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Risk management</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Financial management</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Prioritising</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Cooperation</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Work attitude</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Punctuality</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Teamwork</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Problem-solving</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Written communication</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
References


Perry, C. (2003). All employers want the “balanced graduate.” Sydney: University of New South Wales, Careers and Employment.


THE IMPACT OF THE USE OF PART-TIME FACULTY ON THE STUDENT EXPERIENCE AT A RECENTLY UPGRADED UNIVERSITY IN JAMAICA

JENNIFER ELLIS,* CEBERT ADAMSON, † AND PAUL MILLER ‡

Abstract

The use of part-time or adjunct faculty has long been part of the educational landscape, particularly in higher education institutions. There are several issues associated with this type of faculty employment: costs; implications for the quality of tuition; student perceptions of the added value; the forces driving their use; and how the role and functions of part-time faculty fit into the mission, vision, and strategy of an institution. This paper reports the results of a study conducted in 2010 and 2011 aimed at exploring whether the use of part-time faculty has impacted the mission, vision, and strategy of a newly reclassified university. Surveys were conducted among part-time faculty and analyses were done of compensation costs, student performance, examination papers set by part-time faculty, and also evaluation forms completed by students at the end of courses taught by part-time faculty. The key findings are that part-time faculty make up the equivalent of 96 full-time staff (or 27 per cent of all academics); part-time faculty often miss faculty/departmental meetings; part-time faculty are often unavailable to provide guidance to students; there were observable quality deficits in examination scripts prepared; and there is a seeming inadequacy of pedagogical skills.

KEY WORDS: Part-time faculty, recruitment, pedagogical skills, compensation costs, student performance, student evaluation

*University of Technology, Jamaica, JEllis@utech.edu.jm
†Council of Community Colleges of Jamaica, cadamson@cccj.edu.jm
‡University of Technology, Jamaica, Paul.Miller@utech.edu.jm
Introduction and contextualisation

University X was established in the late 1950s as a national training institute in the area of technology education. Its name was changed in 1959 and approval for this was granted by the national parliament in 1964. In 1986, University X was awarded degree-granting powers through its ordinances and as approved by the Ministry of Education. It was thus legally empowered to conduct its affairs under a governing council and an academic board.

University X was formally accorded university status on 1 September 1995 under its current name. An act of parliament solidifying the establishment of University X was passed on 8 June 1999 and signed into law on 29 June 1999.

The work of University X is intricately woven into the social and economic development of Jamaica. From just over 50 students and four programs in 1958, University X had grown by 2012 into a major national institution, with 11,000 students, 420 full-time academic staff, and approximately 700 non-academic staff. The university offers over 70 programs at certificate, diploma, and degree levels through its two colleges and five faculties. In addition, several programs are franchised through links with community colleges, and a range of programs are linked to national and international professional organisations. Within the last five years, the university has expanded access to its programs by establishing two satellite campuses and through five franchise arrangements across Jamaica. Additionally, programs are also offered in two other Caribbean territories.

The university operates on a semester system, although several credit and non-credit courses are delivered during the summer session from mid-May to August.

Policy shifts and the financing of Higher Education

Governments the world over are making shifts in their spending on public education, and in particular on higher education (Miller and Shotte, 2010). In Jamaica, for example, policymakers and those responsible for budgeting have made it clear that, as part of their development strategy, there will be a reduction in funding for tertiary/higher education. Additionally, the focus has shifted from higher education to early childhood education. Then Minister of Education Andrew Holness, in an address to the conference of the Association of Caribbean Higher Education Administrators 2010, stated that although higher education was vital to the country’s development, the Jamaican government was unable to sustain current funding levels. Paradoxically, the minister’s pronouncement came at a time of unprecedented public
demand for higher education and a seeming awareness of its seminal role in national development. However, while there is notable demand for tertiary education, higher education institutions, including University X, are faced with a plethora of challenges, many of them finance-related.

Young (2009) has recommended a new approach to funding tertiary education in Jamaica. Without offering specifics, Young surmises that such an approach would enable Jamaica to honour its commitment under the World Trade Organisation’s General Agreement on Trade in Services while simultaneously assisting in the country’s development.

One negative outcome of the progressive reduction in funding for publicly funded tertiary institutions in Jamaica such as University X is its impact on the ability of higher education institutions to recruit and retain academic staff, especially those with doctoral degrees. In the case of University X, this state of affairs further hampers its ability to compete with other universities locally, regionally, and globally in terms of offering competitive compensation and benefits. Reduced government funding to University X has also resulted in an increase in compensation costs as a percentage of total operating costs. Similarly, the university’s inability to offer competitive salaries to attract qualified full-time academic staff has led to an increase in the use of part-time faculty.

**Literature Review**

The American Federation of Teachers (AFT, 2010) in research conducted in 2010, found that part-time faculty accounted for 47 per cent of academic staff in universities and that in community colleges, part-time/adjunct faculty accounted for almost 70 per cent of teaching staff. The survey further found that over 57 per cent of adjunct faculty provided their skills for the love of teaching, and not for any likely financial gain, which in some ways reflects their commitment to the profession. The federation also reported that to escape certain contractual requirements such as the need to be published, in excess of 70 per cent of the persons surveyed had done over 10 years as part-time faculty and had committed themselves to working part-time for the foreseeable future.

These findings broadly mirror Landrum’s (2009). Drawing on statistics from the National Center for Education Statistics, Landrum (2005) suggests that in 1992, part-time faculty comprised 41.7 per cent of the teaching faculty at degree-granting institutions and that by 2003, this had increased by only 2 per cent to 43.7 per cent. Clery (2001), in research conducted for the National Education Association in the
US, found that in 2001, two of every five faculty members taught on a part-time basis, and that they taught nearly 40 per cent of all classes and students in credit courses. The research further found that although part-time faculty members are not often expected to publish as much as full-time faculty members, one-third of part-time faculty members completed publications in two years. Where part-time faculty members did produce publications, the overall number they completed was only slightly less than the production of their full-time counterparts.

Clery’s research also found that the use of part-time faculty members was not evenly distributed across institutions and groups: 60 per cent of community college faculty members were part-time; part-time faculty were more likely to be in private colleges than in public four-year institutions; women and American Indians were more likely to teach on a part-time basis; and Asian/Pacific Islanders were less likely to be part-time faculty. Other important findings were that the youngest and oldest faculty members were also most likely to have part-time status; the majority of part-time faculty members held Master’s degrees as their highest degree; a third of part-time faculty considered the position to be their primary position; and 76 per cent preferred to teach part-time.

Monks (2009) concluded that the growth in the use of part-time faculty has occurred despite low pay, almost nonexistent benefits, inadequate working conditions, and little or no opportunity for career advancement. Interestingly, Monks suggests a typology of part-time faculty in higher education: (1) those without a PhD or first professional degree who are not retired (68 per cent); (2) those with a PhD or first professional degree who are not retired (19 per cent); and (3) retirees (14 per cent). On the other hand, 65 per cent of part-time faculty who report that they would not prefer a full-time position at their institution can also be divided into three mutually exclusive groups: (1) those whose position at the college or university where they teach is not their primary position (72 per cent); (2) those for whom the part-time faculty position is their primary position and who are not retired from another position (16 per cent); and (3) those who are retired from another position (12 per cent). It appears from Monks’s analysis that there is no clearly defined part-time faculty member, and that part-time faculty have diverse motives for pursuing teaching positions in higher education. This is also true of University X. While some part-time faculty appear to want a full-time position at the university, a large number have expressed no desire for such positions.

Eagan and Jaeger (2009) note that part-time faculty provide institutions with the ability to be more economically efficient in managing their financial resources, as part-time faculty are generally cheaper to employ than their full-time counterparts and
offer greater flexibility to institutions. This position was supported by Gordon (2002), who posited that the reasons for the widespread use of part-time faculty were well known within academic circles and ranged from the purely financial to the academic. Gordon notes further that part-time faculty cost less than full-time faculty, earning half to less than one-third of what full-time faculty earn. Brewster (2002), notes that other motives for employing part-timers include their not being eligible for additional benefits, such as health coverage, sick or vacation pay, and because they are easier to get rid of.

**Pros and Cons of Employing Part-Time Faculty**

Many have debated the issue of quality as regards the use of part-time faculty. Fulton (2000) argues that part-time faculty offer an institution flexibility in meeting the demands of varied enrolment and bring a higher level of vocational experience to the classroom, especially in areas where employing a full-time faculty member has proven difficult. Fulton also notes that part-time faculty sometimes provide an invaluable link between industry and the institution, which can be critical for development in various ways. Leslie and Gappa (2002) note that part-time faculty are as effective as full-time faculty in terms of meeting student outcomes. They also propose that students learn as much, perform as well, and are as likely to be retained when taught by part-time faculty as when taught by full-time faculty. Additionally, we note that challenges with student discipline are no different from those experienced by full-time faculty and that student evaluations of faculty, both full-time and part-time, are comparable. Hence, the notion that part-time faculty do not assist in the general development and mooring of students are unmerited. Liu (2007) notes that any shortcomings on the part of part-time faculty may be attributed to lack of effective support for them.

**Research Purpose, Methodology, and Methods**

The main aims of this exploratory study were to investigate how the use of part-time faculty impacts University X. The study employed a mixed-method approach, paying particular attention to the triangulation of data. The following data-gathering approaches were adopted:

- A survey was conducted among part-time faculty at the university. There was a response rate of approximately 65 per cent.
- An analysis of the sums paid to part-time faculty compared with full-time
faculty.

- An analysis of grades awarded by part-time faculty compared with those awarded by full-time faculty in 20 selected courses.
- A qualitative analysis was conducted of examination questions set by part-time faculty in 20 modules across 6 programs.
- An analysis of 150 end-of-module-and-program evaluation forms completed by students.

The sampling approach adopted was deterministic.

Findings

The results of the study are summarised below and can be grouped into six categories: (a) factors contributing to the use of part-time faculty; (b) characteristics/demographics of part-time faculty; (c) qualifications held by part-time faculty; (d) relationship of part-time faculty to university strategy; (e) assessment and evaluation of student work; and (f) student perceptions of the effectiveness of part-time faculty.

Factors contributing to the use of part-time faculty

At University X, part-time faculty are hired for three main reasons: (a) to assist with enrolment (student) fluctuations; (b) where special expertise is needed and is not available to the university or cannot be employed by the university on a full-time basis; and (c) to fill gaps when full-time faculty are on leave or otherwise unavailable. Other factors contributing to the use of part-time staff at the university include the shortage of space for lectures and tutorials, particularly for large classes. In the absence of large rooms to hold many students at the same time, classes are broken into small groups and therefore have to be given by part-time faculty. The lack of office space for full-time faculty is another reason the university has employed part-time faculty, many of whom do not require physical office space.

Characteristics/Demographics of Part-time faculty

The survey revealed that full-time faculty accounted for 72 per cent of the faculty and part-time faculty 28 per cent. This means that at University X, the full-time faculty percentage is slightly higher than the 61 per cent thought to be the average by the American Association of University Professors (AFT, 2010).
Summary of Qualifications Held

It was found that approximately 8 per cent of part-time faculty at University X had a doctoral degree; 63 per cent a Master’s degree; and 31 per cent hold qualifications that include Bachelor’s, diplomas, and certificates (Figure 1). This finding is particularly interesting, since University X would appear to be ignoring the guidelines set out by the standards agency for universities, the University Council of Jamaica, which recommends that faculty members must hold a degree that is at least one level above the level they are employed to teach.

Figure 1. Composite findings on experience, teacher training, and teaching level
Table 1. Part-time faculty work experience, teacher training, and teaching level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas</th>
<th>per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Held Teacher Training Qualifications</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Held another Full-Time Job:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Private Sector</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Public Sector</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Another Tertiary</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institution</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taught Undergraduate Classes</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taught Graduate Classes</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fields of Teaching:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business and Management</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sciences</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health-Related Fields</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Human Services</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer and Information</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systems</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Languages-Japanese</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction/Related</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Architecture, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average hours taught per semester</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attendance at Faculty and Department Meetings</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of Vision and Mission</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 provides insightful data on part-time faculty. Almost 70 per cent taught undergraduate classes in the business faculty, which is among the largest faculties in the university. In harder-to-staff areas such as Japanese and construction, part-time faculty provide regular cover.
The role and function of part-time faculty and how these relate to the University’s Mission and Objectives

The role and functions of part-time faculty include, but are not limited to:

1. Teaching, which includes preparation of lesson plans; instructing classes; assessing student work; marking scripts, inputting grades into the student management system, and student advisement, which is done in and out of class and during and outside regular hours. Student advisement is expected to be done for both personal and professional development. Part-time members are therefore required to be in regular dialogue with their students, whether by email, telephone, or face-to-face sessions whenever on campus.

Student advisement is a major part of the university’s objectives and this was reflected in the responses. Approximately 90 per cent of respondents indicated they were in regular contact with their students. This was, however, not supported by the students surveyed, 60 per cent of whom noted a concern with the availability of part-time faculty when they needed guidance in some or other form. Students complained that email messages went unanswered and telephone calls were not returned. It is unclear how students felt about being able to contact full-time staff.

2. Participation in faculty and departmental activities was seen as crucial to helping shape the university agenda and as a means of building alliances and collegiality between part-time and full-time faculty. Seventy-three per cent of part-time faculty interviewed said they would be willing to collaborate and plan. However, 94 per cent indicated that they’d not previously been invited to departmental/faculty meetings. A smaller number of respondents suggested work commitments and scheduling issues hampered their attendance at meetings.

Assessment and Evaluation of Student Work

The researchers also sampled examination/test questions submitted as part of a pool for final examinations (see items 1-5 below). Twenty senior academic managers from five faculties were surveyed and reports reviewed. Reported challenges included one or more of the following:
• Non-adherence to the prescribe structure for exam papers
• Over-use of low-level test items
• Test questions lacking in originality (heavy dependence on past questions and textbook banks)
• Poorly worded and ambiguous questions
• Late submission of test items/papers and grades for graded assignments and examinations

A further analysis was conducted of student grades in select modules to ascertain whether there were major differences between those taught by part-time faculty and those taught by full-time faculty. The data showed only a marginal difference, with grades earned by students taught by part-time faculty generally falling about one letter grade below those earned by students taught by full-time faculty.

Student Perceptions of part-time faculty

An analysis of module evaluation forms revealed that students thought part-time faculty possessed good content knowledge, although many were unable to present this in a manner that facilitated effective learning. Additionally, 85 per cent of the students surveyed noted a challenge with being able to get advice and guidance on assessment and curricular issues from part-time faculty outside regular class time. A major issue identified by part-time students was the lack of timely feedback from part-time faculty. Despite this, almost 97 per cent of students reported that part-time faculty were more accommodating in class and provided greater career guidance, perhaps due to their links, in several cases, with industry.

Cost Analysis of Employing Part-time Faculty

An analysis of compensation costs for each faculty member in the 2009-10 academic year showed part-time faculty were equivalent to 96 full-time faculty in terms of hours claimed. Overtime hours claimed by full-time faculty were equivalent to 72 full-time faculty (see Table 2). These data show that for University X to staff its programs, approximately 168 additional full-time academic staff members are required.
Table 2. Summary of part-time/overtime hours claimed/FTE for 2009-10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hours Claimed</th>
<th>FTE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PT Hours Claimed</td>
<td>43,004.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overtime Hours Claimed (by Full-time Faculty)</td>
<td>32,185.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Looking at these figures objectively, one can only draw on the words of Shirley (2011), who pointed out that “several [full-time] lecturers were not covering their minimum contact hours resulting in a ballooning of the wage bill for temps.” The cost of employing part-time faculty in relation to the total compensation for all staff in the 2009-10 academic year is set out in Table 3.

Table 3. Comparative analysis of compensation costs for academic year 2009/10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Details</th>
<th>per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Per cent of PT costs to total compensation costs</td>
<td>4.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per cent of OT costs to total compensation costs</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per cent of total OT and PT costs to total costs for academic staff</td>
<td>13.66 per cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per cent of PT/OT costs in relation to FTE</td>
<td>35.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data show that almost 10 per cent of total compensation costs go to part-time faculty or as overtime for full-time faculty. Approximately 14 per cent of the total academic staff compensation is paid for either overtime or part-time work. Part-time and overtime costs are equivalent to approximately 36 per cent of all wages and salaries as per the compensation budget.
Discussion and Recommendations

The use of part-time faculty is not unique to University X. In fact, in almost all universities worldwide, the engagement of part-time faculty is commonplace. It is underpinned by a range of considerations and factors, as discussed in the literature review above. From the study conducted, the data reveal three key cost areas associated with the use of part-time faculty.

*Actual cost of engaging them*

Part-time faculty compensation brings into focus two clear issues: (a) the actual costs of engaging as many as 96 FTEs may be untenable in the medium to long term, and (b) can University X not make more efficient use of full-time faculty, thereby reducing the burden on its wage and salaries bill? The issues are important to consider, given the government’s reduction in spending on tertiary education in Jamaica both in terms of capital expenditure and of subsistence funding.

*Quality of test items*

The most important function of an educational institution is the training and development of minds through the sharing of information. The fact that part-time faculty produce sub-standard test items both in terms of content and quality is crucial. In other words, test items need to reflect the curriculum and provide students with opportunities to demonstrate the knowledge and skills associated with that curriculum. Where this is not the case, students are being short-changed and the university, one could argue, is not meeting its obligations to national development and its students. Going forward, the university may need to examine its monitoring and support procedures for part-time faculty, including training in test writing, pedagogical skills, assessment and evaluation, and teaching the adult learner, where these are not already in place.

*Feedback to students*

Good feedback is fundamental to a learner’s progress and timely feedback is even more pivotal. The fact that part-time faculty do not provide timely feedback to students and are not easily accessible is an issue that cannot be overlooked. If this trend were to continue, one could extrapolate that students would invariably earn
a grade below what they would earn from a full-time faculty member, on the basis of the readier accessibility of full-time faculty member. Deans, program directors, and program leaders will have to develop minimum standards of accountability for part-time faculty. Where these do not yet exist, deans could make available a shared office area for use by part-time faculty where they can be reached by students at published times. Additionally, program directors and program leaders should pursue opportunities to work closely and collaboratively with part-time faculty so they are initiated into and receive orientation about the practices and expectations of the university.

Benefits

Three clear benefits for engaging part-time faculty were also found. These include the application of industry experience in teaching; knowledge (subject content) parity between part and full-time faculty; and cost savings to the university.

Application of industry experience

Students generally agreed that part-time faculty usually have a wealth of experience and knowledge in their respective fields and in most cases they are practitioners, thereby providing students with workplace or industry knowledge and examples. These workplace or industry applications enhance the learning experience for students and reinforce the crucial need for industry and education to have strong links.

The fact that some part-time faculty add to the teaching and learning exchange by bringing relevant industry experience is, however, not a matter favoured by Fulton (2000), unless such faculty have the requisite academic qualifications at one level higher than the level being taught. Where this is not the case, Fulton proposes a form of internship called a “residency,” which would not be strictly faculty.

Knowledge parity between full- and part-time faculty

Despite being inaccessible for consultation outside lessons, part-time faculty at the university were regarded by students as possessing excellent subject knowledge. This they believed was generally comparable with that of full-time faculty.

Cost Savings to University X

Although the costs to University X of paying the current 96 Full Time Equivalent part-time faculty members are not inconsiderable, this amount would be
triple for full-time staff. That is, University X can make a saving from employing part-time staff on the basis that it does not have to pay for full-time benefits such as health insurance, travelling allowances, etc. What in nominal terms appears a high expenditure by the university would balloon were more part-time faculty to become full-time faculty.

Conclusions

The engagement and use of part-time faculty at any university is a serious matter and can be a minefield for university and departmental managers. Part-time faculty undoubtedly contribute to lowering university wage and salary bills. They also add to the teaching and learning experience of students through the experience they bring from industry and the workplace. Additionally, their knowledge in their field of study is on par with full-time faculty.

Despite the obvious benefits to a university and to students from the engagement of part-time faculty, there are also several challenges. Part-time faculty are sometimes (mostly, in the case University X) inaccessible for student advisement and consultation, an essential part of the teaching, learning, and development process. Additionally, it would appear the use of part-time faculty could undermine the strategic objectives of the university for research, since, as the study found, many of them still have qualifications at the Bachelor’s and pre-Bachelors’ level. This situation perhaps exacerbates the concerns associated with setting examination questions with depth and rigour, catering to a range of learner abilities and learning styles.

With reduced budgets, universities are caught between “a rock and a hard place”: engage fewer part-time faculty and employ more full-time faculty, and be savaged by higher wage and salary costs. The reverse is, of course, retain part-time faculty in current numbers and reduce the wage and salary bills for full-time staff, but risk the students’ experience, which could ultimately adversely impact the university’s reputation. In this paradoxical scenario, there appears no clear path to Nirvana. Yet an additional point is clear: where part-time faculty do well, they are well integrated into and supported by members of their faculty.

References
PROPOSAL FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE BALANCED SCORECARD IN MANAGING HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

* CHARMAINE BISSESSAR

Abstract

It is proposed that the Balanced Scorecard Concept (BSC), a business concept traditionally used to measure financial returns, be applied to leadership and management in higher education. The author recommends BSC model as a tool to better understand and measure the dynamics of the: (a) customer perspective, (b) internal business process, (c) learning and growth, and (d) financial aspects within higher education institutions. This paper also expands the idea of the customer perspective, which should transcend students and teachers to encompass all stakeholders and their individual and collective needs. BSC takes into account not just present intellectual, organisational, fiscal, and technological needs, but also insists that forecasting be adopted with respect to succession planning, instructional design and delivery, development of reflective praxis, and professional learning communities.

KEY WORDS: Balanced Scorecard Concept, leadership, higher education

* Hugh Wooding Law School, Trinidad, drcharmainebissessar@yahoo.com
Introduction

The University of the West Indies was established in 1948 and has evolved in tandem with the exponential growth in technology and increasing demands for innovative and esoteric fields of study. In this regard, leadership in higher education is akin to success or failure not only within the education sector but within the society, for each forms a symbiotic dyad. Howe (2000) underscored the problem facing leaders at the University of the West Indies:

As it attempts to achieve its primary developmental function of unlocking the potential of the peoples of the region, it too, as with universities around the world, is having to grapple with the diverse challenges of change spurred by global economic crises, technological change and globalization among other difficulties. (p. ix)

With this as part of the natural path of any university, leadership challenges abound. The underlying premise of this study is to suggest alternatives to defining, redefining, and reengineering the leadership process through the consideration of the Balanced Scorecard Concept (BSC). While accepting caveats as to the dearth of empirical or experiential data to vindicate such use in the higher education realm, this researcher proffers a proposal for the application of BSC. Umashankar and Dutta (2007) concluded:

The BSC approach offers an institution the opportunity to formulate a cascade of measures to translate the mission of knowledge creation, sharing and utilization into a comprehensive, coherent, communicable and mobilizing framework – for external stakeholders and for one another. (p. 54)

With a view toward extending the implementation of BSC beyond business, these researchers applied BSC to the higher education environment in India

Balanced Scorecard Concept

as a performance system to address deficiencies in the traditional system. Moreover, Azizi, Behzadian, and Afshari (2012) stated that BSC “can be used to communicate and build a common understanding of institutional vision and strategy, to guide faculty and staff toward common goals, and to identify areas where improvements are needed” (p. 165). In short, BSC provided leaders with a framework for strategy alignment and effective measurement. Additionally, BSC offered a structure in which leaders could evaluate performance holistically.

Kaplan and Norton (1992) posited four motivators for future financial success. These drivers and the associated questions are set out in Table 1 and discussed in detail below.

Table 1. Components of BSC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Four Drivers</th>
<th>Four Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customer perspective</td>
<td>How do customers see us?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal perspective</td>
<td>What must we excel at?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovation and learning perspective</td>
<td>Can we continue to improve and create?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial perspective</td>
<td>How do we look to stakeholders?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Kaplan and Norton (1992)

By integrating the four perspectives, BSC provides leaders with the tools to develop cross-functional relationships that will assist in overcoming challenges, detecting and managing crises, and current and future decision-making processes. The four perspectives entail the following:

1. Customer perspective: BSC allows for the consideration of customer perspectives as a means to determine quality of services as well as level of customer satisfaction and to retain and woo customers. The contemporary competitive environment requires leaders to implement a customer satisfaction index and surveys to determine customer views of the organisation and their product and service preferences with the aim of maintaining market share to secure the organisations’ economic viability. BSC provides management with the tool to assess issues important to customers, including time, cost, quality, service, and performance (Kaplan and Norton, 1992).

2. Internal business perspective: This perspective is connected to the customer perspective and answers the question “what must we excel at?” (Kaplan and Norton, 1992). The internal business perspective allows for the evaluation
of the organisation’s internal processes and value chain to ensure that technological systems and processes are used to promote a culture of innovation and creativity. Such actions will facilitate the organisation’s success in meeting customer demands and shareholder expectations. The business perspective enables management to identify the key areas for translating the organisation’s strategy from vision into reality.

3. Learning and growth perspective: As noted in Table 1, the learning and growth perspective answers the question, “How can we continue to improve and create value?” (Kaplan and Norton, 1992). This perspective involves the creation of value by ensuring that intellectual, socio-technological, fiscal, and systemic procedures cater to the organisation’s vision, mission, and objectives. Where a shortfall in employees’ skills exists, leaders are expected to provide the required training, development, and coaching. Emphasis on boosting staff morale, employee motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic), employee satisfaction (Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory and Dual Factor Theory, Ewen et al., 1966), and engagement measurement will also assist in minimising gaps.

4. Financial perspective: The fourth perspective answers the question “how do we look to stakeholders?” While the traditional financial measures should not be discounted, this perspective measures whether the organisation’s objectives, strategies, and tactics are aligned to contribute to its bottom line. The typical foci here are revenues, profitability, and growth.

Overall, BSC provides a framework and engenders the merging of an organisation’s strategy and vision to achieve individual and collective goals. The four perspectives share a cause and effect relationship, and they foster the development of learning and growth for the benefit of all stakeholders, especially the customer and organisation, through enhanced profitability.

Kaplan and Norton (1996) postulated that, “the Balanced Scorecard translates an organization’s mission and strategy into a comprehensive set of performance measures that provide the framework for strategic measure and management systems” (p. 2). Although the emphasis is on financial objectives, BSC also encapsulates the performance drivers behind these objectives. Intangible and tangible assets, according to Kaplan and Norton (1996), are equally important within an organisation. They viewed intangible assets as enabling organisations to: (a) develop customer relationships, (b) introduce innovative products, (c) produce customised high-quality products, (d) mobilise employee skills, and (e) deploy information technology (p. 3).
Opponents of the implementation of BSC within the business sector viewed it as deficient in addressing softer skills and the intangible asset of the company’s intellectual capital. Schneiderman (1999) stressed the limitations of BSC in addressing the following:

- The inability to connect non-financial and anticipated financial results
- Goals for enhancement are negotiated rather than based on process and stakeholder needs
- Metrics not clearly identified.
- The absence of an operational system that will divide up the high level goals among the subordinate levels where corrective processes are undertaken.

Epstein and Manzoni (1997) questioned the ease of maintaining the BSC system and the strategy that will facilitate its use in the business sector. Vaivio (1995), meanwhile, questioned its effectiveness as a quantitative measure in emphasising the company’s strategy.

Notwithstanding these critiques, from its embryonic stage BSC has been adopted by 50 per cent of Fortune 1,000 companies in North America and by up to 45 per cent of European companies (Umashankar and Dutta, 2007). Numerous studies and other evidence attest to the use of BSC in business. However, the education sector, according to Umashankar and Dutta (2007), has not embraced the concept in its entirety.

**Application of BSC to Higher Education**

There is a paucity of studies on the implementation of BSC in higher education institutions, but various researchers have reported success in the implementation of BSC within the education sector as a means to monitor and enhance management and performance. In fact, Stewart and Carpenter-Hubin (2001) adapted BSC to higher education and suggested a hypothetical example of how BSC could be implemented. They further identified the following benefits of such an approach:

1. evaluate the viability, value, quality effectiveness, and efficient use of resources of each academic program;
2. contribute significantly to a university’s efforts to build a culture of academic quality;
3. provide direction and priorities about needs, assessment, resource allocation, and future planning;
4. provide structure, a plan of action, and information for continuous
program improvement; and
e) document ways in which each action contributes to the fulfilment of the university’s mission to provide a learning environment that promotes academic and personal excellence. (p. 40)

Stewart and Carpenter-Hubin (2001) go on to state that “while the balanced scorecard cannot guarantee a recipe for correct decisions, it provides an integrated perspective on goals, targets, and measures of progress. It ties together information from a variety of perspectives so that trade-offs can be weighed” (p. 40). In their example of BSC, they posed the fundamental question, “What type of students should the University attract?” (p. 41) and related it back to the four areas of BSC. They proposed objectives and indicators to determine the diversity of the student population as well as other aims. Table 2 exemplifies Stewart and Carpenter-Hubin’s proposal. Here they are using the customer perspective of BSC to link back to higher education objectives. This is one manner in which BSC can be implemented in higher education.

Table 2. Example of BSC and assorted objectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diversity: How well do we broaden and strengthen our community?</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Increase campus diversity</td>
<td>• Percentage of students, staff, and faculty by gender and ethnicity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Provide better disability access</td>
<td>• Inventory program needs as baseline improvement over time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Stewart and Carpenter-Hubin (2001, p. 41)

Apart from Stewart and Carpenter-Hubin (2001), O’Neil et al. (1999) explored the application of BSC to the Rossier School of Education at the University of Southern California. The model was designed to satisfy the information needs of the central administration:

“Financial perspective” was replaced with “academic management perspective,” and instead of asking “How do we look to shareholders?” we asked, “How do we look to our university leadership?” For the original “customer perspective” we substituted “stakeholder perspective” and identified students and employers
as our most significant stakeholders. We kept the original names of the two remaining perspectives. In addition to these changes, we renamed the “balanced scorecard” the “academic scorecard.” (p. 36)

O’Neil et al. further underscored the need for performance indicators to be realistic and in keeping with the level of academic expectation.

Similarly, Amaratunga and Baldry (2000) used BSC to measure higher education sector performance. Their initial findings confirmed the correlation between performance measurement and performance quality based on the BSC model. Cullen et al. (2003) proposed the use of BSC in support of managing rather than monitoring performance. They further developed a BSC model to be used by faculty in keeping with their findings.

Earlier, Chang and Chow (1999) had indicated the benefits to a university accounting department. They interviewed 69 accounting department heads who supported the “balanced scorecard’s potential applicability and benefits to accounting programs. These department heads also provide suggestions on the items that can comprise an effective balanced scorecard for an accounting department, as well as factors that can affect its successful implementation” (p. 395).

Further validation of the use of BSC was provided by Karathanos and Karathanos (2005). They highlighted the importance of BSC to the education and business sectors and illustrated how the Baldrige Education Criteria for Performance Excellence could be implemented within the education environment. These criteria are (a) leadership, (b) strategic planning, (c) customer focus, (d) measurement, analysis, and knowledge management, (e) workforce focus, (f) process management, and (g) results. Karathanos and Karathanos (2005) reported its use at the Rossier School of Education at University of Southern California, where BSC was implemented to assess the academic and planning process. Appendix A illustrates the differences in the use of the Baldrige Criteria for Performance Excellence for business and education as proposed by Karathanos and Karathanos (2005). Students’ learning results, according to Umashankar and Dutta (2007), encompass vision and mission, student appraisal methods, and holistic appraisal of student learning. These, the researchers indicated, were similar to customer-focused results in the business environment.

The second aspect of the Baldrige Criteria for Performance Excellence underscores the importance of ensuring that there is a measurement of student and stakeholder satisfaction in place to determine the strengths and weaknesses of instructional delivery. This relates to BSC’s product and service results, where indicators of service performance are key components of delivery. The third aspect
of the Baldrige Criteria is budgetary, financial, and market results, including return on investment, assets, profit margins, and value added per employee. In education, this relates to cost per course, individual student expenditure, scholarship growth, and other expenditures related to education. The fourth aspect of the Baldrige Criteria relates to human resources. In the education realm, this means faculty and staff results and encompasses innovation, turnover, creativity, on-the-job performance, development of professional learning communities, the importance of self-reflective teaching, and staff morale, well-being, and satisfaction.

The fifth aspect is organisational effectiveness and results, such as productivity, cycle time, supplier and partner performance, key measures or indicators of accomplishments, organisational strategies, and action plans within the business sector. Umashankar and Dutta (2007) suggest that such can be transferred to leadership in higher education and include issues of student performance improvement, education climate, response to stakeholder and student needs, and, of course, organisational strategies and action plan.

The final aspect relates to governance and social responsibility for the business, and consists of internal and external measures or indicators of ethical behaviour and of stakeholder trust in the governance within the organisation. This can be transferred to education (see Appendix A) and can relate to similar issues in addition to legal compliance and organisational citizenship.

Additional validation of the implementation of BSC in higher education was proffered by Lawrence and Sharma (2002). After examining its adoption the DXL University in Fiji, they concluded:

The financial dimension of the BSC at the DXL University encapsulates indicators such as cash flow, liquidity ratio, debtors age, collection efficiency, profitability measured in terms of return on assets, return on equity, and so on. The strategic requirement of DXL University through its financial perspective of BSC is to operate as a successful and efficient business. (pp. 671-2)

They viewed the customer perspective as “student complains,” “employer complains,” and “students rating of teachers” (p. 673). According to Lawrence and Sharma, the internal process perspective can be applied to quality of services.

Research undertaken by the staff of universities, measured in terms of their numerical contribution to international conferences and refereed journals, contributes to the internal business perspective of the university. Increasingly,
universities adopt as a measure of research success the amount of external funds attracted by their researchers. More and more, research has to have a commercial value. (p. 671)

The emphasis at DXL University is on research and ensuring that lecturers have more publications in peer-reviewed journals. Leaders at the university provide short-term training courses to address any shortfall in publications. Their use of performance appraisals identifies lacunae in staff professional abilities. According to Lawrence and Sharma, DXL University “also sends its staff abroad for doctoral studies, conferences and on sabbatical leave. This enables the staff to develop better research practices, thus boosting the university’s research profile” (p. 672).

After extensively researching the current literature on the implementation of BSC in higher education, Cugini and Michelon (2007) suggested the use of a strategy map instead of BSC for performance evaluations in an academic department in Padua, Italy. They analysed the existing research literature and created a BSC strategy map tool for use in higher educational institutions. Under the customer perspective, they argued that human capital was integral to it and included such qualities as loyalty, satisfaction, competencies, and productivity. They incorporated a section for information capital encompassing leadership in technical support systems. Another prominent component was organisational capital, which comprised culture, leadership, team work, and goal alignment. In essence, Cugini and Michelon took the concept of BSC and enhanced it to take into account softer skills or intangible assets. Azisi et al. (2012) also endorsed the use of BSC in higher education. They conducted a meta-analysis of 29 studies on the implementation of BSC in higher education, with its four traditional areas:

For customer perspective, the titles such as “users” and “stakeholders” were used. Two out of 24 papers suggested “Education and research” title instead of internal business process perspective. We also see “potential” and “Human & Organizational Development” as alternative titles for Learning and growth perspective. (p. 172)

They concluded that the four motivators espoused by Kaplan and Norton (1992) apply to higher education institutions. However, they recommend that customer perspective should be last while the financial perspective should move to the forefront of BSC. This suggests that these researchers placed greater emphasis on fiscal resources as opposed to intellectual capital.
Although, not suggesting that the instrument he was proposing was similar to BSC, Ruben (2002) posited five higher education dashboard indicators. He stated that “higher education indicators have tended to be primarily historical, limited in predictive power, often incapable of alerting institutions to changes in time to respond, and have not given adequate consideration to important but difficult to quantify dimensions” (p. 3). The five higher education dashboard indicators are (1) teaching and learning, (2) scholarship and research, (3) service and outreach, (4) workplace satisfaction, and (5) financial.

Teaching and learning have two separate components: programs and courses and student outcomes. This has to do with instruction, which Ruben viewed as crucial in perpetuating a vision and mission and teaching-learning climate. Under this umbrella, rigour, coherence, efficiency, instructor qualifications, and professional growth are considered. Student outcomes include student motivation, attrition/retention, desire for lifelong learning, student engagement, and preparation. While there is no mention of BSC, it is evident that this framework relates to the customer perspective.

Scholarship and research is Ruben’s (2002) second dashboard indicator and focuses on productivity and impact. Frequency of research, proposals, submissions, attendance at conferences, publications, and grant proposals deal with such issues of scholarship and research and ensure that all stakeholders are satisfied. Impact measures, according to Ruben (2002) include, “publication rate, selectivity and stature of journals or publications, citation awards, recognition, and editorial board membership” (p. 7). This can be linked to the customer and learning and growth perspectives of BSC.

The public outreach perspective also answers the question posed by BSC about how our customers see us. This is significant for deciding on which aspects the organisation should excel in or place increased emphasis on. Ruben (2002) stated that this indicator cluster takes into consideration “the extent to which the university unit or program addresses the needs and expectations of key external stakeholders” (p. 6). Thus, Ruben distinguishes this indicator from the internal stakeholder.

Another of Ruben’s (2002) dashboard indicators is workplace satisfaction. This encapsulates faculty and staff turnover rate, level of satisfaction, morale, and compensation packages. This would relate to BSC’s internal business and the learning and growth perspectives that answer the question, “How can we continue to improve and create value? What must we excel at?” How can the organisation create a culture of resonant leadership and increased value creation by boosting staff morale and catering to staff’s intrinsic, extrinsic, and job-satisfaction levels? Data garnered will
aid the institution in understanding the deficit and what needs to be improved.

Ruben’s (2002) final dashboard indicator is the financial aspect, which again correlates with BSC’s final perspective. He states that “financial indicators include tuition, endowments, grants, and expenditures” (p. 8). Profitability and traditional financial measures are equally influential in determining how resources are allocated in the other indicators on the higher education dashboard.

Contemporary research literature on the implementation or proposed implementation of BSC in higher education points to its success in determining the use of tangible assets. However, there is scope within BSC for the inclusion of intangible assets in the customer and learning and growth perspectives. The following proposal provides a hypothetical example of how BSC can be implemented in planning, detecting and signalling, and forecasting/succession planning within higher educational.

**Research Methodology**

A review of the research literature in peer-reviewed journals, scholarly journals, and conferences was used to compile the data in this study. Based on these data, there was a definite pattern matching the four drivers proposed in BSC to the intellectual, fiscal, and technological/information needs of higher education institutions. Thus, the researcher was able to develop a proposed model based on BSC’s four motivators and the silos or needed competencies within higher education. A review of the existing papers yielded a dearth of evidence-based research on the implementation of BSC in higher education institutions. Consequently, this model was developed both on the literature examined and this researcher’s empirical knowledge of such institutions.

**Application of BSC to the Caribbean Environment**

With technology and knowledge advancing apace, the need to find effective methods of dealing with such advances is imperative. There was limited material available on the internet regarding the implementation of BSC in Caribbean organisations. One of the few examples in Trinidad was the National Gas Company, whose leaders have been using BSC since 2004. One of the advantages, according to Rennie-Browne and Jobity (2009), is that “the system allows the Company to monitor its customer relationships, internal processes, its learning and growth, financial performance, and stakeholder relationships” (p. 21).

Based on findings by Chang and Chow (1999), Stewart and Carpenter-Hubin
(2001), Ivy (2001), Cribb and Hogan (2003), Karathanos and Karathanos (2005), and Umashankar and Dutta (2007), and others mentioned in this research paper, this researcher developed a model for BSC in Trinidadian higher education. Noteworthy is the fact that all tables presented can be used in tandem with staff performance appraisals, Lewin’s force field analysis, and students’ satisfaction surveys for ex ante, mid-term, and ex post evaluations.

Table 3 displays the issues arising out of customer perspectives and customer satisfaction and answers the question, To achieve our vision, how should we appear to our customer? Within higher education, the key stakeholders who are considered customers are students/parents, faculty/staff, corporate, alumni, and society. When a leader at an institute of higher education poses the above question, he/she is looking at the key stakeholders as the input, and the output or result would be the measures of customer perspective and satisfaction. Table 3 exemplifies the enablers and results of the above question and shows how all aspects of human capital can be taken into account.

Table 3. *Customer perspective/satisfaction*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inputs/Enablers</th>
<th>Outputs/Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customer Perspective Key Stakeholders</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Students/Parents</td>
<td>• Reputation as an institution for quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Quality instruction</td>
<td>• Student satisfaction survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• High level of programs offered</td>
<td>• Tracer study of successes and failures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Diversity of programs offered to cater to complexity of societal demands</td>
<td>• Cultivating students as lifelong learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Convenient, easily accessible, and flexible scheduling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Schedule and programs catering to both full-time and part-time students’ needs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Offering Blended Learning courses</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 shows the responses to the question, *To satisfy our shareholders and customers, what business processes must we excel at?* The internal business process is another segment of the BSC model. Quality assurance is akin to student, staff, and
faculty satisfaction and can result in value creation and effective management of resources to promote a culture of ingenuity and initiative. Mizikaci (2006) theorised three concepts that she believed would enhance quality within higher education realms: (a) quality systems, (b) program evaluation, and (c) systems approach. In her view, these concepts comprise all the relevant facets of quality assurance within higher education. She indicated that “authentic quality improvement is more likely to result from approaches to systemic intervention that encourage exploration of questions of purpose and of the meaning of improvement in context [rather] than from the imposition of definitions and methodologies from elsewhere” (p. 61). In that sense, the BSC model if applied to institutions of higher education may prove beneficial in bridging the disconnect between etic and emic voices of leadership.

Table 4. *Internal business processes*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enablers/Inputs</th>
<th>Results/Outputs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Internal Business Processes</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Assurance of Staff/Faculty</td>
<td>• Value creation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Meeting established standards locally, regionally, and globally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Global networking and sharing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Global and regional affiliations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Enhanced andragogical development</td>
<td>• Work-based/service-based learning, inter-professional and praxis learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Continuous increase in array of programs and curriculum items catering to emerging trends in job creation</strong></td>
<td>• Yearly assessment of curriculum effectiveness and update of syllabi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Cost productive</td>
<td>• Efficient enrolment, grade distribution, and examination processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Crisis management in the form of plans for ad hoc student situations in the educational environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Effective performance appraisals and evaluations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Acceptable student/faculty ratio</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With respect to learning and growth, the question answered is: To achieve our vision how will we sustain our ability to change and improve? Table 5 indicates the areas where growth is necessary within higher education. Faculty professional development and growth, expansion, and morale boosting are conflated. Strategies
for teacher buy-in with more “make and take” activities geared to enhancing delivery and instruction lead to higher motivation and student engagement. Heuristically, empirical learning and learning through osmosis are catalysts for change within the higher education classroom. The adoption of technology as part of the andragogical repertoire enhances student/faculty involvement. Such activities as Wikis, Blogs, podcasting, webquests, mobile learning, and video making contribute to heightened student involvement and synergistic collaboration. More systematic performance appraisal and faculty development with a rotational review of faculty in the form of required professional development once yearly would foster savvier faculty and more connected students.

Table 5. *Learning and growth*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enablers/Input</th>
<th>Results/ Outputs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning and Growth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Faculty professional development</td>
<td>• Increased teacher motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Innovative and creative teaching</td>
<td>• Increased student motivation,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Promoting use of technology in the curriculum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• More systematic performance appraisals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Staff growth through extrinsic and intrinsic motivators</td>
<td>• Staff satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Budget spent on teacher professional development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Most improved worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Creation of professional communities/collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Promotion of reflective praxis through peer/self appraisal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Continuous organisational assessment in all areas</td>
<td>• Increased transparency, efficiency, and accountability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Change management and dealing with change-resistant behaviours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Organisational Citizenship</td>
<td>• Promoting culture of care and trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Intrinsic motivation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6 answers the question, to succeed financially, how should we appear to our shareholders? The three pillars prosper, profit, and project are adopted to capture the essence of financial planning within the higher education institution. To ensure that all areas suggested here have been achieved or to chart the institution’s progress, ex ante, mid-term, and ex post evaluations are needed as deemed necessary by the individual and collective leadership.

Table 6. Financial

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enablers/Inputs</th>
<th>Results/Outputs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Three Pillars/Ps:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Prosper</td>
<td>• Cost effective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Increased accountability and transparency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Enhanced courses and enrolment, use of technology by staff and faculty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Profit</td>
<td>• Focus is on cost efficiency and productivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Beneficial use of tangible and intangible resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Project</td>
<td>• Plans for expansion in all areas as demands arise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Expansion based on forecasting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Succession planning for directors and board members</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusion and Discussion

In this paper, the researcher suggests a model of BSC using the four motivators as the central point in defining and reengineering the leadership process to fit organisational needs. The author proposes specific considerations vis-à-vis the four motivators: (1) customer perspective, (2) internal business perspective, (3) learning and growth perspective, and (4) financial perspective. Each shares a synergistic coupling with the other and has a ripple effect. As the learning and growth motivator suggests, implementing BSC is an iterative process that requires continuous development and enhancement to create a culture of continuing institution analysis, transformation, reflection, and constructive development. Notwithstanding the limited evidence-based research on BSC, this author espouses a model that takes into consideration all aspects of leadership in higher education institutions and can be altered to suit individual environments.

The potential benefits of implementing the BSC model as stated by Umashankar
and Dutta (2007) include:

1. investments in faculty and staff training lead to improvements in service quality;
2. better service quality leads to higher customer (stakeholder) satisfaction;
3. higher customer satisfaction leads to increased customer loyalty; and
4. increased customer loyalty generates positive word-of-mouth evaluation, increased grants/revenues, and surpluses that can be ploughed into the system for further growth and development (p. 65)

With the proposed expansion of Government Assistance for Tuition Expenses (GATE) in Trinidad and Tobago, according to the New Year’s Eve address to the nation by Prime Minister Kamla Persad Bissessar (2010), understanding the dynamics of higher education institutions is necessary to ensuring societal success and accountability for state funds. This article offers an alternative conceptualisation of the higher education environment. Additionally, it proffers a model by which higher education leaders can weigh strengths and weaknesses. The daunting task facing any higher education leader would be bringing these ideas into practice and providing empirical evidence to substantiate the proposed changes.

There are at least two limitations to be considered in this study. It is hampered by the lack of real-world implementation of the proposal and is therefore grounded in theory rather than practice. Further empirical applications of the projected ideas would make possible a compelling research study. Secondly, this paper does not explore the generalisibility of the proposed strategy and there is a need for evidence-based research towards the creation of a more grounded theory of the use of BSC in higher educational institutions.
## Appendix A

*Baldrige criteria for education and business: Comparison of expected measures*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Business</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Student learning results</td>
<td>1. Customer-focused results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results should be based on a variety of assessment methods, should reflect the organisation’s overall mission and improvement objectives, and together should represent holistic appraisals of student learning.</td>
<td>Customer satisfaction measurements about specific product and service features, delivery, relationships, and transactions that bear upon the customers’ future actions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Student-and-stakeholder-focused results</td>
<td>2. Product and service results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student and stakeholder satisfaction measurements about specific educational program and service features, delivery, interactions, and transactions that bear upon student development and learning and the students’ and stakeholders’ future actions</td>
<td>Key measures or indicators of product and service performance that are important to customers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Budgetary, financial, and market results</td>
<td>3. Financial and market results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional and general administration expenditures per student, tuition and fee levels, cost per academic credit, resources redirected to education from other areas, scholarship growth</td>
<td>Return on investment, asset use, operating margins, profitability, liquidity, value added per employee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Faculty and staff results</td>
<td>4. Human resource results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovation and suggestion rates; courses or educational programs completed; learning; on-the-job</td>
<td>Innovation and suggestion rates; courses completed; learning; on-the-job performance improvements; cross-training rates; measures and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicators of work system performance and effectiveness; collaboration and teamwork; knowledge- and skill-sharing across work functions, units, and locations; employee well-being, satisfaction, and dissatisfaction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5. Organisational effectiveness results, including key internal operations performance measures.</strong> Capacity to improve student performance, student development, education climate, indicators of responsiveness to student or stakeholder needs, supplier and partner performance, key measures or indicators of accomplishment of organisational strategy and action plans</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5. Organisational effectiveness results, including key internal operations performance measures.</strong> Productivity, cycle time, supplier and partner performance, key measures or indicators of accomplishment of organisational strategy and action plans</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6. Governance and social responsibility results</strong> Fiscal accountability, both internal and external; measures or indicators of ethical behaviour and of stakeholder trust in the governance of the organisation; regulatory and legal compliance; organisational citizenship</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6. Governance and social responsibility results</strong> Fiscal accountability, both internal and external; measures or indicators of ethical behaviour and of stakeholder trust in the governance of the organisation; regulatory and legal compliance; organisational citizenship</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Karathanos and Karathanos (2005, p. 225)*
References


The role of leadership and management in early childhood settings is critical to the quality of service provided and has the potential to transform the lives of children, families, and communities. It has been increasingly recognised that effective early years leadership is related to high quality provision for young children and their families, particularly children from disadvantaged backgrounds. Therefore, it can be argued that the role of early years leadership and management is highly significant, particularly at a time of declining public expenditure in the UK, growing inequalities, with 3.6 million children living in poverty, and concerns over child protection and community cohesion.

Early years leadership and management is the subject of a third year undergraduate module, Leadership and Management and Multidisciplinary Roles in Early Years Settings. The module forms part of an Early Childhood Studies degree delivered by a London university with a socio-culturally diverse student population, including overseas franchised provision. This article aims to discuss a review of this module undertaken by its tutors. The wider Early Years Education and Care (ECEC) policy context is also considered, since policy is an integral part of the module, as is the development of “policy literacy.”

KEY WORDS: Leadership, management, early years education, multidisciplinary, interaction, pedagogy
Policy Change in Early Years Provision

The previous Labour government in the UK, with its National Childcare Strategy (DfEE, 1998), initiated measures to reduce poverty and address issues of inequality and social exclusion. In line with the other countries in the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the government’s aim was to invest in early intervention in children’s lives, respect their rights to education (United Nations, 1989), and support their well-being in order to achieve better outcomes in the future. The government’s establishment of Sure Start Local Programmes (SSLP) was a radical, local, non-stigmatising approach to community intervention, which targeted children under four and their families in areas of need “to raise the physical, social and emotional and intellectual status of young children” through “locally driven” integrated services (Barnes et al., 2006, p. 42). Since 2003, the approach to support children and families has shifted to “more tightly defined local geographical areas” that correspond with local authority boundaries. The services are now led by local authorities and focused on Children’s Centres (Barnes et al., 2006, p. 128).

The current coalition government in the UK has continued the focus on early childhood and established a steering group (2011) to work with the Department for Education (DfE) and the Department of Health (DoH) to develop a new vision for the Foundation Years, a term “indicating the importance of this time in the lives of children” (DfE, 2012a, p. 1). Applying to children from before birth to five years, the concept is based on the recommendations of recent reports from Field (2010) on child poverty, Allen (2011) on early intervention, Tickell (2011) on the Early Years Foundation Stage (EYFS), and Munro (2011) on child protection. All these reports refer to an increasing body of evidence concerning the effectiveness of early intervention policies targeted at children and their families and have emphasised the importance of this policy agenda (Munro, 2011). However, Penn (2011) suggests that such targeted provision is “an unwarrantable burden on those providing such services to expect them to cure poverty,” though she notes that services “can perhaps make its effects less harsh for those they work with” (p. 65).

The rationale for implementing early intervention strategies in the EYFS, in particular, is based on growing evidence that children’s early experiences and interactions affect their brain development and shape its structures (Evangelou et al., 2009). A prevailing view has emerged over the past decade that “children’s life chances are most heavily predicated on their development in the first five years of life” (Field, 2010, p. 5). The early intervention policy initiative, which rests on this view, relies on integrated service provision, whereby different professionals and
agencies could be involved in supporting a child and their family. In her review of child protection, Professor Munro reported that practitioners should have “the necessary knowledge and expertise to make clear and appropriate judgments so that concerns [about children in their care] are either effectively addressed or passed to the most appropriate local agencies” (2011, p. 5).

The revised Statutory Framework for the Early Years Foundation Stage (DfE, 2012b), is the most recent mandatory change for all early years providers (from 1 September 2012) in maintained, non-maintained, and independent schools, and all providers on the Early Years Register. The EYFS “sets the standards that all Early Years providers must meet” (DfE, 2012b, p. 2) and its learning and development guidance and safeguarding and welfare requirements are given legal force by the earlier Childcare Act 2006 (DfE, 2012b). Specific reference is made in the framework to a “quality learning experience for children” that requires “a quality workforce” (DfE, 2012b, p. 7). The document also notes that staff training and development needs should be regularly considered “to ensure they offer a quality learning experience for children that continually improves” (DfE, 2012b, p. 7). Therefore, leaders in this sector need the appropriate knowledge, understanding, dispositions, and skills to ensure the quality of everyday practice.

The graduate role of the Early Years Professional (EYP) in England was introduced by the previous Labour government in an attempt to professionalise the early years workforce through publicly funded training (Miller and Hevey, 2012). EYPs are charged with leading effective practice across the EYFS. The concept of this role, which was first conceived in 2005, was influenced by the European model of the “social pedagogue,” a graduate-level practitioner who supports all aspects of young children’s development (Whalley and Allen, 2011). Clark suggests there has been an assumption that early years leadership “is conjoined with authority and power” (2012, p. 393). However, the EYPs “can be seen as a catalyst within their setting” who initiate internal change “through the recognition of new possibilities” as opposed to delivering policy, which is determined by those members of staff who hold positions of authority (Clark, 2012, p. 398). It is ironic that “despite the EYPs’ evident pedagogical leadership,” they have been principally located in the private, voluntary, and independent (PVI) sector, “which through a process of market forces may inadvertently serve to undermine that newly developed status” (Roberts-Holmes, 2012, p. 11).

The need for “excellent pedagogical leadership” in the early years was identified by Professor Nutbrown in her recent review of early education and childcare qualifications (2012). Nutbrown proposed an early years specialist route to Qualified
Teacher Status (QTS), which should develop and eventually replace existing routes to Early Years Professional Status (EYPS) (2012). It is not yet known if the government will adopt this proposal, but, in the meantime, it has created some uncertainty about the future direction of graduate-level roles within the early years sector (TACTYC, 2012). This is an issue of relevance to the study module discussed below.

Early Years Leadership Role

There are particular characteristics associated with the early years sector that make it unique: the workforce and managers are predominantly female and the sector is relatively low paid (Cable and Miller, 2011). Historically, the focus of the early years leadership role was as an educationalist and child developmentalist, with an increased emphasis on the day-to-day management of the setting (Aubrey et al., 2004). As much of the literature on leadership and management focuses on financial, commercial, political, and business organisations (Whalley and Allen, 2011), the links to the early years sector are sometimes tenuous. In response to more integrated ways of working in the sector, however, a new genre of leadership is needed to work within settings and across traditional professional boundaries. Clark suggests that early years leaders’ “functions and expectations must be broad and flexible enough to allow for the diversity and multiplicity of the field” and that these leaders acknowledge the “need to establish multiprofessional collaboration” (2012, p. 399).

A concept of “distributed leadership” has emerged in early years practice, which is described by Peck and Dickinson as “the ability of frontline professionals to organize local procedures and practices to suit their own interests” (2008, p. 28). This concept of leadership was originally applied to school leadership by Spillane et al., who suggested that a distributed perspective can assist teachers to “identify dimensions of their own practice, articulate relations among those dimensions, and think about changing their practice” (2001, p. 27). In her study of early years leadership, Aubrey found different leadership models within different organisational structures (2011). However, she notes evidence of a “core vision, collegial ways of working and a climate of trust and openness” and suggests that if leadership were distributed among many members of the organisation, it would be also be integrated “in line with the spirit of integrated centre practice” (2011, p. 170).
Module review

Our aim in this article is to discuss the review of an undergraduate degree module, Leadership and Management and Multidisciplinary Roles in Early Years Settings, in response to the policy changes discussed above.

This module seeks to extend students’ knowledge and understanding of current professional practice in the early years sector in England, strengthen their learning dispositions, and develop their capacity to be open-minded about change that will impact on their working lives in this uncertain era of new capitalism. Group tasks provide opportunities for developing a “community of practice” (Wenger, 1998) and an electronic learning platform enables online communication and access to the module’s learning materials. Students undertaking the module typically progress to graduate-level professional programs, such as EYPS or the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE), or they might assume other roles within the childcare and education workforce.

The review first considered the module aims, which are to:

- critically examine the roles of early years professionals in a variety of organisations;
- enable students to evaluate leadership and management theories and explore functions of management in childcare and education settings; and
- critically review quality childcare and early childhood education as delivered in a wide range of settings.

The authors then examined the findings of a survey of views expressed by the previous cohort of students at the end of their taught sessions and considered a similar module undertaken by peers at another institution. The module evaluation identified the challenges for students from diverse backgrounds in understanding the changing nature of leadership and management of early years provision. This review led to a reconceptualisation of the module from a socio-cultural constructivist perspective. Previously, the format of module delivery had adopted a fairly traditional didactic approach, interspersed with opportunities for class discussion and peer-assessed group presentations. As part of that reconceptualisation, we, as tutors, realised that this approach had made assumptions about students’ understanding of prevailing professional discourses and this mode of delivery had not sufficiently acknowledged the socio-culturally diverse prior experiences and knowledge-base of the student cohort. Therefore, a pedagogical strategy was required that would create conditions of learning which would enhance students’ confidence and efficacy in appraising and
evaluating policy, practice, research, and theory. The authors felt that this strategy could be realised through the creation of communicative spaces that would enable personal and shared discourses to be constructed and deconstructed.

The authors plan to do this by providing democratic classroom contexts where “dialogic” and ‘synergistic’ forms of interaction” are the basis of pedagogy (Beauchamp and Kennewell, 2009, p. 1).

Table 1. *Framework of classroom interactions to strengthen relationships, learning, and understanding of the concept of professional interagency working in the early years*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classroom interaction</th>
<th>Learning outcomes identified</th>
<th>Lecturer response to learner actions</th>
<th>Classroom discourses</th>
<th>Future outcome: New contexts/ Multidisciplinary working</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dialogic</td>
<td>Critical understanding of concepts and processes.</td>
<td>Encouraging, inclusion, open to a range of views and perspectives</td>
<td>Teacher guides and questions, learners explore ideas and contribute</td>
<td>Learner gains confidence to exhibit personal agency in other contexts and understand the concept of professionalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synergistic</td>
<td>Critical application of concepts and processes in a variety of situations (Beauchamp and Kennewell, 2009, p.1)</td>
<td>Reflective responses encouraging reciprocity, resourcefulness, creativity, open problem-solving approaches and collaboration</td>
<td>Collective contributions, responsive and aware of the value of the contribution of others</td>
<td>Learner gains confidence to use “relational agency” and “relational expertise” in future contexts of interagency working (Edwards, 2012, p. 26)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Morris (2012)

Dialogic and synergistic pedagogic interactions allow for the development of reciprocity in classroom relationships and facilitate collaborative ways of working to allow all learners’ views to be heard so that they can construct their own meaning. Students taking the module enter professions where team and integrated ways of working across professional boundaries are essential. Therefore, it is important
that they gain opportunities to exhibit personal agency, understand the concept of professionalism, and have the confidence to develop “relational agency” and “relational expertise” (Edwards, 2012, p. 26).

In the first semester of the module, students study marketing, the registration and inspection process, the legal framework for early years settings, managing the human resource, staff recruitment and selection, leadership and management theory, developing successful teams, and managing change. Students participate in group work that involves them in discussions of how the Data Protection Act (1998) impacts on practices in early years settings. They produce a leaflet advertising a nursery and discuss how this relates to the “7 Ps” of marketing: Product, Promotion, Price, Place, Process, People, and Physical Evidence (National Day Nurseries Association, 2006). By working in pairs, the students develop a “person specification” and “job description” and then interview each other for an early years position and evaluate the questions and answers. The final assessment is made up of three written tasks that form a portfolio. Students critically analyse the Office for Standards in Teaching and Education (Ofsted) reports against standards set in the EYFS (DfE, 2012b) and the Quality Management Principles (International Standards Organisation, 2005) and then set targets for improvement. Tasks also involve analysis of various key leadership theories (Whalley and Allen, 2011) and Kotter’s model of change (1996).

During the second semester of the module, students focus on the process of integrated working within the early years sector and consider potential barriers to this process, which can be problematic and complex (Webb and Vulliamy, 2001). They explore the roles of a range of professionals from health, social, and educational services, such as health visitors, speech therapists, portage workers, social workers, educational psychologists, EYPs, and teachers. Students work in groups to produce formal presentations, which are then peer-assessed. The final assessment is a 2,500 word essay in which students critically examine recent changes in children’s services, explore some of the benefits and difficulties of integrated working, and make recommendations about how barriers can be overcome. These assignments, which are linked to the module’s learning outcomes, are designed to assess students’ knowledge and understanding of the subject and are related to cognitive, practical, and graduate skills, which are identified on a curriculum map.

Integrated Working

Integrated working assumed greater significance in the wake of Lord Laming’s inquiry into the death of Victoria Climbié, when he identified “widespread
organisational malaise” within the different services that had been involved in Victoria’s brief life (Laming, 2003, p. 4). In his report, Lord Laming (2003) observed that “effective support for children and families cannot be achieved by a single agency acting alone. It depends on a number of agencies working well together. It is a multi-disciplinary task” (p. 6). He advocated holistic, integrated services and more effective collaborative working practices by those professionals involved in the delivery of children’s services. The publication of the Green Paper, Every Child Matters (ECM): Change for Children (DfES, 2003), and the ensuing Children’s Act (2004) outlined the process for integrating children’s services.

ECM aimed to support the reform of the working practices and the structures of organisations that provided children’s services in England and so “transform the culture from a reactive service for a few to a preventive service for the many” (Munro, 2007, p. 1). Leaders in early years settings have adopted ECM’s five key objectives for children and young people: being healthy, staying safe, enjoying and achieving, making a positive contribution, and achieving economic well-being. Over the past decade, these objectives have greatly influenced professional practice in children’s services and are incorporated within the four guiding principles of the EYFS (DfE, 2012b). However, barriers to integrated working remain. In his progress report on the protection of children, Lord Laming noted that “the challenges of working across organizational boundaries continue to pose barriers in practice, and that cooperative efforts are often the first to suffer when services and individuals are under pressure” (2009, p. 37).

Therefore, in seeking to address teaching and learning about such complex aspects of integrated working, we plan to develop simulated case conferences within module sessions, which would involve key professionals from the health, education, and social sectors to help students experience and gain deeper understanding of inter-agency, collaborative, and multi-professional working. These case conferences should help to raise student awareness of barriers to integrated working and to develop their “relational agency” and “relational expertise” in working with others (Edwards, 2012, p. 26).

Hartley (2007) discusses how the policy discourse in England, especially of children’s services, is now replete with the prefixes “inter-” and “co-,” as in inter-agency working and co-production (2007, p. 210). He also remarks that the policy rhetoric lacks an evidence base on how these links across organisations and agencies will work in practice. Therefore, we feel it is important for students to have opportunities within the module to interact with others through a dialogic and synergistic framework (Beauchamp and Kennewell, 2009). These opportunities
would support students to become resourceful professionals, with the ability to establish good relationships with children, parents, and other professionals within and across organisations and work successfully in their future roles in this sector.

**Policy Discourse**

It is also useful to consider the discourse on policy concerned with integrated working and wider practice, as this can articulate particular assumptions and beliefs. Price and Edmond (2012) suggest that an analysis of the impact of poverty that portrays the poor as victims of disadvantage, has underpinned the discourse of the underclass in society. This was then used to justify the introduction of the Sure Start program, which was mentioned above. Negative representations of families, through the use of such terms as “Hard to Reach,” could misconstrue the reasons children and families do not access integrated services: they may simply choose not to do so (Leese, 2011). Therefore, it would be interesting to explore students’ views of socially constructed terminology that is associated with early years policy, such as the “Hard to Reach” family, and consider if these perspectives might impact their understanding and future engagement with children, families, and other professionals. It would also be useful for students to explore the OECD’s advice that early years provision, which is targeted at supporting young children from disadvantaged families, should be integral to wider policy measures that are concerned with addressing family poverty (2006).

In reflecting on the complexities of practice, it would be relevant for students to explore the work of Loris Malaguzzi (1994), who led the development of the Reggio Emilia approach to early childhood education and care in Northern Italy during the second half of the 20th century. Malaguzzi viewed education as a collaborative venture between children and adults through which they could explore meanings, engage in critical dialogue, and co-construct knowledge together. He valued parental involvement and advocated opportunities for professional dialogue, reflection, and research. Malaguzzi’s pedagogical approach sought to enable stakeholder communication through the use of physical space and resources in the preschools of Reggio Emilia to foster an environment of open communication, an approach that has drawn international interest and respect. His emphasis on the use of communicative spaces is supported by Dahlberg and Moss (2005), who assert that such spaces enable professionals to be reflective and reflexive. Students could, therefore, explore how early childhood education and care in England can promote “spaces for encounter and meaningful interaction of many” that would support the
novice early years practitioner to participate democratically and professionally within integrated working communities (Urban, 2010, p. 5).

As we prepare for the next student cohort in this module, the review has extended thinking about the early years leadership role and integrated working. Additionally, following the recent merging of the university departments of education with the departments of health and social work, staff and students in these related professional areas have a unique opportunity to develop closer working relationships and share knowledge and understanding about their individual subjects and respective roles. This collaborative approach could prompt further learning opportunities and contexts for dialogic and synergistic forms of interaction (Beauchamp and Kennewell, 2009, p. 1).

**Conclusion**

Our review has enabled us to reconceptualise content and pedagogical approaches to the module, Leadership and Management and Multidisciplinary roles in Early Years Settings. We aim to extend students’ opportunities to be “active participants in discourse communities” and develop “a high concurrency between theory and practice” in this module (Alvestad and Röthle, 2007, p. 422). We acknowledge that leaders in the early years sector need to demonstrate personal agency, resourcefulness, relational agency, and relational expertise (Edwards, 2012, p. 26) when working with children, parents, and professionals in their own context and with other agencies across professional boundaries. The study of early childhood is “quintessentially multi- and inter-disciplinary, because young children’s lives and experience can’t easily be partitioned into health, education and care” (Miller and Hevey, 2012, p. 2).

Therefore, it is appropriate to consider multidimensional approaches to a module that is concerned with early years leadership, management, and multidisciplinary roles.

**References**


Price, M., and Edmond, N. (2012). Children and Young People’s Services in
The Changing Nature of Educational Leadership


AN INVESTIGATION INTO STUDENTS AT RISK OF PERMANENT EXCLUSION WHO SUCCEED IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

TOM MANN*

Abstract

This paper attempts to provide an understanding of the factors and issues influencing the success of students at risk of permanent exclusion from school. Research suggests that positive teacher-student relationships can serve as a protective factor to such students. A qualitative approach using narrative inquiry was used to draw out students’ school experiences and to discover what they felt had helped them succeed. Participants were screened for at-risk factors and their year 11 and post-16 progress was tracked. Results indicate the significance of the development of positive student-teacher relationships as a protective factor for students at risk of permanent exclusion. Such relationships can be an enabler for students faced with myriad challenges inside and outside school. In this study, “at risk” is defined as students who have a significant number of the at-risk factors as outlined by the Youth Justice Board of England and Wales (see Appendix 1).

KEY WORDS: at risk, permanent exclusion, teacher-student relationships

* Deputy Headteacher, Hendon School, London, MannT@hendonschool.co.uk
Introduction and Contextualisation

A key thing I have learned over 20 years of teaching is that real success with students at risk of permanent exclusion comes from forming positive relationships with them. This may be a bold statement in times when various forms of assessment, pedagogy, curriculum design, and accelerated teaching techniques are in vogue and are seen as the routes to outstanding lessons. Inasmuch as these are important components of success for students, the intangible issue of strong and purposeful working relationships between teacher and student, underpinned by mutual respect and shared visioning, cannot be overlooked.

My views of this issue emerged out of my experience as a beginning teacher in a secondary modern school in Halifax, West Yorkshire, England that was fed off the vacant wool mills in the 1980s. This was followed in the early 1990s by work in an Emotional, Social and Behavioural Difficulties (ESBD) residential school in Hemel Hempstead (Hertfordshire, England) that taught students permanently excluded from mainstream secondary school; then a detention centre education facility in Australia; which was followed by the setting up and running of the student support centre in a comprehensive school in a London satellite New Town and by working as the teacher in change of ESBD in a North London comprehensive school. Then followed an appointment as Special Educational Needs (SEN) coordinator in a North London comprehensive school and in a school for students with serious learning difficulties. This in turn led to my current post as a senior leader in a London comprehensive school that has its share of at-risk students. From my experience and observations, the development of purposeful student-teacher relationships appeared, at first, to be a survival technique. That is, through engaging with some of the more challenging students through extracurricular work, conversations about issues they were interested in, and treating them with respect I was able to achieve more in teaching and learning and avoid conflict with students. It soon became clear, however, that if I could do this effectively with the more challenging students, I could actually impact their lives positively.

During formal training in dealing with students with ESBD, I was regularly frustrated at the lack of time and discussion given to the need to develop student-teacher relationships and the need to have well-honed interpersonal skills. Training focused more on structures, computer software packages, behavioural policies, use of outside agencies, and curriculum planning. One cannot deny the importance of these issues: however, they were dwarfed if good working relationships were not in place. My central argument then is that all the other systemic/structural measures put
forward to engage and educate those students most at risk are credible in their own right, but are not enough. As an experienced teacher and now senior leader, I have watched teachers triumph in teaching so-called at-risk students, and succeeding due to mutual respect born of understanding, where the ethic of care (Collinson et al., 1999) in teaching becomes a practice and not simply an idealised notion.

But this kind of pedagogy is underpinned by a desire to engage and teach these students, to want to seek the best for all students and not just some. Indeed, the best teachers are able to strike a balance between the structure of teaching and learning, the pedagogy of teaching and learning, assessment feedback, and the kind of interpersonal engagement that encourages learning, fosters trust, and builds respect. A study of the narratives of those students who can be seen as at risk but have succeeded through education could offer real insight into their experiences and perhaps help broaden the debate about the types of pedagogies that can be used to reach and enable those students thought to be most at risk.

**Theoretical Framework**

The idea that emotional and social skills can have a positive impact on learning has been taken up by the Department for Education (DfE) in its Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) program rolled out to junior and secondary schools during 2005. Humphrey et al. (2010) state that the UK SEAL program is based on the idea of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1996) and the American evidence-based intervention programs for at-risk students referred to as Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) programs. The five areas for student development in the SEAL program include self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills (Humphrey et al., 2010). The SEAL approach includes a considerable amount of work on interpersonal skills and developing/protectiong relationships in and around school related to child development theory; individual, social and educational psychology; and emotional literacy/intelligence (Origins, 2006).

Ecological Systems Theory was developed by Urie Brofenbrenner (1992). It combines systems and ecological theories and seeks to provide a holistic approach to human development by outlining the social and physical contexts that shape, constrain, and support our efforts to live fulfilling lives.

Ecological Systems Theory then uses these and other theories to construct “systems” of decreasing influence around an individual person. The microsystem relates to the immediate environment (peers, work/play area, parents, school); the mesosystem refers to the interactions between these immediate areas; the exosystem
contains the indirect surrounding influences on the person (parents/partners, work area, extended family, family friends, neighbours, government agencies, media); the macrosystem is the culture or sub-culture in which all the previous systems are situated; and the chronosystem involves the temporal changes/ecological contexts of development. In the case of at-risk students, these different systems and interactions in these systems are often not well connected. Home life, housing and local environment, peer group and other influences in the microsystem and mesosystem may not be supportive of schooling, other government agencies, and wider social expectations (Rothery, 2001 and 2008). Expectations of parents may also not be supportive of other areas in the systems. Shaffer and Kipp (2010) state that the positive development of a person is likely to be optimised by strong, supportive links between microsystems in the mesosystem. Shaffer (2009) states that natural environments are the major source of influence on developing persons. The Youth Justice Board of England and Wales (2005) identifies at-risk factors for permanent exclusion, many of which may cause conflict in the micro- and mesosystems. This is due to different expectations at home, in the communities, with community bodies (such as the church), support agencies (such as health or social services), and school. Family factors include poor parental supervision and discipline, conflict, parents condoning anti-social behaviour. School factors include lack of commitment and being involved in aggression and bullying. Community factors include availability of drugs and lack of neighbourhood attachment. Personal factors include alienation and lack of social commitment, early involvement in crime and drug use, friendship with peers involved in crime and drug use. Therefore, forming more positive attitudes towards school, teachers, and peers could be seen as a protective factor against exclusion by helping to counter alienation, poor commitment, negative peer groups, and poor community attachment.

**Literature Review**

*School Inclusion Versus School Exclusion*

Throughout the United Kingdom, the 1990s saw a rise in the debates regarding the inclusion of students with a SEN. An underpinning motive was fully including SEN students into the mainstream, as was later set out in the 2002 Education Act. The right to an education is a human right as outlined in the Human Rights Act of 1998, so exclusion from education can only be seen as a breach of human rights. An answer to this apparent paradox is that provision is made for excluded students by local authorities in the form of places in other schools, use of Pupil Referral Units (PRUs, a kind of holding ground while attempts are made to find alternative schooling), or
by using existing special school resources if the student has a Statement of Special Educational Needs (Politics.co.uk). However, not all permanently excluded students end up in education. Not in Education, Employment or Training (NEET) figures demonstrate that a surprisingly large number of students do not access employment, training, or education (for 16-24 year olds, 15.9 per cent of this population at over 950,000). In 2009, 2 per cent of all secondary school absences were recorded as ‘Excluded, No Alternative Provision’ (DfE, 2012a), amounting to 0.12 per cent of the secondary school population, about 6,900 students. Thus, nearly 7,000 students in England and Wales are not receiving an education because of exclusion at any given time. The Human Rights Act 1998 sets out the right to education and, for children, the right to be free from discrimination (Direct.Gov, 2012), seemingly giving all students the right to be educated along with their peers in mainstream schools. Parents can opt out of special schooling and into a mainstream school for their children if they have a Statement of Special Educational Needs. However, in terms of the Education Act, 1996, schools have the right to accept students only “as long as this is compatible with provision of efficient instruction and avoidance of reasonable public expenditure” (Legislation.gov.uk, 1996). There is a tension, then, between the history of inclusion in education in England and the right to receive an education. Not all students receive an education, certainly not one in a mainstream setting. The second paradox is the legislative need to include all students in education against the rights of a school to permanently exclude or refuse to educate certain students. There would also appear to be an issue of the resources available, and perhaps the will, to get these excluded students back into education or they would, indeed, all be in an educational setting.

These practical issues of full inclusion have led the philosophical debate on how to manage inclusive education in England and Wales. Should it be with a set of different schools devoted to teaching students with a SEN only? Should mainstream schools be resourced to take SEN students and provide support using experts in that SEN? Should mainstream schools open their doors to all students regardless of SENs, or should there be a combination of these possibilities? What do we do to effectively educate those who are permanently excluded from school? I would argue, if the answer to exclusion is inclusion then we need to look at how to avoid excluding in the first place. Students who are permanently excluded and who are educated in a Pupil Referral Unit (PRU) or in a special school get the small class sizes where positive student-teacher relationships can develop (Ogg and Kaill, 2010), albeit, in my experience, among a student cohort less able to engage effectively with each other. In the context of this research, inclusion happens before exclusion because at-risk students are in mainstream education. For students who begin their
education in a mainstream setting and are at risk of becoming permanently excluded, an understanding of how they could achieve and avoid permanent exclusion from school may be useful in understanding how school can help prevent exclusions. These students can be identified using existing data (Youth Justice Board for England and Wales, 2005) and school staff can therefore begin to work with them inside the school setting to prevent permanent exclusion. As long as the will is there to include at-risk students, the issue then becomes the type of work we do that can provide protection from permanent exclusion.

*Methodology and Methods*

A case study approach was used for this article. Three semi-structured interviews were conducted and there was a single focus group involving two participants. Fieldwork was undertaken over three months and a total of three participants were involved. Fieldwork only took place in one setting, as the study was a single site case study. There was one female and two males. The eldest participant was 19 and the youngest 16. Sampling was done through a combination of convenience and deterministic methods, which were included due to the specific at-risk factors set out by the Youth Justice Board (2005).

**Case Study Findings**

**Student 1**

Male, Black Somali, 18 years old. This student entered secondary school with high at-risk factors. He came to the UK as a refugee, fleeing Somalia and spending three years in a transit camp in Ethiopia before being allowed into the UK with his mother to join his father, who had managed to obtain work. He had been in primary school in the UK for two years and had moved school once due to his disruptive behaviour. His transition report outlined a history of aggressive and violent behaviour towards staff and students. His academic data on transfer highlighted his low ability in English and science (no score recorded on Key Stage 2 Standard Attainment Tests – SATs – taken at the end of primary schooling, age 11) and maths (being below average at level 3). His Cognitive Attainment Test (CAT) scores showed a student at low-average non-verbal skills (90), below average verbal skills (67), and just above average quantitative scores (105), giving a mean score of 87, 100 being average. The student was on School Action Plus of the SEN register for behaviour and language issues (one level below being allocated a Statement of Special Educational Needs) on
transfer. He has a stammer, for which he has received specialist input. He has moved house four times since primary transfer. On entry to school he received a package of support both in class and on being withdrawn from class to meet his emotional, behavioural, and language needs. During the first three years of his secondary schooling up to the age of 15, his behaviour followed a similar pattern to that shown by his primary record. He received eight fixed term exclusions from school during this time and his attendance was below 80 per cent during years 9 and 10.

He became involved in drug use at this time and received a police caution for possession of cannabis. From this age on his behaviour began to improve, he became better able to manage his emotions and deal with upsets, though he remained on the school’s at-risk list. He managed to pass English, mathematics, and religious education GCSEs at grade E and pass a level 2 science BTEC (2 Grade C GCSE equivalent). These scores are above what would be expected based on KS2 SATs, with the exception of mathematics, for which he achieved one level below expected. He transferred to sixth form, where he studied another BTEC level 2 course. He has since moved to Turkey to play semi-professional football. When home, he lives with five siblings and his mother and father in a three-bedroom house in the Northwest London area, but his father often lives away from the family home. There is no car in the household. This student receives free school meals.

Student 2

Male, White English, 16 years old. This student had been assessed for SEN and received a statement of educational needs for ESBD. He transferred from a local secondary school during year 8, as he was at risk of permanent exclusion. He comes from a split home, lives mainly with his mother, but when this relationship breaks down he moves in with his father. His father is currently serving a prison term for assaulting his mother. He has one sibling. He has moved house twice during his secondary schooling (not including the moves between parents’ houses depending on his relationship with them at any given time).

There is a history of drug use in his extended family (with whom he is close). Upon entry to school he received a package of support both in class and on being withdrawn from class to meet his emotional and behavioural needs. His Key Stage 2 SAT results show a student of about average ability with a particular strength in science (levels being mathematics 3, English 4, science 5). There are no CAT scores for this student as he transferred during year 8. His primary school record outlines a history of upsets and aggressive behaviour towards his peers. This pattern of behaviour was replicated at his first secondary school, leading to his being at risk of
permanent exclusion and his transfer to another secondary school.

His GCSE results show that he has performed academically to a level above expectation. He has transferred on to A level courses in the sixth form of his secondary school. He lives between two houses, his mother has two bedrooms for herself and 3 children (including student 2), and his father has a one-bedroom flat. There is no car in either household. This student receives free school meals.

**Student 3**

Female, White, 19 years old. This student left school in 2011 after completing a BTEC level 3 (2 ‘A’ level equivalents) and gained access to a foundation degree course in dance. She is the first member of her family to move into higher education. She transferred from primary school after being identified as an at-risk student. She had a history of emotional difficulties and attendance problems. Her behaviour throughout her secondary schooling up to sixth form (post 16) reflected this in upsets and rude and aggressive behaviour towards peers and staff and periods of school absence. Her parents are separated, and her father has a history of criminal behaviour (including violence) and alcoholism and had served time in prison. Her mother has a history of alcohol and drug abuse and her older brother a history of gang membership and criminal behaviour. She became caught up in the local gang culture during years 10 and 11, resulting in poor attendance and behavioural issues. She received four fixed-term exclusions from school during this time.

Her data on transfer from primary school indicated a student of average intellect. Her Key Stage 2 SAT results showed a relative strength in English, with mathematics and science on level 3 and English at level 4. CATs scores reflect this with her verbal score being 95, non-verbal score 88, and quantitative score 80, giving a mean score of 88, a low average score. She lives with her father and brother in a two-bedroom house. There is no car in the household. She has moved house once during her secondary schooling, although she has lived with both mother and father in different housing during this time. This student declined to be a part of the focus group, only participating in the interview process. She received free school meals.

**Discussion and Analysis of Results**

The questions to all students focused on their experiences during their secondary education and what they felt allowed them to succeed academically, move on to an appropriate post-16 course, and avoid permanent exclusion.
Interview and focus group Student 1

The questioning started with what the student felt caused him to be at risk of permanent exclusion. Student 1 answered that it was being rude and aggressive to staff.

He was then asked about his early life before coming to England and attending secondary school. Student 1 was very keen to share his school experiences. His responses painted a vivid picture of where his aggressive behaviour may have originated. He spoke of being in a village in Somalia, his formal education consisting of learning sections of the Koran and being able to recite them, hearing gunshots, having his school attacked by rebels and a friend being shot in the leg in the playground, escaping to Ethiopia to a refugee camp with his mother and sister. Here he was left to his own devices, playing and fighting with the locals for three years, and receiving no formal education before arriving in London as a nine-year-old. He spoke of his anger at not having been educated and being academically behind his peers at primary school. He spoke in particular of his anger at feeling that he had been a good student in Somalia but realising that all he had learnt was not valuable in London; that he had spent all his time learning the Koran and then been expected to be able to do mathematics, science, and written work. He stated that he found the work difficult and did not like being worse than others at it.

He was then prompted about why he was rude and aggressive towards staff and students. He explained his aggressive behaviour as being caused by his perceptions of others’ anger at him. A real issue for him was staff or students being in his personal space and looking angry, particularly when he did not understand why.

“I get upset with people’s face, their body language ... you can be rude without saying anything.”

He also stated that he was ignored by other students when he was trying to be friendly:

“Students keep ignoring me ... it winds me up.”

However, he stated that he felt others lacked respect for him and that he was happy to respond in an aggressive way to staff or students if they dealt with him in an angry manner. He said:

“I don’t like it when people shout ... I don’t see the point ... Since I was a
kid I don’t like shouting ... I see it as disrespect.”

Another issue for this student was that he became angry when he thought he was right and was not being listened to:

“When I’m not wrong and right I get angry ... If I think it’s unfair ... I get angry.”

“I don’t really like rules ... but I know there are rules and if I was asked to do something I would ... most of the time I was suspended I was doing what I was asked but I was speaking to them (teachers) when doing it.”

Student 1 was then asked questions about what helped him to sort this behaviour out and begin to achieve at school. He stated that it was three staff in particular who helped him to do this. He felt they understood him and could calm him down before he did anything “stupid.” He talked of his head of year:

“... He used to calm me down the way he talked to me.”

“He would find out about me ... he would talk to me more ... we were having a normal conversation.”

He reiterated this when asked if there was anything else that had helped. He stated that because these key staff had helped him, he would then behave in class and try to learn to pay them back. Of one member of staff he stated:

“... (staff name) was helping me, I would help (staff name) as well ... I would make (staff name) feel good about his work.”

When asked why he claimed to be doing this for the member of staff who had helped him, he responded:

“Changing someone’s life makes you feel good.”

He stated that if it were not for these three members of staff in particular, he would not have remained in school and that his relationship with them had helped
him as he felt they would not get angry with him or make him feel disrespected. When asked about his improved use of language, he claimed that this was not the issue for him, it was how people looked when they dealt with him, their proximity, and his relationship with them that were the biggest issues. He stated that if he knew a member of staff and felt they were going to help him, he was able to calm down, that the few staff who dealt with him when he got into trouble and understood him were the reasons that he began to succeed in school. This enabled him to cope better with his anger and any negative interactions he had with other staff or students. He also felt that the support he received from staff had helped him to deal with personal issues in his local community.

The key themes to come out of the interview and focus group regarding student 1’s school experience were: being respected including body language and tone of voice; repaying staff who listened to and helped him; responding positively to staff who gave him time and taught him well; avoiding students who he felt upset him; and being able to deal better with his anger.

**Interview and focus group Student 2**

Student 2 spoke about his life before attending his current secondary school. He was brief in his answers. He stated that he had several arguments with his mother and his dad even though he only had a one-bedroom flat. He now lives full time with his mother as his father is serving a prison term for assaulting his mother. He had arguments with his close family, but got on well with his cousin (who had previously attended the same school and had also been at risk of permanent exclusion). At his primary and first secondary school he often got into fights with his peers due to being bullied and being wound up easily.

The teachers, he felt, blamed him for the fights and he got into a lot of trouble with them. He was rude to some of the staff, including a deputy headteacher, when he was upset and felt he was being treated unfairly. However, he felt he had support from one teacher, his head of year, who listened to him. He stated that he moved school because he was told he would have to leave or be permanently excluded. He applied to his current school as his cousin said it was a good school. He was then asked about his experiences at his current school and why he felt he had achieved. He suggested that his behaviour had improved.

“I used to get wound up easily ... I get left alone more here.”
He required prompting about what had improved and what he felt he had achieved. Student 2 said that he had made some good friends. He had a couple of friends at his last school but he would argue with one of those from time to time. The most important factor, he stated, for his achieving was that he was left alone by other students and that he was then settled in class and could learn. He said that students and staff had helped him and he was grateful for their support.

The key themes to come out of the interview and focus group regarding student 2’s school experience were: improved relationships with peers; friendships and peers who helped him; not feeling bullied by peers; staff who taught him well; staff who listened to him and supported him; the body language of staff and students during interactions; being able to deal with his emotions better.

*Interview Student 3*

This student did not turn up for the focus group and was not contactable over this period. Although this student and her father had given permission for her to participate in the research, she was reticent when asked about her background and how this may have affected her school progress. Her home life has been documented by school as being chaotic, with police involvement, drug and alcohol abuse, violence, and family breakdown. She stated that when her home life was going well, her attendance was good. Her relationship with her family was important, but could be volatile, in particular in relation to her brother’s gang membership and her relationship with local gang members. She identified poor relationships or “fall outs” with peers as being a problem for her, particularly in years 7 to 9 (11 to 14 years of age) and how “stupid” she had been to get involved in them.

“Yeah, I was an idiot ... (laughs).”

She was not proud of her school exclusions, although at the time it was more important not to back down in front of other students. Student 3 stated that feeling “disrespected” or peers or staff “talking down to her” made her feel angry and that this, along with supporting her friends if they became upset, were the main causes of her problems in school when she attended.

“I used to get really angry if I felt I had been disrespected or I felt I was in the right ... I could be really mouthy.”
“If one of my friends became upset with another student or teacher I was thinking I was helping them by being angry as well ... I think this is stupid now (laughs).”

She felt better able to deal with potential upsets now and suggested that the work she had been involved in at school to deal with conflict had helped, but she stated that she felt it was more about the staff taking the sessions and the time they spent with her and faith they put in her that made her try to improve. She said of one member of staff in particular:

“(Member of staff) loved us ... never gave up on me.”

And generally about staff she felt had helped her:

“Having a belief in me was really important, I did not always believe I could do things and so I did not turn up to school. I then felt guilty if these staff were trying to contact me so I came in and tried.”

Student 3 was asked why she felt that she managed to achieve and move on to a degree course. She stated that it was the faith that staff had shown in her over the years 10 and 11 and in the sixth form.

“I could be an idiot and not try in school. Having teachers encouraging me and supporting me and not giving up on me helped me to come in and try.”

The time and effort they had put in she felt she needed to repay, she felt a debt, and did not want to let some key staff down.

“I felt really guilty if a member of staff had tried really hard at something for me and then I did not turn up or get in trouble ... I would want to get it right for them and to not feel guilty.”

“Some staff (names here) spent time with me helping me when I was upset. I am harder to upset now and can deal with situations better.”
When asked about her friends and if they had helped her come to school, she said:

“Most of my friends left school to go to other courses, them doing well helped me but I also sometimes stayed away from school to see my friends ... They were not all from school and some did not have jobs or courses ... This could be difficult as I got used to not coming in and hanging around with them ...”

She also identified her father as wanting to help her attend school and achieve, although the situation at home often got in the way.

The key themes to come out of the interview and focus group regarding student 3’s school experience were: friends achieving; staff having faith in her and not giving up on her; wanting to repay staff for their work and effort with her; staff support; arguments and fights with peers; respect from staff and students; home-life support and problems; being able to deal better with her upsets.
### Key Themes Identified as Promoting Inclusion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Themes Identified as Promoting Inclusion</th>
<th>Key Themes Identified as being Barriers to Inclusion.</th>
<th>Teacher Behaviour Promoting Inclusion.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responding to staff who gave their time (3 students)</td>
<td>Poor peer relationships (3 students)</td>
<td>Listening to the student (3 students)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff support (3 students)</td>
<td>Poor tone of voice and body during interactions with staff/students (3 students)</td>
<td>Being respectful towards the student (3 students)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff who listen (3 students)</td>
<td>Lack of respect from peers/staff (3 students)</td>
<td>Being supportive of the student (2 students)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support of peers and friendships (3 students)</td>
<td>Family/home issues (2 students)</td>
<td>Having faith in the student (2 students)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good relationships with key staff (3 students)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching well (2 students)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect from peers (3 students)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Not shouting (1 student)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being better able to deal with emotions (3 students)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect from staff (2 students)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repaying staff for their support (2 students)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good teaching (2 students)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers “believing” in the student (1 student)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Summary of Results**

The key themes identified by all students as promoting their inclusion and issues representing barriers to inclusion were as follows.

**Conclusion**

Ecological Systems Theory predicts that positive relationships with key people can provide protection from at-risk behaviours (at-risk behaviours here referring to behaviours that may cause psychological or physical harm to the subject not at risk of exclusion). If school staff can be seen as key people in the lives of students and if they can develop positive relationships, then this could provide protection from these
at-risk behaviours and help prevent permanent exclusion from school.

The issues identified as important by the selected students can be seen as the relationships they are able to form with staff and students. Two students believed that it was the work of, and relationships they formed with, staff as being pivotal to their relative academic success and successful transition post 16. The concept of respect was linked to how the students were treated by peers and staff. In particular, body language was mentioned by two students as being important to either calming them down or causing upset.

Good teaching was a major factor for one student and mentioned by another. This “good teaching” was linked to staff time and input by both students. The idea of repaying staff for the effort they had made was put forward by two students as being a major factor in their academic success. It seems clear that for these students, the relationships they form in school with peers and staff are an important factor in inclusion. How they are dealt with by staff and students can determine whether they have upsets and how they then deal with them. Being better able to cope with their own emotions and upsets was an issue identified by all three students. For two of these, this can be tracked back to the input staff had with them and the support they had received.

The stories of those students who have succeeded in education but were at risk of permanent exclusion are key to understanding the process of avoiding such exclusion. It is important to hear these stories: they have an impact on how staff deal with at-risk students. Although there are opportunities for at-risk students to have smaller class sizes to develop relationships, it would seem that not all students have access to these, and such opportunities may be too late for many of them, since they are only available in special school or PRU settings post permanent exclusion.

Raising the debate about how students are engaged on an interpersonal level with staff and on the continuation of programs such as SEAL in England and Wales and the SEL programs in the US may play an important part in promoting the environment and skills at-risk students need to be included in mainstream education (Greenburg et al., 2003: Humphrey et al., 2010). More research is required to understand the relative importance placed on teacher-student relationships by at-risk students who succeed in education and to gather more of their narratives on their perceptions of the factors enabling them to achieve this success.
Appendix 1

Key Definitions

At Risk: The most recent guidance on risk factors associated with school exclusion, youth offending, and drug misuse comes from the Youth Justice Board for England and Wales (Youth Justice Board, 2005). It produced a list of risk factors for offending, drug misuse, and exclusion based on the data available. These factors are then used to target and work with youths most at risk of offending. The board provides the following risk factors for school exclusion (the six most important when factors are ranked).

1. Being male
2. Being non-white
3. Having fewer rooms in the household
4. Moving house many times
5. Being older
6. Having no car in the household.

The board gives the following risk factors for youth offending and substance abuse and notes that these “significantly increase the odds of being excluded [from school]” (Youth Justice Board, 2005, p. 7).

Family Factors:

- Poor parental supervision and discipline
- Conflict
- History of criminal activity
- Parental attitudes that condone anti-social behaviour
- Low income
- Poor housing

School Factors:

- Low achievement beginning in primary school
- Aggressive behaviour, including bullying
- Lack of commitment (including truancy)
- School disorganisation (being disorganised for and in school)
Community Factors:

- Living in a disadvantaged neighbourhood
- Disorganisation and neglect
- Availability of drugs
- High population turnover and lack of neighbourhood attachment

Personal Factors:

- Hyperactivity and impulsivity
- Low intelligence and cognitive impairment
- Alienation and lack of social commitment
- Attitudes that condone offending and drug abuse
- Early involvement in crime and drug misuse
- Friendship with peers involved in crime and drug use

The Youth Justice Board (2005) states that “risk factors cluster together in the lives of the most disadvantaged children; the chances those children will become antisocial and criminally active increases in line with the number of risk factors” (p. 2).

References


EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP APPROACHES TO IMPROVE SCHOOL PREPAREDNESS OF CHILDREN WITH ATTENTION-DEFICIT/HYPERACTIVITY DISORDER (ADHD)

LINFORD A. PIERSON*

Abstract

This article is based on the author’s PhD dissertation, Working Memory Training to Improve School Preparedness of Children with Attention-Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). The study focused on the need to develop proper leadership roles for teachers, parents, and other stakeholders to assist in alleviating the negative effects of ADHD on the working memory of children, and to examine whether working memory training can improve their school preparedness. In order to fulfil this leadership role, it is particularly important that teachers are knowledgeable about the symptoms of ADHD, and the need to employ effective management techniques in classrooms. In the study, school preparedness is defined as the capability of the child that promotes success in school, measured by the frequency with which the child failed to complete homework or forgot to hand it in. Cognitive theory, which focuses on mental activities, including remembering, was used as the theoretical basis for the study. Cognitive theory postulates that working memory training generalises to improvement in untrained tasks. The study used a pretest and post-test statistical design to investigate whether working memory training improve the school preparedness of children with ADHD, and whether scores differ between male and female students. The sample for the study comprised children (n = 20; 16 males and 4 females) aged between 10 and 15 years who had been diagnosed with ADHD, and who had received working memory training. A repeated-measures two-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) and t-tests were used to evaluate the results. The study provides the opportunity for stakeholders, including teachers, parents, and other caregivers, to become better educated about ADHD.

KEY WORDS: Attention-Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), working memory training, cognitive theory, educational leadership, teacher and stakeholder education

* Dr Linford Pierson, lpierson@candw.ky
Background

One of the most common childhood disorders, Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), is a serious public health problem. ADHD is present in approximately 3.5 per cent of school-age children (Westerberg, 2004). It persists through adolescence into adulthood, affecting approximately 4 per cent of adults in the United States (Engelhardt et al., 2008; National Institute of Mental Health [NIMH], 2009).

Research has shown that children with ADHD are at considerable risk of multiple poor outcomes, including academic performance, and that working memory training can improve the cognitive performance and fluid abilities of children with ADHD. Although research has shown positive cognitive effects from working memory training (Buschkuehl et al., 2008; Klingberg et al., 2005), further research is required to determine whether working memory training can improve the everyday lives of children with ADHD (Klingberg, Forssberg, and Westerberg, 2002b). A recent study involving male Caucasian students with ADHD revealed improvements in classroom preparedness and homework behaviours, using self-management interventions (Gureasko-Moore, DuPaul, and White, 2007). However, the authors noted that due to the small size and homogenous nature of the sample, further research is required to generalise the results to a broader population of children with ADHD. In a review of previous research (Klingberg, 2010), it was concluded that further research is needed to determine the potential relevance of working memory training in education. This study addressed this gap in the literature by examining whether working memory training can improve school preparedness of a wider cross-section of children with ADHD.

Nature of the Study

This quantitative study used a pretest and post-test design to examine the effect of working memory training on the school preparedness of children with ADHD. The research population comprised children from 10 to 15 years of age who had been diagnosed with ADHD, and who had received school preparedness training. For the purpose of this study, working memory training is the training program provided by schools to improve the school preparedness of children with ADHD. The working memory training was geared towards time management and organisational skills for improving (a) the completion of homework, and (b) remembering to hand
in homework. The study was based on a retrospective design. Teachers were used from public schools within the Cayman Islands. The Cayman Islands Department of Education Services appointed a designated school psychologist as the liaison between the researcher and the teachers/learning mentors.

The required data were obtained through pretest and post-test questionnaires, completed by parents and the designated school teachers/learning mentors conducting the working memory training. Invitations to the schools and parents to participate in the survey were made through the mail, by telephone, and through personal contact. Training was conducted over a six-week period.

**Research Questions and Hypotheses**

The research questions are:
1. Are there differences in scores on school preparedness of children with ADHD before and after working memory training after controlling for age, intelligence quotient (IQ), and length of ADHD diagnosis?; and
2. If so, are there differences in scores on school preparedness between males and females with ADHD before and after working memory training after controlling for age, IQ, and length of ADHD diagnosis?

The independent variables were:
1. Treatment condition with two levels: (a) pretest working memory training, and (b) post-test working memory training; and
2. Gender with two levels: (a) male, and (b) female. The dependent variable was school preparedness as measured by homework completion, and by handing in homework. The hypotheses were that: (a) working memory training can positively influence school preparedness of children with ADHD, and (b) that females will score significantly higher than males (Creswell, 2005).

The hypotheses tested were:
H01: Working memory training has no effect on homework completion after controlling for age, IQ, and length of ADHD diagnosis.
H11: Working memory training has an effect on homework completion after controlling for age, IQ, and length of ADHD diagnosis.
H02: Working memory training has no effect on handing in homework after controlling for age, IQ, and length of ADHD diagnosis.
H12: Working memory training has an effect on handing in homework after controlling for age, IQ, and length of ADHD diagnosis.
H03: There is no difference between males and females on homework completion after controlling for age, IQ, and length of ADHD diagnosis.
H13: There is a difference between males and females on homework completion after controlling for age, IQ, and length of ADHD diagnosis.
H04: There is no difference between males and females on handing in homework after controlling for age, IQ, and length of ADHD diagnosis.
H14: There is a difference between males and females on handing in homework after controlling for age, IQ, and length of ADHD diagnosis.

Theoretical Basis

The theoretical framework of this study postulates that working memory capacity is highly correlated with intelligence, and that working memory training can improve cognitive performance (Ackerman et al., 2005; Oberauer et al., 2005). The theory is that working memory training generalises to untrained tasks (Klingberg et al., 2002b) and the current study examined whether working memory training improves school preparedness of children with ADHD. In this study, the repeated measures ANCOVA results do not show that working memory training made a significant improvement to the school preparedness of children with ADHD. However, based on the results, there was an overall improvement in homework completion and in handing in homework. This improvement supports the theory that working memory training can improve cognitive performance/school preparedness of children with ADHD.

As previously discussed, a number of studies have been conducted that revealed the positive effects of working memory training. However, prior to the current study, no research had been undertaken on how working memory training can improve the everyday life of children with ADHD (Klingberg et al., 2002b). Using school preparedness as an aspect of the everyday life of children with ADHD, this gap in the literature has now been addressed.

Educational Leadership Approaches

Leadership is the essential resource required for improving and sustaining individuals, communities, and societies. As regards the problems of children with disorders such as ADHD, the fundamental question is how teachers can provide
effective leadership in influencing the positive learning outcomes of these children. To provide this type of leadership, it is essential for the teachers themselves to become knowledgeable about the symptoms so that they are able to identify potential problems early in the child’s school life. Having identified the potential problem, they should then provide proper leadership by seeking to have the child professionally evaluated so that he or she can receive proper treatment to alleviate the symptoms.

Good leadership in teachers will not stop at simply identifying the problem of ADHD in their students, but will motivate them to seek effective methods to improve student academic outcomes. Teachers can also show leadership by directly interacting with parents and other caregivers, so that they can be better informed about the ways in which they can assist their children to reduce the negative effects of ADHD, and thus improve the children’s lives.

Another area in which teachers can show positive leadership is in becoming aware of the relationship between ADHD and bullying. Studies have shown that temperamental behaviours have a direct relationship to ADHD symptoms: ADHD is directly related to bullying behaviour in males and victimisation in females (Bacchini, Affuso, and Trotta, 2008). It is important that teachers recognise that one factor tending to alienate children with ADHD is their frequent involvement in school bullying. Further, bullying may be defined as repeated abusive behaviour by an individual or groups towards a weaker student, and may include verbal as well as physical attacks. It should be noted that children with ADHD may not only act as bullies, but may also become the victims of bullies. Furthermore, the psychological correlates of bullying that are also present in children with ADHD include poor social skills, anxiety, depression, and low self-esteem (Bacchini et al., 2008).

The results of this study can assist teachers to become better informed about the negative effects of ADHD, and how they can employ working memory training as a strategy to improve the school preparedness of children with this condition. Because of the high incidence of ADHD in children, adolescents, and adults, this study can provide teachers with an additional leadership approach to improve the learning of their students.

**Symptoms of ADHD**

ADHD is one of the most common childhood disorders and is present in approximately 3.5 per cent of school-age children (Westerberg, 2004), and approximately 4 per cent of adults in the United States (Engelhardt et al., 2008; NIMH, 2009). According to the American Psychiatric Association (2000), the
disorder is more common in males than females, with male-to-female ratios ranging from 2:1 to 9:1, depending on type and setting. The three subtypes of ADHD are: (a) predominantly inattentive, (b) predominantly hyperactive-impulsive, and (c) combined inattention and hyperactive-impulsive. ADHD may be accompanied by learning disabilities, depression, anxiety, conduct disorder, and oppositional defiant disorder. Its symptoms usually appear early in life, often between the ages of three to six. Criteria for identifying symptoms of ADHD are presented next.

**Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders Criteria**

ADHD is exhibited in childhood or early adolescence (although it may not have been formally diagnosed) and manifests itself in more than one setting. In addition, relevant historical information is essential to support the diagnosis. A comprehensive assessment of the disorder should include clinical summary of objective or first-hand data (anecdotal evidence or narrative), such as reports from teachers, and rating scales filled out by parents. The assessment should also use individualised education plans and historical information that establishes the symptomatology indicative of ADHD through childhood, adolescence, and adulthood, available from sources such as transcripts, teacher comments, job performance evaluations, psychoeducational testing, and third party interviews.

Although most children who present with ADHD have the combined subtype of hyperactivity-impulsivity, there are others in whom one or more symptoms are prominent (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). In order to determine the appropriate subtype, symptoms must have been present for at least the past six months and significant impairment from the symptoms must be present in two or more settings (e.g., school, work, or home). The following are the clinical definitions of ADHD as specified by *DSM-IV-TR* (2000), which should serve as guidelines for identifying the symptoms of ADHD:

- **Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder; Predominantly Inattentive Subtype.** The majority of symptoms (six or more) are in the inattention category and fewer than six symptoms of hyperactivity-impulsivity are present, although hyperactivity may still be present to some degree. Hyperactivity may still be a significant clinical feature in many such cases, whereas other cases are more purely inattentive. Six or more of the following symptoms of inattention must have been present for at least six months to a point that is disruptive and inappropriate for the developmental level:
1. Often does not pay close attention to details, or makes careless mistakes in homework, or other activities;
2. Often has trouble paying attention to tasks or play activities;
3. Often does not seem to listen when spoken to directly;
4. Often does not follow instructions and fails to finish schoolwork, chores, or duties in the workplace (not due to oppositional behaviour or failure to understand instructions);
5. Often has problems organising activities;
6. Often avoids, dislikes, or doesn’t want to do things that take a lot of mental effort for a long period (such as schoolwork or homework);
7. Often loses things needed for tasks and activities (e.g., toys, school assignments, pencils, books, or tools);
8. Is often easily distracted; and
9. Is often forgetful in daily activities.

- **Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder, Predominantly Hyperactive-Impulsive Subtype.** Most symptoms (six or more) are in the hyperactivity-impulsivity categories, with fewer than six symptoms of inattention present to some degree. The following are symptoms of the hyperactivity subtype:

1. Often fidgets with hands or feet or squirms in seat;
2. Often gets up from seat when remaining in seat is expected;
3. Often runs about or climbs when and where it is not appropriate (adolescents or adults may feel very restless);
4. Often has trouble playing or enjoying leisure activities quietly;
5. Is often “on the go” or often acts as if “driven by a motor”; and
6. Often talks excessively.

The following are symptoms of the impulsivity subtype:
1. Often blurts out answers before questions have been finished;
2. Often has trouble waiting one’s turn; and
3. Often interrupts or intrudes on others (e.g., butts into conversations or games).

- **Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder Combined Subtype.** Six or more symptoms of inattention and six or more symptoms of hyperactivity-impulsivity are present, with most children having this subtype.
Interpretation of Findings

The results of working memory training on both completion of homework and handing in of homework showed no statistically significant improvements. These results could be because the study was too underpowered, due to the small sample size, to detect significant differences. The Vanderbilt ADHD Diagnostic Teacher Rating Scale (VADTRS) was used to measure the results of the working memory training on the school preparedness of the children with ADHD. Although there was a trend for potential improvements in homework completion and handing in homework, no weight can be placed on these results as they were not statistically significant. However, these results could have practical significance for children with ADHD. Even small improvements in completing and handing in homework can be important for children with ADHD. One child’s frequency score moved from often to occasionally failing to complete homework, while eight children moved from very often to often failing to complete homework. Two children’s frequency scores moved from very often to often forgetting to hand in homework, and one child moved from often forgetting to occasionally forgetting. Additionally, two children reduced their frequency scores from very often to occasionally forgetting, while one child moved from occasionally forgetting to never forgetting to hand in homework.

The pretest and post-test results for homework completion revealed that 12 children very often failed to complete their homework, which was reduced to eight children after six weeks of working memory training, resulting in a 33.33 per cent improvement in the completion of homework. Likewise, the pretest and post-test results on the children who forgot to hand in homework found that 13 very often forgot, compared to 10 children after six weeks of working memory training, resulting in a 23 per cent improvement in handing in homework. Furthermore, the findings revealed an overall improvement of 30 per cent in completion of homework and in handing in homework after six weeks of working memory training. These results are supported by previous studies (Klingberg et al., 2002b), which showed that working memory training can improve cognitive performance of children with ADHD. Similarly, the results of the current study are also supported by studies conducted by Alloway and Gathercole (2006), which revealed that working memory training can make an important contribution to learning outcomes by establishing a link between working memory and scholastic achievement.

The results of the current study revealed that 90 per cent of the children were diagnosed with ADHD between the ages of 11 through 14, and 10 per cent diagnosed between seven to nine years of age, which is not in compliance with the recommended
DSM-IV-TR (2000) criteria for typical age of ADHD diagnosis. According to these criteria, ADHD symptoms usually appear early in life, often between the ages of three and six years, but symptoms may also be diagnosed during adolescence. This suggests that the 11 through 14 year-old children could be at a disadvantage academically as a result of not being assessed and diagnosed earlier in life, and thus denied proper treatment to relieve the ADHD disorder and improve their cognitive performance. An earlier diagnosis of the children in this study could have made it possible for them to receive the necessary treatments, including working memory training, to improve their school preparedness, such as completion and handing in of homework.

ADHD may also present in individuals with high IQs. The results in the present study relating to IQ were consistent with previous findings, which revealed that neuropsychological functioning in children with ADHD involves high IQ (equal to or more than 120) with functional impairments (Antshel et al., 2007). In the current study, 10 per cent of the children with ADHD had an IQ of 106, which falls below the standard used for high IQ in the study by Antshel et al. (2007), but is within the average IQ range (85-115). The findings of this study revealed that IQ was not a significant covariate on homework completion and on handing in homework, which suggests that IQ is not a significant factor in the management and organisation of completing and handing in homework by children with ADHD. The study revealed that 80 per cent of the children in the study had average IQs. However, these children did no better than those with IQs below average on pre- and post-working memory training, which is consistent with the research conducted by Antshel et al., and supports the finding in this study that IQ in children with ADHD is not a significant factor in their school preparedness.

The designated psychologist who served as liaison between the researcher and the teachers/learning mentors in this study gave the assurance that the pre- and post-working memory tests were independently and fairly evaluated. In the present study, both children and teachers/learning mentors were of diverse racial background. This is consistent with the study conducted by Hosterman et al. (2008), who examined possible bias in teacher ratings of ethnic minorities with ADHD. These authors stated that variation in teacher ratings is best explained by interactions between the rater and student ethnicities. In the present study, 13 of the 20 children (65 per cent) were from low socioeconomic status (SES) backgrounds. Similarly, in the United States ADHD is more commonly diagnosed in children from low SES backgrounds. Children from impoverished households show more severe symptoms of ADHD than those from middle- and upper-class families, suggesting that it is particularly problematic for impoverished families to obtain the necessary stimulant drugs because of their high
cost (Jurbergs et al., 2007). Recommendations to investigate these issues are being made on both a national and international level.

An analysis conducted to evaluate whether working memory training had a significant effect on homework completion after controlling for age, IQ, and length of ADHD diagnosis, revealed that working memory training had no significant effect on homework completion. Similarly, an analysis carried out to evaluate whether working memory training had a significant effect on handing in homework after controlling for age, IQ, and length of ADHD diagnosis, revealed that working memory training had no significant effect on handing in homework. The statistical test for homework completion revealed that there were no statistically significant results, except for the covariate length of ADHD diagnosis, which was statistically significant. Similarly, the statistical test for handing in homework revealed no significant results, except for length of ADHD diagnosis, which was statistically significant. These results suggest that the advanced age at which most of the children were diagnosed with ADHD could have had a negative impact on their school preparedness.

The effect size for homework completion indicates that the medium effect of the variance in school preparedness was due to the influence of working memory training. Also, the medium effect size could be a result of the 33⅓ per cent reduction in the sample size of participants from 30 to 20. The small effect size for handing in homework could also suggest that the variance in school preparedness was due to the influence of working memory training. Similarly, the small effect size could be a result of the reduced sample size. In contrast, the results of a computerised training of working memory of 53 children with ADHD reported by Klingberg et al. (2005), revealed large effect sizes on the Digit-Span Task, the Stroop Colour-Word Interference Test, and Raven’s Progressive Matrices. The larger sample size used by Klingberg et al. (n = 53) could account for the larger effect sizes, compared with the current study, which had a smaller sample size (n = 20). The smaller sample size may be responsible for the reduction in the effect sizes on both completion and handing in of homework. It would, therefore, be necessary to increase the sample size to obtain the real treatment effect of the working memory training.

The pretest and post-test findings regarding differences between males and females on completion of homework after controlling for age, IQ, and length of ADHD diagnosis, revealed that females performed better than males on the pretest, but that males performed better on the post-test after six weeks of working memory training. These results suggest that the males benefited more than the females from the working memory training on completion of homework: females did not perform better than males in this particular test. These results support the alternative hypothesis that
there is a difference between males and females on homework completion. However, the pretest and post-test findings on whether there is a difference between males and females on handing in homework, after controlling for age, IQ, and length of ADHD diagnosis, revealed that females performed better on both the pretest and post-test. These results support the hypothesis that females would perform better than males, and the alternative hypothesis that there is a difference between males and females on handing in homework.

According to the American Psychiatric Association (2000), ADHD is more frequent in males than in females, with male-to-female ratios from 2:1 to 9:1, depending on the type and setting of ADHD. This is consistent with the male-to-female ratio in the current study, which is 4:1. Males tend to present more with hyperactivity and impulsivity subtypes of ADHD than females; females tend to present more with the inattention subtype of ADHD (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). The inattention subtype could account for the generally better performance by females in handing in homework, but not on the completion of homework. As shown in the summary of the results on homework completion, there was an overall total improvement in homework completion post-working memory training, compared to the pre-working memory training on homework completion. Also, as shown in the summary of the results on handing in homework, there was an overall total improvement in handing in homework post-working memory training.

**Ethical Considerations**

The ethical standards established by Walden University’s Institutional Review Board (IRB) were maintained for the collection and analysis of data (IRB approval # 10-10-11-0154514). Compliance with the ethical standards and principles of the Code of Conduct (2002) included all aspects of research involving human participants (American Psychological Association, 2002). Participants were informed in advance of the purpose of the research, and their right to discontinue at any time. Informed consent agreements provided to parents indicated that information on all participants would be kept confidential. The names of participants, their children, and participating schools will not be published. Identification codes (no names) were used on questionnaires for the collection, analysis, and reporting of data. The ethical considerations were central to the protection of the children who participated in the study, and included a parental informed consent agreement and confidentiality agreements signed by the teachers and school psychologist. In addition, a letter of cooperation was obtained from the chief education officer, Department of Education.
Services, granting approval to conduct the study. Details of the agreements/approvals are included in the appendices to the study.

**Implications for Social Change**

Attempts to improve academic performance and life skills of children with ADHD have included various approaches, such as psychostimulant medications and educational interventions. However, in order for teachers and other stakeholders to provide effective leadership, they must be educated in assessing the presenting symptoms of ADHD. It is important to understand that no single test can diagnose a child with ADHD. It is necessary for licensed professionals to gather information about the child and his or her behaviour and environment (NIMH, 2009). Two of the most controversial areas of the ADHD discussions are the questions of diagnoses and treatment for the disorder (NIMH, 2009). ADHD can be mistaken for other mental disorders, and accordingly, incorrect treatments may be prescribed.

The current study has shown that there is a potential for working memory training to improve the school preparedness of children with ADHD, which is supported by other studies on the effects of working memory training (Klingberg, 2010; Klingberg et al., 2005; Klingberg et al., 2002b). It is proposed that the results of this study will be used as the basis for setting up specialised working memory training within schools, and assisting teachers to become more knowledgeable about the symptoms of ADHD, and, consequently, better equipped to provide appropriate learning environments for children with the disorder. This study will also help to educate parents to provide more effective training and support for their children with ADHD. Based on the current study, it is recommended that teachers work with qualified professionals to properly evaluate the presenting symptoms of ADHD, and structure working memory training programs to specifically address the school preparedness needs of children with the disorder. It is recommended that the guidelines on the symptoms of ADHD as outlined in the DSM-IV-TR be provided to schools to assist teachers in early detection and referral for further evaluation by properly qualified professionals.

Implications for social change will also include the positive effects of the proper assessment and diagnosis of ADHD. The wrong diagnosis of ADHD can result in wrong medication being prescribed to children with devastating results for the child and wider community. Focusing attention on this potential problem can result in positive social change. Another vexing social problem is the growing incidence of bullying in and outside school environments. Previous studies have revealed the
The direct relationship of ADHD and bullying, and the negative effect that bullying has on society (Bacchini et al., 2008). It is hoped that any improvements brought about through the recommendations in this study will have a positive effect on the lives of children with ADHD. Because of the direct relationship between ADHD and bullying, it is also hoped that improvements in ADHD, brought about by working memory training, will have similar positive effects on the incidence of bullying, and thus create an environment for positive social change.

The further hope is that the recommendations in this study, which will be made available to the stakeholders, will have a positive impact on the educational, medical, and psychological communities, as well as the parents and guardians of children with ADHD. This study provides the opportunity for stakeholders to become better educated about ADHD, and as a result become more informed and better able to improve the lives of children with this condition. A more informed, better educated society is better equipped to produce positive social change.

**Recommendations for Action**

To implement the results of this study, it is important that the findings are disseminated nationally and internationally. On a national level, in addition to the present journal article, copies of the dissertation have been provided to the Department of Education Services responsible for education in the Cayman Islands, and to the University College of the Cayman Islands library. On an international level, efforts will be made to disseminate these findings through various publications within the psychological community.

It is recommended that investigations be carried out on heritability of ADHD. As this study has shown, the length of ADHD diagnosis covariate has a significant effect on the school preparedness of the child, so it is important that the DSM-IV-TR (2000) criteria on ADHD (especially the age when ADHD is diagnosed) are carefully followed. According to the DSM-IV-TR, ADHD symptoms usually appear early in life, often between the ages of three and six. Children tested at a much older age may be put at a disadvantage academically, as well as in the development of life skills. Based on the results of this study, recommendations are being made for the appropriate stakeholders to more effectively address the age at which children are tested for ADHD, and ensure compliance with the DSM-IV-TR.

It is recommended that the educational, medical, and psychological communities, as well as parents and guardians be educated as to the problems faced by children with ADHD, including symptoms, diagnoses, and treatments. It is also
recommended that further studies be carried out to determine whether minority children with ADHD are discriminated against and, if so, how this problem may be eliminated. It is further recommended that the Department of Education Services in the Cayman Islands ensure strict compliance with the *DSM-IV-TR* guidelines for assessing, diagnosing, and prescribing treatments to children with ADHD.

**Conclusion**

The results of this study contribute to the body of literature by providing a scientific evaluation of the positive impact that working memory training can have on the school preparedness of children with ADHD. It is hoped that national and international schools and universities will provide leadership roles in alleviating the serious problem of children, adolescents, and adults with this disorder. Results of previous studies have shown that working memory training can improve the cognitive performance and fluid abilities of children with ADHD (Huang-Pollock and Karalunas, 2010; Unsworth and Engle, 2005; Yuan *et al.*, 2006). However, prior to this study, no research had been carried out to determine whether working memory training could improve their everyday life (Klingberg *et al.*, 2002b). By using school preparedness as an aspect of everyday life, as measured by the frequency the child failed to complete homework or forgot to hand it in, this study has addressed this gap in the literature.

The educational implications of ADHD, and the leadership role that should be undertaken by educational institutions to cope with it, provide educators the opportunity to assist in alleviating the negative effects and thus improve the lives of persons with ADHD. Appropriate classroom practices can make a positive difference for persons with ADHD. It is therefore imperative that teachers become informed in order to address the difficulties experienced by persons with ADHD. Currently, classrooms tend to focus on reducing problematic behaviour. However, this alone does not enhance learning and academic progress. Teacher-preparation should ensure that the latest ADHD scientific practices in educational intervention are major components of their curricula.

**References**


TOWARDS A MODEL OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP FOR THE CARIBBEAN: MAKING THE CASE FOR DISTRIBUTED LEADERSHIP PRINCIPLES

CLINTON BECKFORD* AND CHRISPINA LEKULE †

Abstract

In this paper we examine the concept of school or educational leadership in the context of an appropriate model for the Caribbean. We discuss the conceptions of educational leadership, highlighting the contested nature of the field. Distributed leadership is critically examined as an appropriate model of school leadership for the Caribbean. It is not advanced here as a panacea, but rather as a theoretical frame of reference for leadership that is geared towards effective participatory school governance and enhanced student achievement. We argue that school leadership should be participatory, inclusive, and focus on improving school culture, maximising student success and enhancing collegiality and morale.

KEY WORDS: school leadership, Caribbean, distributed leadership, school improvement, student success

*Faculty of Education, University of Windsor, Canada, Clinton@uwindsor.ca
† Faculty of Education, University of Windsor, Canada, lekule@uwindsor.ca
Introduction

Defining School Leadership

School leadership is complex and contested terrain, which makes attempts to provide an accurate and agreed upon definition challenging. As a result, some scholars have dismissed attempts at defining school leadership as meaningless (Ryan, 2003). This could be the reason for the lack of definition in many studies of school leadership. For example, Leithwood and Duke (1999) note that more than 60 per cent of those who have written about leadership have failed to provide a precise definition of school leadership. Stewart (2006) noted that this deficiency is an impediment to progress in the field of school leadership. Some researchers have argued that attempts to define school leadership are likely to be counterproductive (Stewart, 2006; O’Donoghue and Clarke, 2010).

School leadership is determined by various factors, for instance context, the school composition, including the physical and human resources of the learning environment, as well as the personal experience of both formal and informal school leaders, which includes their education, talents, and years of experience. The variability of the factors that determine school leadership makes the subject subjective and complex. However, difficulty in assigning meaning to the term does not make defining the concept less important. Leithwood and Duke (1999) cite Clark and Clark (1990), who stated that, owing to the complexity of school leadership, providing a definition or assigning meaning before proceeding to any discussion is crucial. In the next section we provide a definition that will guide this paper.

Leadership as a Process of Influence

The literature on educational leadership essentially locates school leadership as a process of influence. Both Ryan (2003) and Owens (2004) define educational leadership as a process of influencing others to reach a common goal. Leithwood and Duke (1999) contend that “influence is a necessary part of most conceptions of leadership” (p. 46). They further argue that conceptions of school leadership are often based on who exerts influence, how it is exerted, the purpose of the exercise of influence, and its outcomes. This argument suggests that leadership is a social process of influence intended for specific goals and outcomes. However, in some cases, as discussed below, educational leadership can be defined in terms of traits, behaviour, roles, and processes, which are used to differentiate “outstanding” from “non-outstanding” leaders (Owens, 2004). In light of this understanding, Owens and
The Changing Nature of Educational Leadership

Valesky (2007) warn that leadership is not something that someone does to other people, or a manner of behaving towards people. Instead, “leadership is working with and through other people to achieve organizational goals” (Owens and Valesky, 2007, p. 277).

Other researchers have reinforced this definition by arguing that, although traditional notions of leadership emphasise the role of individuals in managing hierarchical systems and structures, today’s school leadership calls for a more participatory approach (Harris, 2004; Leithwood et al., 2007; and Heck and Hallinger, 2008). They further observe that leadership is more about collective efforts that have a positive influence in the organisation. Leithwood et al. (2007) similarly note that “leadership involves setting direction and influenc[ing] practices which are to be enacted by people at all levels rather than personal characteristics of those at the top level” (p. 38).

Distributed Leadership: A Strategy for School Improvement

“It takes a village to raise a child”

Researchers into effective school leadership agree that principals play a critical role and that having effective school leaders is an important attribute of high achieving schools (Marzano, Walters, and McNulty, 2005). However, while principals are vitally important, one should not make the mistake of viewing them as the sole experts (Lambert, 2002; Marzano et al., 2005). Lambert (2002) puts it quite well: “[W]e can no longer believe that one administrator can serve as instructional leader without the substantial participation of other educators” (p. 37). Moreover, several studies have shown that school principals do not have a direct influence on students. This means that in order to improve school performance, a principal’s leadership impact has to be mediated through other channels (Hallinger and Heck, 1996; Ross and Gray, 2006; and McGuigan and Hoy, 2006).

In the early 1980s, researchers looking at effective schools proposed the concept of instructional school leadership, which emphasised the role of school principals as the key factor in school improvement. Regrettably, the perceptions and hopes for improvement under instructional school leadership proved too optimistic (Leithwood, 1992; Lambert, 2003). There were calls for a new paradigm of school leadership based on the view that improvement of schools and of the achievements by all learners is a multifaceted and complex process, requiring the involvement of multiple leaders with a variety of expertise (Lambert, 2003; Hallinger, 2003). This focused attention on distributed school leadership, which is not to be confused with
other forms of school leadership, such as democratic leadership, shared leadership, and collaborative leadership (Spillane and Diamond, 2007).

Along with several other advocates of distributed school leadership, we argue that if schools are to improve, the involvement of multiple leaders is worth considering (Gronn, 2002; Lambert, 2002; Spillane, 2006). School leadership needs to go beyond the top ranks to include a more interactive leadership that involves more people, not because of their positions but because of the potential they possess. Lambert (2002) argues that forms of school leadership that focused on single leadership ended up leaving the substantial talents of teachers untapped. We concur with Lambert’s argument that schools need to tap into the skills of teachers, administrators, parents, and other professionals by giving them the opportunity to exercise both formal and informal leadership in the school.

Literature on school leadership suggests there is a growing consensus that school leadership can no longer rest on the shoulders of one person (such as a principal) as it has in the past few decades. Spillane and Diamond (2007) highlight this view, noting that scholars and policymakers are actively engaged in ensuring school leaders understand that effective school leadership requires the expertise of more than one person.

Some groups, such as educational practitioners, professional developers, and scholars have undertaken special initiatives to promote the concept of distributed school leadership (Spillane and Diamond, 2007). For example, in North America, specifically the US, some states and local governments have invested in efforts to promote such leadership (Spillane and Diamond, 2007). Initiatives include creating specific programs for use in the preparation of school leaders or in ongoing development. Such programs on distributed school leadership have been included in syllabi for the preparation of school teachers and leaders. For example, in St. Cloud State University’s school of education, a community relations class was added to the syllabus for those taking a Master’s in educational leadership. The intent was to help students learn how to cultivate social networks with various stakeholders when leading schools. In addition, scholars are increasingly using the distributed perspective to frame their work (Spillane and Diamond, 2007). On the same note, “philanthropists have also dedicated millions to research and development works that favour or acknowledge the distributed approach” (Spillane and Diamond, 2007, p. 1).

Initiatives by educators in colleges and universities to prepare teachers and school leaders to embrace working as team members are indicators that the time has come for distributed leadership to be considered the premium option for school improvement. Given the efforts to promote distributed school leadership, it is evident
that philosophies idealising school leaders as heroes and experts are currently falling from favour. Both Lambert (2002) and Spillane (2006) acknowledge that leadership focused on the principal is becoming less effective in the improvement of schools. With this in mind, we advocate the use of distributed leadership as a way to acknowledge and advance diversity by means of involving multiple persons in leading schools to improve education.

**Defining Distributed School Leadership**

A review of the literature indicates that the concept of distributed school leadership has not only gained popularity but has been interpreted in various ways by educational researchers and practitioners (Harris, 2004, 2005, 2008; Spillane and Diamond, 2007). There is still disagreement about what distributed leadership means and should look like. As Harris (2005) notes, “there are currently many definitions and interpretations” (p. 10). The multiplication of definitions has been considered by some as limiting, and as a source of mystification to those seeking deeper understanding (Spillane and Diamond, 2007).

According to Spillane and Diamond (2007), distributed leadership denotes a new way of conceptualising leadership as a reciprocal activity between formal and informal leaders and their situations. Given the different interpretations, there is a significant difference between what distributed school leadership denotes as compared to other popular perspectives on school leadership. For instance, instructional school leadership, managerial school leadership, and transformational school leadership focus on the ability of top leaders to direct, influence, or motivate followers. Distributed leadership, by contrast, is more about providing opportunities for reciprocal influence between leaders and followers. This reciprocity presupposes that each member of an organisation be viewed as an asset endowed with skills to be used for the good of the school. Expanding on the explanation of how distributed school leadership functions, Spillane and Diamond (2007) adopt the metaphor of a spider’s web: “Distributed view of leadership shifts focus from school principals and other formal and informal leaders to the web of leaders, followers and their situations that gives form to leadership practices” (p. 7). This metaphor describes how distributed leadership operates as a form of interdependency between formal and informal leaders that may influence what leaders do and how they do it.

Studies have shown that the concept of distributed leadership could as well be described as a leveller of the hierarchies usually created in a school as a result of a form of leadership that focuses on single individuals (Spillane and Diamond, 2007).
Proponents of distributed school leadership are convinced that “multiple leaders together have expertise and knowledge that exceed what individual leaders possess” (Spillane and Diamond, 2007, p. 9). Likewise, Jameson (2006) concludes that “power does not reside solely at the top, in the principalship” (p. 48) and that distributed school leadership is the ability to share power and responsibility among many parts of the organisation. Some critics of the paradigm that positions the leader or principal as a hero, contend that distributed school leadership does not require leaders who can perform essential functions by themselves, and neither is an assumption made about whether some individuals carry more weight than others based on what they do (Gronn, 2002).

Used properly, distributed school leadership enables school leaders to go beyond the long maintained notion that the role of a school principal is to lead followers (Harris, 2005). Harris (2004) describes distributed school leadership as emphasising the involvement of different expertise wherever it exists in the organisation. It should be pointed out that this does not mean school principals abdicate their responsibilities. Instead, as Harris (2008) explains, when leadership is dispersed among members, the result is vertical and lateral ties among formal and informal leaders. Thus, those with formal leadership roles and authority work hand in hand with those who, though lacking formal positions, can automatically take up the role of leading different groups and initiatives. McCrimmon (2007) further explains informal school leadership as a process whereby those without official leadership positions take a leadership role without an appointment.

According to Gronn (2002), distributed school leadership operates in three different ways. First there is spontaneous collaboration, when two or three individuals with different skills and abilities, possibly from different levels in the school, bring their expertise together to solve a problem, after which they may disperse. The second is intuitive understanding. This happens when two or more people develop a close working partnership and support each other to succeed in what they are doing. Third there are institutionalised arrangements. Group members consider themselves as equals and the group meets once in a while with pre-set goals. Though this group is more formal than the other two, it makes no formal decisions. Instead, after discussing a specific problem, the members share with the larger school community and propose solutions (Gronn, 2002). Based on the three approaches to distributed leadership, everyone has a chance to be heard as an individual and as a group. The existence of the three types of groups and approaches in a school can also be viewed as a measure of the leader’s ability to provide ample opportunities for members to learn from other’s skills.
Key Characteristics of Distributed School Leadership

Distributed school leadership is characterised by interdependent relationships between school leaders, followers, and their situation or context. As a result of this interdependence, they develop a culture of collegiality, which is central to improvement (Marzano et al., 2005). In a school context, collegiality is understood as the extent to which principals recognise the value of involving teachers, administrators, and parents (Marzano et al., 2005). Collegiality contributes to the widening of the authority of professional expertise, which is important for school improvement. Moreover, through the collegial characteristics of distributed school leadership, various stakeholders are encouraged to utilise their personal talents by actively participating in the leadership of the school (Marzano et al., 2005). It is posited that as people are given opportunities to use their talents, they develop a sense of worth and a feeling that they are capable of something beneficial. This in turn promotes a sense of belonging as they recognise the extent to which they are perceived as valuable to the school and that their presence matters.

Another characteristic of distributed school leadership is the notion of lateral power relationship, which allows for a consensus model of decision-making (Harris and Spillane, 2009). It is evident that cooperation and trust are core driving forces in the utilisation of distribution of power. Power is distributed by interest, initiative, merit, and expertise rather than position. As a form of participatory democracy, distributed school leadership helps mobilise the collective efforts of a broader range of people and encourages them to commit to the wellbeing of the school (Spillane, 2009). As more people become involved in school leadership, the school will automatically strike a balance between central control and local majority, thereby giving voice to those who affirm or negate powerholders (McCrimmon, 2007).

Context Required for Distributed School Leadership

Researchers have long recognised that context influences what leaders do as well as how followers are impacted by leaders’ actions (Spillane and Diamond, 2007). Moreover, since distributed school leadership is not an end in itself, it is important to consider the contexts in which school leaders operate. The term context, in this paper used interchangeably with situation, is complex and can be described in a variety of ways. At a glance, context is understood as the environment in which/background against which an action takes place. Words such as who, what, where, and when may be used to describe the term. However, as an important aspect of
effective distributed school leadership, context may require a deeper understanding going beyond the question of environment (Spillane and Diamond, 2007; Spillane, Diamond, and Jita, 2003). Thus, we use context to refer to the identity of the people involved, social relations among them, work culture, activities in which they are involved, their status, their experience in the profession, and their perception of the school, as well as physical resources. Moreover, the context needed for effective use of distributed school leadership among formally designated and informal leaders will depend on various school characteristics. Since members have different talents, not everyone can have a hand in every aspect of school leadership. Hence, leadership roles may be distributed based on the following characteristics: leadership functions, subject matter, type and size of the school, and school leadership teams’ development stages (Harris, 2007; Spillane, 2006; Harris and Spillane, 2009). Genuine interaction among followers, and trust and confidence in each member is critical because, unless members feel trusted, valued and at ease, they will be less willing to dedicate time to shared leadership responsibilities or to take risks.

Leithwood et al. (2007) in a study of four secondary schools and four elementary schools in Ontario, Canada examined the extent to which distributed school leadership was effective in sustaining student success over three years. They concluded that effective distributed school leadership depends on “regular monitoring of progress by principals and ... active ... interaction to move the agenda forward” (p. 55). School principals who focus mainly on leading followers as colleagues rather than as subordinates were also noted as contributing to the effective distribution of leadership. The presence of principals who acted as role models was also noted (Leithwood et al., 2007). Other contextual conditions identified included: collaborative structure; manageable numbers of collaborators in a project; use of expertise rather than positional power to wield influence; an open and encouraging culture; visible support from formal leaders; encouragement of staff autonomy; and professional development opportunities (Leithwood et al., 2007).

**Strengths of Distributed School Leadership**

Distributed school leadership has a variety of strengths that are necessary for school improvement. Given that distributed school leadership is focused on leadership practices rather than leaders or their roles, functions, routines and structures (Spillane, 2005), this approach empowers leaders and followers to remain active as equal participants in the development of the school. The ability to involve leaders at all levels is powerful because it helps to create appreciation of the influence of those
who occupy no formal position in the chain of command (Leithwood, Mascall, and Strauss, 2009). Due to the distributive nature of the concept when followed properly, principals can avoid unnecessary confrontation with members over mistakes. Moreover, decisions made by consensus enjoy more validity than those taken by one person or only a few.

Additionally, interdependency, the core characteristic of distributed school leadership, can also be seen as its strength, since both leaders and followers are nourished by the skills that each brings to the community (Leithwood and Mascall, 2008). When followers are able to participate in school leadership, each of them benefits by learning how to become a leader themselves. As a result, when a current leader retires abruptly, followers can take over with fewer difficulties. The strength of interdependence within distributed school leadership is the preparation of new leaders by current formal leaders. Finally, distributed school leadership encourages teachers to see themselves as part of their school’s leadership team.

An advantage of distributed leadership, rarely discussed in the literature, is its role in developing leadership talent within a school. This is a feature of business and industry, where distributed leadership is deliberately practised as a means of developing home-grown talent usually for the purpose of leadership succession planning. Unfortunately, this is not the case in educational institutions. We argue that this should become the culture of educational institutions as well so that when current leaders step down there is available talent with institutional memory that can step up to the plate and avoid the vacuums and lapses that too often characterise leadership changes.

**Limitations of Distributed School Leadership**

As with other leadership perspectives, distributed school leadership has its limitations. Some of these result from its very nature and the manner in which it operates. Interaction among school leaders, followers, and their situations turns out to be complex and at times the nature of and motives for the collaboration are unclear. Thus, for example, Fullan and Hargreaves (1991) identify balkanisation, comfortable collaboration, and contrived collaboration as aspects that, if neglected, can lead to serious problems, such as division among members and pursuit of personal interests. Balkanisation refers to a situation where individuals attach their loyalties and identities to particular groups of their colleagues for the purpose of supporting hostile climates or opposing a situation in the school. The second limitation, comfortable collaboration, occurs when groups that have formed tend to be more comfortable and bounded rather than extended (Fullan and Hargreaves, 1991). Such groups will fail the school because members become passive, failing to ask each other the tough questions necessary for school improvement. Finally, there is contrived collegiality,
This is connected to the lack of ability by school leaders to predict whether the collegiality that exists in their school is positive. These three factors can become hostile and impede communication and thus result in indifference among members.

**Discussion and Conclusion**

There is no universal view on the most appropriate model of school leadership and the probability of agreement being reached on this is not high. As a result, we do not present distributed leadership as the answer to all leadership problems in Caribbean schools. However, different perspectives can be applied more effectively in one context than another depending on the vision of school leadership being espoused. Given the changing nature of schools, the increased complexity of issues to be addressed, and concerns about school effectiveness in educating children, we argue there is a need to consider a more participatory type of leadership strategy based on a whole-school approach. We posit that the concept of distributed school leadership offers a productive way of thinking about how schools can be led more effectively by engaging resourceful people.

We do not suggest that distributed school leadership is the only effective roadmap for school improvement in the Caribbean. Instead, we advocate the utilisation of distributed school leadership as a tool for improving school effectiveness. Schools need to rethink other conceptual approaches that allow the representation of all voices at different levels in the school. However, the mandate to improve learning for all children requires collaborative efforts. Schools need to adopt a culture of interpersonal synergy; the day-to-day actions taken by the school leadership need to be inclusive; and power needs to be shared by different people with different expertise. We posit that school leaders should also consider the role and contribution that can be made by stakeholders such as parents, students, and community representatives. The role of students is vital, yet too often absent from leadership theories. This is a major gap in conceptualisations of school leadership that needs to be addressed. In the Caribbean, this is critical because while most schools have student leaders and some form of student government, they are mostly expected to police fellow students and very rarely play a meaningful role in school governance. Community involvement is important too and lacking in Caribbean contexts, even though schools typically have parent associations. By making schools a welcoming place in the community, both leaders and followers will eventually develop mutual trust and openness, and there will be willingness to embrace the school vision and participate fully in its realisation. Greater involvement by communities gives people a greater sense of ownership of the school as a community resource, rather than as being government owned. This sense of ownership should lead communities to do more to protect schools and make them safe for students and teachers. It should also help to reduce the problems of graffiti and vandalism that plague schools in some Caribbean communities.

The ultimate goal of school leaders must be the effective education of every student. To maximise each student’s potential, incorporating the resources available
with the aim of the best possible education is paramount. The concept of distributed school leadership holds great promise for leading to improved learning outcomes and student success.

Implementing distributed leadership requires education and training of school leaders. Unfortunately, many, perhaps most, school principals and vice-principals do not have formal leadership training. There are no specific pre-service principal qualification programs that are prerequisites for principals and vice-principals. In Jamaica, for example, anecdotal evidence suggests that especially for primary schools, teacher qualifications and five years of teaching experience is all that is required. The right political connections also help and can, in fact, trump everything else. Most primary school principals do not have an undergraduate degree and in-service or ongoing professional learning for primary school principals and vice-principals is still inadequate. But even where principals of secondary schools or teachers’ colleges do have degrees, they may still have no formal education or training in educational leadership and administration. Professional development programs are few and far between. Not surprisingly, principals are often found wanting in many areas of leadership and administration. In Guyana, for example, Deonandan (2010) identified major weaknesses, such as interpersonal skills, human relations skills, poor ethics, bias, and favouritism.

Even where professional development programs for leaders do exist, these are tailored for principals and, to a far lesser extent, vice-principals. Other leaders in the school are rarely assisted. For example, Jamaican secondary schools have senior teachers, department heads, grade coordinators, etc. However, the indications are that they have very limited opportunities for ongoing professional leadership training. Reliable data are hard to come by, but anecdotal evidence suggests that opportunities for formal training in educational leadership are lacking in many Anglo-Caribbean countries. Even where more opportunities are known to exist (as in Jamaica through the University of the West Indies), there is still uncertainty about how many active school leaders have availed themselves of such training and the extent to which such training is a prerequisite for a principalship. It is still too often the case that what you know is subjugated to who you know, and that political connections and religion play a key role in the appointment of school leaders.

Effective school leadership requires a shared vision of the goals of an organisation and the collective effort to translate this vision into practice. There is something to be said for the fact that practical experience is fundamental to learning in fields such as education and that leadership is most effectively developed on the job. We argue, however, that effective leadership requires fundamental shifts in attitude and philosophy and can benefit from an integrated approach of theory and experiential learning. This, in turn, requires purposely planned opportunities to develop school leadership at all levels, not just among principals. For principals, we posit that the Caribbean needs national principal qualification programs for all publicly funded primary and secondary schools, community and teachers’ colleges. Secondly, we call for a coherent program of ongoing professional learning for school leaders.
administrators, not just principals.

References


NOTES ON CONTRIBUTORS

Cebert Adamson is Executive Director of the Council of Community Colleges of Jamaica. He previously served as the Human Resource Development Manager at the University of Technology, Jamaica. He holds a Master’s in Education and a Bachelor of Business Education degree, and has various teaching training qualifications. His expertise includes curriculum development, instructional technology, and research in education.

Shirley Allen is a Senior Lecturer at Middlesex University. She works on undergraduate and postgraduate primary and early years teacher education programmes and leads the Foundation and BA Learning and Teaching degree programmes. Beverley Barnaby is a Senior Lecturer at Middlesex University. She previously worked in further education and is currently the link tutor for the Foundation Degree in Early Childhood Studies at Middlesex, which is delivered at local colleges of further education.

Clinton Beckford, PhD is a career educator. He has been a teacher since 1983 and has experience teaching at the high school, teachers college, and university levels in his native Jamaica. He is currently Associate Professor of Geography Education at the University of Windsor, Ontario, Canada.

Charmaine Bissessar is the Academic Development Coach at Hugh Wooding Law School, Trinidad. Her main research interests include emotional intelligence, motivation and transformational leadership, women in leadership and politics, and social justice. She has presented at international conferences and published widely in leading international journals. Dr Bissessar is the author of a book of short stories, Grains of Sands. She has taught at secondary levels throughout the Caribbean and teaches the dissertation and action research component for the Catholic Religious Educational Development Institute (CREDI).

Vicky Burghardt is a Senior Lecturer at Middlesex University. Vicky leads the Early Childhood Studies degree at Middlesex, which has overseas franchised provision. Jennifer Ellis has been the Vice President, Human Resources at the University of Technology, Jamaica since June 2010. Prior to that, she was the Senior Director, Human Resources at the same institution. Her key role is to assist the university to build capabilities, identify and manage talent, and align its corporate strategies and its HR practices and competencies. She has previously published on performance-based management and evaluation at the university.
Floyd Kelly, MEd is an Education Officer with the Ministry of Education in Jamaica. He recently completed a Master’s degree in educational leadership in the Faculty of Education and Liberal Studies, University of Technology, Jamaica. His research interests include leadership traits and school management.

Chrispina Lekule is a doctoral candidate in the Faculty of Education, University of Windsor, Canada. She is a former school teacher and principal from Tanzania, East Africa. Her PhD dissertation focuses on the role of school leaders in enhancing the school experiences and academic success of vulnerable children in her native country. Tom Mann is Assistant Headteacher at a comprehensive secondary school in Northwest London. He received his undergraduate degree in Human Movement Studies, his Master’s in Specific Learning Difficulties, and is currently pursuing doctoral studies in education. He has also completed an Advanced National Diploma in Special Educational Needs. Tom has worked in a variety of educational settings (primary, special, secondary, and tertiary) mainly in England but also in Australia and New Zealand. He counts among his professional interests the inclusion of young people into mainstream education.

Desmond N. McKenzie Jr. holds a BEd (Hons) in Industrial Technology with a major in Mechanical Technology. He also holds Levels I and II Certificates and a Level III Diploma in Automotive Technology from the Jamaican-German Automotive School. In addition to several years of experience in the fields of automotive technology and his entrepreneurial skills, he is currently pursuing an MPhil/PhD-CTE (Career and Technical Education).

Paul Miller, PhD is Professor of Educational Leadership in the School of Graduate Studies, Research and Entrepreneurship, University of Technology, Jamaica. He is programme leader and convenor for the MEd and PhD programs in Educational Leadership. Latterly, he was Senior Lecturer in Education and Early Childhood Studies, Middlesex University.

Carolyn Morris is a Senior Lecturer at Middlesex University. She leads the Leadership, Management and Multidisciplinary Roles in Early Years Settings module and works on the Doctorate in Education programme at Middlesex.

Cynthia Onyefulu, PhD is a Senior Lecturer and Vice-Dean in the Faculty of Education and Liberal Studies, University of Technology, Jamaica, and a visiting Fellow in Educational Development at the Centre for Teaching and Learning at the University of Windsor, Canada. She holds a PhD in Educational Psychology from the University of Alberta. Her research interests include assessment practices, programme evaluation in the Caribbean, and research management.
**Linford Pierson:** Dr the Honourable Linford A. Pierson, OBE, JP, FCCA, PhD is a Caymanian by birth and citizen of the UK. He has a Master’s in Counselling Psychology and a PhD in Educational Psychology and is a Fellow of the Association of Chartered Certified Accountants. After serving for 16 years in the Cayman Islands civil service, he held political office for a further 16 plus years, including as Speaker of the Legislative Assembly. The government named the Linford Pierson Highway after him and bestowed on him the honorific “the Honourable” in perpetuity. He has also worked in the private sector and is a past president and past assistant district governor of Rotary.

**Andrea Pusey-Murray** is a Lecturer at the University of Technology, Jamaica and has taught various categories of nursing students. She currently holds certificates in Registered General Nursing, Post Basic Psychiatric Nursing, and Nursing Administration, a BSc (Hons) in Public Administration, a Master’s in Public Health, and a Postgraduate Diploma in Education. She is currently pursuing an MPhil/PhD in Career and Technical Education.

**Jo Wood** was awarded a PhD by the University of Manchester and holds Master’s degrees from the universities of Leeds and Bradford as well as the National Professional Qualification for Headteachers (UK). She is currently Chief Policy Advisor for Education in the Cayman Islands. Previously she was Executive Director of the Quality Assurance Authority for Education and Training in Bahrain, and later a consultant providing school-improvement advice on government reform initiatives. Prior to this, she worked in the UK to establish specialist academies; to support over 14,000 children whose first language was not English in a multiracial, multilingual city in the north of England; and as a director of one of the first Education Action Zones set up to tackle underachievement in challenging, inner city areas.
GUIDELINES FOR CONTRIBUTORS

Contributions are welcomed from all areas of scholarship. Manuscripts are expected to be original works able to withstand intensive peer review. Topics may fall within any theme of scholarship, including education, fine arts, humanities, medicine, science, social sciences, international relations, politics, history, and public policy. As the journal serves multidisciplinary interests, any manuscript submitted for publication should be of potential appeal not only to specialists but also to readers whose principal interests do not coincide directly with the subject addressed in the paper.

Authors, rather than the editor or the University College of the Cayman Islands, bear responsibility for accuracy and opinions set forth in articles published in JUCCI.

Careful observation of the requirements set out below will reduce the time needed for processing manuscripts and thereby contribute to earlier publication.

• **Format of manuscripts** Manuscripts should be typed double-spaced and delivered in both hard copy and electronic formats. The hard copy may be presented in PDF format and illustrations embedded, but the electronic copy should be in a common word processing program (Microsoft Word preferred) with illustrations on separate sheets (see below).

• **Parts of Manuscript** All submissions must have a title page, an abstract, and a complete and accurate bibliography based on APA guidelines. All parts of the manuscript should be double-spaced.

• **Abstract** The abstract should be concise (about 200 words) and able to stand alone as a summary of the paper. The abstract should be followed by a list of key words.

• **Illustrations and tables** Illustrations and tables must be printed on separate sheets and numbered. All illustrations and tables must have a corresponding reference in the text. Photographs should be numbered and identified by the author’s name on the reverse.

• **Abbreviations** All abbreviations should be spelled out at first use – e.g., Caribbean Single Market and Economy (CSME).

• **Numbers** Numbers under 10 are written as words except when used in measurements or when used in association with a larger number (e.g., 8 to 24 students).

• **Dates** Dates are in the format day-month-year, without punctuation (e.g., 17 May 2005).

• **Citations** JUCCI uses the APA system with a reference list. Note that online sources should be accompanied by the most recent access date. Further information on the APA style can be found at http://www.apastyle.org/