Trinity

Education

Papers

A collection of occasional papers and work in progress by staff and doctoral students of the School of Education, Trinity College Dublin

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CONTENTS

Editorial

This first volume of *Trinity Education Papers* represents a snapshot of research activity in the School of Education in Trinity College Dublin during 2011. The School has a staff of fifteen academics who, while engaged in their own research in one of the four research groups in the School, also provide supervision for eighty doctoral students. Many of these are full-time but many are conducting research while also holding professional positions both within and outside of mainstream education at all levels.

The aim of *Trinity Education Papers* is to provide a means of research dissemination for staff and students which augments the possibilities provided by conference presentations, journal articles and book chapters. With its policy of internal editorial review and encouragement to students, in particular, to begin publication activity at an early stage of their research careers, it accepts papers that reflect work in progress at all stages of doctoral research presented in a scholarly manner. For staff, it offers the possibility of disseminating work that may be planned for publication in peer-reviewed journals and books but has not taken on its final shape.

The appearance of Trinity Education Papers revives a tradition of publishing within the School of Education that goes back to the publication of *Studies in Education* in the 1980s and 1990s. It is hoped that it will enjoy a similar long life and provide a showcase for the School of Education and a new and enduring means of communicating our work to the wider academic community, the education profession and prospective students.

Aidan Seery, January 2012

STANDING ON THE FRONT PORCH:
Discussing the Theoretical Frame of a Mixed-Approach Methodological Design

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Abstract

This paper will discuss the theoretical frame behind a mixed-approach methodological design. The aim and objective of this design was to create a curricular intervention that elicited narrative data generation and collection from Irish secondary school Transition Year students for the purpose of exploring their understanding of self and self as learner.

Introduction

One of the purest moments in Harper Lee's *To Kill a Mockingbird* comes, quite appropriately, in the final chapter of the novel when the main character, Scout, stands on Arthur (Boo) Radley's front porch and completes her *Bildungsroman* by finally owning the lesson her father Atticus continually puts forth: 'You never really understand a person until you consider things from his point of view - until you climb into his skin and walk around in it' (Lee 1960, p.39).

Atticus' lesson – and Scout's journey to own the enduring wisdom within it – can be held as a fictional mirror to Howard Gardner's call '...to place ourselves inside the heads of our students and try to understand as far as possible the sources and strengths of their conceptions' (1991, p. 253). Between this fiction and theory, with a firm footing in practice and the reality of the classroom, is where I have stood in my teacher's past and where I have situated my researcher's present – within student narrative and the view from their side of the desks.

Personal Context of Research

When people used to ask me what I taught, I would reply, "Lives."

Such a response was whimsical, daunting, foreboding, and accurate. Coming from me, it is also contained a weighty sincerity. The response to this answer was shock, uncertainty, and a conviction that I did not hear the question correctly the first time around. The answer being searched for was a bit more pedantic. The people asking wanted to know that I taught high school English to freshmen and seniors, in both the honours and academic capacity. I taught reading, writing, and the novel they loved to hate when they were in school. I taught sentence structure and thesis statements, visual aids and documentation. These answers were what they were searching for, but the reality was, I taught lives. Not people. Not students. Lives. I taught bad days and good days, divorces and break ups, making the school play and losing the big game. I taught about getting up when you are down, about living the story of your life, about choice and consequence, and about self-respect and willpower. When I did my job well, I taught lives.

For ten years, as an American high school English teacher, I watched the pendulum swing between initiatives and strategies that whirred into a barely comprehensible – and impossible to articulate! – alphabet soup. I championed multiple intelligence instruction, curricularly aligned courses based on literacy strategies, integrated differentiated instruction, purposefully assessed for learning, and was mindful of my options for interventions. And in all this implementing and practicing of ideas, I consistently wondered, where were the lives? Where were Ryan and Justin, Jackie and Alicia? Where were the faces that stare back at you, the lives behind the data, numbers, and theory? Where were students in all of this and when do they get a say?

I began to formulate this area of interest my first year as a teacher; I pursued this interest academically while working towards my Master of Education in Interdisciplinary Studies: Curriculum and Instruction. At that time, I engaged in action research to author a senior level English course that tested out my personal practice based theories in combination with Grant Wiggins

and Jay McTighe's *Understanding by Design* (1998, 2005) curricular design model. The goal was to try to turn disenchanted observers into active learners through a purposeful spiral curriculum. Reinvigorating students' interest in learning and helping them maximize their personal potential were priorities in laying the foundation of this course.

After six years of teaching and reworking this course based on teacher and student input, it became clear that while I had opened a window as a teacher, it was now time to assume the mantle of researcher so as to open the door to my own metaphorical front porch. With a growing interest and belief in the statement that 'we teach children not content', it was now time for me to stand in the 'skin' and the 'heads' of Ryan, Justin, Jackie, and Alicia and take on the challenge of 'situat[ing]...knowledge in the living context' (Bruner 1996, p. 44).

Paper Contents

In regards to articulating my personal context in a research setting, this paper will present the methodological approaches taken in this narrative study of student life and learning, articulating my overarching research question and the three research strands that were pulled from it.

Research Questions

With a passion for teaching that had been cultivated in ten years of a learner filled classroom, my research intention was to unravel the individual strings that formed the roped community that confronted me on a daily basis. To allow these students, these lives to 'cease to be a mass and become the intensely distinctive beings that we are acquainted with out of school, in the home, the family, on the playground, and in the neighbourhood' (Dewey 1900, p. 33) it was my belief that I needed to give them voice.

Much research, it seems, approaches the classroom from the perspective of those who stand in front of it; specifically in regards to what teachers are

doing and how and why they are doing it. My research intent was to switch places with my students, to put them in the position of expert and take a seat in their classroom as they spoke on life and learning. I wanted to hear the students' stories, the story of who they have been, are, and will be in the most natural contexts, that of self and that of self as learner. I wanted to empower Dewey's individuals to become more than inmates; I wanted to allow them to become contributors in a fashion that was active and tangible, personal and authentic, in a way that allowed for distinction. I wanted to acknowledge that student voices are varied and treat them as valid and reliable on the subject of self and learning. And, I wanted it all to be a product of the setting most familiar to the student-learner/student-'live'r,- the classroom.

To this end, I developed one umbrella research question to encompass all of these wants:

Central Research Question
- How does the telling, reflection, and analysis (on the part of the student) of personal narrative *link* to the students' perception and understanding of their self and their personal learning?
  Within this question there exist three theoretical areas of interest– narrative, learning, and self—which create their own sub-categories of research questions for interrogating the data:

Research Questions – *NARRATIVE STRAND*
- How does the *content* of the narration (stories told of others versus those of self) connect to the identified type of learning (from the personal construct of learning and the researched construct of learning)?
- How does the *presentation of self* (in narration) connect to the identified type of learning (from the personal construct of learning and the researched construct of learning)?
- How does the *positioning of self* (first person, etc. in narration) connect

to the identified type of learning (from the personal construct of learning and the researched construct of learning)?

- How does the ***perception of audience*** (in narration) connect to the identified type of learning (from the personal construct of learning and the researched construct of learning)?

Research Questions – *LEARNING STRAND*

- What is identified about self and learning from a critical consideration of a personal narrative (on the part of the students)?
- How can a self narrative be used to create a personal construct of learning?
- How has the students' perception of learning changed after engaging in the narrative exercise?
- How does the student categorize traits of a student and traits of a learner?
- How do students' visions of learning differ from theorists?

Research Questions – *SELF STRAND*

- What themes of self emerge from an Irish teenager's personal narrative?
- What association are made by the students between the emerging self and commonalities of human experience?
- How do the students use the past to formulate the present and influence their future realities?

At this time, in the midst of the study, these stranded research questions are equally weighted and the balance of interest is spread out among them. However, once the data collection is complete and analysis has begun, the focus of the research questions will be tightened.

These research questions, as they attempt to investigate my priorities as both a researcher and a teacher, also attempt to parallel the previously articulated aims of Gardner, Dewey, and Atticus Finch by taking a seat in the classroom

as opposed to standing in front of it.

Theoretical Framework

The use of research and theory to frame the approach to data collection is grounded in my general research goal – to look at life and the classroom from the students' perspective and acknowledge their presentation of self and learning as valid and reliable – and refined through the lens of the identified research strands.   Considering the research questions, it followed that I would be engaged in qualitative research conducted from an ethnographic perspective which used a narrative methodology to interact with a select group of student-learners. This section provides a rationale for the theoretical framework of this study, specifically discussing the qualitative, ethnographic, narrative, and case study features.

Qualitative Approach

When determining whether or not to take a quantitative or qualitative approach, it was necessary to consider that the initial research premise and question revolved around students creating a narrative that reveals:

1. what they know about themselves in both a personal and student context
2. how they have come to know this about themselves, and
3. how and why this personal knowledge is (or could be) significant.

With this criteria as a starting point, the want to delve into a teenager's understanding of him/herself as a self and as a learner, the want for the revelation to be an exercise of authentic voice, and the belief that the most appropriate   setting for such a narrative exercise is within the classroom, the basic research focus can said to be on understanding human behaviour within a localized setting.

As qualitative research and analysis can loosely be defined as being a study

of human phenomenon, interaction, discourse and motivation within a concentrated sample (Lichtman 2006, pp.8-9), it was a natural fit for a study such as this. This study is not about categorizing or hypothesis testing, as one would find in a quantitative study, but about provoking thought about what exists on the parameters of quantifiable data, about provoking theory (Freebody 2003, p. 35). General theories have been developed about learning and then blanketed over a classroom of learners, but in this study theory will be created *by* the learners to blanket themselves. And, as this is a study attempting to examine and validate the unique and varied lives that fill the classroom, it is a research mandate 'that those who study it must collect rich and diverse data….'
(LeCompte & Preissle 1993, p. 158), a staple of qualitative research.

In regards to the compilation of data in qualitative research, 'the researcher is the principal data collection instrument; whereas in quantitative research, scientifically designed data collection tools are developed' (Anderson 1998, p. 123). As the environment for this study is the classroom, and as the data being collected is being generated by a curriculum that I, as teacher-research, both authored and delivered, it is also evident that this study is qualitative in nature.

With the main intent of the research, then, to gain an in-depth perspective of the intersection between self and self as learner as determined and told by the students, qualitative research is the general methodology through which all other approaches will find focus.

Mixed-Approach Design
As Anderson (1998, p. 119) states, 'Qualitative research is a form of inquiry that explores phenomena in their natural settings and uses multi-methods to interpret, understand, explain and bring meaning to them.' The first challenge of this study came in the mixed-approach design dictated by both the qualitative nature of the research and the focus of the central research question.

As 'the three conditions [for selecting a method of research] consist of (a) the type of research question posed, (b) the extent of control an investigator has over actual behavioural events, and (c) the degree of focus on contemporary as opposed to historical events.' (Yin 2009, p. 8), three traditional research approaches were selected to frame the collection of data:

1. the ethnographic approach
2. the narrative approach
3. the case study

Combining these methods with the research questions, the study's approach was designed as an ethnographic narration set generally in the context of a case study. Both the ethnographic approach and the narrative approach are weighted equally in regards to their intentional selection as a research method and influence on the data. Based on the general nature of the research and the setting in which the research was conducted – a classroom – there are features of a case study within the research, but it is not intended as a case study.
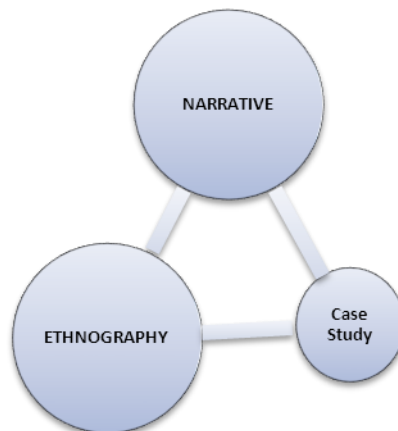
Ethnographic Approach

The situating of the researcher within the research context, and the unique interplay this can have with the data generated and collected, is a general feature of a qualitative study and a specific feature of ethnographic research. As I am conducting this study within the parameters of a 'normal' Irish secondary school Transition Year classroom and as I have assumed the mantle of teacher-researcher for this study, becoming a part of the research environment, it is necessary to address the first point on this study's multi-approach design, the quasi-ethnographic features that surround the context – and frame the perspective – of the research.

Ethnographic educational research is an approach with measured anthropologic roots that is used when the research aim is the consideration of a cultural group within its natural setting (and participation of the researcher within this setting) for the purpose of increased awareness and understanding of the connections between the norms, values, beliefs, life priorities, etc. of said group (Hymes 1996, pp. 3-15). While this study is narrative in nature and not ethnographic, it does employ specific ethnographic methods in regards to   design (Wolcott 2002, p.40 – 46) but is restricted by the limitations of the   specific classroom, timeframe, and a lack of comparative ethnological perspective (Hymes 1996, p. 15).

In regards to ethnography as a methodology, as a way of studying human life, LeCompte and Preissle (1993, p. 3) define four features of ethnographic design:

First, they qualify ethnographic research as *phenomenological*, 'represent [ing] the world view of the participants being investigated and [using] participant constructs...to structure the research.'

Second, they emphasize the '*empirical* and *naturalistic*' character of ethnographic research through the use of 'participant and nonparticipant

observation...to acquire first hand, sensory accounts of phenomena as they occur in real world settings....'

Third, they speak to the '*holistic*' nature of ethnographic research and the need for it to 'construct descriptions of total phenomena within their various contexts and to generate from these descriptions the complex interrelation-ships of causes and consequences that affect human behaviour toward and belief about the phenomena.'

Fourthly, they insist that ethnography is '*multimodal*...use[ing] a variety of research techniques to amass data.'

In regards to LeCompte and Preissle's (1993, p. 3) four features, this research study generally fulfils this definition of ethnographic design, and can therefore be considered quasi-ethnographic, in the following ways:

First, in consideration of the study as *phenomenological*, the study qualifies in the most general sense. Under layers of data that are guided by purposeful intervention and with the understanding of the articulated manipulations of the research setting, the core of this study has a phenomenologic intent. As the study asks students to narrate and analyze their life and life experience, and provide structure to their revelations along with an analysis, there is a sense of the philosophic roots to phenomenology in regards to a first person account of experience. However, this is in the weakest possible sense.

Second, as this study is being conducted in a classroom setting, with the intention that both the students and I, as teacher-researcher, interact with the ideas of self and learning and record our observations for the purpose of data generation, it is a study that is both *empirical* and *naturalistic*.

Third, as the intention of this study is to look at self and self and learning in the main contexts of student life - school and home - and strives to identify

relationships and patterns in regards to 'causes and consequences' emerging from said relationships, it is *holistic*.

Fourthly, as this study uses a variety of research methods and instructional strategies in the creation and collection of data (writing, images, poetry, songs, etc.) it can be seen as *multimodal*.

It also should be noted that the sample population – the students themselves – are also cast in the role of ethnographer within this study. As they narratively record details of self, the students are generating data from an emic perspective (Alasuutari 1995, p. 67), from within the cultural setting of self. And, as a 'good ethnography entails trust and confidence,...some narrative accounting, and...is an extension of a universal form of personal knowledge' (Hymes 1996, p. 14), the students, as ethnographers, are engaging in a sort of phenomenological approach to themselves '...rel[ying] on retrospective reflection - thinking about the experience and what it means, after the fact' (Anderson 1998, p. 122-123). This fact allows for an empathic understanding of the population, their norms, values, beliefs, and life priorities. It also allows for the building of a student-owned perspective on life and learning, affirming the validity of their voice and necessity of a narrative perspective. The students, in many ways, can be seen as ethnographers of self, narratively recording detail aspects of life and reporting on the details for the purpose of moving knowledge from the specific to the general.

'Ethnographic studies of learning and knowledge in education ask the question 'what counts as knowledge and learning in classrooms to teachers and students'' (Freebody 2003, p. 76). This study, then, based on the research questions, generally qualifies as ethnographic as it is looks at teenagers, specifically the cultural group of Irish Transition Year students (within selected research schools) and links abstract concepts to particular data (Hammersley 1990, p.114) for the purposes of understanding life and

learning from their perspective (norms, values, beliefs, and life priorities).

Narrative Approach

With the onus of this study being the desire to give students a voice in regards to their experiences of life and learning, the most suitable methodology for qualitative data collection done from an anthropologic ethnographic perspective was the narrative approach. This, then, comprises the second point of this study's multi-approach design and relates to the nature and purpose of the data.

Traditionally, the word 'narrative' is associated with the concept of storytelling, an act that permeates life and living, from the books we reads to the conversations we have (Butler-Kisber 2010, p. 63). The art of creating narrative is familiar and lacks artifice as '...we frame the accounts of our cultural origins and our most cherished beliefs in story form...Our immediate experience, what happened yesterday or the day before, is framed in the same storied way....we represent our lives (to ourselves as well as to others) in the form of narrative' (Bruner 1996, p. 40).

Through the telling of stories, humans make sense of experience, shaping their experience and creating a dialogue between 'what was expected and what came to pass' (Bruner, 2002, p. 31; Cortazzi 2001, p. 384). The ability to reflect on fact, on action, and 'redescribe' our experiences with the addi-tion of consciousness (Butler-Kisber 2010; Bruner 2002; Ricoeur 1983) allows for narration as a means of personalized fact gathering. By using a method of narrative inquiry, then, data collection becomes 'human centred' and the stories become a, '...document [of] critical life events....reveal[ing] holistic views....and reflect[ing] the fact that experience is a matter of growth, and that understandings are continually developed, reshaped and retold...' (Webster & Mertova 2007, p.14).

Considering the choice of a narrative approach in regards to the methodolog-

ical design of this study, it is important to consider that the foundation of the central research question is built upon the concept of student voice and the recognition of the validity and right of student voice (Hymes 1996, p. 109) in regards to both self as self and self as learner. In conjunction with this, and the stranded research questions pulled from the central research question, 'Most narratives are told about things which...matter to the teller and audience. Therefore, a careful analysis of...narratives...should...give researchers access to tellers' understandings of the meanings of key events in their lives, communities or cultural contexts' (Cortazzi 2001, p. 384). Then, as this study is concerned with the students' construction of meaning from life as narrated, the narrative approach works as both a familiar means of communicating and transmitting knowledge and as a way of framing moments of and for reflection.

Four specific reasons, then, for narrative analysis within ethnography, as given by Cortazzi (Cortazzi and Jin 2006, pp 27-29; Cortazzi 2001, pp. 385-387) include:

1. *Concern with the meaning of experience*
   In recounting events in narratives, tellers directly or indirectly give their own interpretations and explanation of those events while evaluating the principal people, the meaning of events, and a wider relevant context.

2. *Voice*
   The sharing of experience of particular groups so that others may know life as they know it (a 'felt need' for certain groups to be heard).

3. *Human qualities on personal and professional dimensions*
   To publically reveal crucial but probably generally unappreciated, personal and professional qualities involved in the certain occupation and/or profession being studied.

4.   *Research activity itself as a story*
       Ethnography is often constructed as a narrative account, on the part
       of the researcher, of a quest, discovery and interpretation

In regards to Cortazzi's (Cortazzi and Jin 2006, pp. 27-29; Cortazzi: 2001,pp
385 -387) reasons for narrative analysis within ethnography, this study, as
dictated by the research questions:

1.   Is *concerned with the meaning of experience* as it searches to explore
       how the students' experience and process of narrative (within the
       design study) influences their meaning making in regards to self and
       self as learner.

2.   Is creating the opportunity for a certain group (students) to express
       their *voices* (in the form of narrative exercises) so that others may
       hear what they have said and come to some understanding on life as
       the students' perceive it.

3.   Is interested in revealing, through the reality of the narratives
       provided, the *human qualities* of students, as both self and learner,
       which are oftentimes overlooked by others.

4.   Intends to construct a *narrative* based on the research findings.

Solidly situated within these four reason, this study has found a methodologi-
cal grounding in regards to the place of narrative within ethnography.

Influencing the specific narrative methodological design of this study, as
well as the curricular design in regards to terms for narrative inquiry is
Clandinin and Connelly's (2000, pp. 50-51) metaphorical three-dimensional
narrative inquiry space. This design is influenced by Dewey's concept of
experience (Clandinin and Connelly 2002, p. 162) and in this space, the three

narrative dimensions are:

1. Personal and Social (interaction)
2. Past, Present, and Future (temporality)
3. Place (situation)
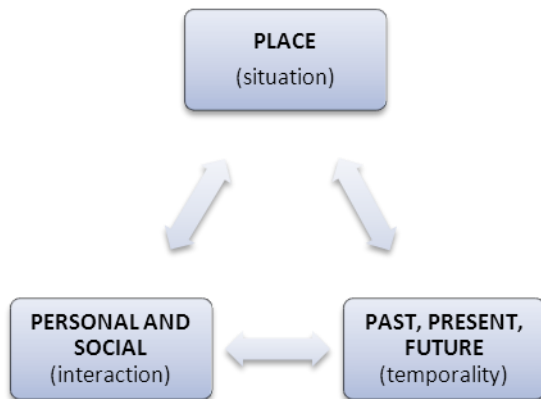
This space is then defined by what Clandinin and Connelly (2000, pp. 50-51) identify as the directions of inquiry:

1. The Personal and Social dimension includes:
   - Inward - towards the internal conditions, such as feelings, hopes, aesthetic reactions and moral dispositions
   - Outward - towards existential conditions such as the environment
2. The Past, Present, and Future dimension includes:
   - Backward - in regards to temporality
   - Forward - in regards to temporality
3. The Place dimension includes:
   - Concrete Physical Boundaries
   - Topological Boundaries

It is with the understanding of this framework, then, that the methodological

selection of narrative attains structure and purpose in regards to the specific contents of the elicited narratives. This framework will also be used to guide the data analysis.

Specifically looking at the research questions and referring back to the literature presented in the learning chapter, narrative as a choice of methodology is also particularly relevant to the research and research questions as, firstly 'in the field of education, the work has focused mainly on teacher education, looking at the ways in which teachers' narratives shape and inform their practice' (Webster & Mertova 2007, p. 27). This supports the need for the finding and relating of the *other* side of the teacher/student relationship - the student narrative (Cortazzi 2001) - and for providing a structure that works within the articulated intent of the study. In regards to the research questions, particularly the learning strand:

> Using narrative, it is possible not only to look at human factors but also to consider human factors within a range of learning theories. Narrative reveals the need for different strategies at different times in the story of learning. For instance, the types of strategies required at the initial skill practice stage are different from those required at the deeper learning and expert stage....Narrative acknowledges that time is critical in the learning process, that deeper learning and expert strategies take a long time to develop and cannot be condensed without risk of simplification or reductions (Webster & Mertova 2007, p. 22)

With these concepts then framing the narrative portion of the methodology and inquiry, asking students to create a narrative of self and self as learner can be seen as a classroom task that exists within the status quo and is a natural extension of self. Considering that a 'concern for the narrative

brings to the forefront features of the learner's thinking and learning needs that may have been neglected through more traditional research methods' (Webster &   Mertova 2007, p. 16) it is also the appropriate method of inquiry for the task of seeking answers to this study's research questions.

Case Study

The third and final point in the study's three-point methodological design is the case study. While this methodological feature does not have the same weight in defining and structuring the study as the first two, the research does have certain features of a case study that necessitate consideration.

Generally, a case study examines a specific experience within its real-life setting and '...is concerned with how things happen and why' (Anderson 1998, pp. 121-153). Specifically, Robert Yin (2009, p. 18) gives a two-fold definition of a case study:

> 1. A case study is an empirical inquiry that: investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when-the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident, and
> 2. The case study inquiry: copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables than data points, and as one result, relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and as another result, benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis

In regards to this, Yin (2009) also presents the idea that the case study may be explanatory, exploratory, or descriptive and will take the design of either single- or multiple- case studies. Considering the research questions, this study is neither causal (explanatory case study) nor is it looking to match

data with a pre-existing framework (descriptive). This then allows for general features of this study to be termed as exploratory – or meaning making. *At this time, in the midst of data collection, it is unclear as to whether the research finding will deal with single- or multiple- cases.*

Whereas in 'experiments, the researcher *creates* the case(s) studied, ...case study researchers construct cases out of naturally occurring social situations' (Hammersley & Gomm 2000, p. 3). As this study is set within the classroom and is interested in the single-cases of self and learner within that classroom, it can generally be seen as a natural social situation. Based on the setting (classroom), participants (students), and focus of the research (narrative, learning, and self), this, then, is a study that fits within both Anderson and Yin's definition. The study also has some general features of both an explanatory and descriptive study.

As this is a study currently in process and the full data set is still to be received and analysed, the understanding of the case study methodology within this research project is still uncertain and possesses a number of unclear dimensions (e.g. single case study, girls, boys, etc.)

Conclusion
In reflecting on the theory used to frame this study, it is important to reinforce that the narrative features and want for the study have guided the selection and imposition of the ethnographic and case study elements. These theoretical considerations were also key in framing the methodological realities of the study.

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CONCEPTUALISING SCHOOL BULLYING BEHAVIOUR:
Moving Beyond An Atheoretical Approach

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Abstract

Experts have contributed to our knowledge of the incidence of school bullying behaviour, which has informed the design and implementation of large-scale, 'whole-school' intervention programmes, utilising awareness–raising and the training and resourcing school of personnel in behaviour management. Such programmes have met with some success; however, developments in theoretical understanding have been limited. Studies of specific forms of bullying, such as homophobic and alterophobic bullying, have revealed that certain groups are more 'at risk' than others of being bullied, and a consideration of these shows that bullying often stems from prejudice, the psychology of which has been largely ignored in favour of conceptualising bullying purely as a sub-set of aggressive behaviour. The theoretical construct of 'pro-conformist aggression' is introduced; researchers are encouraged to address the atheoretical situation which has developed in the anti-bullying field for themselves.

Starting Positions and their Research and Practice Legacies

When I wrote the first chapter of my doctoral thesis on bullying behaviour, I noted that whereas researchers within the field of school bullying behaviour have provided '....careful accounts of the incidence, prevalence and typology of bullying behaviour....and [given] a great deal of attention given to the design of anti-bullying programmes.... [they] have comparatively less to say in response to the question most frequently posed to them by the layman – '*Why* do people bully?' (Minton, 2007, p. 1). With the passage of several years, and indeed dozens of books,

articles and conference papers written by researchers and practitioners in the field, I might make precisely the same point today.

In the past, the afore-mentioned question, if it has been approached at all, has been approached somewhat obliquely; researchers in the field (including my-self) have attempted to determine why it is that people engage in bullying behaviour via understanding why it is that people engage in aggressive be-haviour in general (Minton, 2007). Bullying behaviour itself has been con-sistently conceptualised as a sub-type of aggressive behaviour (Olweus, 1999; Roland & Idsøe, 2001), differentiated from other types of aggressive behaviour on the basis of repetition and the existence of some form of power imbalance, in the perpetrator's or perpetrators' favour, existing between the perpetrator(s) and the target(s) (Minton, 2010). The forefather of anti-bullying research, Professor Dan Olweus (1999, p. 24), asserts that:

> 'Bullying is a sub-category of aggressive behaviour, which in turn is generally defined as "behaviour that is intended to inflict injury or discomfort upon another individual"….Bullying is thus aggressive behaviour with certain special characteristics such as repetitiveness and an asymmetric power relationship'.

It would be difficult to over-estimate the importance of Olweus' many contri-butions to the field of anti-bullying, and almost impossible to write anything on the subject without having need to reference one of his many works. As a pioneer and innovator in this field, in both research and the design of inter-vention programmes, Olweus was responsible for the first systematic empiri-cal research into the area of bullying behaviour (Olweus, 1973), the first evidence-based research-practitioner texts on the subject (Olweus, 1973, 1978, 1993), the design and development of a much-used questionnaire (the Olweus Bully Victim Questionnaire (1989), the design and implementation of the first large-scale (indeed, nationwide) anti-bullying programmes for

schools (Olweus, 1991, 1997, 2004; Olweus & Roland, 1983), characterised by awareness–raising and the training and resourcing of school personnel to act against bullying, which in itself was the first major application of the now almost-standard 'whole-school' approach to large-scale anti-bullying intervention (Smith, Pepler & Rigby, 2004), and has exerted a huge influence on researchers and practitioners world-wide, as well as undertaking numerous international collaborations (Smith et al,, 1999; Smith, Pepler & Rigby, 2004). Olweus himself has continued to develop and refine his models of intervention, correctly insisting on the prioritisation of evidence-based programmes (Olweus, 2003, 2004). Of course, alternative methods have been developed (Roland, 2000; Roland & Munthe, 1997), characterised by different models of training and intervention (Midthassel, Minton & O' Moore, 2009; Roland et al., 2010), but the fundamentals of whole-school emphasis, awareness-raising, behavioural management and outcome study evaluation methodologies evident in Olweus' first intervention programmes (Olweus & Roland, 1983) have remained, and become staples of the approach over the past three decades (Smith, 2003; Smith et al., 1999; Smith, Pepler & Rigby, 2004).

Olweus, therefore, stands like a Colossus at the entry of the field of anti-bullying, much as Sigmund Freud could be said to do so with the more general field of (at least, non-experimental) psychology. If only to ensure international / historical comparisons, researchers have made use of Olweus' ideas, methods and research instruments, often adapting them for local use or seeking to improve upon certain aspects (see Smith, 2003; Smith et al., 1999; and Smith, Pepler & Rigby, 2004, for reviews). The question arises, however, as to how much of the 'homage' that many in the area of anti-bullying seek to pay to Olweus is, theoretically-speaking, 'healthy', as regards the overall dynamism and the emergence and development of subsequent theoretical understanding in the field. Taking in mind the previous comparison, it is to be recalled that many of Sigmund Freud's adherents down the years have followed his methods down to the adoption and positioning of the of the

psychoanalyst's chair and analysand's couch, or *chaise-longue* – an arrange-
ment of furniture that Freud simply happened to have in his consulting room
(the pieces were a gift), and to which he himself, of course, attached no
therapeutic importance whatsoever (Gay, 1998)!

It could be argued that one of the negative results of conceptualising bullying
purely as a sub-category of aggressive behaviour, and approaching the pre-
vention and countering of bullying behaviour predominantly through the
techniques of awareness-raising and educational management, is that very
little in the way of new theoretical positions have emerged from what has
become an extensive multinational literature. Notable exceptions to this
point, of course, include the attempt to identify psychological characteristics
of those involved in bully / victim problems (Olweus, 1999, 2003), including
the greater propensity of those who bully to be proactively aggressive, and
those who are targeted to be reactively aggressive (Roland & Idsøe, 2001;
Salmivalli & Nieminen, 2002); Christina Salmivalli's fruitful 'participant
roles' approach in understanding the group dynamics of situations of bully-
ing behaviour (Salmivalli et al., 1996), which has been related to children's
sociometric status (Björkqvist & Österman, 1999; Salmivalli et al., 1997);
and the establishment of the link between poor student self-esteem and
involvement in bullying behaviour in schools (O' Moore & Kirkham, 2001).

Most seriously of all, though, the uncomfortable fact remains that the
evidence-based and earnest attempts to reduce bullying behaviour and
violence made by experts world-wide have at best been only partially
successful (see Smith et al., 1999; Smith, 2003; Smith, Pepler & Rigby,
2004, for reviews). What is missing, I would suggest, is a 'rooting out' of
what lies *immediately* behind school bullying behaviour, which is not reflect-
ed in the 'mere reference to non-integrated and conceptually distant psycho-
logical theory, prior to enumerating the results of yet another survey or
programme outcome report' pattern of so many research papers within the
field. It is also possible that the ambitions and implementation-orientated foci

of anti-bullying programme designers have produced strategies that are, to an extent, too generalist. Let us now examine, for purposes of comparison, where some recent studies of specific forms of bullying behaviour (homophobic and alterophobic) may lead.

Homophobic Bullying, Alterophobic Bullying and Prejudice

When the suffix *'-phobia'* is used in a psychological sense, it most often refers to an irrational and specific object-related anxiety. However, in the term '*homophobia*', the '-phobia' suffix is used to describe prejudice directed towards those of non-heterosexual orientation, as it refers to the irrational fear that underlies the prejudice: Blumenfeld & Raymond (1998) define homophobia as '….the fear of being labelled homosexual and the irrational fear, dislike or hatred of gay males and lesbians' (in Norman, Galvin & McNamara, 2006, p. 36). In turn, homophobic bullying is described as taking place when '….general bullying behaviour, such as verbal and physical abuse and intimidation, is accompanied by, or consists of the use of terms such as gay, lesbian, queer or lezzie by perpetrators' (Warwick et al, 1997; in Norman, Galvin & McNamara, 2006).

Elsewhere, I have found it helpful to render distinct heteronormative bullying (which may includes frequent use of homophobic language and epithets, and contributes to a general climate of discomfort for lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgendered (LGBT) individuals, whether their orientation is known to others or not) and sexual orientation-based bullying (attacks on persons known to have a non-heterosexual orientation), although there are, of course, considerable overlaps (Minton, et al. 2008).

The biggest empirical study of the relationship between sexual orientation and bullying to date was conducted in Norway (Roland & Auestad, 2009) - 3, 046 (1, 583 male, 1, 463 female) tenth-grade students (ca. 17 – 18 years of age) participated. 7.3 per cent of heterosexual boys, 23.8 per cent of bisexual boys, 48.0 per cent of homosexual boys, 5.7 per cent of heterosexual girls,

11.5 per cent of bisexual girls, and 17.7 per cent of homosexual girls reported having been bullied in the last two to three months. Furthermore, depression and anxiety were higher amongst bisexual and homosexual students than they were amongst heterosexual students, and higher amongst bullied students than amongst non-bullied students. Roland & Auestad (2009) concluded that their study had '….shown that bisexual and homosexual students, especially boys, are very strongly over-represented in both being bullied and bullying others' (p. 80; my own translation from the original Norwegian).

My own specific research interest in the subject of homophobic bullying began in 2005, when a man then unknown to me, but who has since become a valued colleague, Michael Barron of BeLonG To, a youth services provider to young LGBT ((lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgendered) people, asked me, as a so-called 'expert' in the field of school bullying behaviour, how common it was, statistically speaking, for young LGBT people to be bullied in Irish schools. At that point in time, I had no answer for him. In 2006, with the assistance of colleagues at the Anti-Bullying Research and Resource Centre, funding from the Irish Youth Foundation, and in partnership with BeLonG To, I conducted an exploratory survey of the experiences of homophobic bullying amongst 123 young LGBT people. We found that half of all the respondents had been bullied at school within the last three months (Minton et al., 2008); as the general population figure for post-primary aged people in Ireland is generally taken to be one-in-six (based on the nationwide study by Mona O' Moore et al., 2007), we concluded that one can consider the LGBT population to be 'at risk' in the school population, in terms of being bullied.

The term '*alterophobia*', which may be defined as 'prejudice directed towards members of alternative sub-cultures' (Minton, 2011), is a neologism seemingly modelled after the term 'homophobia'. It has no entry in the Oxford English Dictionary; a Google search of the Web on 'alterophobia' con-

ducted in March 2011 produced only 'about 4, 120 results' (compared with a search on 'homophobia', which produced 'about 2, 890, 000 results'), with many of the results relating to a single source, the 'Alterophobia Blogspot', or postings on general discussion sites relating to it. The blog records that its setting up was '....motivated by the death of Sophie Lancaster', a 20 year-old gap-year student who was beaten and kicked to death by a gang of drunken teenagers in a town park in Lancashire, England, in August, 2007. The attackers' murderous behaviour was apparently 'provoked' by the fact that Ms. Lancaster and her boyfriend (who was rendered comatose, but survived the attack) were dressed in the 'gothic' fashion (Butt, 2007; Minton, 2011). The Alterophobia Blogspot (2011) asserts that:

> 'Members of alternative subcultures [which the blog lists as including '....a wide range of groups, such as goths, punks, emos, skaters and fans of heavy metal] and those who listen to any type of alternative music, frequently face intolerance and even physical attacks all over the world....This intolerance is based on the way they look and that their musical and other inter-ests differ from the mainstream. Media distortion and inaccurate descriptions of subcultures usually intensi-fy and support this prejudice'.

In terms of empirical research in this area, with financial assistance from Trinity College Dublin's Arts and Social Sciences Benefactions Fund, I undertook a survey last year of 821 fifth-year students (males and females, aged ca. 16 – 17 years), at nine secondary schools in Ireland, who completed a short questionnaire concerning membership of sub-cultures and bullying behaviour. I found that self-identified members of sub-cultures reported having been bullied more frequently than did members of the general sample. The participants expressed that members of 'alternative' sub-cultures ('moshers / rockers', 'goths', and 'emos') were more likely to be

bullied, and that members of 'non-alternative' sub-cultures. On the basis of the results, I concluded that alterophobic bullying was indeed a reality in schools, and that members of 'alternative' sub-cultures may be considered to be 'at risk' of being bullied (Minton, 2011, submitted).

In terms of the current discussion, it is worth reflecting upon two of the most psychologically chilling aspects of the attack on Ms. Lancaster and her boy-friend. Firstly, after the attack, witnesses attested that the attackers boasted that they had 'done summat [something] good', saying that '....there's two moshers nearly dead up Bacup park - you wanna see them - they're a right mess' (Wainwright, 2008). Secondly, one of the two teenagers eventually sentenced to life imprisonment for Ms. Lancaster's murder, laughed and joked with his mother about what he had done during initial police interviews (Garnham, 2008). Hence, there is a suspicion that a contributory factor to such incidents may be the aggressors' tendencies to 'justify' their actions, to themselves and others, on the basis of the characteristics of their targets - in other words, to hold the target of an aggressive incident responsible for his or her being attacked. If those who aggress against others are convinced, and can convince others - no matter how twisted may be their 'reasoning' - that their behaviour is 'acceptable' and 'justifiable', then where is their motiva-tion to change? The question remains as to whether such 'reasoning' can be effectively challenged and changed by the general awareness raising, behavioural management strategies, school staff training and resource provision that constitute the bulk of the strategies that have been employed in school anti-bullying programmes to date.

Attention to specific areas of bullying behaviour, then, such as homophobic and alterophobic bullying has demonstrated that certain groups are more 'at risk' than others, and has therefore exposed the tacit assumption that seems to have been made by many designers of anti-bullying intervention programmes – that by taking a broad-scale sweep, a general approach that one is somehow serving and protecting everyone – as fallacious. Further-

more, such patterns of bullying behaviour and harassment clearly emerge from broader attitudes of individual and societal prejudice. Prejudicial attitudes, like all attitudes, have both 'internal' (affective / cognitive) and 'external' (behavioural) components (Maio & Haddock, 2009). Of course, some behavioural components of prejudicial attitudes can be and have been legislated against – discrimination in employment law and laws prohibiting incitement to hatred, for example. I would argue that a consideration of specific areas of bullying behaviour such as homophobic and alterophobic bullying shows that another clear behavioural manifestation of prejudicial attitudes, in school communities, is bullying behaviour, even though bullying has been treated more frequently by researchers in that field purely as a sub-category of aggressive behaviour. Aware that this post-Olweus conception of and approach towards bullying behaviour has led to the development of a somewhat atheoretical position within the field, and frustrated by this fact, I have argued elsewhere that alterophobic bullying (and indeed, other forms of bullying as well) could be understood with reference to the concept of 'pro-conformist aggression' (Minton, submitted). I have suggested that 'pro-conformist aggression':

> '....would seem to have an almost indeterminable recorded history. It is found in acts of war, invasion, conquest and imperialism; it takes its forms in colonization, forced labour, slavery, genocide, physical and cultural apartheid, feudalism, and many forms of discrimination, as well as acts of individual, group, collective and societal violence. It has parallels in ethnocentrism, as it is marked by the assumption that the invading or dominant force is the sole natural and legitimate culture, and that subjugated individuals or cultures will want to, or should want to, conform to the dominant culture. If conformity is not forthcoming, then it is to be enforced by the dominant culture

> by whatever means are necessary (which are generally
> perceived, at the time at least, as legitimate).'

Whether the position that I have outlined above, which is based on an attempted integration of Western and Eastern conceptions of bullying behaviour, an existential understanding of violence, a building on classic social psychological insights into prejudice and pro- and anti-social behaviour, an Eriksonian / neo-Piagetian view of adolescent thinking, and my own somewhat jaundiced views on world history (Minton, submitted), and which is tentatively offered at an admittedly embryonic stage of development, bears fruit or otherwise, is a matter that only the passage of time, and my own success or otherwise in developing and communicating this standpoint will reveal.

Conclusions

From the discussion above, I would assert that the general points remain that: (i) to date, anti-bullying intervention programmes have had only limited success; (ii) the approach that the majority of experts have taken to research-ing and intervening against bullying behaviour in schools has been locked within an atheoretical position for some time; (iii) this approach has been informed solely by the psychology of aggressive behaviour, rather than the psychology of prejudice; and, (iv) this contextual weakness may be exposed by a consideration of specific forms of bullying behaviour, such as homo-phobic and alterophobic bullying.

It is to be hoped that researchers in the field of anti-bullying will see my position, as I have outlined it here, as being constructively critical, rather than merely argumentative; that being said, I believe that these four points to be uncontestable. It is of course highly probable that better, and certainly better-developed, theoretical positions than my own notion of 'pro-conformist aggression' can and will be advanced. That is of little importance to me. My purpose in this paper was to demonstrate what I see to be the long -overdue need for anti-bullying researchers and practitioners to become

aware of, and to move beyond, the atheoretical position that has prevailed for some years in the field. Given the likely readership of this article, I would hope particularly that postgraduate researchers of aggressive behaviour would think through and develop their own coherent theoretical positions (a work which I consider myself to have *attempted* to *begin*). If we are eventually successful in this task, I believe that we *will* then have something of substance to say to the layman who asks us, 'Why do people bully?'

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EXPLORING THE SOCIALISATION OF NEWLY QUALIFIED PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN IRELAND:
A discussion of Methodology

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Abstract

There are many ways in which doctoral thesis/ dissertation can make an independent and original contribution to the body on knowledge in one's field. These could be a critical analysis and synthesis of the literature, quality of the argument about conceptual conclusions, the ways in which the researcher combines a variety of theoretical perspectives to investigate and create new understandings about contemporary issues. This paper takes as its focus to report on a recent PhD study completed in the School Education in the period from 2006 to 2010. While the summary of the study and research aims,   objectives and purposes are given, the intention of this paper is primarily to discuss the methodology including some methodological implications specific to research approaches, methods of data collection, instruments employed in previous studies and the selection of the case study as a research approach. It is hoped that presenting the rationale for chosen methodology by discussing various applications of conventional research instruments and approaches that could be adopted to investigate the topic will be of some benefit to those at near-completion stage of their doctoral studies. It is additionally hoped that it would encourage them to argue that bridging methodological 'gap' was also one of the numerous contributions of their doctoral theses.

Introduction: rationale, aims, objectives and research questions of the study

It has been argued and acknowledged within the educational community, that no professional programme can adequately prepare teachers for the

multiplicity of challenges which they will face in their individual careers (Jones 2003; Kagan 1992; Kyriacou 1993; Leahy 1996; Tickle 2000; Veenman 1984). Kellaghan (2002, p.53) has also highlighted that "no pre-service programme, no matter how good, can produce fully developed teachers that are equipped with all the knowledge and skills required even to start teaching, much less those that will carry them through their life careers". Instead it can be argued that teachers develop their professional competencies, as for example they further expand their teaching skills and knowledge acquired during their college years, largely as a result of gaining more teaching experience as they proceed with their career or, to a lesser extent, by way of participating in occasional in-career development programmes. Nevertheless, the adequacy of 'good' teaching of curriculum content and communication skills are usually expected of teachers at the very beginning of their first year of professional practice.

It is recognised that the first year of professional practice of teachers, also known as an induction year, has far reaching implications for their subsequent teaching career. The research undertaken, for example, in the USA (Algozzine et al. 2007; Chubbuck et al. 2001, Darling-Hammond, Chung and Frelow 2002; Gratch 2001; Gilbert 2005; Hebert and Worthy 2001; Kaufmann et al. 2002; Kuzmic 1994; Lortie 1975; Lundeen 2004; Marco and Pigge 1997; Smith and Ingrsoll 2004), the UK (Capel 1998; Gu and Day 2007; Hobson et al. 2007; Jones 2002; Lacey 1977; Oberski et al. 1999; Turner 1994), Belgium (Kelchtermans and Ballet, 2002), Norway (Postholm, 2008) Japan (San, 1999), Israel (Fresco, Kfir and Nasser 1997; Toren and Iliyan 2008), Canada (Schmidt and Knowles, 1995), Australia (Manuel 2003; Wilhelm, Dewhurst-Savellis and Parker 2000), New Zealand (Bell and Gilbert 1994) and Ireland (Horgan 2005; DES Inspectorate 2005, Killeavy 2006; Minogue 2004; Sugrue 2002) on the experiences of beginning teachers during their first years in professional practice does give some valuable insights into the challenges confronted by new teachers. Indeed, the literature on teacher retention, development and learning in the early years of the

profession also highlights that early attrition can be associated with a number of factors, such as professional experiences of teachers in schools, their attitude to pre-service education, their personal characteristics, field experiences of teacher preparation programmes and past schooling experiences.

The research reported in this paper was an empirical study which has its principal aim the exploration of the professional socialisation of primary school teachers in Ireland, with the specific emphasis on exploring the early professional experiences of primary teachers in their first teaching year. Drawing on a wide range of theoretical models within this study, teachers' professional socialisation was conceptualised as the process by which teachers acquire knowledge and skills associated with their profession and through which they become members of the occupation of teaching. As such, it can be argued that teacher professional socialisation in their first teaching year, in a broader sense then, reflects a process through which teachers become more competent in applying acquired knowledge and skills and reflect their assimilation into their working environments as well as the culture of the profession. In particular, three dimensions of teachers' professional socialisation were identified: technical, social and structural/cultural. This three-dimensional conceptual framework of teacher professional socialisation was adopted for this study to explore teachers' professional experiences within the areas of classroom teaching, relations with pupils, parents, colleagues, teachers' self-image and how they identified with their professional role.

The experiences of classroom teaching were investigated from the perspectives of the areas with which teachers found challenging to deal with. These included classroom management, planning, dealing with disruptive behaviour of pupils, motivation of pupils to learn, dealing with special educational needs of pupils to mention a few. Also, a small number of questions were asked about whether teachers found it difficult to communicate with colleagues, interact with parents or to work with other adults in their

classroom. Additionally, the study investigated whether teachers felt as part of their school communities, socialised with their colleagues, felt appreciated for their teaching in the school and were satisfied with their career choice. At the planning and development of research instruments stage, I assumed that teachers' perceptions on professional teacher role and their satisfaction with their career choice and future plans to remain in teaching would also be an integral part of teacher socialisation and generally would reflect socialisation into the culture of the profession. Moreover, I assumed that some aspects like commitment to stay in the same school after first year in teaching, understanding school procedures and rules, becoming familiar with the school environment, feeling of being part of the school community and fitting well with the school staff were expected to reflect structural and cultural dimensions of teacher socialisation.

More specifically the study explored the following research questions: i) What are the most frequent aspects of socialisation experiences encountered by teachers in their first year of teaching; ii) What are the effects of ITE on teachers' socialisation experiences in schools; iii) What are the similarities and differences in teachers' socialisation experiences across particular work settings and iv) What is the role of the different agencies in the socialisation experiences of teachers? From these four research questions, a small number of more specific research questions were developed which were investigated with two selected samples of primary teachers. In particular, the data was collected by means of a postal questionnaire First Years of Professional Practice, administered to 1635 former students of the B.Ed and H.Dip degree programmes of the University of Dublin, Trinity College; and 52 qualitative interviews, conducted in two phases with a sample of 26 newly qualified teachers in the first year of teaching. The literature review identified a lack of detailed research into early professional socialisation of newly qualified teachers in Ireland. Nevertheless, studies which have been conducted appear to have distinct limitations: they did not conduct a systematic inquiry into what happens to teachers as they progress with their first teaching year; fea-

tured limited samples and; were primarily focused on the merit and effectiveness of induction supports available to newly qualified teachers (eg. Fogarty 2004; Edge 1997; Killeavy and Murphy 2006; Leahy 1996; Minogue 2004).

In light of the research questions and cognisant of the theoretical and methodological approaches of previous research, a case study approach with mixed methods design was adopted. The sections below provide an argument for the appropriateness of the case study approach and give some examples on the research instruments used in previous studies. Within the frameworks generally used for the mixed methods studies, current study was carried out as a fully mixed research, as opposed to mono-method, or partially mixed method, which involved equal integration of qualitative and quantitative data collected from different samples when answering research questions and drawing conclusions (Johnson and Christensen, 2008).

Some methodological considerations of the studies on teacher socialisation

As there are a number of accepted approaches to conducting research into teacher socialisation, some considerations related to the standard strategies were kept in mind when deciding on the methods of data collection for this study. These were specifically related to various data and data analysis techniques. It can be argued that there are certain relative advantages and disadvantages arising from adopting either quantitative or qualitative methods. Among the studies carried out within quantitative methods of data collection we can identify both retrospective studies (Killeavy, 1998) where the data is collected over a period of time and cross-sectional studies (O'Siorain 1982; Purtado Feldens 1986; Fresco et al. 1997; Reid and Caudwell 1997; Drew 2006) where the data is gathered at one point in time. Most of the studies identified made extensive use of a questionnaire as a research tool to gather information to establish more general, rather than particularly specific information on teachers' experiences and to consider

group characteristics and tendencies within the studied samples. Employing a survey approach to teacher socialisation as a view of enquiry allows for the analysis of a large amount of data which is usually presented in a numerical form. If one is careful with this approach and not all too rigid in its interpretation, the results of such analysis can yield genuine insights and point the way to issues worthy of more in-depth, possibly qualitative, consideration. However, considering that teachers' experiences are individual, it is a less than ideal approach therefore to investigating teachers' strategies to deal with specific context-based situations as it is impossible to explore their emergence, formation, modification and evolution over time (Kuzmic, 1994). A much more detailed approach, usually requiring a greater sample with various stratifying variables as gender, age, socio-economic class to mention but a few, is needed if there is to be a satisfactory and meaningful analysis of the data. One should also note that this method is generally associated with very significant costs, both on materials (not to mention postage!) and in regard of the time involved in developing such a research tool.

Studies which employed qualitative methods are distinguished from the quantitative tradition by a number of particular characteristics. Some studies used only observation (Lacey 1977; Becker et al. 1977) as a methodology, whereas other involved a combination of methods such as observations and interviews (Kelchtermans and Ballet 2002; Marks et al. 2007). For instance Kuzmic's (1994) research involved observations and interviews, as well as including telephone interviews. As acknowledged by Creswell (2003), precaution should be taken especially when observations are carried out by one researcher as to be aware of possible researcher bias. While it was not possible to provide any generalisations applicable to all new teachers the study however provided an insight to everyday 'lived' experiences of the participant teacher. However, the advantage of this data collection type was primarily the firsthand experience of the researcher and the ability to explore the social contexts of the participant.

Another example of a qualitative study using only interviews is by Kelchtermans and Ballet (2002). This was a retrospective case study of 14 primary teachers in Belgium which aimed to explore the interactive process between the participants and the social context. The study adopted both a narrative-biographical and a micro-political perspective which are particularly beneficial when the understanding of the meanings which participants give to their experiences is sought. Reported accuracy of the findings was achieved by having a second researcher involved in the project. However, as it was a retrospective study which sought to elicit the 'memories' of the participants about their lived experiences. This does bring into question the reliability of teachers' reflections. The utilisation of this research method was particularly important as the intention was to gather historical information from the participants. However there are some studies within the qualitative tradition which employed only observation as a method of inquiry (Lacey 1977; Becker et al. 1977). Due to the methods employed the findings of these studies are only applicable to specific situational context and do not allow for any generalisations to be made.

To summarise, among the advantages of using the qualitative techniques in teacher socialisation research are the greater depth in exploration of beginning teachers' experiences and learning and may help to answer why some beginning teachers have certain problems within certain social contexts. Qualitative techniques are advantageous if used in a sensitive way in providing an insight to what social situations contribute to appearance of what problems and how teachers overcome those problems. Data presentation format within qualitative approach differs from that of quantitative studies, in particular in that it usually includes the presentation of the actual responses of participants. On the other hand, the utilisation of qualitative techniques requires of a researcher skilful interviewing and observational techniques. Interview data analysis usually involves a use of a 'grounded theory' which is associated with a complex analytical process requiring the ability to filter the information. The researchers however have

also to consider time-cost of using this tool of data collection.

Some of the studies with a mixed methods research design employed both survey and interview techniques. Interviews are usually carried out within the first phase of research and are used to inform the survey questions which is then distributed to a large number of participants. On the other hand, qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques can be used to explore a particular research problem in greater detail. While these methods are generally assumed to strengthen and allow the validity of the findings, they can also lead to divergent results. For instance Sturman and Taggart (2008) critically examined the results of a large scale study of ten thousand teachers in England undertaken in 2004. The study employed two different data collection procedures, a postal/online questionnaire and telephone interviews and aimed at exploring teachers' views on some aspects of education and teaching. The analysis carried out by Sturman and Taggart (2008) concluded that the study results obtained by two methods differed significantly. It further highlighted that while the divergence of the findings can be attributed to the differences in response scales of the same questions which were equally asked of a survey and interview participants, the differences between the two data sets might also be attributed to the ways in which participants answer the question asked through different means.

The variation in the quality and depth of data obtained by employing different methods is very considerable. Nevertheless, each of the different processes of data collection and analysis, if used appropriately, provides valuable insights into the various questions such as 'why's', 'how's' and 'when's' of the observed phenomena. Where the researcher is suitably skilled the most satisfactory situation is to blend various research methods and data collection techniques together. Another important point to mention is the size of the participant samples of the studies. While little generalisation from the studies with the sample sizes of three, five or even ten teacher are possible, an interesting insight into the phenomenon under investigation

can be obtained.

In light of the considerations outlined above I decided to use a large scale questionnaire to attempt to gather central tendency data and also to engage in semi-structured interviews to enrich this data with that of the experiences of what were designed to be typical embedded cases of lived teacher socialisation.

The case study
A single research approach, the case study with a mixed methods design, was adopted for this research. This approach also affected what methods were chosen to gather data and was bounded by the following: i) a theoretical boundary, derived from the research questions and the theoretical framework of teacher early socialisation that was adopted; ii) a temporal boundary defined by the timeframe of conducting literature review until 2009 and the data collection process in the period from October 2007 till May 2009; iii) a geographical boundary, that refers to the situation that the study participants were teaching and living in all parts of the Republic of Ireland and, iv) an institutional boundary defined by the setting which was both accessible and could provide appropriate data reasonably readily and quickly. Specifically, the cases were selected from teachers who obtained their teaching qualification from one of the three colleges of Education associated with Trinity College Dublin: Church of Ireland College of Education, Froebel College of Education and Coláiste Mhuire, Marino.

An 'embedded' design (Yin, 2009) was used in this case study, which meant that the data was derived from a number of cases or multiple elements. Collecting the information on the studied phenomenon using multiple data elements yielded much richer insights that could have been gained from any single constituent element of the case. Specifically, to build a more complex and fuller picture of the first year professional experiences of teachers the data were collected from i) former students qualified between 2001 and 2006

year period from both the B.Ed, who completed the fourth honours year, and H.Dip degree programmes offered by the University of Dublin, Trinity College (TCD) and, ii) 26 newly qualified teachers (NQTs) in their first year of teaching.

The decision to use a case study approach can be regarded as appropriate for a number of reasons. The intent of this study was to systematically explore the phenomenon of teacher socialisation about which little is known. Secondly, the aim of the study was not only to gain an insight into prevailing patterns of teachers' experiences and develop tentative generalisations, but also to develop an understanding about specific aspects of these experiences, as well as to capture the complexity of different school organisational and cultural contexts. Thirdly, I sought to study the 'real-world' setting to determine the factors which might be critical for teacher retention. Yin (1993) notes that the major rationale for using case study as a method is when the research aim is to explore the phenomenon and the context within which the phenomenon occurring. In this research the boundaries between context and teacher experiences were not clearly evident. For example, teacher classroom experiences and relations with colleagues and parents were explored within the context of i) teachers' satisfaction with their initial teacher education (ITE), ii) school culture of staff relations, iii) of school administrational and organisation culture and, iv) induction supports provided for teachers in their first year of teaching.

I was aware that the use of a case study approach could be particularly useful for obtaining findings in relation to teachers' local contexts and situations, such as in relation to teachers' employment particulars, teaching qualifications held, class sizes taught and the type of induction supports received to mention a few (Gerring 2007; Gomm, Hammersley and Foster 2004). As highlighted by De Vaus (2002, p. 231) the use of case studies is particularly appropriate when the intent is to "investigate phenomena where it is not possible to introduce interventions … or when we do not wish or are

unable to screen out the influence of 'external' variables but when we wish to examine their effect on the phenomenon we are investigating".

The research methods literature outlines some general suggestions on how to design and conduct descriptive, exploratory and explanatory case studies (Yin, 1993). Additionally, the case study is also referred to as a triangulated research strategy (Stake, 1995), which allows the application of a range of research tools. More specifically, triangulation in case studies can be done by using multiple sources of data and different methods of data collection were more appropriate for different elements in this case study (Yin, 1993). Triangulation, the use of multiple methodologies, was first described by Campbell and Fiske in 1959 and can be done with regard to method, data, investigator or theory (Denzin, 1978). Methodological triangulation was used in this study and involved combining two methods of data collection, a questionnaire and in-depth interviews. A concurrent triangulation strategy was used in an attempt to improve the validity of the results (Creswell, 1993). Jick (1979, p.602) stressed that methods triangulation is "largely a vehicle for cross-validation when two or more distinct methods are found to be congruent and yield comparable data". Therefore, it can be argued that mixing two methods, quantitative and qualitative, allowed for a greater depth and breadth of the analysis and to build a more complex and fuller picture of teachers' experiences.

It can additionally be argued that theoretical triangulation in this study was achieved by combining various theoretical perspectives on teacher socialisation. A small set of propositions, which were informed by the review of earlier research on teacher socialisation were developed to construct the research questions and guide the analysis. The use of different theoretical perspectives was necessitated by a certain degree of theoretical incoherence and the absence of a solidly grounded theory on teacher socialisation. For example, first, a sociological perspective was used to explore teacher interaction in groups, for example with their colleagues. Secondly, the elements of a

psychological perspective were included to explore for example, how teachers felt about their first teaching year and whether they felt they were appreciated by their colleagues and the principal for their teaching in schools. Additionally, the elements of an anthropological perspective were used to explore cultural settings of their schools environment and staff relations.

The emphasis was on the analytical generalisation rather than statistical generalisation (Yin, 1984). Therefore, the empirical results of this case study were compared with some propositions of earlier research about the process of learning to teach. For example, the stage theory of teacher concerns was one domain to which the study findings could be generalised. The question-naire findings can be statistically generalised to the cohort of TCD graduates between the years 2001-2006 from which the study sample was drawn. However, while some inferences could be made about the extent to which research findings of this study can be generalised analytically and statistical-ly, it can be suggested that the range of generalisation of the findings of case studies in general should be judged by the researchers and evaluators them-selves, who wish to compare results of this study with their own research.

Conclusion

This paper presented the aims, objectives and research questions of the recently completed PhD study. The discussion began with the outline of the research questions and presented some considerations in regard to data collection instruments employed in previous research. In addition, the approach best suited for the study was discussed. Indeed, the limitations of the adopted research approach and methods inevitably impact on the validity and reliability of the findings of this research, but as being argued in the sections above, the mixing of different methods and data triangulation can help to address this bias.

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DISABILITY ACCESS ROUTE TO EDUCATION:
Are we DARE yet?

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Abstract

This paper looks at the Disability Access Route to Education (DARE) and asks if the apparent success of this access initiative is well founded. It questions if DARE is overly dependent on a medical model of disability and simplistically equates the diagnosis of disability with a negative impact on education. Although DARE is based on well intended concepts such as access and inclusiveness, the vagueness of these terms, when combined with the complexity of disability and the deficit model of special education, means that the entry route is a means for opportunistic traditional students to increase their likelihood of attending higher education ahead of the intended target group. Using Bourdieu's concept of *habitus* as a guide, this paper identifies some of the features of the DARE scheme and discusses the systematic biases which it may unintentionally facilitate.

Introduction

DARE was established in 2009 as an alternative entry route to higher education for students with disabilities. Like its predecessor (the supplementary entry route for applicants with disabilities) DARE has played a role in increasing the number of students with disabilities attending higher education in Ireland. Along with mature students and students from socio economic disadvantaged backgrounds, students with disabilities are considered 'non traditional' students by Higher Education Institutes.

Figures from Ahead indicate the dramatic rise in students with disabilities attending higher education in recent years, from 900 in 1998 to over 4,000 in

2008. This represents a percentage increase from less than 1% in 1998 to over 4% in 2008 (Ahead, 2009). A new entrants survey of 09/10 students indicated that 6% of all undergraduate entrants nationally disclosed a disability (HEA, 2010a).

> The number of students with disabilities attending third level education in Ireland has risen dramatically in the last decade from 450 ten years ago to a current population of almost 5000 (Ahead, 2011).

As an access initiative, DARE was developed as a means of making it easier for applicants with disabilities to gain entry to higher education by reserving places on courses for students with disabilities who fall short of the entry points. The underlying assumption being that applicants with disabilities, who wanted to attend higher education, were less likely to do so due to poor supports and low aspirations.

> People with disabilities have, to date, been significantly under-represented in Irish higher-education for reasons to do with historic lack of supports for people with disabilities throughout the education system and low educational expectations. […] there has been a significant increase in the participation rates of such students in recent years, due in part to a higher level of diagnosis as well as the increased provision of vital learning supports, assistive technology and other necessary accommodation (HEA, 2008).

In 2010, 2,324 students applying through DARE disclosed a disability. The number who gained entry below the points on courses nationally was 385 (HEA, 2010b). This may not seem like a lot, but this is 385 who might otherwise not have been offered a place. About half this many were offered

places based on their CAO points and many students (out of 905 who were not eligible for DARE but who disclosed a disability) met the entry requirements for their course and were offered a place. This means that DARE not only directly benefits the 385 students who entered on reduced points offers, it also provides a 'ready made' intake of students with disabilities who have disclosed and provided documentation prior to registration. Administratively this allows HEIs time to meet students on a one to one basis and set up supports prior to courses starting.

On the face of it, DARE is a positive national admissions initiative which succeeds in increasing the admission rates of students with disabilities in higher education. It has moved beyond the ad hoc approaches to entry which previously operated within HEIs to become a more coherent and transparent system.

The benefits and scope of DARE
DARE allows admissions offices in 11 HEIs to offer places to students with disabilities below the required CAO points. DARE applicants provide evidence of their disability in one or more of 10 categories and are deemed eligible or ineligible based on a prescribed set of criteria. Eligible applicants, who have fallen short of the required CAO points for their top course choices, compete only among themselves for a reserved number of places. In courses with small numbers there may be only 1 such place. Courses with larger numbers could reserve up to 5% of its places to applicants with a disability. Frequently the reduction is only 10 to 15 points but reductions of up to 60 points are possible.

DARE is managed by an inter-institutional management group consisting of access and admissions staff from several HEIs and staff from the Irish Universities Association (IUA). The main communications and information source for DARE is shared with HEAR (Higher Access Education Route) an access route for students from socio-economic disadvantaged backgrounds on

the website www.accesscollege.ie

A personal statement

The DARE application form has three parts. The first part is completed by the applicant. Applicants are asked to indicate their disability, to list supports received in secondary school and those felt to be necessary in third level. Applicants must also complete a personal statement:

> …(W)which outlines from your perspective the impact
> of your disability on your education. This is an oppor-
> tunity for you to tell us about your experience of being
> in school and some of the challenges you encountered
> (DARE, 2010).

The personal statement is a space for the 'student voice' in the application system and a useful starting point in the needs assessment process, but the personal statement is also the only evidence that the student's disability (whether meeting the DARE criteria or not) has had an impact on their education. All the other parts of the application make this assumption, even the medical evidence, but only the individual applicant can state what the impact on their education has been. Until recently, failure to complete a personal statement made an application ineligible in some HEIs. But because students applied to several colleges via the CAO and different colleges varied in their assessment styles, inconsistencies within the system became increasingly difficult to manage and the personal statement lost its place as a criterion. However, this is not apparent in the DARE application and as a result, the CAO and DARE continue to acquire thousands of personal statements which serve no functional purpose in the application except to perpetuate the impression that DARE eligibility is based on the impact of disability on 'academic performance and participation at second level.' (DARE, 2010, p. 7).

An academic reference

The second part is an academic reference which must be completed by a teacher or guidance counsellor. It asks for details of any adverse impact on the applicant's academic performance as a result of disability. It also asks for details of what additional supports, equipment or state examination accommodations have been applied for and how effective these support were. The way this section is introduced and laid out implies that eligibility for DARE is based on the academic reference being completed. But this does not form any part of the criteria for eligibility.

Evidence of disability

The third part of the form requests evidence of disability. Applications are assessed against strict criteria for 11 different disability groups. Evidence form GPs are not accepted. Medical and educational psychology reports must come from recognised consultants or specialists. In the case of educational psychology reports these must be no more than 3 years old. DARE applications are assessed among the Disability Services of the participating HEIs with each service taking responsibility for a particular disability group.

The application guide and the form state that all three sections must be completed. In practice however, only the educational psychology reports and the medical documentation are assessed. Despite the fact that detailed criteria for eligibility is laid out explicitly in strictly medical or empirical terms, the introductory and guidance information makes explicit that 'impact on education' is the key factor. The reality is that the personal statements, or the 'student voice' and the academic reference are surplus to requirements. The 'social model' packaging of equality and inclusion are discarded when the 'medical model' document is obtained. Ironically, the inclusive feel of DARE is a distraction to the otherwise transparent fact that DARE operates at a paternal level, viewing disability from a medical perspective and responding with charitable initiatives. As observed by others in the field of disability and education, 'conceptions of disability continued to be

influenced by the medical model closely connected to a charity discourse.' (Shevlin et al 2004, p. 17).

Why level the playing field when you can move the goal posts?
The thrust of DARE is its attempt to correct assumed imbalances that exist for students with disabilities in the secondary education system. But are these assumptions valid? The concept of reasonable accommodation applies on the basis of striking a balance between the need, on one side, to provide supports and adjustments so that a person with a disability can participate and compete on terms that are as level as possible, without, on the other side, giving them an unfair advantage over others. An accommodation provided without this balance risks being unreasonable. By offering students with disabilities entry into 3rd level education on a reduced points basis DARE is disregarding the fact that accommodations were provided at 2nd level.

It is worth looking at this more closely. Applicants via DARE are informed that their eligibility for a reduced points offer is based on providing evidence that their disability has had an impact on their education. This rationale supports the inclusion of the personal statement and the academic reference. It implies that the medical evidence or educational psychology report is not enough on their own and implies that DARE wants to also hear the student viewpoint and consider the input of the school. The vast majority of DARE applicants provide the personal statements and the academic references which (in a truly inclusive world) would be sufficient to verify that not only does a disability exists but also that it has been reasonably accommodated with details of the appropriate supports included. From the point of view of the applicant, the school and the Education for Persons with Special Educational Needs (ESPEN) Act (2004), the playing field has already being levelled. Why then does DARE seek to ignore the evidence that the playing field has been levelled and move the goal posts at the time of making course offers? It is as if through DARE higher education is saying, 'it is not enough

to receive supports before and during the Leaving Certificate examination, you are still disadvantaged, have a place in college below the points requirement too.' Is DARE trying to achieve something else in addition to encouraging applicants with disabilities to disclose at application?

The vast majority of DARE applicants come from the same middle class background as other HEI students. To be more precise, it is applicants with dyslexia (or more precisely again, with educational psychology reports) who dominate the DARE statistics. Ignoring for the moment the fact that the criteria for what constitutes dyslexia under DARE are the most complex and arbitrary of all the criteria, applicants with dyslexia or specific learning difficulties (SLD's) so dominate the DARE system that applicants are commonly divided into two groups, SLD's and non SLDs! What has this got to do with the middle class? The vast majority of applicants with SLDs submit private educational psychology reports in their DARE applications which cost usually between 400 and 600 euro. The existence of hundreds of private educational psychology reports within the DARE process, therefore, neatly establish two facts; firstly, an 'evidence of disability' which meets the criteria and secondly, the reports verify that the applicant is certainly not disadvantaged in comparison to other potential and perhaps more deserving applicants to DARE who cannot afford to pay for reports privately.

In November 2010, The Irish Times published its Feeder Schools Special Education Report. Subtitled, 'Fee paying schools top list,' the report revealed yet again that 'only a handful of non-fee-paying schools make it into the top 20 and virtually all are Gaelscoileanna' (The Irish Times, 2010). These feeder schools not only supply universities students with strong academic ambitions, they also feed the supplementary admissions route with a high number of eligible applicants who, if they do not get the required points for their course, have a second chance through DARE.

This trend takes advantage of a system that was originally intended to target

not simply disabled students but students who have been educationally disadvantaged due to the impact of a disability. This is an important distinction. The Universities Act 1997 legally obliges universities to reserve 15% of undergraduate places to students from educationally disadvantaged groups. These groups include mature students, students with disabilities and students from socio-economic disadvantaged backgrounds. Students (or their parents) who cannot afford to pay privately for educational psychology reports, are clearly disadvantaged when competing for third level places. Financial resources are not the only factor. It takes considerable time and effort as well as a degree of literacy skill, administrative and technical know- how to read all the relevant documentation, contact the right people and get the correct forms completed and submitted on time. Applicants from families where both or either parent or older sibling has been to higher education before are at an advantage in this high pressured paper chase. The time line for DARE runs parallel with the Leaving Certificate schedule and the CAO. DARE is an additional task on top of all the pressures students and families are under at this time. Students who have had their education significantly impacted upon by a disability are clearly disadvantaged compared to students who have little or no educational impact because of a disability in this process. This is another unforeseen, yet unfortunate consequence of the scheme.

The integration of inclusiveness
The policy of inclusiveness has spread throughout Ireland like never before. The Government policy of widening participation in higher education for the benefit of the knowledge economy sees inclusiveness as the hook to catch as many life long learners as it can. The principle of life long learning has recently being aligned with its obvious logical consequence; an increased retirement age.

Since the mid to late 1990's the emergence and growth of access initiatives for higher education has developed by and with unprecedented economic growth. An ethos of openness, diversity and inclusiveness has permeated the

legislation, policy documents and procedures associated with higher education, disability and equality. One group to benefit from increased access initiatives in Higher Education are students with disabilities.

A recent report from the National Council for Special Education (NCSE, 2010) highlights the fact that having a disability does not equate to having a special educational need and having a special educational need does not equate to having a disability. Having overlooked this distinction DARE has allowed aspiring higher education applicants (and their parents) an opportunity to exploit their significant cultural and financial resources (or *habitus*) to increase the likelihood of gaining entry. Bourdieu introduced the term *habitus* to describe the means by which dominant classes within society reproduce themselves (Jenkins, 1992). The education system and universities in particular, it seems, are hot houses for the reproduction of middle classes *habitus*.

Has DARE scored an own goal?

By linking disability to special educational need for no other reason than the sake of expedient paper work, DARE rewards good administrative skills and ignores the actual impact of the disability on learning. Administratively, this represents a cost cutting trend of outsourcing to the customer where the final stage of product assembly is the Ikea flat pack (you can pay a professional to assemble these for you!). Ironically, DARE requires applicants with disabilities which impact significantly on their education to compete against other applicants who may not have a disability or a significant educational impact, in order to verify that they are educationally disadvantaged due to their disability. No doubt, for administrative and legal reasons, it is far easier to fall back on an empirical medical model for the basis of criteria of eligibility than to dare to attempt to assess the educational impact of disability on a fair and equitable basis.

The availability of funding on a per student basis may also have been a factor in disregarding educational impact. The effect has been to produce a bias in favour of two groups of people who would not otherwise be considered disadvantaged due to their disability; firstly, those who can assess and navigate the system to produce on time applications that meet the criteria, and secondly, those willing to pay privately for 'evidence' of a disability when previously there was no expression of special educational need or disability. In other words, those less disadvantaged, those who value higher education to the extent that they 'play' the system and take full advantage of it; in short, those with what Bordieu calls *habitus*.

In 2010, 54% of 2,386 disclosures of disability through DARE were from students claiming some level of a specific learning disability (SLD) (HEA, 2010a). As already stated, the majority of these had their educational psychology reports produced privately at a significant cost. Clearly, applicants and their families see this cost as an investment in education and as money well spent. In contrast, the National Educational Psychology Service (NEPS) target supports assessments for children in primary and secondary schools who are deemed to be at the 10th percentile or below in terms of full scale IQ scores. Naturally these students are less likely to be competing for places in higher education. The number of students disclosing an SLD and applying through DARE is relatively high in comparison to other disability groups. In fact, they are dominating the statistics in relation to places offered on a reduced points basis. There is growing concern over the means by which children in schools are diagnosed with disabilities and the assessment methods used, in particular, in relation to standardised psychometric testing, are being re-assessed in terms of a bio-psychosocial model (NCSE, 2010).

Instead of challenging the idea that disability causes educational disadvantage, DARE perpetuates stereotypical notions by putting disability and disadvantage together.

> DARE has been set up by a number of colleges and universities as evidence shows that disability can have a negative impact on how well a student does at school and whether they go on to college. (DARE, 2011)

The problem with this statement is that the evidence varies not just in relation to which disabilities impact most negatively on education but also the fact that for many individuals with the means to compete for higher education places and complete DARE applications, the existence of a disability (of whatever type) has little or no negative impact educationally. So the result is that the DARE scheme is a 2nd chance for applicants already several rungs up the habitus ladder. A response to this argument may be that such students will most likely receive merit offers anyway. But the counter response is that just because a disability has little negative impact educationally doesn't mean that the student is a higher achiever who will choose their course on a vocational basis. Unfortunately, but naturally and unsurprisingly, students apply through DARE are choosing their courses based on the expectation of a points reduction. This severely undermines the central rationale of the entire DARE scheme.

Educationally disadvantaged

To be educationally disadvantaged is a relatively new concept in Ireland. Previously, needless to say, disadvantage was the norm for the vast majority of the Irish population. The traditional higher education students of Ireland up until the mid 1970s were considered a privileged minority whose parents expected and could afford to invest their sons and daughters time in a university education.

The issue of access became prominent in the 1990's as Higher Education Institutions recognised that the entrants continued to be disproportionately represented from the 'middle classes' of the higher socio economic groups,

i.e. professionals, employers & managers, farmers and salaried employees (HEA, 2000), or by Dublin postal code district (HEA, 2006). This meant that while participation was increased dramatically from 1980 to 1998, a large proportion of the population were not accessing 3rd level education and therefore, as individuals they were limiting their personal horizons and career opportunities and collectively they were restricting growth in the knowledge economy.

By the 1990s the typical student was more likely to be an average school leaver of middle class background and by 2005 the very concept of a 'typical' student was becoming increasingly vague as the range of student backgrounds continued to diversify. In 2011, the student population is more diverse than ever. Although school leavers from the ever expanding middle classes still outnumber the combined numbers of mature students, students with disabilities and students from socio-economic disadvantaged areas; the admissions process is more equitable to the general population than ever before.

It is worth asking at this point why any potential applicant to higher education who is not a school leaver is considered to be from an 'educationally disadvantaged' group. There appears to be an assumption at work (the *habitus* of the middle classes perhaps) that higher education is akin to a developmental milestone that occurs most naturally following the completion of secondary education. This teleological view of higher education as an unquestionable good seems to be the only answer! Students are disadvantaged as competitors in a race for positions of power and high remuneration if they can't or don't take the standard shortest route. What other way would there be to view them?

What about the Others?
If the essence of inclusivity is in not leaving people out then DARE have questions to answer in relation to how it conceptualises inclusivity. Students

with physical or sensory disabilities continue to be under-represented in higher education and so far DARE has done little to change this pattern. There is a national target to double this participation rate by 2013 (HEA, 2008) but no clear plan as to how it can be achieved. Based on the figures in the table below, it is clear that students in these disability categories are not applying through DARE to start with. There are approximately 3.5 times more students with physical or sensory disabilities who do not disclose through the CAO than do.

Based on data from the National Disability Survey (2006) and reports from the NCSE (2009a&b), the total number of people in Ireland with a sensory or physical disability is 292,200. Of these, 1,189 are aged 18 (of school leaving age). A further 5,483 are aged 19 to 22 and are most likely to have left school but not yet old enough to apply to higher education as mature students. 72,115 are aged 23 to 54 and are potential mature applicants. The ratio of 1 to 57 is the number of school leavers to those aged 23 to 54. The average incidence per 1,000 of the population for either a sensory or physical disability ranges between 2.58 and 2.98. The incidence can be used as a baseline to predict the occurrence of these categories in CAO applications.

In 2010, 71,843 students applied to the CAO, the highest number to date. Of these, 2,324 students disclosed a disability on their CAO application through DARE. Using the incidence of disability figures from the Central Statistics Office report (2006) would predict applicants from those with physical or sensory disabilities of between 542 and 626. But the actual number was 168. Of these 119 met the criteria for DARE eligibility and 49 did not.

Predicted applicants via CAO (71,843) in 2010 based on incidence rates	Actual number of applicants
Blind or Visually impaired 112 to 168	36
Deaf or Hard of hearing 115 to 143	70
Physical disabilities 315	62
Total 542 to 626	168

Blind or visually impaired

50,600 people in Ireland are blind or visually impaired. 250 are aged 18, 1,000 aged 19 – 22 and 12,250 are aged 23 -54. For every school leaver who is blind or visually impaired there are 49 potential mature applicants aged 23 – 54. The incidence of blind or visual impairment in Irish population is 1.60 to 2.40 per 1,000. The incidence rate would predict that approximately 112 to 168 applications would come from blind or visually impaired. The actual number was 36. Of these 20 were eligible for DARE and 16 didn't meet the criteria. It is well documented that blind and visually impaired children are significantly educationally disadvantaged (NCSE, 2009a).

Deaf or hard of hearing

57,600 people in Ireland are deaf or hard of hearing. 212 are aged 18, 848 are aged 19 to 22 and 12,200 are aged 23 to 54. For every school leaver who is deaf or hard of hearing there are 57 potential mature applicants aged 23 to 54. The incidence of the deaf or hard of hearing in Irish population is 1.65 to 2.05 per 1,000 and this would predict that approximately 115 to143 applications would come from the deaf or hard of hearing. The actual number was 70. Of these 47 were eligible for DARE and 23 didn't meet the criteria. It is well documented that the deaf and hard of hearing are significantly educationally disadvantaged (NCSE, 2009b).

Physically disability

184,000 people in Ireland are physically disabled. 727 are aged 18, 3,635 are aged 19 to 22 and 47,665 are aged 23 to 54. For every school leaver who is physically disabled there are 65 potential mature applicants aged 23 to 54. The incidence of physical disability in the Irish population is approximately 4.5 per 1,000 (National Disability Survey, 2006) and this would predict that approximately 315 applications would come from the physically disabled. The actual number was 62. Of these 52 were eligible for DARE and 10 didn't meet the criteria. It is clear that school leavers in this group are significantly under-represented in 3rd level (CSO, 2006).

Conclusion

A review of DARE is required, not just of its functioning or the criteria used for eligibility but of its founding principles. As this paper has demonstrated, DARE benefits students with disabilities who are socially and educationally advantaged over students with disabilities who are not. It is ironic that the HEAR scheme for students from socio economic disadvantaged backgrounds operates from the same website as DARE and uses similar empirical criteria for eligibility. The deficit focus of both schemes means that disadvantaged applicants may miss out; not just because they are either poor, but not poor enough, or disabled, but not disabled enough; but also because they their disadvantage means they are less competitive when measured against their peers in studying the criteria, gathering the data together and completing applications.

DARE is a step in the right direction in that it positively discriminates in favour of students with a disability. It has been particularly successful, not just for the several hundred students who are offered higher education places below the points, but also as a high profile public demonstration of the access agenda and the policy of inclusiveness at work. However, the reliance on a medical model for the criteria of eligibility casts a serious doubt as to the continued viability of the scheme. Not only is the inclusive ethos moving beyond the strong link between disability and special educational need, but the paradox of a double helping of reasonable accommodations during secondary education and at admissions to higher education is not sustainable. If DARE is justified on the basis that inequality and disadvantage are still present in secondary school then this is cause for DARE resources to be redeployed at the senior cycle of secondary school. While there continues to be no clearly defined objective alternative to assessing educational disadvantage, students with and without disabilities who are better resourced in financial, social and cultural capital will continue to out-perform their less advantaged peers in making DARE applications and benefiting from reduced points offers.

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SMART SCHOOLS = SMART ECONOMY: INTELLIGENCE EQUATION OR TEXT-SPEAK POLICY

An examination of the influence of the concept of the knowledge economy on the framing of Irish Government policy for ICT in schools

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Abstract

This paper uses one recent significant document of State Educational policy in Ireland to explore the ideological underpinnings of a wider phenomenon known as the knowledge economy (and here also the smart economy). This paper situates Irish policy within the ideological milieu of the knowledge economy, drawing on a body of education research literature that shows how policy may be shaped by ideology. The knowledge economy is mapped in broad terms via its language to educational theorists such as Foucault and Althusser. From them we may trace its power (or knowledge-power) and its wide spread, such as via policy borrowing. Lastly the role of money and spending in knowledge economy policy making is examined and reasons offered why non-monetary solutions are not proffered by policy makers.

Introduction

This essay looks at Irish Government policy relating to ICT in schools through the lens of a policy document titled: *Smart Schools = Smart Economy*. The claims of this equation are clear: ICT use in schools will enhance the national economy. Behind its title's economy of words, is a long document speaking a particular policy language: that of the knowledge (and latterly smart) economy. How this language of the knowledge economy spreads, its global meaning and how it is used in an Irish context are examined here, including how through its use power relations may be etched or re-scored.

The state, manifested through various devolutions as Education, is one of these powers. Others are the multinational corporations who sell ICT products and services to schools. But to separate these groups like this is somehow to extricate the dancer from the dance, as it will be argued here that both are ultimately engaged in pursuing a particular common policy tack. Lastly, one alternative policy solution to ICT investment in Education, that of using free and open source software, is briefly discussed and reasons for current ignorance of this strategy posited.

Summary of the Report

The report - *Smart Schools = Smart Economy: Report of the ICT in Schools Joint Advisory Group to the Minister for Education and Science* - was published by the Irish Department of Education and Science, and launched by the Irish Taoiseach Brian Cowen, on November 16th 2009. The document bears the logos of the Department of Education and Science of the Irish Government, and also that of ICT Ireland which describes itself as, "the representative lobby group for the [Irish] high tech or knowledge sector" (ICT Ireland, 2010). A government press release states that the Tele-communications and Internet Federation; the Irish Software Association; the Department of Communications, Energy and Natural Resources; and the National Centre for Technology in Education (NCTE) were also involved (Department of Education and Skills, 2009). Another lobby group, IBEC (Irish Business and Employers Confederation) is not mentioned in this press release but four of its members are listed amongst the paper's authors in the document. The group was chaired by Paul Rellis of Microsoft and in all there are twenty authors named. Of these, six are from Government depart-ments and agencies, three from IBEC with the rest made up of representa-tives of the multinational ICT companies: IBM, Microsoft, Dell, Cisco, BT, Oracle, Hewlett Packard and Steljes (a comparatively smaller multinational focused on educational technology). Mentions of the consumer technology multinational Apple feature strongly in a document appendix, although no Apple representative is named as an author.

The stated premise of the piece is that schools are "key contributors to economic growth and national competitiveness" and that an increased use of ICT in teaching will provide "the skills and abilities necessary for a vibrant economy and inclusive society" (Rellis et al., 2009, p. 5). This latter point is elaborated to state that employment in future ICT industries, which are characteristic of the "smart" or "knowledge" economy, are "dependent on ICT literacy levels" and also that use of ICT in schools will later encourage people to choose scientific and engineering careers (Rellis et al., 2009, p. 14). To these ends the group makes recommendations for implementations in five areas:

1. A virtual learning environment (VLE) to allow sharing of digital educational resources
2. Teacher Professional Development comprising on-going training in ICT for teachers
3. A strategy of ICT planning and multi-annual budgeting for buying equipment and software for schools
4. Growing a pool of educational digital content
5. Enhanced broadband for schools

The broadband issue is one that can be said to have been parachuted into the document, insofar as its details were already known from prior policies and also as it comes largely under the department of Communications, Energy and Natural Resources, rather than that of Education and Science. Therefore we will not go into the details of this aspect of the policy here. Points two, three and four are interesting for the obvious direct correlation of these areas with the members of the group who authored the policy. For instance, we might expect Dell, whose core business is selling desktop computers, to be keenly interested in helping to write a procurement strategy for Irish schools for these products. Likewise Microsoft, whose software is included on the majority of Dell PCs, and Steljes who sell products such as interactive white-boards, would be expected to want to input here. The ostensible quid pro quo

for inviting these vested interests to input into the plan may be the fourth point - the digital content growth strategy (which also ties in with the training of teachers). Here the report recommends that the ICT industry shares its training resources with teachers and help in teachers' "continuing professional development". Appendix 2 lists training materials and resources that the ICT industry has already made available for free to schools. (Of course it should be noted that these companies will be helping educate people to use their own products.)

Education and Knowledge/Power

There are some obvious places then to look at where this document may exert or extend power. But before examining what the corporations have contributed it is worth looking also at where the State might be more directly at work through the Department of Education and Science and its arm of the National Centre for Technology in Education (NCTE). It is tempting to start with the ICT multinationals, at the corporate behemoths, however, as the philosopher Louis Althusser warns us: "[...] one Ideological State Apparatus certainly has the dominant role, although hardly anyone lends an ear to its music: it is so silent! This is the School" (Althusser, 1971). The school is "squeezed between the Family State Apparatus and the Educational State Apparatus" (Althusser, 1971). For Althusser the school and the educational system are so dangerous because they are so pervasive and because they hide in plain sight rather than proclaiming their power. Although representatives of multinational corporations feature prominently in this document we should not stop listening for other influences that are older, slower moving and more silent. After all, someone has invited the corporations in.

For Althusser, the veins through which power flows are "rituals". But these are abstract and he does not elaborate much as to where we can find them. Foucault has gained comparatively more currency with educational commentators of late, perhaps because he does allow us to trace in greater definition the rituals mentioned by Althusser. For Foucault the ultimate

ritual of education is the examination:

> The examination combines the techniques of a observing hierarchy and a normalising judgment [...] in all the mechanisms of discipline, the examination is highly ritualised. In it are combined the ceremony of power and the form of the experiment, the deployment of force and the establishment of truth. (Foucault & Sheridan, 1977, p. 184)

Returning to our document, the first place we can see this is in the call for "continuing professional development" of teachers. In one sense it does not matter whether the teachers are being educated to use the proprietary ICT products of the multinationals involved in authoring this policy or not. All that matters, from the point of view of the educational arm of the state, is that these teachers submit to testing. This is where Foucault tells us we should detect power extending itself:

> The normal is established as a principle of coercion in teaching with the establishment of the teacher training colleges (écoles normales) [...] like surveillance and with it normalisation becomes one of the great instruments of power of the classical age. (Foucault & Sheridan, 1977, p. 184)

At the time Foucault was writing the teacher training college had yet to extend itself into the entire working life of the teacher via a new limb of the state educational apparatus: *lifelong learning*. The school perhaps no longer exists in the Althusserian interstice between the Family State Apparatus and the Educational State Apparatus but we may rather be moving to a conflation comprising "home as classroom" and "workplace as school" (Handy, 1985, pp. 146-147). If, as Althusser contended, education is the most powerful

Ideological State Apparatus, it is no surprise that it will extend itself in this way and that in a policy ostensibly about education of children, the main extension of formal education is to that of teachers. Thus the report claims that "teacher professional development is fundamental to the successful integration of ICT in schools" (Rellis et al., 2009, p. 18) and to this end makes the recommendation to "formally recognise teachers reaching certain standards in ICT-related courses in consultation with the teaching council" and that "credit accumulation for completed NCTE qualifications in ICT studies be enhanced and expanded" (Rellis et al., 2009, p. 19).

What links Althusser and Foucault is that, broadly speaking, both hold that societal control is increasingly realised not through overt coercion but rather through pervasive ideologies which exist *within* societal and state institutions but are not necessarily professed or stated (indeed Althusser entreats us not to look for where ideology is proclaimed, but where it is denied). To examine ideology here we will start with its clearest manifestations, that is where it is more or less professed. As we look further we may see some of its less obvious pervasiveness.

Child Prodigy: Smart Economy, son of Knowledge
This title of the document mentions the "smart economy", however this particular phrase does not appear much in the body of the text itself. The related term "knowledge economy" does however. Trench (2009) has studied how "knowledge economy" and "knowledge society" became key phrases in policy discourse in Ireland in the decade or so preceding this document and also how "smart economy" began to emerge as a replacement (though also contemporaneous) term around 2008. (In examining the public reception of these terms Trench finds a colourful account in the grey literature: "the new 'Smart Economy' was none other, it turns out, than a vague amalgam of the old 'Knowledge Economy' bullshit that various quangos have been churning out for a decade" (O Connor cited in Trench, 2009, p. 17). These terms belong to an international educational policy discourse and Peters (2001)

gives a good overview of the history of the construction of "knowledge economy" in national educational policies.

That 'we have changed into a knowledge economy' has been long heralded (Drucker, 1969). Although the concept can be used in a variety of ways, knowledge economy is generally held to correlate with globalisation and with high-tech and science-based industries (particularly ICT). It may also mean new ways of working and living via ICTs and generally implies some shift away from primary (land-based) and secondary (manufacturing) economic activity. Powell and Snellman (2004) define the knowledge economy as "production and services based on knowledge-intensive activities that contribute to an accelerated pace of technical and scientific advance, as well as rapid obsolescence" whose key characteristic is "a greater reliance on intellectual capabilities than on physical inputs or natural resources" (Powell & Snellman, 2004, p. 1). It is instructive that they choose the patent as the artefact through which to attempt to gauge the effect and extent of the knowledge economy i.e. indicating that the building blocks of the knowledge economy are intellectual rather than physical.

Powell and Snellman claim a strong positive correlation between educational attainment and level of earnings in the knowledge economy, with third level qualifications conferring particular advantage in the workplace. There are also those who contend that this can be extended back to earlier schooling, and that the quality of primary and secondary education that a person receives can be linked to their eventual earnings as workers. Schweke (2004) for example, makes this case in a book, which, it is interesting to note, is titled *Smart Money: Education and Economic Development*. This is a strong theme of the purported rationale for *Smart Schools = Smart Economy*, although there seems some confusing conflation, or circularity, between schools driving the smart economy (in particular the ICT sector) and the ICT industry boosting ICT-use in schools. Another "driver" of the policy added here is the claim that use of ICT in schools will encourage pupils into

Science Technology and Mathematics (STEM) careers (it is not explicit whether this relates *solely* to the ICT sub-sector or not, but ICT is singled out).

Knowledge/smart economy policy-making may cast education in the service of economies and markets. This is explicit in the document: "...our education system must continue to be responsive and supportive of the economic life of this country" (Rellis et al., 2009, p. 5). Considine and Dukelow (2009) put this trend in Irish educational policy in an historical context against two forebears which they see as the previous influence of organised religion and the Irish language. In this they follow O Sullivan (2005) who identifies a "mercantilist paradigm" in Irish educational policy. Policy-wise he sees the mercantilist pardadigm to be a neo-liberal intertextual construct comprised of six separate but disentanglable sub-strands: the commercial, managerial, vocational, consumer and market texts . It's themes include "consumer rights, performance indicators, devolved budgets, private investment in education, enterprise, corporate linkages, new forms of school management, quality and efficiency". (O Sullivan, 2005, p. 177)

Smart Language = Smart Policy
O Sullivan describes how commercial, managerial, vocational, consumer and market sub-languages are distinct from each other, but also, how they permeate each other in something of a linguistic soup in Irish policy discourse from the 1990s on (O Sullivan, 2005, p. 156). In a related vein Peters talks about how the language of ICT business promotion has infused knowledge economy policy in education:

> This body of literature on communications and IT resists simple classification or characterisation, as contributions come from a wide range of disciplines, including electrical engineering, computing science, telematics, informatics and cybernetics. 'Soft' promo-

tional work by large multinational companies such as IBM and Microsoft - carried out in the name of business - have penetrated education like no previous media form. (Peters, 2001, p. 6)

However, it is worth pointing out here that commentators such as Peters and O Sullivan are mostly speaking about an *indirect* influence of industry on educational policies. *Smart Schools = Smart Economies* cannot be accused of allowing the language of "soft promotional work" of IBM and Microsoft to creep into it like a sinister mist. Rather, these people are actually the named authors.

The language in this document relates closely to those described by Peters, O Sullivan, Trench and others. Vocabularies of management; business; communications and IT; jostle with educational policy specialities such as "lifelong learning", "student-centred learning" etc. and sometimes in confusing or contradictory ways. The policy may be said to resist analysis or argument at times through its tautologies and paradoxes: the coherence of the text dissolving under close reading as footing for critique falls away. For instance, the report recommends skills that will be "essential for active, *social* and productive participation in the knowledge-based *social* and economic environment" (Rellis et al., 2009, p. 8) [emphasis added] (*tautology:* social participation in social environment); and that "A digital learning environment will support teachers to devise, manage and direct student centric learning activities ..." (Rellis et al., 2009, p. 8).

Similarly, terms with a particular aura from one field may be redeployed in another to achieve a particular effect. Thus *growth*, which has almost universally benign connotations in economic discourse, is deployed in this document to give instant impetus and rationale for proposed activities e.g. "Digital Content Growth", which is one of the five major recommendations. Similarly *smart* economies and *smart* schools themselves have a self-evident or inargu-

able quality (for who would want stupid schools?).

A document with an ambitious twenty authors might not be expected to read flawlessly, or even with a consistent style. Indeed, in a postscript to their appearance as its originators, is proclaimed the caveat: "The opinions expressed in this report belong to ICT Ireland and do not necessarily represent the views of any individual or organisation that participated in the work" (Rellis et al., 2009, 3). This legalistic idiom, presumably a familiarly to the industry-based authors of the document, is spatchcocked in beside a list proclaiming their authorship that is characteristic of an academic text, where traditionally writers are professionally defined by, and utterly responsible for, what they say in print. The disclaimer and the authorship, taken together, are nonsensical, a dissonant collision. Perhaps the disclaimer is there because these authors have no proxies to hide behind. This is in contrast to the Government Minister for Education, for there exists between him or her several proxy bodies which feature in this policy, such as the NCTE, the Teaching Council and the Departmental Inspectorate of Schools (to say nothing of the committee charged with the policy's implementation) through which responsibility may dissipate. In looking at how the policy is written in this way we may find evidence of where ideology is being fashioned into state apparatuses, precisely at the point where ideology is claimed to be absent. In the neo-liberal ideology the state is explicitly diminished and retracted, this follows from the knowledge economy ideology where the state is implicitly absent because the non-state industries of high technologies are key. And at the point where the state should be in retreat we find ""a 'rolling out' of state power, but in new, dispersed, forms". And a dispersal "that engages more agencies or agents into the field of state power, empowering them through its deregatrory mechanisms and subjecting them to processes of regulation, surveillance and evaluation" (Clarke & Newman, 1997). Although for Foucault, it is not the state *per se* that extends itself, but rather that state and non-state parts come to resemble each other in growth of a wider *governmentality* (Foucault, 2007). Foucault uses this term for a broader (and

older) conception of government that is not solely political but also encompasses general individual conduct in society.

Policy Borrowing

One further general aspect of knowledge economy policy is worth identifying in this document - that of *policy borrowing*. The appropriation of educational policies from other countries (usually a select peer set) may well be an inevitability of globalisation, but it is also a conscious strategy of neoliberalism according to Olssen and Peters (2005). It is not exclusive to "knowledge economy" governmental policy-making but is established in wider education research, generally within a broadly positivist tradition (Halpin & Troyna, 1995; Dale, 2005). Firstly, Ireland's position in various league tables is discussed, such as reference to Ireland's 19th place in a list of 25 European countries whose schools who are "ICT ready", with only 30% of Irish schools being so (Rellis et al., 2009, p. 12). This is based on the levels of ICT equipment and infrastructure in schools and the data is from both a 2006 European Commission study and work by the NCTE (Korte & Husing, 2006). In particular, student and/or classroom to computer ratios are divined to rate Ireland relative to European peers. In other measures, such as teacher confidence and competence in using various types of software, Irish teachers are said to outperform the European average. Findings from the 2006 PISA study show growth in use of computers in Irish schools that still left them behind their European peers, but of "greater concern" was that 30% of Irish school-goers were not using ICT in school at all, compared with a European average of 13% (OECD cited in Rellis et al., 2009, p. 13) . For teachers' usage and effectiveness of using ICT in schools there are two required factors the report states - professional development (i.e. training and education) and individual teacher motivation. This is claimed from studies conducted in Northern Ireland, the Netherlands and of course Finland (one of the most consistently highly rated countries for its schooling in international educational policy) (Rellis et al., 2009, p. 18). In making the case for investment in ICT in schools "Asian and Eastern European countries" are invoked

for their "national skills development programmes" through which they are "building a competitive advantage" (Rellis et al., 2009, p. 14). This is worrying because "emerging studies indicate a correlation between economic development and ICT penetration and integration in our education systems and society"(Rellis et al., 2009, p. 14).

We can divide these references to other countries into two categories. The first category is based on studies of ICT resources in schools in various countries and their effective usage by teachers. Measuring the *presence* of resources is relatively straight forward (broadband speed, number of computers etc.). Measuring their usage we can imagine could be a more problematic exercise; measuring their *effective* usage is definitely not trivial (for instance, in the Irish study referenced no impact on learning is claimed at all, though improvements in teaching are *self-reported* by teachers); but the next leap, of correlating national "economic development" with "ICT penetration and integration" into education systems, is if it were possible, a most impressive arch-positivist enterprise. Rather, the references to countries in this context fall into a second category that is not based on real research but a form of speculation about the future common to knowledge economy policy, which for Peters is evidenced by the "'language of futurology' - steeped in hyperbole and laced with prediction" (Peters, 2001, p. 12). This may be part of a form of "policy magic" even "witchcraft" (Ball, 1998) so called for the simplicity of the solutions proffered when compared to the complexity of their associated problems e.g. investment in ICT in schools = creation of economic success.

Without disputing the methodology behind these claims, or looking for the studies upon which they are supposedly based (which are not cited in the document itself, where only reference is made to a separate government report) we can still show their fallacy quite well. Fear that other countries have discovered special (but non-secret) developmental formulae and are deploying them to economic advantage in a global zero sum game, is a well

known tool to give legitimation to strategies of a domestic policy. For instance, Peters points to how the New Zealand government held up countries such as Australia, Finland, Ireland, Canada, Singapore, and the United States as knowledge economy models who were experiencing strong economic growth and from whom much could be learned (Peters, 2001,p. 12). Ireland was singled out for its particular accomplishments which were claimed to be based on:

- investing heavily in education, especially technical education
- correcting major imbalances in government finances and putting fiscal and monetary policies in order
- controlling excessive costs and keeping wage increases moderate
- opening up the economy and privatising many state-owned enterprises
- positioning Ireland as the 'hub' between Europe and the global marketplace (Ireland trades 153 per cent of its gross national product)
- enacting strong legislation designed to open up previously sheltered activities to competition in the interests of consumers
- creating incentives and stimulating the economy through lower taxation

(Frederick et al., 1999, p. 10)

Indeed Ireland's success had lead itself in one decade "from an ailing, virtually bankrupt economy into one of the most fastest growing, dynamic economies in the developed world" and a "model of fiscal restraint, tax reform, income moderation and labour market flexibility" (Frederick et al., 1999, p. 10). The irony is that only another decade later, at around the time of the *Smart Schools = Smart Economy* report, events were crystallising that would see Ireland reverse this position and face "virtual bankruptcy" once again. Indeed, the ruinous state of Ireland's economy is, at the time of writing, garnering greater international attention than its successes ever did

ten years earlier. Neither Ireland's economic success, nor its subsequent collapse, were predicted with any wide agreement which is a real problem for comparative education that dabbles in futures. The prescriptions of policy borrowers may turn out to be poison pills.

Spending Haves and Have-Nots

"If I have it I spend it, If I don't I wont" - Quote widely attributed to former Irish Finance Minister Charlie McCreevy of unknown exact origin.

The *managerial* discourse O Sullivan traces in Irish educational policy is evident in this document in one of its key recommendations: the proposed changes to schools' ICT procurement guidelines. And unsurprisingly so, as the authors whom we might expect to have keen interest at this point are indeed senior managers in long-established global private sector corporations. One of a manager's key prerogatives is to spend. Not as a consumer - that is not in an exercise of choices, freedoms both enabled by, and generative of, markets - but more simply as a functional hegemonic act. In this respect we might expect the report not just to recommend a procure-ment strategy favourable to the ICT industry authors, but one generally of procurement, one recognisable to a managerial class of the state and its agencies.

The *Smart Schools = Smart Economy* report makes several recommendations to the purchase of ICT equipment and software for schools. It proposes:

- Multi-year budgeting for ICT for schools (a move away from year-to-year spending)
- More centralised and "aggregated" purchasing under a "nationally pro-cured solution"
- More funding of ICT in schools from parents (incentivised via tax breaks)
- VAT reduction on equipment and content used for ICT in education

- Centralised and aggregated purchase of technical support for schools (a move away from arrangements made by individual schools)

An investigation by NCTE of new cheaper hardware options for the future, in parallel with an immediate purchase of current technology
For software: open source, proprietary and mixed solutions to be considered under the key criteria of "fitness for purpose" and "total cost of ownership"

It is obvious how most of these recommendations will benefit large sellers of ICT equipment, software and services. Although it is unclear how much of the recommendations were implemented, HP and Dell do feature amongst the preferred suppliers in the NCTE's May 2010 procurement guidelines and Microsoft software is standard across all preferred machines (NCTE, 2010). However, this document does in many respects follow national policy. For instance, "procurement aggregation" is a strategy of public procurement policy from 2005, issued by the National Public Procurement Policy Unit (NPPPU) which exists under the aegis of the Department of Finance (NPPPU, 2005). The NPPPU, which was established in 2002, describes its mission as to "develop public service procurement, policy and practice through a process of *procurement management reform*" (NPPPU, 2005, p. 2). The emphasis here is from the original text and highlights the extension of managerialism, under the banner of an axiomatic doctrine of reform, in state policy. Thus the authors of the *Smart Schools* report are merely repeating back the language of government policy in their contention that "multi-annual budgeting is a necessary change in management approach" (Rellis et al., 2009, p. 32). If we go back further we can trace the establishment of a body called the Forum on Public Procurement (FPP) as an attempt by those involved in public sector procurement to self-organise around their profession (or in Foucaultian terms to self-regulate). The FPP describe themselves as a "voluntary organisation" which aims to "identify, develop and promote best practices and thereby enable buyers and suppliers participate effectively in the public procurement market on the island of Ireland" (FPP, 1996). This

is then echoed back in subsequent government policy, at local level, where the aim is stated that "the attainment of professional procurement qualifications among key procurement practitioners in the sector will be promoted, facilitated and encouraged" and that this will be achieved by link-ups with third level education institutes and "professional procurement bodies" such as the FPP (CCMA, 2003). Thus, following a series of *interpellations*, procurement managerialism culminates in an act of investiture - a bowing to the state test.

Managerialism may be "a generic activity [...] technically and socially superior to other previous forms of social practice" (Deem et al., 2007, p. 102). The ICT industry and the NCTE on the one side, and the more amorphous public procurement policy makers on the other, may be engaging in what Foucault terms an "agonism", a relationship "reciprocal in citation and struggle" (Foucault, 1982, p. 790). What is clear is that buying is key. "Discretionary wealth" is for Enteman the most definable aspect of managerlaism (for after all "an organisation without any management may lack the ability to participate in transactions") (Enteman, 1993, p. 162) and so the ability to spend is one of the central assumptions of the document.

The prospect of diminished budgets and gloomy financial outlooks are broached in the document. In spite of this the report recommends that a purchasing strategy be put in place for top of the range laptop computers, and advice from the National Competitiveness Council that newer, leaner and cheaper classes of devices such as netbooks might be perfectly suitable, is dismissed as suspect. Instead, the report calls for immediate purchase of "proven" technology, whilst separately investigating newer technologies for their fitness for purpose. Devices like netbooks are cheaper for several reasons such as falling hardware costs but also because of a significant increase in the diversity of the software ecosystem, particularly in operating systems, that run on new smaller classes of computing devices. That a netbook running Ubuntu Linux and Open Office costs considerably less

than the same machine running Microsoft Windows and Microsoft Office, is unlikely to have escaped Paul Rellis, Microsoft Ireland managing director and chair of the group charged with this report.

The report's recommendations acknowledge a "mixed software environment" in use in schools but the recommendations on software quickly descend into a defensive rebuttal of free and open source software:

> It is important to note that even though a free product may seem at face value an attractive proposition, software licence costs are only one aspect of the total cost of ownership of any ICT solution. For a valid comparison to be made, extrinsic factors, including hardware, software, training, support, transition costs and exit costs etc, and intrinsic factors (accessibility / usability / language support / collaboration) must be fully considered and evaluated in the procurement decision. (Rellis et al., 2009, p. 35).

Nowhere are the report's recommendations more defensive. For nothing is to be more distrusted than something that is free. Open source, means the source code of a piece of software is freely available to view, copy and modify (which makes the software itself free). Those who develop the software are often doing unpaid work. These aspects of open source software do not fit easily into the basic neo-liberal model of economies enabled by markets, and of related social structures defined by paid work. The notion of procurement and its profession comes into question. Open source software is particularly heinous because it may not involve any purchase at all. This is not just a fundamental problem for the ICT industry but also to the a managerial class generally including here that of the state.

Open source has started to feature in policy. The UK government recommends equal consideration of open source options in ICT procurement for

instance, while others have gone much further to mandate its use or sponsor particular open source initiatives directly (UK Cabinet Office, 2010). There may be arguments to consider a particular class of "societal infrastructure software" which has not only technical and functional requirements but also an onus to put knowledge into the public domain via open source licensing (Bricklin, 2004). Nonetheless open source and free software are making only slow progress in public policy, and indeed they may never fit into the main-stream. In something of a paradox open source cannot be easily accommo-dated into the knowledge economy because it makes knowledge freely avail-able. Powell and Snellman's quantification of the knowledge economy is via patents; their analysis omits any intellectual artefacts that are gifted.

Conclusion

The call to consider the "total cost of ownership" of open source software is an attempt to co-opt something that may be free into the standard economic model. Everything must be paid for. And everyone must pay: the report recommends that parents become involved in buying ICT for schools. This will be incentivised by tax breaks, so the state will still bear at least some of the cost. Who bears the cost is almost irrelevant (unless you are a cash-strapped parent of course!) but what is important is that everyone takes a hand in the procurement enterprise. Parents, state and industry are all part of a professional, managerial complex that becomes ever more self-similar.

If something cannot be bought and sold there is an implication that it does not exist; if something cannot be procured then state agents, companies and schools cannot function. To finish, an anecdote from my recent experience may illustrate this conundrum. As part of an assignment, undergraduate students were charged with contributing to and improving a Wikipedia arti-cle by editing it themselves. The article was about on an economic theory known as Porter's Five Forces model which describes ways competition oc-curs in markets. In particular it details how technological innovation may disrupt existing business models. A further part of their assignment involved

writing an essay on how Wikipedia may have disrupted the encyclopaedia market and apply Porter's model to explain this process. The idea was that as students edited their own Wikipedia article they might reflect on the   fragility of the traditional business model for paid encyclopaedias.

No sooner had students begun, than the Irish government announced that as part of its "smart schools" initiative it was to spend €450,000 on licenses for the Encyclopaedia Britannica and World Book for use in Irish schools. By way of contrast, copies of Wikipedia for offline viewing are often produced for developing world countries for free. Without opening a Pandora's box of issues surrounding Wikipedia and education (which often centre around legitimacy of knowledge arbiters) it is reasonable to class the purchase of these encyclopaedias for Irish schools as simple hegemonic acts, as reassuring evidence that the rituals of procurement are not ceasing and that through such incantations smart economies will blossom.

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LANGUAGE THRESHOLD HYPOTHESIS AND TRANSFER IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE READING

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Abstract

This paper presents a brief review of the literature on the notions of transfer of reading ability from first language to second language and threshold hypothesis. Although there is evidence showing that transfer is possible and threshold hypothesis exists, it is still not clear when and how learners reach to the threshold level and which reading abilities are transferable to the second language and which are not. There are contradictory claims to the notion of transfer which suggests doubts towards the issues of transfer and language threshold hypothesis.

Introduction

This paper is a review of the threshold hypothesis and transfer of reading skills from First Language (L1) to Foreign Language (L2). Theories about reading in a foreign language are based on the theoretical principals of L1 reading. Although the same theories are used to understand both L1 and L2 reading, there are factors that influence L2 reading processes which are not found in L1 reading. Thus, L2 reading differs from L1 reading for a number of reasons. According to Grabe (1991, pp. 386-9) and Koda (1994), L2 reading has the following unique aspects:

a) L2 readers have prior reading experience,

b) L2 readers develop their reading ability before they have an adequate oral proficiency in the target language, and

c) L2 reading is cross-linguistic.

Grabe and Stoller (2002, p. 40) further outlined fourteen ways in which L2
reading differ from L1 reading. These differences are summarized as:
a) linguistic and processing differences,
b) individual and experiential differences, and
c) socio-cultural and institutional differences.

Grabe (2009) suggests that "reading is understood as a complex combination
of processes" and he lists them:
1) a rapid process,
2) an efficient process,
3) a comprehending process,
4) an interactive process,
5) a strategic process,
6) a flexible process,
7) a purposeful process,
8) an evaluative process,
9) a learning process,
10) a linguistic process (p. 14).

As briefly noted above reading involves various layers of processes and the-
se processes occur simultaneously in a proficient readers' mind. Dividing
simultaneously occurring processes into its parts is useful in understanding
and teaching reading. Foreign language learners are slow in using these
processes, depending on proficiency level and task difficulty. Transfer of L1
reading abilities do not transfer to L2, unless the learner reaches to the
threshold level.

Transfer is a larger issue than the threshold hypothesis. The claim made in
relation to transfer is that language learners can use their L1 knowledge and
experience to carry out L2 tasks. Transfer can occur in relation to various
knowledge bases and cognitive abilities such as phonological knowledge,
topical knowledge, background knowledge, problem solving strategies,

inference and prior experience (Grabe and Stoller, 2002, p. 52). Language threshold hypothesis is a natural extension of transfer. Language threshold hypothesis states that in order for the transfer to occur L2 readers need to know enough L2 knowledge, such as vocabulary and structure. Once they have accumulated enough L2 knowledge they become able to transfer their L1 reading abilities to L2 reading tasks.

Although transfer and threshold hypothesis present a very useful view point these are abstract notions and it is not an easy task to track a person's learning process to verify their claims. The next section presents these issues in more detail.

Language Threshold Hypothesis and Transfer
In this section, the complex nature of foreign language reading is explained together with transfer and language threshold hypothesis. Transfer and language threshold hypothesis are unique to L2 topic, because they are related to how L1 interacts with L2.

L2 learners generally have prior reading experience in their native languages when they start learning to read in the target language. Thus, L2 learners have the experience of using some cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies in tackling reading problems when reading in their L1. Moreover, as L2 readers are normally older than L1 readers when they begin reading instruction, L2 readers bring with them greater world knowledge than do beginning L1 readers. As Grabe (1991) noted, "they [L2 readers] have a well-developed conceptual sense of the world; they have considerably more factual knowledge about the world; and they can make elaborate logical inferences from the text" (pp. 386-7). Therefore, prior reading experience in readers' native language, benefits L2 readers by taking advantage of well-structured schemata and sophisticated strategies such as prediction and inference to foster comprehension during L2 reading. However, vocabulary and syntactic knowledge, at a very basic level, are critical to reading. This is well exemplified by Grabe (1991, p. 380), " [o]ne needs only to pick up a news-

paper in an unknown language to verify that background knowledge and predicting are severely constrained by the need to know vocabulary and structure". Although L2 readers have greater world knowledge and L1 reading strategies than beginning L1 readers have, L2 readers have a comparatively limited linguistic competence. Normally, L1 learners first acquire a large oral vocabulary as well as grammar before they begin to read. In addition, learners in L1 are constantly exposed to written language, so they develop visual memories for symbols before they read. Thus, they form a strong association between the oral and written forms of their first language (Ferreiro, 1986). On the contrary, L2 learners learn the target language mostly in the classroom setting and they are mainly taught all four skills together with vocabulary and grammar instruction. Therefore, when they are first introduced with a reading text, they are not equipped with as much oral vocabulary and grammar knowledge as are L1 readers. As a result, L2 learners' limited vocabulary and grammar knowledge become obstacles in reading comprehension. What is more, L2 readers have at least two languages at their disposal and they are influenced by language processing differences between L1 and L2. For example, cross-linguistic studies show that different orthographic systems require distinct processing procedures (Koda, 1996, p. 454).

Interference from the reader's native language system might be due to typological differences, such as orthographic or lexical,   between L1 and L2. Orthographic differences might result from different writing systems, representational units, (logographic, syllabic, or alphabetic) or orthographic structures, orthographic depth, (regular or irregular grapheme-phoneme correspondence) (op. cit.: 453). For example, Turkish uses a regular grapheme-phoneme correspondence, which means that each letter in the alphabet represents a sound. However, when beginning Turkish learners of English read, they tend to read every letter, sometimes using Turkish phonological sound system. Similarly, linguistic differences in syntactic levels could cause difficulties for L2 readers. For instance, word order variation could cause reading comprehension problems for Turkish readers of English if they have not yet developed a good sense of English grammar.

Clarke (1979) first introduced the concept of a threshold level in L2 language competence for L1 reading ability to transfer to L2 reading. According to Clarke (1979), reading ability in L1 alone is not sufficient in accounting for reading performance in L2. A certain degree of language competence in the target language should be taken into consideration. In Clarke's (1980) study, the difference between the performances of skilled and less-skilled L1 readers' diminished when they were confronted with more difficult reading task. In other words, although skilled L1 readers performed much better compared to less-skilled L1 readers in a relatively simple L2 reading activity, when the difficulty level was increased, performance of the skilled L1 readers decreased considerably. This study showed that skilled L1 readers were able to transfer their skills into L2 reading task when they were presented with simple reading tasks. However, when they were confronted with challenging reading activities, they had limited control over the L2 which prevented them from transferring L1 reading skills to L2 reading tasks. Thus, unless a certain level of L2 competence is attained, the reader would not be able to make full use of their effective reading skills in L1.

The issue of transferring L1 reading abilities to L2 is referred to as linguistic interdependence hypothesis and assumes that reading in a foreign language does not require learning new skill but transference of old skills. Those who fail to read adequately in a foreign language either do not possess skills in L1 reading or have failed to transfer them into L2 reading. According to this claim, reading in a foreign language is a reading problem rather than a language problem (Alderson 1984, p. 2). Here 'language problem' refers to a weakness in the knowledge and skills required for processing L2 linguistic properties such as orthographic, phonological, lexical, syntactic, and discourse knowledge specific to L2; whereas 'reading problem' refers to a weakness in what are called higher-level mental operations such as predicting, analyzing, synthesizing, making inferences, and retrieving relevant background knowledge, which are assumed to operate universally across

languages. The reading universals hypothesis which was put forward by Goodman (1973 cited in Jung, 2009) suggests that "the reading process will be much the same for all languages" (Goodman, 1971). However, there were contradictory views suggesting that poor foreign language reading is due to imperfect knowledge of L2 and to native language interference. Cummins (1979) interestingly claimed that threshold in L2 linguistic competence existed in order for the benefits of bilingualism to appear. As Cummins (1979) stated, "[t]he implication of the threshold hypothesis is that pupils who have attained the threshold may perform very differently on cognitive and academic tasks from pupils who have failed to attain the threshold" (p. 26). According to this claim, the threshold level may play a significant role in differentiating bilinguals from others who speak a foreign language.

After a critique on the previous claims on foreign language reading, Alderson (1984) formulated the threshold hypothesis:

> Poor foreign language reading is due to reading strategies in the first language not being employed in the foreign language, due to inadequate knowledge of the foreign language. Good first-language readers will read well in the foreign language once they have passed a threshold of foreign language ability (p.4).

This hypothesis suggests that a threshold level of L2 must be crossed before L1 reading ability can transfer to L2 reading. This hypothesis has been subject to empirical studies, and it was found that L2 proficiency has had a greater predictive power of L2 reading ability then L1 reading ability (Carrell, 1991; Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995). In other words, L2 proficiency is much more important than L1 reading ability in order to read and understand texts in L2. For example, Bernhardt and Kamil's (1995) study asserted that L2 reading is "not merely an impoverished version of L1 read-

ing" (p.31), but requires unique L2 Knowledge such as L2 lexical and grammatical flexibility.

Alderson (2000) broadly reviewed L1 reading verses L2 language knowledge and proposed that L2 knowledge is more important that L1 reading ability, and that a language threshold exists that must be crossed before L1 reading ability can transfer to an L2 reading context. No matter how proficient they are at reading in their native language, language learners will not be able to read as well in their foreign language if a threshold level of competence in the foreign language is not reached. However, it is worth noting that this language threshold is not absolute but must vary with tasks; the more difficult the task, the higher threshold level of L2 language competence the reader requires (Alderson, 1984; Clarke, 1979, 1980; Cummins, 1979). The threshold level is also influenced by the reader's cognitive development; that is, his or her existing background knowledge. Alderson (2000) stated that although teachers may assume that poor reading in L1 is the cause of poor reading in L2, research proves this assumption wrong. The assumption was that if learners have good L1 reading ability they can simply transfer their L1 reading abilities to L2.

However, according to Alderson (2000) there is a language threshold beyond which learners need to reach in order to be able to transfer their L1 reading abilities to L2. This means that, learners need to reach to a certain level of language knowledge, after which they would be able to use their reading knowledge that they have in L1 when reading in L2 as well. Therefore, "evidence is that, in second-language reading, knowledge of the second language is a more important factor than first-language reading abilities" (Alderson, 2000, p. 23). Cummins (1979, 1991) states that bilingual children used the same knowledge base when they performed school reading in both languages. This suggested that once knowledge is acquired in L1 it is available for the subsequent languages, which in turn showed that instruction in reading knowledge is not required. However, "evidence shows that in

practice transfer occurs from minority language to majority language…
Thus, if one wishes minority language pupils to learn to read in both the
majority and minority languages, instruction should be given in the minority
language, not the majority language" (Alderson, 2000, p.24). However, this
notion of Alderson does not necessarily apply to context where learners learn
a language as a foreign language where there is not any minority language.
Using the notion of minority language as an analogy to foreign languages
would cause a big controversy.

Alderson's (2000) notion of the threshold hypothesis which claims that there
is a line over which skills can be transferred to L2 contradicts what
Anderson (2010) suggests on the transfer of skills. He states that skills either
similar or different often fail to transfer or they do not transfer at all (p. 265).
The typological differences, as mentioned earlier, between L1 and L2 seem
to affect the threshold level of L2 proficiency. In van Gelderen et al.'s (2004
cited in Jung, 2009) study on Dutch (L1) learners of English (L2), L1
reading ability had a stronger influence on L2 reading comprehension then
did L2 proficiency. However, this might have been because of the typologi-
cal similarity between the languages which could have lowered the threshold
of L2 proficiency and made the transfer of L1 reading ability easier. In a
similar study conducted by Carrell (1991) on Spanish (L1) learners of
English (L2), the role of L1 reading ability was strong for L2 English read-
ing. However, Bossers' (1992 cited in Jung 2009) study showed that the role
of L1 reading ability was weak for Turkish (L1) readers of English (L2).
These contradictory results show that L2 readers' L1 should be taken into
consideration. The results indicate that if the two languages are typologically
close, L1 reading ability may be transferred more easily, because the thresh-
old level of L2 proficiency is lowered for the transfer of L1 reading ability.

Discussion
Research findings have shown that L2 proficiency in L2 reading plays a key
role. However, the concept of threshold is still in need for clarification. The

threshold hypothesis implies that L1 reading ability will automatically transfer to L2 when learners reach to the threshold. However, such a sudden transfer has not been proved by the previous research. Van Gelderen et al's (2004 cited in Jung 2009) study showed that L1 reading abilities transfer to L2 gradually as learners' L2 proficiency develop. Moreover, the existence of threshold level depends on the typological distance between L1 and L2 as well as the linguistic and cognitive complexity of the task. Thus, threshold hypothesis is not absolute and context-independent. It is rather flexible and context-dependent, the threshold changes depending on the interaction between L1 and L2 as well as the reading task.

Even when L1 reading abilities transfer to L2 reading tasks, they may not always support the reading performance. Transfer is sometimes a cause of interference which presents an obstacle for the L2 reader. Transfer is a general issue of Educational Psychology which is usually seen as problematic. "[S]kill learning in one context is difficult to transfer immediately to new context and situations" and Anderson (2010) further states that skills either similar or different often fail to transfer or they do not transfer at all (p. 265). Thus although the notion of transfer is promising, it is still vague.

Conclusion

This paper focussed on transfer and language threshold in foreign language reading. It is clear that L2 knowledge is a strong predictor of L2 reading ability, however, there are contradictory results about the role of L1 reading ability and whether it is possible to transfer L1 reading ability to L2. Although, there is research showing that transfer is possible at high levels of L2 proficiency, this depends on what the L1 is. While transfer is possible in some languages, it is not in others. One of the problems with the notion on threshold hypothesis is that it is somewhat vague. More research is needed in this area to be more precise about what it takes to reach to the threshold level.

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WANTED: ETHICAL LEADERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS FOR THE HOLISTIC DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENTS

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Abstract:
There seems to be a gap between the existing norms of schooling and the prevailing societal pressures that give way to the ethical dilemmas faced by secondary school principals. This is a conceptual paper that explores the role of the secondary school principal as an ethical leader by looking at various studies carried out by different researchers, and will try to determine what expectations young pupils have of the school. It further looks at the relationship between ethical leadership and the holistic development of the students.

Introduction:
With increasing importance being placed on academic performance and achievement it seems difficult, if not impossible, to enhance students' holistic development while focusing on their intellectual, social, emotional, physical and spiritual development. In order for such complete development to take place it is important that there are teachers who fully understand these basic needs of the students and, in order to develop and retain such teachers, it is important to have a congenial atmosphere in the school that would allow such positive growth both for the teachers and students. Cohen (2007) suggests that such an atmosphere would allow for school safety, a positive environment, and successful teaching and learning. However, Haynes, Emmons, and Ben-Avie (1997) define the essence of school climate or atmosphere as 'the quality and consistency of interpersonal interaction within the school community that influences children's cognitive, social, and psychological development' (p 322). Such interaction may only be possible if the principal of the school develops a system where there is freedom to

explore and experiment, both individually and in groups.

Study Objectives:

Throughout this paper I try to highlight the meaning of ethical leadership, the role taken by secondary school principals and their relationship to the holistic development of students. I look at ways in which the ethical principal can develop a sense of security and trust within the school to allow people to feel more open to interacting with each other, and more open to new ideas. Such positive interactions can result in a strong sense of community. Belenardo (2001) recognises the fact that the basic features required for this strong sense of community are: shared values, strong commitment, and a sense of belonging, caring, interdependence and regular contact. This paper seeks to explore the pivotal role a school principal can play in ensuring that such an atmosphere exists.

Principals: Moral Or Ethical?

Principals, like others around them, take up their positions of responsibility after experiencing life in their own distinct ways and gathering influences from their surroundings. All these factors form their personalities and their varied approaches towards their work places and the people working with them. They develop their own value systems and personal moralities fashioned by their experiences. However, as individuals come together and engage in different forms of communication, these personal moralities start evolving, sometimes gaining strength and, other times, losing their effectiveness as new moralities emerge. The resulting attitudes and responses can then be deemed (un)ethical depending on the expectations of the society.

Wagner and Simpson (2009) suggest that 'The word ethics came to be used for the rules, regulations, principles, and sometimes shared moral commitments common to a distinct group of professionals. In contrast, the word morals, was shunted aside, said to refer only to moral commitments and principles' (p 2). In contrast, according to Burgh, Field and Freakley (2006) 'the

term ethics is derived from the Greek *ethos*, meaning character. Morality, on the other hand, comes from the Latin word *moralis*, which means customs or manners' (p 5). Burgh et al. (2006) and Wagner and Simpson (2009) thus give completely opposite definitions of these two concepts. Though the latter is correct viewed historically, and the former true of contemporary language

For the sake of avoiding this confusion I will use the Ethical Leadership Index (ELI) developed by Schulte (2009) following the assumption that whatever ethical actions are carried out by leaders can, to a great extent, be affected by personal morality and values.

Ethical Leadership:
In this paper the concept of ethical leadership has been used to refer to experiences, actions, and interactions of school principals which can positively impact the students in their schools. Sergiovanni (1990) also suggests that, 'educational leadership is productively conceived in terms of service to students, staff, and society. Although there are lots of ways to get into leadership, sustaining leadership over time requires moral sensitivity and sophistication, always with an eye to service on behalf of others' (p 24). It is this quality of moral sensitivity and desire to serve others that will be taken to be the basis of ethical leadership in this paper. Angus (2006) also emphasises the need for leadership to be relational since 'it is a socially constructed relationship between people' (p 372) that leads to change and advancement. He further suggests that 'democratic and transformative leadership takes place in such environments, which are dynamic rather than static, and which themselves are located in complex social and political contexts' (p 372) so much so that they are constantly evolving and improving. According to Angus (2006) this form of leadership is not developed through the use of force or manipulation but through 'relational, collaborative, participatory processes' (p 372).

Schulte (2009) developed the Ethical Leadership Index (ELI), adopting a framework first offered by Kitchener (1984, 1985, 2000). It highlights five ethical principles that encompass this type of leadership: 'respect for autonomy, beneficence, nonmaleficence, justice, and fidelity' (p 108). She further adds that at the heart of these five principles 'lies integrity and respect for persons' (p 108).

Ethical Principles	What they stand for
Respect for autonomy	An understanding about our freedom to work, think, choose and act independently without any external pressure
Beneficence	Contribution made for the well-being of others or ways to provide benefits to people around us
Nonmaleficence	An understanding that our thoughts and actions will not harm anyone physically and/or psychologically, intentionally or otherwise
Justice	Requires impartiality in our dealings with others, that we treat them fairly under the norms of equality and moral reciprocity
Fidelity	To act faithfully, be trustworthy, and show loyalty towards those the leader is directly in contact with

The results of her research allowed Schulte (2009) to show that the (ELI) can be used in leadership programmes and organisations 'to help candidates become aware of the characteristics needed to be an ethical leader/ supervisor' (p 111). Likewise, Starratt (2005), while talking about educational leaders, suggests that there are almost five different levels of ethical behaviour: as a human being, as a citizen-public servant, as an educator, as an educational administrator and as a leader.

Although these seem different to the five ethical principles suggested by Schulte (2009) their focus is also on ways that principals can bring about positive changes in the school environment through building strong relationships based on mutual trust and respect. At the most basic level is the leader as 'a human being', one who considers what the 'humanly ethical thing to do might be' (p 125) while dealing with different individuals. The second level would be the leader as 'a citizen-public servant'. Such a leader would work towards the common good, rather than personal gain. Other than providing 'public service', such leaders also work towards the 'furtherance of the democracy of the people' (p 126). The third level would be the leader as an 'educator'. He/she would not only be familiar with the curriculum that is being used but would also be aware of current advances in the field of education so as to guide and lead people accurately and knowledgeably. The leader as an educator will also be responsible for the development of his/her school's teachers so that they too will not only be familiar with the curriculum but also be inclined towards learning new methods and implementing them in their classes, while ensuring that their teaching contributes fully towards the advancement of knowledge and an appreciation of life, in their students (p 127).

The fourth level is where the educational leader is an 'educational administrator'. At this level the leader's actions would not only be geared towards working through the organisational structures and processes that affect both the students and teachers in his/her school, but would also deal with assessment programmes and teacher evaluation schemes (p 128). The fifth, and final, level of ethical behaviour deals with the educational administrator as a leader. The previous levels dealt more with the 'transactional ethic'. This last level involves more of a 'transformational ethic'. The transactional process concerned the extent of freedom that the leader accorded to others while working in conjunction with them. The transformational process would involve the leader being someone who calls 'students and teachers to reach beyond self-interest for some higher ideal, something heroic' (p 129). The

leader of this kind would expect both teachers and students to work towards a shared vision while allowing creativity and originality to thrive. At this level, 'the leader is much more proactive than reactive' (p 129) and the idea is to focus less on what is wrong and should be avoided, and more to concentrate on high ideals that will take everyone involved towards 'enhanced opportunities for human fulfilment of teachers and students through the work they co-produce' (p 130). Education in this sense becomes more than mere exchange of facts, it becomes an act of self-fulfilment that can result in personal growth and development.

The following table highlights the relationship between the five ethical principles offered by Schulte (2009) and the five levels of ethical behaviour as suggested by Starratt (2005):

Schulte	Starratt	Schulte + Starratt
Respect for Autonomy: an understanding and acceptance of the rights of others around us	As an Educator: teaching people how to bring out their true potential through leading and allowing them the opportunities to make their own decisions	By allowing teachers and students to recognise their true potential the principal thus allows them the freedom to explore and choose what they want to and freedom to act independently.
Beneficence: focusing on the well-being of others and providing benefits to them	As a citizen-public servant: working towards the common good rather than personal gain	The principal will thus ensure that the policies chalked of the organisation are such that they will benefit all and, in the process, promote selflessness.
Nonmaleficence: consciously avoiding harming others	As a Human Being: constantly thinking about doing the ethical thing while dealing with others	The principal concentrates on doing things that will lead to benefits for all the people in the organisation by consciously avoiding bringing harm to any member.

Schulte	Starratt	Schulte + Starratt
Justice: dealing with others impartially and fairly to bring out the best in everybody without any distinction	As a Leader: calling on students and teachers alike to aspire for higher ideals and to try and achieve their goals and work towards a shared vision	Again the focus is on enhancing the true potential of teachers and students equally without giving special preferences to anyone.
Fidelity: to be trustworthy and loyal towards others	As an Educational Administrator: providing a fair balance between following organisational structures while at the same time giving regular feedback to the teachers and students	Principals can gain the trust of both the teachers and students by showing their trust and faith in their true potential and by allowing them to explore and experiment with new ideas.

Schools that display the shared values of fairness, justice, respect, cooperation, and compassion have a positive sense of community, supporting and motivating both teachers and students (Bushnell, 2001; Furman, 1998; Keiser & Schulte, 2007; Noddings, 1992; Osher & Fleischman, 2005; Schulte, Shanahan, Anderson, & Sides, 2003). Likewise, Macneil, Prater and Busch (2009) suggest that 'testimony from successful school principals suggests that focusing on development of the school's culture as a learning environment is fundamental to improved teacher morale and student achievement'.

Schulte (2009) and Starratt (2005) have highlighted the importance of leaders having a strong humane approach where they are able to see beyond their official job requirements. They should have an understanding of the needs of the entire school community and ensure that all these needs are met. In this paper the main focus is on students and how principals' attitudes and decisions may make a difference in the lives of these young people. There is

ample evidence of the importance of leadership in creating good, effective schools (Blasé & Kirby 2000, Donaldson 2001, Sergiovanni 2001, Snowden and Gorton 2002). Furthermore, research suggests that the principal's influence has an indirect effect on learning and is affected by interactions with others, various situational events and the structural and cultural factors of the school (Hallinger and Heck 1998, Hoy, Tarter and Hoy 2006, Leithwood, Louis, Anderson and Wahlstrom 2004).

It seems to be a principal's responsibility to make sure that the mental, spiritual, emotional and physical development of the students is the top priority for all involved. According to Dinham (2005) it is important for schools to help develop the talents of all students, through the use of a comprehensive and balanced curriculum to obtain high standards of knowledge, skills and understanding, and to be more socially aware. This is reaffirmed by Hammond (1988) who asserts that, 'to individual students, education is much more than the acquisition of facts. It is an act of self-affirmation, a moral act, an act of empowerment for the student' (quoted in: Strother 1988, p 448). This self-affirmation can result from a carefully regimented and guided system of education that will allow students to test their true potential within the school's rules. The ethical aspect of education might take root through the spiritual development of students and empowerment can be a direct outcome of the freedom the students are accorded by teachers who encourage diversity, freedom of expression and a sense of responsibility so that pupils develop into confident individuals who are able to accept the outcomes of their actions.

Holistic Development of Students:
Noddings (2005) argues against the dominant idea that schools ought merely to provide academic proficiency and that the development of the whole child (his/her physical, moral, social, emotional and spiritual aspects) should be looked after by institutions other than the school. Noddings (2005) refers to the history of education to show that schools around the world 'were

established as much for moral and social reasons as for academic instruction' (p 10). She considers it imperative that school instruction is guided by great aims such as promoting happiness and developing ethically motivated individuals. Such instruction, according to her, will be based on an understanding that 'students are whole persons --- not mere collections of attributes, some to be addressed in one place and others to be addressed elsewhere' (p 10). But Noddings (2005) also argues that educators are in danger of giving in to the temptation to compartmentalise the individual in the attempt 'to make sure that every aspect, part, or attribute is somehow "covered" in the curriculum' (p 12) and in doing that they end up overloading the curriculum and taking the focus away from the whole child yet again. Accordingly, policies must be devised that look at the school as a whole community, where teachers and students 'interact as whole persons' (p 13).

While developing policies and devising new strategies for their implementation it seems imperative that school principals keep this issue in mind so as to allow a more integrated and coherent atmosphere to develop. Focusing more on the whole school, and, within that, on the whole individual (teacher/ student), the principal can convey a genuine sense of understanding that can lead to a strong sense of trust that can bolster both the students' and teachers' confidence levels to enable them to work towards the development and enhancement of a common vision so that everyone feels worthy of having participated in that entire process. The role of the school principal in that sense, then, seems quite significant.

Similarly, Hammond (1996) propagates this same concept of holistic development of students and suggests that 'if we are to educate for democratic life, I believe we must be concerned about education that nurtures the spirit as well as the mind, so that each student finds and develops something of value on which to build a life while learning to value what others offer as well,' (p. 5). However, the presence of excessive competition amongst schools to achieve the highest possible standards has led to a lot of dissatis-

faction and disillusionment amongst students and teachers. Standards are very high; therefore, expectations of accountability on the part of teachers, and, consequently, students can be very harsh. In 2009 Rowan Williams, the Archbishop of Canterbury, criticised the 'oppressive' English education system and accused successive governments of giving greater priority to test marks over the spiritual and emotional well-being of children. He strongly feels that the present school system is dictated by results, to such an extent that children face the danger of being labelled as failures at a very early age. 'We are in danger of reintroducing, by the back door, the damaging categorising of children at an early age as successes and failures,' (Quoted in: Curtis 2009). Such an attitude views current practice as tantamount to being unethical as it seems to be depriving children of their right to grow at their own pace and thrusting them into the mad rush for higher grades. In short, many school leaders may be willing to sacrifice holistic development of children in order to have high achieving schools.

According to Stefkovich and O' Brien (2004), policy makers, especially those from the public education system concentrate 'too much on methods of making schools more efficient' (p 197) rather than on the development of the whole child. To this same end Dinham (2005) has shown that principals of schools 'where outstanding outcomes were being achieved' were 'relentless in their quest for enhanced student achievement' (p 354). They were fully aware of the administrative demands of their principalship but were so focused and determined that they did not allow these pressures to take them away from their real purpose of educational leadership. According to Dinham (2005) 'they constantly remind students, staff and the community that the core purpose of the school is teaching and learning' (p 354). He observed that principals of lower socio-economic background schools 'placed a high priority on the personal and social aspects of education with a view to creating an environment where students could experience academic success' (p 354).

Stefkovich and Begley (2007) suggest that the conceptualisation of the best interests of the student is at the heart of the educational profession and it 'intentionally refers to the student as an individual, as opposed to students in a group' (p 212). The underlying idea is that if any student receives fair, just and caring treatment then the other students will 'get the message' that they, too, might be treated in a similar manner. Assessing the importance that students gave to the presence of care in the school environment, Rogers (2009) interviewed a student who insisted that it was extremely important for the students to have teachers who gave of themselves, selflessly and with understanding and patience. 'You need someone who you feel actually really invests in you. Then you feel like you have to do it and work hard for them too, you owe it to them to try your best and not drop out' (p 114).

Likewise, in a study conducted to assess the importance of character education, Bergmark (2008) suggests that 'good character education promotes the moral development of students and also enhances their academic learning' (p 267). In this study she identified four main things that students look for in a school.

1. <u>Striving for mutual understanding</u>: students showed that they valued a relationship where they were all linked by a mutual understanding and common goals. E.g. 'I want somebody to help me if I am in trouble'; 'I want others to be nice and kind to me'; 'I hate being left alone if I don't want to be' (p 273).
2. <u>Being accepted for who you are</u>: students 'emphasised the importance of being respected as individuals' and being appreciated for the distinct skills, knowledge and abilities each student had, e.g. 'I want somebody to like me for who I am'; 'I want people to believe in me, listen when I say something, and remember me'; 'I want people to consider my suggestions…even if they are not as good as theirs' (p 273).
3. <u>Seeking honesty and truth</u>: these concepts came out as recurrent issues, e.g. 'I don't want anybody to tell a secret I have told them'; 'I want peo-

ple to be honest and say what they think and mean'; 'I want people to tell me if they think I am annoying or acting stupidly…but nicely – in a way that doesn't hurt' (p 274).

4. <u>Being acknowledged, recognised and encouraged</u>: students emphasised the importance of being seen and accepted, e.g. 'I want somebody to say I like you'; 'Every time I greet a person, I want that person to greet me back'; 'I love to feel appreciated. Just a single compliment warms me very much' (p 274).
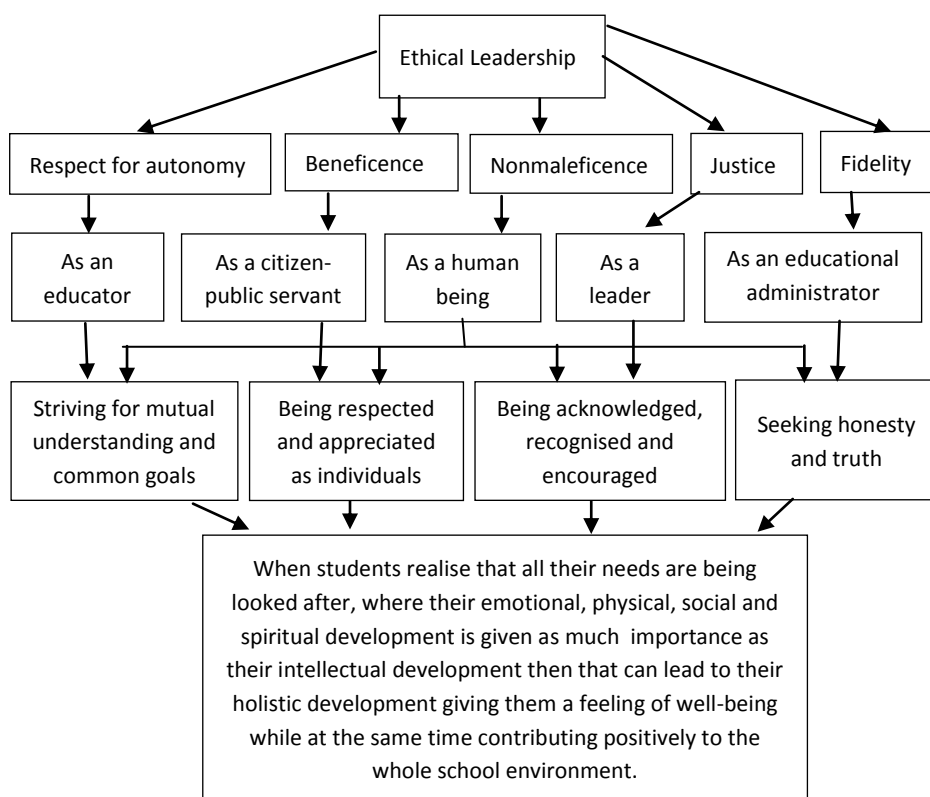
Such comments highlight the importance equally of the students' intellectual, emotional and physical experiences. According to Bergmark (2008) 'all parties in a school community must have the conviction that character education can enhance academic learning if put into action in their school' (p 276). But the most important contribution can be made by an ethically motivated school principal who understands the needs of the students and is committed to making decisions and taking action which facilitates the development of character. School principals may confront several issues that, at times, may hinder their work in this regard. One such issue is the drop-out rate of students. According to Smyth (2006) 'the reasons students withdraw from school emotionally, educationally, psychologically, and, eventually, physically are multi-faceted and complex, but in the end they boil down to "political" reasons – that is to say, students refuse to make the emotional and relational investment necessary to become engaged with the social institution of schooling in a manner necessary for learning to occur' (pp. 288-289). These political reasons might not go away but school principals, by looking after the needs of others can make the choices that might lessen or reduce these problems.

Conclusion:
As discussed earlier an ethical leader will have respect for autonomy, justice and fidelity, and exercise beneficence and nonmaleficence (Schulte 2009). Such attitudes might prove beneficial in providing for the needs of students

by encouraging mutual understanding, respect for and acceptance of individual differences, so that pupils see the school as populated by trustworthy people whom they can rely on, and see school as a place where they will be acknowledged, recognised and encouraged (Bergmark 2008).

On the basis of the ELI developed by Schulte (2009) and the five different levels of ethical behaviour as suggested by Starratt (2005) I propose the following model showing how Ethical Leadership can directly affect the holistic development of students by responding to the some of the needs as identified by Bergmark (2008):

Ethical Leadership

Respect for autonomy → Beneficence → Nonmaleficence → Justice → Fidelity

As an educator → As a citizen-public servant → As a human being → As a leader → As an educational administrator

Striving for mutual understanding and common goals → Being respected and appreciated as individuals → Being acknowledged, recognised and encouraged → Seeking honesty and truth

When students realise that all their needs are being looked after, where their emotional, physical, social and spiritual development is given as much importance as their intellectual development then that can lead to their holistic development giving them a feeling of well-being while at the same time contributing positively to the whole school environment.

In this table I have tried to establish a relationship between ethical leadership and the holistic development of the students. An ethical school principal, as an educator who understands the needs of students and shows respect for

their right to exercise their creativity, provides them with the space to develop holistically in order to work collaboratively towards common goals. As a citizen-public servant the ethical principal ensures that whatever decisions are made and strategies implemented, all is done for the benefit of the students, this, in turn, shows the students that they are being respected and appreciated as individuals. As a leader the ethical principal practises justice and through his/her actions shows a sense of equality so that all the students feel that they are being acknowledged, recognised and encouraged equally and fairly. As an educational administrator the ethical principal shows his/her loyalty towards the school by being honest and straightforward in dealings with the students, which helps students to develop more trust in the people around them and to seek the same level of honesty and truth for themselves. And, finally, as a human being the ethical principal ensures that whatever decisions are made and strategies adopted these do not in any way cause any type of harm to the students.

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TEACHER-ON-TEACHER WORKPLACE BULLYING

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Abstract

This paper discusses the background to a research study on teacher-on-teacher workplace bullying in post primary schools in Ireland. The Economic and Social Research Institute (2007) report on workplace bullying in Ireland identified the education sector as having the highest incidence of workplace bullying. Previous research studies undertaken within the education sector by the three teacher unions in Ireland (Irish National Teachers' Organisation; Association of Secondary Teachers in Ireland; Teachers' Union of Ireland) confirm that this phenomenon exists. The emphasis that this present study will give to teacher-on-teacher bullying should help to provide a greater understanding of the reasons for the high prevalence of workplace bullying amongst teachers.

Introduction

Bullying in the workplace is acknowledged as a problem in Ireland and internationally today. The phenomenon of workplace bullying includes unwarranted negative behaviours, which can be physical and/or psychological, by individuals towards other individuals in their workplace over a period of time. The continuous and frequent subjection of an individual by a superior, peer or subordinate to negative behaviours in the workplace creates unnecessary stress for the individual and obstructs their work environment (Leymann, 1990, 1996; Einarsen et al., 1994; Einarsen and Raknes, 1997; O'Moore, 2000; Einarsen et al., 2003; Rayner and Keashley, 2005; O'Moore, 2010; O'Moore and Crowley, 2011). An essential element, central to definitions of workplace bullying is the duration and regularity of the negative behaviours. Researchers in this field concur that the negative behaviours must occur frequently over a period of time.

Nevertheless, both of these aspects vary in definitions. Another characteristic of this problem researchers agree on is that bullying is mainly a form of "psychological abuse" by one or more individuals on another during the course of their work in the place of their employment (Leymann, 1996; Keashley, 1998; O'Moore, 2000). For the purpose of this study, the definition used in the ESRI (2007) study will be applied:

> "...repeated inappropriate behaviour, direct or indirect, whether verbal, physical or otherwise, conducted by one or more persons against another or others, at their place of work and/or in the course of employment, which could reasonably be regarded as undermining the individual's right to dignity at work. An isolated incidence of the behaviour in this definition may be an affront to dignity but, as a once off incident, is not considered to be bullying" (ESRI, 2007)

Having reviewed the literature on workplace bullying within the teaching profession both in Ireland and internationally, I found no qualitative studies had been undertaken on teacher-on-teacher workplace bullying within post-primary education. My study investigates teachers' experiences of bullying within their work environment using qualitative and quantitative data types.

Research in Ireland on workplace bullying

In Ireland, the first survey on workplace bullying, the Irish National Survey on Bullying in the Workplace (O'Moore, 2000) revealed a high incidence of bullying among employees in the education sector during the previous twelve months prior to the survey. Findings from the questionnaire, which consisted of 67 questions conducted with a random sample of adult workers throughout Ireland revealed overall that 6.2% of respondents reported frequent bullying, while 16.9% reported occasional bullying during the twelve month period. The majority of victims in this survey were bullied by one individual, with 70% reporting that they were bullied by a person more

senior than they. The most common forms of bullying behaviours experienced by victims were: "severe criticism, devaluing of their work, humiliation by being shouted at and excessive monitoring of their work" (O'Moore, 2000, p.9).

The education sector reported a high level of workplace bullying in a further survey conducted by the Task Force on the Prevention of Workplace Bullying (2001), with 12.1% of staff experiencing bullying during the previous six months. Among the behaviours the respondents were subjected to included: "exclusion, verbal abuse/insults, sexual harassment" (TFPWB, 2001, p. 39), with 81.5% reporting that the most common form of bullying was verbal abuse/insults, while 3.3% experienced being sexually harassed. What is more, 45.3% stated that they were bullied by a single supervisor/manager while a further 42.6% were bullied by a single colleague. These are overall findings and no breakdown of bullying by sector was included in the survey. However, a two-fold approach was applied to a follow-up survey (ESRI, 2007) to investigate the problem of workplace bullying in Ireland with a national survey directed at both employees and employers within the private and public sectors. The survey, addressed to employees to endeavour to establish the frequency, nature and prevalence of workplace bullying, was designed similarly to the TFPWB (2001) to include a questionnaire and telephone interviews. Findings from this survey indicated that the education sector reported the highest incidence (14%) of workplace bullying within the previous six months. Respondents maintained that some of the most common forms of abusive behaviours included: verbal abuse/insults (76.7%), undermining (75.8%) intimidation/harassment (62.5%) and sexual harassment (4.7%). Furthermore, when addressing the issue of the perpetrator and comparing the findings to the TFPWB (2001) there was a slight increase in respondents reporting being bullied by a single supervisor (46.1%) but an increase of almost 10% reporting being bullied by a single colleague. It is difficult to translate these data into the education sector as such since the findings in the report were representative of respondents

employed in both the private and the public sector.

The aim of the second part of this survey was to examine their stance on the problem of how they managed it within their organisations. Employers were divided into two groups: private sector, to include employers in construction, industry, services and distribution; and public sector, including health and education. As employees from health and education had reported high levels of workplace bullying in previous surveys, it could be assumed that these were relevant sectors to investigate when undertaking this type of work. The design of the research was similar to the approach taken in the employee survey; questionnaires followed by telephone interviewing, producing a 59% response rate from the education sector.

Among participants within the education sector were private schools and driving schools. When reporting the significance of the problem by sector, over a third (33.7%) of respondents in education maintained that it was a minor problem, with a fifth (19.6%) claiming that they had some moderate/ major problems of bullying. Considering the gender factor and the prevalence of workplace bullying, organisations with a high rate of female employment reported a higher incidence of moderate/major problems (16%) in comparison to organisations employing only men (4.2%). Furthermore, when addressing the types of bullying, the overall response from organisations indicated that bullying by a colleague as the more serious problem (26%), with only a third of respondents in education reporting bullying by a colleague and only one in ten blaming managers.

With reference to formal policies on workplace bullying, over three quarters of organisations within education reported having policies in place with the majority of private adn public sector organisations claiming that it improved morale among employees. The issue of formal policies generated some controversy, however, among employers with a third of respondents indicating that awareness of the problem could lead to a higher reporting of

incidences and possibly false accusations. In conclusion, this was the first survey carried out in Ireland to examine employers views and management approaches to the problem and, while it is comprehensive, more in-depth research to examine the prevalence, nature, causal factors and support systems available within specific occupations is required to assist employees who allege that they have/are being subjected to bullying.

Teachers' Unions and Workplace Bullying in the Irish Education Sector
In recent years, the three teacher unions in Ireland, INTO (1998, 2000, 2006), the TUI (1999) and the ASTI (1999, 2007) have investigated the problem of workplace bullying among their members. At primary level, the INTO (1998) survey found that 56% of respondents had experienced verbal abuse, with a further 48% claiming that they were undermined in the workplace. In a further survey, (2006) the three main bullying behaviours reported were: being undermined, intimidated and shouted at.

In a further INTO report "Staff Relations: A Report on Adult Bullying in Schools" (2000), the majority of teachers (73%) stated that bullying was discussed in their schools but mainly in relation to pupils only, with 85% of teachers indicating that legislation be implemented to prevent and combat the problem (INTO, 2000, p. 9). A follow-up survey (INTO, 2006) conducted at a number of urban and rural branch meetings throughout the Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland concluded that there is an issue with workplace bullying among its members with 44% of respondents claiming that they had been bullied/harassed and a further 23% stating that the problem was not addressed at staff relations meetings in their schools.

A TUI survey, conducted by O'Moore (1999), to investigate the problem among their members showed 11% were subjected to bullying on a regular basis and a further 32% stating that they had experienced bullying occasionally. Over 50% of respondents claimed to have witnessed bullying. There was no significant gender difference between respondents who were bullied

frequently (49%, male; 51%, female). However, taking into account occasional bullying 45% were male and 55% were female. Same sex bullying was identified whereby women tend to bully more women than men, while men tend to bully more than women but they bully both men and women equally. In total, 17.2% claimed that they were seriously affected by the bullying with no great difference existing between the number of males and females affected.

Regarding the pressures that bullying places on health, the data indicated that 40% of victims reported that their physical health was affected and a further 43% reported suffering psychological problems. The most common negative behaviours reported included: the withholding of information so that work becomes difficult (22%), severe criticism (12%) and humiliation by being shouted at (12%). The respondents' perceived reasons for bullying include the arrogance of the bully (92%), being jealous and envious of the victim (89%) and poor management style (88%), with 76.2% of respondents claiming that they were bullied by a person more senior to them and a further 35% being bullied by their peers. 35% reported that policies on bullying existed in their organisations. The report showed that most TUI participants were content in their employment and the TUI is supporting the current study to assess if the problem still exists among its members.

Two surveys relating to teachers' welfare undertaking by the ASTI (1999, 2007) indicated that teachers can be bullied by their superiors, colleagues, students and parents and lack of recognitions for additional work, together with the need for proper communication and consultation with management caused high stress levels. From a sample of 1,000 members, 32% of teachers reported subjection to physical abuse by parents and students. Over 68% experienced verbal abuse at some stage during their working lives, while a further 50% stated that they had been deliberately excluded by another person. The perpetrators of this abusive behaviour were most often pupils and parents. 9% of ASTI respondents (of whom 92% were female) reported having

suffered sexual harassment at work, with 6% of the total sample reporting being sexually harassed by pupils. (ASTI, 1999)

In the follow-up survey "Stress in Teaching" (2007), conducted among teachers in three schools with mainly female teachers (97% in their thirties), 32% stated feeling very satisfied with their employment, 59% felt satisfied and 9% dissatisfied. When assessing satisfaction with their working relation-ships with colleagues, 83% expressed satisfaction with teaching colleagues. However, when asked about support in handling problems, 66% said they received support from the board of management and a further 34% claimed that the board was unsupportive and 85% maintained that they received sup-port from principals and deputy principals. 45% of teachers felt that school management was unaware of teacher stress while the effects of the stress left 66% of teachers feeling de-motivated and a sense of low morale in their schools. A further 14% of teachers left the teaching profession while 27% took early retirement. In order to gain a deeper insight into their members' views and opinions on workplace bullying, the ASTI is supporting this present study.

Kitt (1999) conducted a qualitative study of five primary school teachers chosen from a purposive sample to include four females and one male. Three of the females and the male were bullied by school principals and one female was bullied by four colleagues. Isolation, non-recognition of perfor-mance and abusive communication by colleagues were the most common forms of bullying. The teachers maintained that in their schools no discussions were allowed about feelings, emotions or problems they were experiencing. They were discouraged to inquire into workplace policies or procedures and became totally isolated and powerless. Furthermore, the aspect of bullying that created most stress was the insensitivity of the bullies. Abusive cultures existed within these schools with staff relations deteriorating since "the behaviour of the principals was responsible for creating and/or maintaining these cultures (Kitt, 1999, p. 174). In addition,

teachers reported that pupils in their classrooms who witnessed the abusive behaviours became fearful and upset.

Research Methodology

The review of the national and international literature reveals that no qualitative studies have been undertaken to examine teacher-on-teacher workplace bullying in second-level education. In response to this gap, this study combines both quantitative and qualitative methods in investigating the incidences of workplace bullying.

Most research in the area has been undertaking using quantitative methods and, according to O'Moore et al. (2003), qualitative procedures, such as non-participant observation and content analysis of structured interviews could be utilised in addition to quantitative methods. In order to gain access to the post-primary teaching profession to invite them to take part in this study, I contacted the two teacher unions, the ASTI and the TUI and the National Association of Principals and Deputy Principals (NAPD).

Research Methods

The research instruments used for the data collection in this study include questionnaires and in-depth interviews. The first phase of the study was conducted using an on-line questionnaire. The questionnaire was available from March 15th 2010 until June 11th 2010. The aim of the questionnaire was to make initial contact with teachers, requesting participants to partake in further research. A covering letter introducing the questionnaire explained the reason for the study and gave contact details for those who wished to participate. To deepen the insight into the causes for bullying, teachers and principals were invited to give their experiences in some or any of the following categories:

1. Teachers/Principals who feel they are subjected to persistent bullying
2. Teachers/Principals for whom bullying has stopped

3. Teachers/Principals who have had allegations of bullying made against them
4. Teachers/Principals who have not been subjected to bullying

The interviewees were a purposive random sample of those respondents who indicated on the questionnaire that they wished to become more closely involved with the study. Participants came forward in each of the categories outlined above. Due to the sensitive nature of this study, it was important that the interviews took place in a relaxed atmosphere, allowing interviewees the opportunity to relate their experiences at their own pace without being interrupted. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with some of the participants, while others wished to 'tell their story'. Using these methods, open-ended questions permitted interviewees to respond in their own words and give their own opinions of the situations (Patton, 2002, p. 242). The interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. The data collected are now at the analysis stage.

Conclusion

In summarising the literature, workplace bullying in Ireland exists in both the private and public sectors with education showing the highest incident rate. There is evidence, thus far, to indicate that bullying affects both the physical and mental health of victims. Perpetrators include superiors, colleagues, parents and male and female students. Same sex bullying seems to occur more in organisations that are more gender segregated. This paper has outlined the methodology of this study that employs both quantitative and qualitative data. The day-to-day operational behaviours that make up part of school culture and how these may contribute to a bullying environment in the workplace have not yet been discussed, as the analysis of the data in this study is, as yet, not complete.

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DOING THINGS RIGHT OR DOING THE RIGHT THING:
Ethical decision-making in Irish school leaders

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Abstract

The purpose of this small-scale explorative study, carried out with the participation of a convenience sample of Irish school leaders, was to examine empirically the application of certain ethical commitments and modes of ethical reasoning, identified in the literature, in the actual process of decision-making. Participants were asked to respond to 'vignettes' of contextualised narrative of ethical dilemmas. The response choices were constructed around possible combinations of ethical commitments and modes of reasoning as a discriminatory instrument to identify patterns or preferences in both. The results indicate that, while there was an overall preference for an ethical commitment to care and an aretaic mode of reasoning, there was a strong dependence of both on the type of ethical dilemma presented, indicating that school leaders' ethical thinking is contingent on situational factors and also on perceived human impact.

> *Not all things are determined by law and rule*
>
> Aristotle, *Nicomachean Ethics*

Making Decisions

At the heart of educational administration lies the constant necessity of

decision-making. The ability to make 'good' decisions has long since been recognised within management theory to be a fundamental competence essential to the effective management and leadership of any organisation (Bolman and Deal, 2008; Bazerman and Chugh, 2006). As part of a discussion of this competence, a number of dimensions of decision-making such as the strategic, the operational and the moral can be distinguished each with its own language and criteria for acceptance. What is, for instance, deemed a good decision in a business oriented model with an ideology of efficiency may not satisfy the demands of 'scientific management' with its call for 'evidence-based' decision-making. Neither of these models alone or together are, arguably, adequate to inform and guide the kind of judgments that are required in a strongly values oriented profession such as educational leadership. In this context, 'field-related decisions' (Noddings, 2006) require crucial recognition that all administrative decisions, including those made by school principals, carry a moral or ethical significance insofar as they impact both personally and organisationally on the lives of those around them. This is so because, as Foster (1986, p. 33) explains it, '[e]ach administrative decision carries with it a restructuring of human life: [and] that is why administration at its heart is the resolution of moral dilemmas'. In other words, our decisions as educational leaders are ethically significant because they not only 'effect' outcomes, they also affect people. This ethical dimension to educational leadership decision making is the one that forms the focus of this study.

Changing Demands in Educational Leadership in Schools

The ethical dimension of educational leadership has also, in more recent times, been brought into closer focus as a consequence of the rapidly changing socio-cultural context within which schools are operating. According to Biesta and Miron (2002, p. 101) '[e]ducational leaders in school settings are nowadays confronted with problems that are far more complex and disturbing than what would be the case several decades ago'. Recent literature has pointed to some of these difficulties and the, often creative, manner in which

different educational leaders have negotiated the tension between external imperatives and the freedom to make autonomous decisions (Bottery, 2007; Hoyle, 2007)

This is true also of Ireland where profound change in all areas of Irish life and society has resulted in an increased pressure on schools to implement 'a plethora of emerging mandates' (Sugrue, 2003, p. 9). This analysis is supported by a recent survey by the Joint Managerial Body for second-level schools in Ireland which found that principal teachers have an increased sense that schools have, not only to implement a growing body of policy directives, but also to solve the problems of society. Not only must principals cope with ever-increasing expectations in relation to their role but they must also deal with, amongst other things, a perceived decline in discipline, an increase in bullying, dysfunctional families, and 'again and again - … impacting social problems' (JMB, 2005, p. 30).

Against this background, the project reported on here set out to try to investigate at least some aspects of the inner processes of ethical decision making in educational leadership contexts. While a limited number of empirical studies exist (Kirby, 1992; Dempster et al., 2001, 2002; Klinker and Hackmann, 2004; Langlois, 2004; Nordberg and Johansson, 2007), it would still seem as Langlois' claims that '[p]ractically no research in educational administration and management has been conducted on the role of moral judgement'. (2004, p. 89) Certainly, in an Irish context, while there is a small amount of research on core ethical values and personal vision in educational leaders (McNamara and O'Hara, 2010), there have been no studies on the situational or contextual application of these values to specifically moral, rather than professional decision-making.

A focus on process and dilemmas
Given that the environment within which school leaders today are working is fraught with a variety of ethical concerns and dangers, and the fact that it is

decisions that affect people's lives, it seems important to consider the moral practice *within* decision making in some further depth that has been heretofore the case. While there is currently considerable focus on the theoretical basis of ethical educational leadership and the development of ethical thinking in school leaders, less attention has been given to investigating the elements of existential, contingent and often "messy" choice processes that are the focus here.

How can we discover how school leaders come to make the 'right' *decision*? First, more often than not, these decisions represent responses to true ethical *dilemmas* which are less a choice between 'right' and 'wrong' than a choice between 'right' and 'right' (Kidder, 2003). That is to say, ethical dilemmas are not, for example, readily resolved by way of journeyman referencing to law, regulation or professional code. 'Tough choices', he argues, 'don't always involve professional codes or criminal laws. Nor do they always involve big, headline-size issues: they often operate 'in areas that laws and regulations don't reach' (Kidder, 2003, p. 15). This being the case, it would seem useful to examine dilemma situations as they typically arise in schools as a means of inquiry into ethical decision making

Secondly, there are particular methodological demands made by such an investigation. Clear-cut situations, if such ever exist, may permit straightforward analytical reasoning for their solutions and analysis but the complexity, conflicts and ambiguity of many decision situations do not allow of simple, clear solutions. Both the context sensitivity and also the multiplicity of competing principles make not only the resolution process difficult, they also make particular demands on the methodology for their study.

Methodology
In order to negotiate this multiplicity of principles, the study was framed using the conceptual distinction in the literature between modes of ethical reasoning (MR) and ethical commitments or values (EC). In an attempt to

gain some fine-grained structure, it was decided to utilise this distinction and, crucially, to assume some relative independence between the modes and commitments. Using this approach it is possible to generate a number of possible positions that might be adopted in any particular decision making situation.

Looking first to the modes of ethical reasoning, three standard types of reasoning can be distinguished:

Deontology (MR1): Ethical reasoning based on rules, principles, policies, codes of practice etc. that give rise to, and are rationalised in practice in terms of 'duty' or 'obligation'. (Kant, 1949)

Consequentialism (MR2): Ethical reasoning whereby a determination of that which is 'right' or 'wrong' in a given situation is based upon a consideration of potential consequences or outcomes. (John Stuart Mill, 1972; Sidgwick, 1907)

Aretaic Ethics (MR3): Ethical reasoning based upon the possession of, or desire for, certain character traits and values relating to the kind of person individuals want themselves or others to be in a given situation. (Socrates, Plato, Aristotle)
(French, 1997; Cranston et al., 2003; Dempster & Berry, 2003)

In addition to identifying specific modes of ethical thinking (MR), it is possible to identify five core complementary ethical concerns or commitments (EC) intimately related to ethical educational leadership practice.

These are:
Justice (EC1): An ethical commitment to the notion that all stakeholders within the school community ought to be- treated equally and in accordance with the principles of equality, equity, and fairness in

terms of process and/or outcomes (Starrett, 1994; Katz et al., 1999; Enomoto, 1997).

Critique (EC2): An ethical commitment to the critical examination of potentially inequitable and dis-empowering social structures and procedures within schools (Freire, 1970; Giroux, 1988; Purpel, 1989; Starrett, 1994; Purpel & Shapiro, 1995, Grogan & Smith, 1999).

Care (EC3): An ethical commitment to a quality of relationship within the school community that prioritises a profound concern for the well-being of all the members of the school community (Gilligan, 1982; Sernack, 1998; Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Noddings, 2003).

Professionalism (EC4): An ethical commitment informed by personal professional codes of ethics arising from personal values as well as ethical commitments determined by established professional standards and codes of practice prioritising the 'best interests of the student' (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2001; Stefkovich & O'Brien, 2004)

Communal Processes (EC5): An ethical commitment to the moral agency of the school community in the determination of the moral life and character of the school and the resolution of ethical problems (Furman, 2004).

For the purposes of the design of the research instrument it was assumed that the three modes of reasoning and the five ethical commitments can be combined, a frame of fifteen possible responses to ethical dilemmas. So, for instance, it is assumed that it is possible to hold a fundamental commitment to justice as the most important ethical consideration and, and in the same instance, to argue for this position in a deontological, consequential or aretaic

way.

The instrument had the objective of identifying, if possible, the modes of reasoning (MR) adopted and the preferred ethical commitments (EC) of school principals in the resolution of ethical dilemmas. To achieve this, the vignette technique (Finch, 1987) was used in a manner which allowed responses to the proposed situations to be framed and analysed using the MR/ EC matrix.

The vignette technique involves the elicitation of respondents' normative judgements regarding 'short stories about hypothetical characters in specified circumstances, to whose situation the interviewee is invited to respond' (Finch, 1987: 105). Intended to 'stimulate' and simulate reality (Neale, 1999, cited in Barter & Renold, 1999), research participants are presented with a series of plausible, familiar, everyday or 'mundane' scenarios that are rich in contextual information and from which carefully constructed response mechanisms evoke actual rather than socially desirable responses (Barter & Renold, 1999).

Construction of the Dilemma Vignettes
Informed by the general typology of educational ethical dilemmas offered by the available literature (Kirby et al., 1992; Walker, 1995; Dempster et al., 2001; Denig & Quinn, 2001; Cranston et al, 2003; Langlois, 2004), a pilot study and an informal consultation with non-sample school principals and teachers, six hypothetical dilemmas were constructed that confronted respondents in each scenario with a value conflict situation requiring resolution. The dilemma vignettes constructed were:

Vignette 1:   An incident of bullying
Vignette 2:   An under-performing staff member
Vignette 3:   A difficult parent
Vignette 4:   The allocation of resources

Vignette 5:   A student suspension
Vignette 6:   Competition with a neighbouring school

Construction of Response Mechanisms

We hypothesised that in thinking ethically about a dilemma situation in which a choice is required between competing values, an individual might frame a concern for any of the ethical commitments (EC) according to each of the modes of reasoning (MR) described. That is to say, for example, an individual indicating a preference or priority for the ethical commitment of Care (EC3) might reason to such a preference in this regard by understanding it as principle or duty (MR1: Deontology), a preferred outcome (MR2: Consequentialism) or as a desired virtue in terms of their personal character or the ethical character of the school organisation as a whole (MR3: Aretaic).

As the objective was to attempt to identify the preferred modes of reasoning (MR) and ethical commitments (EC) of school leaders in seeking to resolve ethical dilemmas, the author consequently decided to construct six 'consideration' statements for each of the of the six hypothetical dilemmas presented. The consideration statements would cover across the six vignettes the full range of possible combinations between (MR) and (EC). Each (MR) occurs twice in every group of six consideration statements and each unique combination of (MR) and (EC) presents twice over the six dilemmas (Table 1). As a control, a sixth ethical commitment, Character (EC6), was included within the proposed combinations.

This commitment represents the stance of *ethical egoism*. This position, a form of moral scepticism classically illustrated by Thomas Hobbes in his work *Leviathan*, (Hobbes, 1914) is the idea that our ethical choices, however much they appear to be selfless or altruistic, are in fact motivated ultimately by self-interest (Baier, 1997). Here the choice exercised has less to do with any particular ethical commitment or concern for its own sake on the part of the principal but rather a desire to be *perceived* to be a certain *kind* of person

Table 1

Distribution of Modes of Reasoning (MR) and Ethical Commitments (EC)

Modes of Reasoning (MR)
MR1: Deontology
MR2: Consequentialism
MR3: Aretaic

Ethical Commitments (EC)
EC1: Justice   EC4: Professionalism
EC2: Critique EC5: Comm. Processes
EC3: Care   EC6: Character

Consideration Statements	Dilemma 1		Dilemma 2		Dilemma 3		Dilemma 4		Dilemma 5		Dilemma 6	
	MR	EC	MR	EC	MR	EC	MR	EC	MR	EC	MR	EC
Stmt 1	MR1	EC1	MR3	EC3	NR1	EC4	NR1	EC2	MR2	EC5	NR3	EC6
Stmt 2	NR3	EC2	MR3	EC5	NR3	EC6	NR1	EC1	MR3	EC3	NR2	EC4
Stmt 3	NR1	EC3	NR2	EC2	NR2	EC5	NR2	EC6	NR1	EC4	NR3	EC1
Stmt 4	NR2	EC4	NR1	EC6	NR1	EC2	NR3	EC5	NR2	EC1	NR1	EC3
Stmt 5	NR3	EC5	NR3	EC4	NR3	EC1	NR2	EC3	NR1	EC6	NR2	EC2
Stmt 6	NR2	EC6	NR2	EC1	NR2	EC3	NR3	EC4	NR3	EC2	NR1	EC5

To identify the possible preferred or dominant modes of reasoning (MR) and preferred or dominant ethical commitments (EC) of participants over the six hypothetical dilemmas, respondents were asked in relation to each dilemma to first rate the individual importance of each consideration statement in thinking ethically about the given situation on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (Extremely Important) to 5 (Not Important). Respondents are then also asked in the case of each dilemma to rank the top three (1=Most Important, 2=Next Most Important, 3=Third Most Important) of the six consideration statements in terms of their overall importance in coming to a decision in relation to the given situation (Fig. 1). This rating and ranking of prototypical statements designed to 'activate' and then measure the degree of intensity and relative degree of intensity of participants' attitudinal preferences in response to a moral dilemma has classically been shown to be a valid and reliable strategy for assessing moral judgement (Rest, 1979). It was anticipated that an analysis of responses over the six hypothetical dilemmas might disclose a clustering around certain modes of reasoning (MR) and ethical commitments (EC) either (i) individually or (ii) as a sample population.

Sample

For the purposes of this explorative study, a convenience sample of 23 Irish school principals was engaged. Whilst conscious of the limited generalisability and representativeness of quantitative data produced by a convenience sample of this size in this study, the researcher nonetheless believed that the qualitative data analysis would be enriched by selecting, as far as possible, a quasi-'representative' sample that would reflect key demographic and geographic variables relating to participants and their schools. The sample population (n=23) was made up of 16 male and 7 female school principals from primary (F=2, M=5) and second-level schools (F=5, M=11) distributed around the Republic of Ireland. The principals varied in their years of service and experience in post as well as in terms of the socio-economic context, cultural-ethnic profile and religious affiliation or non-denominational status of their schools. Because the sample was small, no attempt was made to

investigate, for instance, whether there was evidence that the number of years of service in the post had an influence on a principal's ethical or reasoning position as has been suggested recently (Langlois and Lapointe, 2007).

The instrument was distributed together with a covering letter and follow-up telephone calls ensured a complete return rate.

Principal Findings

Preferred or Dominant Mode of Reasoning (MR)

Combining the actual 'Most Important' ranking scores for the entire sample for each mode of reasoning (MR) it was possible to illustrate a comparative pattern of (MR) preference distribution across all vignettes (Fig. 1).
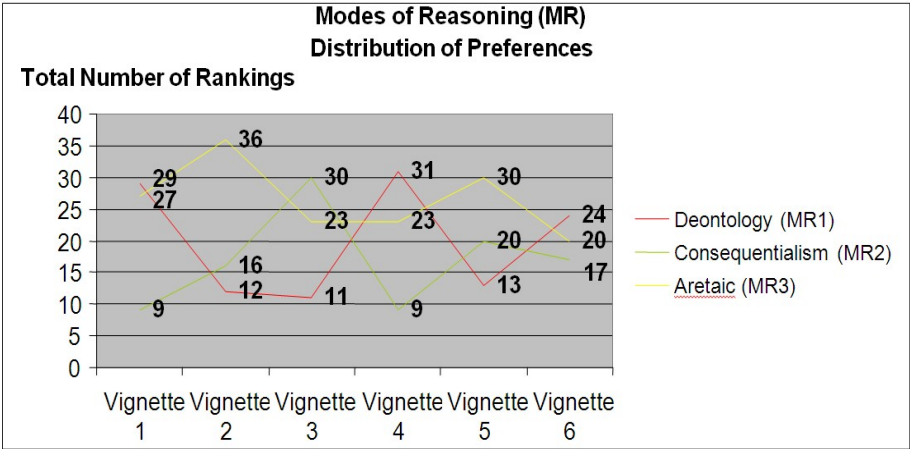
Fig. 1
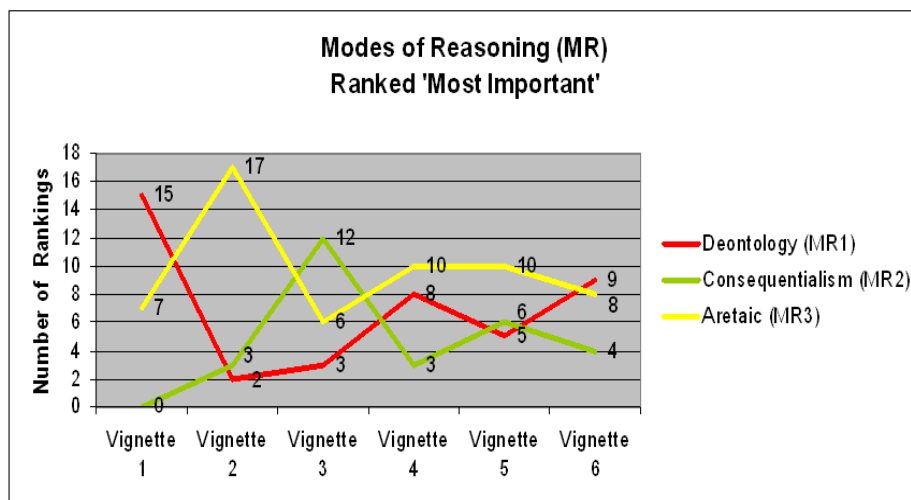
However, a clearer picture of the transition in the relative degree of influence or preference of particular modes of ethical reasoning (MR) across the six hypothetical dilemmas in the ethical decision-making of respondents

is illustrated much more significantly when all ranking scores within the scale are combined (Fig. 2).

Aretaic (MR3) reasoning, that is to say, ethical thinking premised upon the possession of, or desire for and promotion of, certain character traits and values relating to kind of person an individual wants themselves or others to be in a given situation, was disclosed as the dominant mode of reasoning (MR) by a significant margin of distinction. Deontology (MR1), ethical thinking based on rules, principles, policies, codes of practices etc. that give rise to, and are rationalised in practice in terms of 'duty' or 'obligation', is identified as the next most influential mode of reasoning. Consequentialism (MR2) was identified as least influential for the sample overall.

Fig. 2

**Preferred or Dominant Ethical Commitment (EC)**

As with (MR), combining the actual 'Most Important' ranking scores for the entire sample for each (EC) it is possible to illustrate a comparative pattern of (EC) preference distribution across all vignettes (Fig 3). For presentation purposes, data value labels are omitted.

Fig. 3

Ethical Commitments (EC) Ranked 'Most Important'
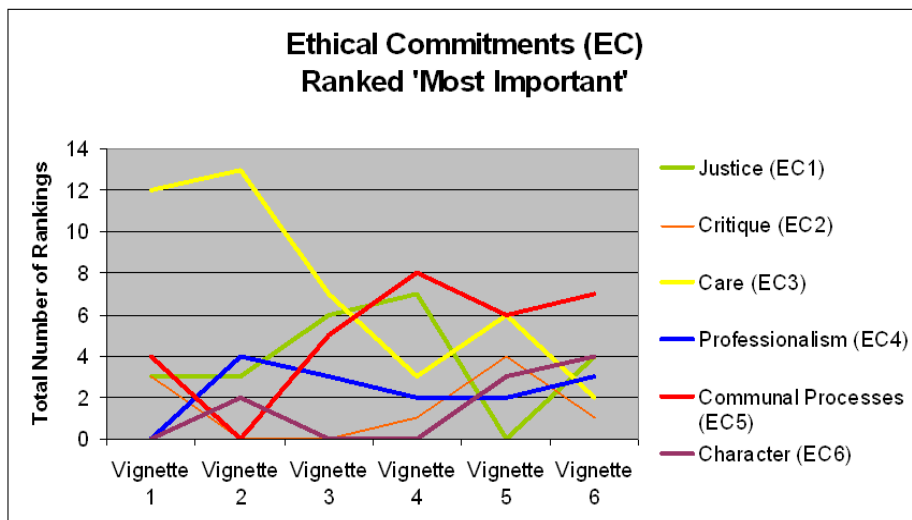
Similarly, a clearer picture of transition in the degree of influence or preference of particular (EC) across the six hypothetical dilemmas in the ethical decision-making of respondents is illustrated much more significantly when all ranking scores within the scale are combined (Fig. 4).

Fig. 4

Ethical Commitments (EC) Distribution of Preferences
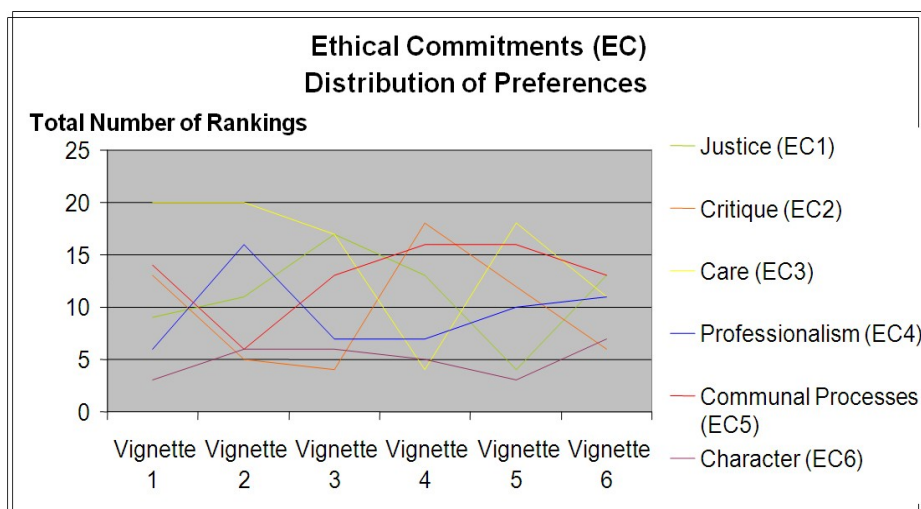
The ethical commitment or value of **Care (EC3)**, that is to say, a commitment to a quality of relationship within the school community that prioritises a profound concern for the well-being and flourishing of all members of the school community, was identified overall by a significant margin of distinction as the preferred or dominant ethical commitment for the sample population. Communal Processes (EC5), the ethical commitment to the moral agency of the school community in the determination of the moral life and character of the school and the resolution of ethical problems, was identified the next most influential ethical concern in the process of decision-making for the sample population. Justice (EC1), the commitment to the notion that all stakeholders within the school community ought to be treated equally and in accordance with the principles of equity, equality and fairness in terms of process and/or outcomes, is disclosed as the third most 'preferred' ethical commitment overall for the sample population.

Less influential in the ethical choices of the school principals involved by a significant margin were Critique (EC2), a value commitment to the critical examination of potentially inequitable and dis-empowering social structures and processes within schools, comes fourth in order of preference overall and Professionalism (EC4), an ethical commitment determined by established professional standards and codes of practice that often prioritise the 'best interests of the students' and that is also informed by personal 'professional codes of ethics' arising from personal values. Finally, least influential was Character (EC6), representing the ethical stance of ethical egoism whereby 'ethical' deliberation and decisions are motivated ultimately by self-interest. Character (EC6) was rated as being 'Not Important' substantially more often than the other ethical commitments.

Discussion & Conclusions
The reliability and validity of the findings generated by the instrument designed for the purpose of this explorative study can only be tested and established in a larger scale study where an appropriate statistical analysis

can be undertaken. Nonetheless, a simple quantitative and qualitative analysis of the data generated by the research instrument as well as the internal consistency evidenced within the pattern of participants' responses merits at the very least the tentative claim that the instrument succeeded in performing a *discriminatory function* with regard to the identification of preferred or predominant modes of reasoning (MR) and ethical commitments (EC).

More interesting, perhaps, is the potential correlation that emerged between the modes of reasoning (MR) adopted and the ethical commitments (EC) made by the school principals and the *type* of ethical dilemma presented for resolution. Whilst Aretaic (MR3) ethical reasoning presented as most influential across the 6 dilemma vignettes in the decision-making of the school principals *overall*, as (Fig. 2) illustrates, it is not most influential in each dilemma scenario. The predominance of this (MR) might suggest its general high level utility to resolving ethical dilemmas within educational contexts. However, it is possible based upon variances in the patterns of responses over all six vignettes to observe exceptions to this utility.

Aretaic (MR3) ethical reasoning is dominant in Vignette 2 (the underperforming staff member) and in Vignette 5 (the smoking student). In contrast, Deontology (MR1) appears to be more significant in terms of respondents overall preferences marginally in Vignette 1 (the bullying incident) and Vignette 6 (competition with a neighbouring school) and more clearly so in Vignette 4 (allocation of resources). Similarly, Consequentialism (MR2) 'peaks' substantially in Vignette 3 (a difficult parent). Why is this the case?

Linking data from another section of the survey instrument that dealt with the types and frequency of occurrence of ethical dilemmas in their daily work, the following observations offer a provisional account for the variances in the pattern of responses:

- Aretaic (MR3) appears generally most influential in circumstances requiring decisions that involve at their heart the personal well-being and flourishing of an individual or of a school community *except* where
- Deontology (MR1) is favoured in those 'non-human' circumstances where guidelines or clearly defined and agreed 'principles' or values are readily available to inform ethical decisions, or where
- Consequentialism (MR2) offers potentially the most effective means of ethically reasoning out of apparently intractable situations.

Similarly, in relation to the ethical commitments or paradigms (EC) significant to the decision-making process of the school principals involved in the study (Fig. 3 & 4), whilst Care (EC3) would appear to be a dominant or 'decisive' value in respondents ethical deliberation and decision-making overall (but particularly in Vignettes 1, 2, 3, & 5 where the well-being of an individual(s) was a factor), a number of variances in relation to the significance of different (EC) can generally be observed. In particular, it can be noted that there seems to be a dramatic fall in the significance of Care (EC3) in Vignette 4 (allocation of resources). This is complemented by a dramatic rise in the significance of Critique (EC2), Justice (EC1) and Communal Processes (EC5) for that same vignette. A rising trend in the apparent significance of Communal Processes (EC5) in the decision-making process can be observed over Vignettes, 3, 4 & 5. Justice (EC1) is rated of equal significance with Care (EC3) in seeking to resolve Vignette 3 (the difficult parent) but falls dramatically in Vignette 5. Finally, Professionalism (EC4) 'peaks' in Vignette 2 (the under-performing staff member) but remains, perhaps surprisingly, relatively low on the scale of preference for all other vignettes.

All modes of reasoning (MR) and ethical paradigms or values (EC) played a role in the decision-making process. In this way, it can be suggested that the ethical decision-making of school principals is multi-modal and, as proposed by Shapiro & Stefkovich (2001), multi-paradigmatic in practice. However, it

would seem that there may be a more significance in the connection revealed between the employment of different modes of ethical thinking and the adoption of different ethical commitments in the successful resolution of types of ethical dilemmas in educational contexts. This possible connection might well show itself, in further testing, to be useful for the understanding of educators' decision making and for the structuring of professional learning in the area of educational leadership ethics.

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Appendix

Sample Vignettes & Consideration Statements

Over a period of time, an experienced and long established member of staff close to retirement repeatedly comes to the principal's office complaining about the behaviour of a class group assigned to them. Despite a number of interventions on the principal's part, colleagues working in the immediate vicinity report on-going noise and disruption which is impacting on their own work. On a number of occasions, the principal finds the class group concerned unsupervised. On another, the principal finds the teacher present but reading the newspaper whilst overseeing a clearly 'out of control' class. The teacher concerned has also been overheard in the staff-room referring to the class group in derogatory terms citing their 'lack of respect' for him and is frequently absent with little or no prior notice. The teacher has at least one more year to go before compulsory retirement and has garnered support amongst a number of the longer established staff. Matters are brought to a head following an explosive encounter in the principal's office with a rather irate parent and a number of additional enquiries from distressed parents who are concerned about their children's academic performance in the face of an imminent and important examination.

CONSIDERATION STATEMENTS	RATING	RANKING
2a. Teachers and students ought to respect each other and work together. I need to find a way to help both mend their relationship and address their personal concerns.	1 2 3 4 5	
2b. In this school, it is policy that problems are always best solved together. Parents and students have a right to be involved and to help determine guidelines and decisions in relation to all issues.	1 2 3 4 5	
2c. It's not the teacher or students' fault. What's important is to determine how these situations develop in the first place in order to prevent them in the future.	1 2 3 4 5	
2d. The buck must always stop with me. I must be the kind of person who can make difficult decisions.	1 2 3 4 5	
2e. Students should not be disadvantaged in relation to their education because of the personal problems of teachers. If a teacher can no longer function as a professional with integrity, perhaps the honourable thing is for the teacher to take early retirement.	1 2 3 4 5	
2f. I want to be fair to the teacher and the students concerned, but I can't ignore the possible reactions of staff and parents.	1 2 3 4 5	

(i) Rating:

(1: Extremely Important 2: Very Important 3: Important

4: Somewhat Important 5. Not Important)

(ii) Ranking:

(1=Most Important; 2=Next Most Important; 3=Third Most Important)

A trainee teacher on teaching practice comes to the principal's office and reports that she is concerned about a particular student in one of the younger class groups. This student, who is usually quite outgoing and at times troublesome, has become very withdrawn in class. The trainee teacher, having witnessed with other staff members an incident in the recreation area in which the younger student was pushed to the ground, is worried that the student might be being bullied by an older student. The principal consults a senior teacher with responsibility for the class group. The senior teacher suggests that the trainee teacher is possibly exaggerating the situation. Another student in the class had confided in him that the 'victim' had been 'jeering' the alleged bully's younger brother over the recent death of their mother and the senior teacher comments that the incident was nothing more than a little 'rough justice' and left alone would sort itself out. However, two more incidents involving the same participants come to the principal's attention, one of which occurs off campus and seems to involve the younger student being struck by the older student. School policy states that a bullying student should be suspended automatically.

159

CONSIDERATION STATEMENTS	RATING	RANKING
1a. School policy is clear on the issue of bullying as wrong and students must be seen to be treated the same.	1 2 3 4 5	
1b. The policy and school has perhaps failed both students in not appropriately supporting them and cultivating in the students a sense of compassion and respect for each other.	1 2 3 4 5	
1c. It's a core principle of this school that all students and staff must always be treated with dignity and care irrespective of past actions. Both of these students must now be supported.	1 2 3 4 5	
1d. What's important is how my decision might affect these students in the long run.	1 2 3 4 5	
1e. Dialogue, co-operation and mutual understanding is the best way forward for all. The students, teachers and parents involved need to be brought together somehow to find a solution.	1 2 3 4 5	
1f. I need to show strong leadership here. For the good of the school, staff and students need to know I can handle difficult situations in the future.	1 2 3 4 5	

(i) Rating:

(1: Extremely Important 2: Very Important 3: Important   4: Somewhat Important 5. Not Important)

(ii) Ranking:

(1=Most Important; 2=Next Most Important; 3=Third Most Important)

Before the summer recess, a staff member responsible for a non-examination curriculum approaches the principal and makes a request for the purchase of certain resources for the coming academic year. The principal, who is quite friendly with the staff member concerned, is aware that this area, amongst others, has been under-resourced in the past and makes a commitment to purchase the items once funds become available. During the summer break, the principal succeeds in attracting a donation to the school from a charitable foundation working in the local community and announces the acquisition of these funds at the first staff meeting in the new academic year. The news is greeted enthusiastically and the principal is commended for her work in attracting the funds. As the meeting progresses, the point is made by a number of senior staff members that staff should have a say in the use of the funds. Although no vote is taken, a strong argument is put forward by certain staff that examination curricula should be prioritised as they are severely under-resourced. This argument is consistent with a number of recent decisions taken by the Board of Management with regard to the use of 'non-statutory' resources. The principal is aware that allocating resources to the examination curricula would mean that she would be unable to meet the commitment made to her friend. In addition, whilst the donation was made without conditions, given the nature of the charitable foundation, the principal suspects that to allocate the funds to examination curricula might not be in the spirit of the donor's intention

CONSIDERATION STATEMENTS	RATING	RANKING
4a. The precedent of the Board of Management decisions ought to be followed always but the criteria used should be challenged and reviewed so that certain subjects are not disadvantaged in the future.	1 2 3 4 5	
4b. All resources should always be divided fairly according to departmental needs.	1 2 3 4 5	
4c. I must be seen to support the staff consensus. Otherwise, I might risk losing their support for important future initiatives.	1 2 3 4 5	
4d. I need to be up front about the commitment I made and invite staff together with the donor to help me work out the best way to allocate the resources.	1 2 3 4 5	
4e. I ought to explain to my friend that I may be unable to keep my promise and apologise. Otherwise, I risk losing a friend.	1 2 3 4 5	
4f. If I make a commitment, particularly to a professional colleague and friend, I should keep it even if doing so may cause difficulties.	1 2 3 4 5	

(i) Rating:
(1: Extremely Important 2: Very Important 3: Important   4: Somewhat Important 5. Not Important)

(ii) Ranking:

(1=Most Important; 2=Next Most Important; 3=Third Most Important)

Michael, a troubled student from a disadvantaged background is once again caught smoking on school property. This is the third time Michael has been referred to the principal for this breach of the school's code of discipline. In accordance with the school code, he has already received a 2 day and 1 week suspension. This time, Michael's actions would, according to the code, merit a two week suspension. Attempts in the past by the principal to engage Michael's parents about his breech of the school code have been met with a certain amount of indifference. Michael was permitted by his parents to smoke at home and they really didn't see what the big deal was. In fact, at 16 years of age, they argued that Michael had a right to smoke. Smoking is a sensitive issue in the school. Only last year, a small fire in the boy's toilets as a result of a discarded cigarette butt had caused damage that had proven very expensive to repair. Following the fire, smoke detectors were installed in the toilets but staff were very aware of how much worse the situation could have been. At a recent staff meeting, Michael's case was raised by a particularly pedantic senior staff member who argued that it had been very difficult to finalise the school code of discipline and the parents of all students had agreed to it and signed it as part of their child's admission to the school. How could staff be expected to implement the code if the school wasn't seen to act on it? A large number of other staff members voiced their support and argued that it was important to make a statement that the school meant business when it came to its' code of discipline. The principal, however, knew that a two week suspension would mean Michael wouldn't be able to sit his mock exams. The majority of the staff was against a deferral of the suspension. Michael was a weak student and could ill afford to miss the lessons and an absence of this length would probably have a serious impact on his performance in the state examinations.

CONSIDERATION STATEMENTS	RATING	RANKING
5a. Some staff may not fully appreciate the impact of another suspension on Michael. As a staff group, we need to give consideration to this.	1 2 3 4 5	
5b. It is a characteristic of this school that at times we show mercy and compassion.	1 2 3 4 5	
5c. In this school, the best interests of the student always come first.	1 2 3 4 5	
5d. To suspend Michael is the right thing to do because he has so far been treated fairly and in the long run the best interests of the school would be served.	1 2 3 4 5	
5e. It's a tough decision, but as principal I have to be seen to be able to make such decisions. Rules are rules and he's had his chances.	1 2 3 4 5	
5f. Sometimes codes of discipline fail to consider the circumstances of certain students. Essentially, Michael is a good and honest student from a difficult background.	1 2 3 4 5	

(i) Rating:
(1: Extremely Important 2: Very Important 3: Important   4: Somewhat Important 5. Not Important)

(ii) Ranking:
(1=Most Important; 2=Next Most Important; 3=Third Most Important)

Notes on Contributors

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