# CARIBBEAN CURRICULUM

Volume 10

2003

## CONTENTS

# THE STATUS OF LITERATURE IN SIX TYPES OF TRINIDAD SECONDARY SCHOOLS
## ISSUES, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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A survey of teachers' perspectives on the status of literature in Trinidadian secondary schools suggests that the subject is dying. Teachers cite problems with reading, critical thinking, and students' lack of interest, singling out poetry as an area of little competence. Current deficiencies in teaching strategies suggest that teachers need to approach the language arts, on the whole, as a field of knowledge, amenable to and requiring scientific methods of approach, which teachers must perfect. A comparative survey of students suggests that teachers need to take into consideration the allure that technology holds for young people in planning their lessons. They also need to be aware that the secondary school population of Trinidad and Tobago is not homogenous, and requires varied strategies and teaching approaches to woo its varied cultures. Further recommendations of this paper include: (a) the training of secondary school teachers of English in the teaching of reading and remedial reading strategies, and (b) a focus on literature in all its genres, including non-fiction, especially for the upper levels of public secondary schools, and particularly to attract boys. It is felt that these policies, together, will promote a culture that will offset the literacy problems that affect schools, as well as enhance the preparation for adulthood that schooling offers.

## Introduction

The teaching of literature in one sector of the Trinidadian public secondary system (senior comprehensive) is not unfamiliar to this researcher, who has been a secondary school teacher of English for 33 years. However, the opportunity to study the ramifications of teaching the subject alongside a cross-section of secondary school teachers of English had never presented itself before. The opportunity came with her involvement with 21 English teachers of the Postgraduate Diploma in Education (Dip. Ed.) programme at the School of Education, The University of the West Indies (UWI), St. Augustine during the academic year 2002-2003.[1]

The Dip. Ed. programme is a one-year postgraduate, in-service, teacher training programme funded by the Ministry of Education of the Government of Trinidad and Tobago. Teachers must have a first degree to be eligible, and since places are limited, preference is given to the longest serving untrained applicants. Additional selection criteria include balanced geographic spread, and representation of the widest variety of school types that make up the secondary school system.[2] In 2002-2003, 21 teachers were enrolled in the English curriculum of the programme—18 female and 3 male. There are no students from Tobago.

This paper arises, therefore, from an ongoing consultation with a small sample of English teachers from secondary schools, and the data presented were collected from them in the initial stages of contact from August 1-15, 2002 (during the early weeks of their teacher education programme). At these initial sessions, the aim was to get teachers to express their perceptions and identify their practices. Additionally, the intention was to get them to rationalize the syllabuses from which they taught.

Preliminary contact generated information of a conflicting nature. For example, in response to a stimulus task, requiring each teacher to describe in detail any extended experience he or she might have had with teaching literature, some teachers said that they would not be able to answer the question because they did not teach literature. An alternative question was added, which asked teachers who did not teach literature to describe their earliest experiences as consumers of literary material. Five students opted for this question.

Teachers also tended to be accusatory towards their students, expressing dissatisfaction with their performance levels in the subject. The majority of them also felt that Caribbean authors should write material that would hold the interest of Caribbean adolescents. When questioned about their responsibility to write some of this literature, the overwhelming response was that they were not authors. Overall, the responses tended to blame outside forces in a scenario where, although it was recognized that literature in the form of excerpts was, at minimum, the core of the compulsory English A (English language) that they taught, there was ambivalence about the relationship between the study of those excerpts and the study of literature in the language arts or English curriculum.

In the interest of generating a clearer picture of scenarios surrounding literature and literature teaching in secondary schools, therefore, three research questions were identified:

1. What is the current status of literature in secondary schools?

2. What problems do teachers face in the teaching of the subject and what strategies do they use in dealing with these problems?

3. Do students' responses correlate with teachers' perspectives?

In light of the fact that the Dip. Ed. enrolment reflects a broad cross-section of the secondary teaching population, it was thought that a survey of the attitudes and practices of both teachers and their students would be informative.

**Literature Review**

The centrality of literature, not only to English programmes in secondary schools but also to secondary curricula as a whole, is widely endorsed in developed countries like Britain. Yet, even there, implementation of such an ideal is fraught with inconsistencies. In "The Centrality of Literature," Alastair West (1994) examines these inconsistencies with regard to the British education system, citing, nonetheless, the fundamental role literature plays in adolescent development:

> Some views on English need not detain us long, for example the skills version, because they see no role for literature at all. Ever since the mid-nineteenth century, there have been those who would restrict mass educational provision to a basic or functional literacy and subordinate full individual development to the narrow requirements of the workplace. Such a view has little to commend it in terms of either children's language development or economic efficiency, let alone social justice. It is the cultural heritage, personal growth and cultural analysis versions of the subject with which we are concerned here, all of which reject the instrumentalism of the skills approach. (p. 125)

American scholars, Purves, Rogers, and Soter (1995) corroborate the alleged benefits of cultural awareness, analytical skill, and human development imputed to the study of literature: "Language and literacy

do not make any sense without literature. . . . As a nation we are what we read, watch, listen to, and do. Literature is functional in our lives; it supports and sustains us as individuals and groups" (pp. 45-46). Purves et al. also draw attention to ways in which habits of reading and writing, accrued from the study of literature, can enhance the developing mind:

> [A] part of literature education is the development of what one might call preference, which is to say habits of mind in reading and writing. Reading and writing anything is an act of attention, an act of scrutiny, and an act of play. Literature in school helps encourage such a set of habits. (p. 55)

In the conceptualization of the literature of which this paper speaks, it is necessary to cite the multiplicity of genres in which it is found, including non-fiction, picture books, poetry and verse, folklore, fantasy, science fiction, realistic fiction, historical fiction, and biography (Galda & Cullinan, 2002, p. 8). It is also necessary to remind of the breadth and depth of literature because of the tendency to place emphasis on canonicity and the traditional hierarchical trinity of poetry, prose fiction, and drama, the three best known genres.

Additionally, the literature to which this review makes reference may be ubiquitously found in English language school textbooks, but it is far different from the comprehension uses to which it is put there. Perhaps the honour should be given to Louise Rosenblatt (1982), the well known reader-response exponent, who argues for the development of both efferent (factual) and aesthetic (consciously reflective) readings of texts, to put the literature of which this review speaks in perspective:

> Throughout the entire educational process, the child in our society seems to be receiving the same signal: adopt the efferent stance. What can be quantified—the most public of efferent modes—becomes often the guide to what is taught, tested, or researched. In the teaching of reading, and even of literature, failure to recognize the importance of the two stances [the efferent and the aesthetic] seems to me to be at the root of much of the plight of literature today. . . . Educators and psychologists investigating children's aesthetic activities and development reflect a similar tendency to focus on the efferent—a legacy, perhaps, from the hegemony of traditional behaviorist experimental research methodology. Investigations of children's

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use of metaphor seem often actually to be testing children's cognitive metalinguistic abilities. Students of the "grammar" of story tend also to eliminate the personal aesthetic event and to center on the cognitive ability to abstract out its narrative structure. Stories or poems can thus become as much a tool for studying the child's advance through the Piagetian stages of cognitive or analytic thinking as would a series of history texts or science texts. (p. 274)

By comparison with the copious research on literature in Britain and America, research on the state of literature in the education system in Trinidad and Tobago is scant. However, information gleaned from the work of Caribbean authors indicates that the subject was once one of the cornerstones of the secondary education system. Evidence of the premium placed on the discipline as a passport to grammar school secondary education and beyond (to Cambridge and Oxford) can be found in the writings of such illustrious Trinidadian writers as C. L. R. James and V. S. Naipaul. In *Beyond a Boundary*, for instance, it is evident that being West Indian meant not only striving to acquire cricket etiquette, but also striving to achieve literary prowess, measurable in the secondary school student's command of Victorian letters with an Arnoldian stamp. Further, James reports that it was his own secondary school, Queen's Royal College (QRC) that fed his "obsession" with literature (p. 37).

The fascination with literature acquired in secondary school later fed an indigenous West Indian literary tradition begun by grammar school scholars such as the very C. L. R. James and V. S. Naipaul. The result is that one can credit the study of literature in secondary schools in Trinidad from the early- to the mid-twentieth century, with both engendering literacy and producing an outstanding aesthetic tradition. The character-building influence of the British literary tradition on the Caribbean is usually downplayed, however, as memories of studying literature are often cited alongside accounts of teacher-inflicted sadism.

Checks with QRC in 2002 indicated that whereas literature had been compulsory for all students up to Form 5 level as late as the 1970s, the subject has now become a subject of choice in Forms 4 and 5. By contrast, the view that literature promotes literacy and critical thinking, and that it also develops cultural awareness and supports character development, has induced St. Joseph's Convent, St. Joseph, a "prestige"

denominational secondary school to retain literature as a compulsory subject across its curriculum. A similar view has led St. Francois Girls' College, a government 7-year secondary school, established in the 1970s, to make literature compulsory across the board since the year 2000.[3]

Despite its scantiness, some information on the status of literature in Trinidadian schools since the 1990s can be gleaned from a few studies. In her unpublished master's thesis, *The Teaching of Literature in the Primary School: Teachers' Perceptions and Practice*, for instance, Eunice Patrick's (1991) research leads her to conclude that although "teachers felt the teaching of literature should be central to the child's entire primary education, . . . [literature] seemed constrained to the periphery and appeared to be minimally taught (p. ii). This suggests that all is not well with literature at the primary level, which is the nursery for the secondary school.

With regard to the wide spectrum of secondary schools that have gradually come on stream in Trinidad and Tobago since free secondary education in 1962, information can be gleaned from various education policy documents such as the *Draft Plan for Educational Development in Trinidad and Tobago, 1968- 1983* (Trinidad and Tobago [T&T]. Government, 1974), which accompanied the establishment of junior secondary schools. In this plan, the study of literature in junior secondary schools was incorporated within the subject English (pp. 19, 29). This means that English language and literature were conceived as part of an integrated English programme. In the senior comprehensives, English language is compulsory across the curriculum, but English literature is listed as an elective only for the academic stream (p. 45). In other words, it was not envisaged that the entire student body in the comprehensives would study English literature.

Since the advent of the Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC) in 1978 and its integrated approach to the teaching of English language (English A) and literature (English B), however, it has been expected that all students of English would be exposed to some measure of literature. An appendix of suggested literature texts accompanies the syllabus, and a "General Note to the Teachers of English A" informs:

> The integrated approach to teaching language and literature is the fundamental strategy from which all others follow. This approach is far more flexible than a rigid separation of the

English programme into two discrete subjects. Teachers are free to structure their teaching programme in accordance with the needs of their students rather than the demands of the time-table. They may concentrate on literature and use the literary texts to develop the student's language skills if they think that this is necessary, or they may prefer to use other strategies to produce the results they are seeking to achieve. (p. 8)

It is evident that ambiguities about the status of literature in secondary schools in Trinidad and Tobago arise from the slow incorporation into the system of new understandings about the place of literature in literacy and schooling. These new understandings have left government policies lagging behind. In this new scenario, it would seem that in the interest of educating students, the English teacher, the intermediary among all the stakeholders in language education, is the person best suited to synchronize the aims of both government policy and current research.

Predating the advent of literature as a school subject for literacy and examination purposes, though, there has always been an unofficial Creole tradition of letters in Trinidad, founded on non-Western oral traditions. This Creole tradition has gradually become integrated into the mainstream of the official literary tradition. Previously, its wisdom, aligned to the biblical tradition, remained outside the formal education system. Existing predominantly in the form of tales, rhymes, and proverbs, the Creole tradition has been a repository of cultural and moral values that has served to educate, entertain, and inform the population for cultural purposes. The widespread integration of this Creole tradition within the formal education system since the 1970s is most evident in the literature currently being studied in secondary schools. Where C. L. R. James (1963, p. 37) once read Thackeray's *Vanity Fair*, Trinidadian secondary school students now read Earl Lovelace's (1982) *Wine of Astonishment* with its dialect rhythms, alongside texts from other cultures.

Despite wide acceptance of the importance of the Creole tradition, though, the challenge of the new Secondary Education Modernization Programme (SEMP), as evident in its Form 1 and Form 2 *Revised Draft, Secondary School Curriculum* in Language Arts (T&T. Ministry of Education, 2002a, 2002b) is that of promoting, among teachers of English, strategies for dealing with first language interference in the acquisition of Standard English in the classroom (pp. 2-4). In the SEMP English

curriculum, language and literature are integrated in a philosophical thrust that combines educating for literacy and for personal and intellectual development, with educating for Caribbean cultural relevance and the cultivation of moral values (pp. 1.6-10). Similarly, educating for aesthetic expression exists side by side with educating for "citizenship" within "local and global contexts" (p. 1.7).

Literature in this new dispensation emphasizes the student as creator as much as consumer of the word. It emphasizes the interdependence between reading and writing activities, in new teaching strategies such as portfolio writing, a process credited with the ability to generate learning for both teacher (Galley, 2000) and student (Sommers, 1997) through its reflective practices. Sommers' support for portfolio writing is founded in the idea that "writing is learning" (p. 220), which he quickly follows up with a call to attention of the "interactive nature of reading and writing" (p. 221). Portfolio writing has also been found to be effective in promoting language learning in second language situations (Channiam, 1998).

If implemented by teachers, these new thrusts should invigorate the status of literature in secondary schools in Trinidad and Tobago. Important to successful implementation, however, are teacher readiness, knowledge of existing systems, and continuous research. It is in this light that this paper examines the current status of literature in a sample of secondary schools, based on teachers' and students' responses to their experiences in the classroom.

**Methodology**

**Description of sample**

Respondents came from the six types of secondary schools at which the teachers involved in the survey taught—five teachers taught at comprehensives, five at junior secondaries, four at denominational or government-assisted schools, three at government secondaries, two at composites, and one at a new school built under SEMP. These six types of schools receive the majority of the secondary school population in Trinidad. Further, the distribution ratios of the types of schools within this study closely reflect school distribution ratios by type within the secondary sector in Trinidad as a whole. Figure 1 shows the six types of secondary schools in relative proportion.
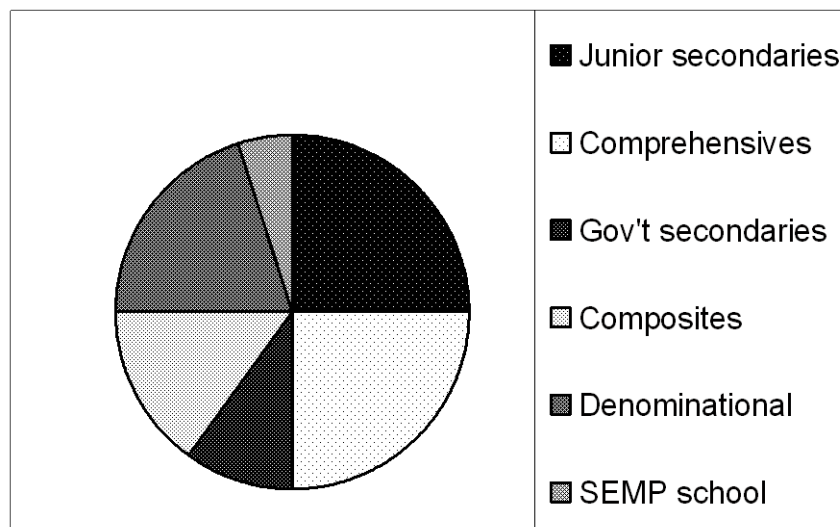
*Figure 1.* Secondary schools by type.

The rating of the six types of schools by educational standards in Trinidad is important to an understanding of the findings. Therefore, an explanation of the hierarchical arrangement of the Trinidad secondary school system is provided.

Within the secondary school system in Trinidad and Tobago, the denominational or government-assisted schools are first-choice schools and generally receive students with the highest marks, based on the Secondary Entrance Assessment (SEA) examination. They are often referred to as "prestige" schools. Government secondaries are the next preferred school type. With the advent of Universal Secondary Education, no accurate determination can be made about the distribution by academic ability of students who are placed in composites, junior secondaries, comprehensives, and the new SEMP schools. However, these schools receive the bulk of students who have not obtained their first or second choices at the SEA examination.

**Research procedure**

Teachers were one source of data for this study. A take-home questionnaire and an in-class task sheet were administered to the 21 English teachers on the Dip. Ed. programme. Since the responses were intended for the teachers to track their own developmental growth and to be included in their teaching portfolios, the questions took the form of reflective assignments, requiring short self- and school-evaluative responses. A combination of qualitative and quantitative methods was used.

The take-home questionnaire sought details on the status of literature as a subject in secondary schools from the teachers' perspective. Questions on both language and literature were asked because literature is taught both as an independent subject and under the umbrella "English" in language arts programmes in Trinidad secondary schools. Questions on English language were also asked because the CXC syllabus that is used in upper secondary schools is an integrated language and literature syllabus, which includes a list of suggested literature texts, in keeping with CXC's perspective of an integrated approach to the teaching of English.

The questionnaire sought information on the levels at which the 21 teachers taught, the types of secondary schools at which they taught, the texts they used for English language and English literature, and the reasons for those choices. Responses were also solicited on the numbers of students doing literature, out of possible totals, at each Form level, and on whether the numbers doing literature were increasing, decreasing, or constant. Teachers were asked what types of literature most appealed to their students and whether their students were involved in choosing texts for study. Finally, teachers were asked what they liked and disliked about teaching literature, to state what recommendations they would make to their English departments based on their experiences, and to state their experience with the portfolio—a method of teaching and assessing literature newly introduced on Caribbean syllabuses. Teachers of CXC English B (Literature) were further asked what recommendations they wished to make to the regional examining body. A copy of the take-home questionnaire is provided as Appendix A.

The in-class task sheet elicited information on problems the teachers faced in the teaching of literature and the strategies they used in dealing with these problems. A listing of their responses is presented as Appendix B.

Students were a second source of information for this study. After the teachers' responses to the in-class task sheet were collated, it was decided to screen a pilot poetry video that the teachers were involved in producing at the School of Education. The idea for the poetry video was conceived as a way of providing resource material that might help to counter the negative student responses to poetry about which the teachers had complained The video was used to test students' views on two problems areas—a lack of interest in literature and poor response to poetry—two recurrent teacher complaints.

The poetry video was composed of three interwoven yet discrete elements: (1) poetry readings, (2) visualized and dramatized poems, and (3) traditional teacher explication. The video targeted Forms 3 to 5 of the secondary school system and incorporated poems on the junior secondary and CXC syllabuses. A student questionnaire and modified KWL response sheet were administered to a sample size of 25 students from each of four schools (see Appendix C). The KWL response sheet, requiring students to say K= What I **Know**, W=What I **Want** to Know, and L=What I have **Learned**, pertained directly to one of the poems on the video.

It was intended to screen the poetry video at all six types of secondary schools, but end-of-term activities such as Mock Exams for the CXC made it possible to screen the video at only three of the six types of schools: (1) at a rural junior secondary school among third formers; (2) at an urban girls' 7-year denominational school traditionally perceived as "prestige," in the upper school (among fourth formers); and (3) at two government secondaries—one rural and one urban—in the upper school (among fourth and fifth formers). In other words, the video was screened within the three broad categories of the ranked secondary school system in Trinidad and Tobago—at "prestige," second choice, and third choice levels. One hundred students participated in the survey.

The procedure for administering the student questionnaire was as follows:

1.  Students were asked to fill out the first four questions of the questionnaire, which dealt with their like/dislike for poetry, their understanding, their interest, and the adequacy of their teacher explications as aids to understanding.

2. The researcher then introduced the target poem with a reading and a 10-minute open-ended discussion, following which students were asked to fill in "What I Know" and "What I Want to Know" about the poem on the modified KWL sheet.

3. Following an explanation of the video and its three distinguishable elements of (a) straight poetry reading, (b) visualized and dramatized poem with voice-over reading, and (c) teacher discussion, the video was played.

4. Students were then asked to fill in what the video had clarified for them about the poem and to complete the rest of the questionnaire, which asked them about the impact the video had made on their understanding of and interest in the poem treated. Questions asked them also to state their preferred elements of the video with regard to their understanding of the poem.

5. A repeat of the video was shown.

**Limitations of the Study**

One of the limitations of the student survey was that in the three co-educational schools, it was difficult to find boys to participate in the study. In one rural secondary school, however, where 15 boys filled out questionnaires in a random group of 36 respondents, all the boys' responses were used. In retrospect, too, the researcher feels that an attempt should have been made to solicit students' views about the texts they study in school. This might have added insights about interest levels, and provided the basis for comparison with teachers' stated methods of text selection, and teachers' views on students' preferences of literary genres.

With regard to data from teachers, one teacher from a 7-year government secondary was unable to complete her questionnaire in time for the results to be included. Therefore, that sector is not represented, and so, the analysis is based on data from 20 teachers. Additionally, two teachers taught at the same comprehensive school. Their responses were counted as separate responses (two responses), because counting them separately helped to maintain the ratio of comprehensives to other types of

secondary schools, thus making the survey more representative of the secondary school sector in Trinidad.

With regard to denominational schools (government-assisted schools), boys' schools were not surveyed, because there was no teacher from an all-boys school in the 2002-2003 English Dip. Ed. programme. It needs to be mentioned also that the Postgraduate Dip. Ed. is sponsored by the Ministry of Education primarily for teachers in public schools, and there were no teachers from private secondary schools in the 2002-2003English programme.

**Findings**

**Research Question #1: What is the status of literature in secondary schools?**

<u>Comparison of numbers doing literature at different types of schools</u>

Of the 20 teachers who responded to the questionnaire, 5 teach English language only, while 15 teach both language and literature. In 16 of the schools, all students do literature up to at least Form 3 level (lower school). One of the comprehensives has no lower school (Forms 1-3). In two comprehensives, literature is not offered from Forms 1 to 3, but it is offered in Forms 4 and 5 at CXC level; and in one of the composite schools, literature is not done at all. All the same, it can be said that, generally, literature is done by most students in the lower secondary school.

In two of the four denominational schools in the sample, literature is compulsory throughout the school up to Form 5, while in the other two, it is compulsory from Forms 1 to 3. In the latter two schools, approximately 50% of the students of Forms 4 and 5 do literature (approximately 243 out of 487).

In the five senior secondary comprehensives, approximately 689 students out of 5,390 were doing literature in Forms 4 and 5. This figure represented 12.8% of the entire student body of Forms 4 and 5. In the two government secondaries, 71 out of 450 were doing literature in Forms 4 and 5. This figure represents 15.7% of the total. In the three composites, 180 out of a total of 1,440 were doing literature in Forms 4 and 5. This

represents 12.5%. One of the three composite schools does no literature at any level.

It is evident, then, that while in the upper forms of the denominational schools the literature culture ranges from very good to average, in the upper forms of the public secondary sector, the literature culture is poor, with less than 16% overall doing literature.

To compound the issue, of the 20 schools in the sample, only one school, a comprehensive school, uses a literature text alongside its prescribed English Language text in its preparation of students for the CXC English A (English language). This means that 19 of the 20 schools in this survey do not reflect CXC's integrated language-and-literature perspective in the preparation of their students for the compulsory English A (Language) examination. This also means that in the composites, government secondaries, and comprehensives, which are public sector secondary schools, the vast majority of the school population is not exposed to the study of literature after the age of 14+, except as excerpts in efferent contexts in English language textbooks.

Figure 2 shows the percentage of students doing literature in the four types of secondary schools that offer the subject in Forms 4 and 5.

Analysis of selection trends

Figure 3 shows the selection trends for literature in the six types of secondary schools with regard to three variables: One (1) designates increasing levels of subject selection; zero (0), constant levels; and minus one (-1), decreasing levels.

It must be noted, however, that "constant" for various schools does not reflect the same percentages. For both the government secondaries and the composites, "constant" means less than 16%, whereas "constant" for junior secondaries and, in some cases, denominational schools means 100%. The most frequent reason given for "constant" and "increasing" selection of the subject is that the subject is compulsory. Other reasons cited in government secondaries and composites are lack of student interest, poor examination results, and insufficient staff.

| ▓ % | 2 D | 2 D | 2 G | 3 CO | 5 CR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | 100 | 50 | 15.7 | 12.5 | 12.8 |

| D – Denominational | G – Government |
|---|---|
| CO – Composite | CR - Comprehensive |
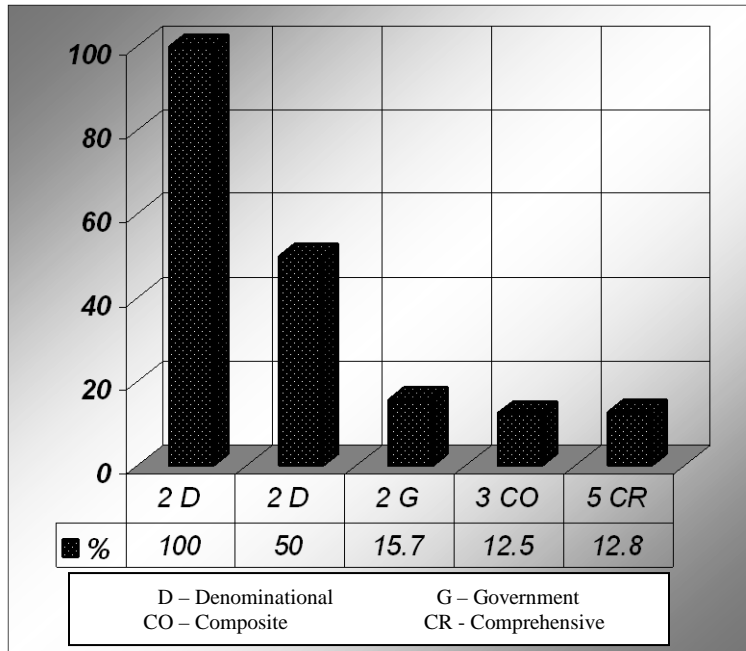
*Figure 2.* Literature in Forms 4 and 5 in four types of secondary schools.

In the case of the comprehensives, where the numbers are decreasing, the reasons given in the order of greatest frequency are: (1) lack of student interest, (2) reading deficiencies, and (3) teachers' preference not to teach literature. The fact that these three responses cluster together suggests that students' reading problems and lack of interest correlate directly with teachers' reluctance to teach the subject in comprehensives.

The numbers of students doing literature in the newly built SEMP school is reported to be increasing. The teacher at this school also stated that literature would most likely become compulsory in Forms 4 and 5.

Overall, findings related to subject selection indicate that throughout the five years of free secondary schooling available to all students, the literary culture is continuous in the denominational schools, which generally enrol the students regarded as having the highest reading ability. By contrast, in the public sector schools, where the reading ability of students is most challenged, a literary culture is not sustained.
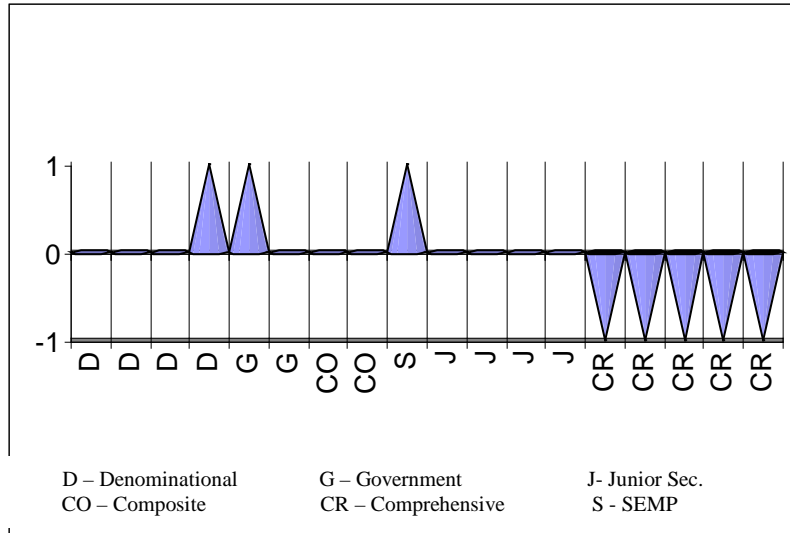
*Figure 3.* Selection trends for literature in six types of secondary schools.

**Research Question #2: What problems do the teachers face in the teaching of literature, and what strategies do they use in dealing with these problems?**

<u>Teachers' likes and dislikes about teaching literature</u>

Both the take-home questionnaire and the in-class task sheet were used to determine teachers' likes and dislikes, problems faced in the teaching of literature, and strategies for dealing with them.

Responses to questions 9 and 10 on the questionnaire revealed that what the teachers like most about teaching literature are its affective aspects—aspects that relate to sharing literature and bringing it alive for and with their students. These aspects accounted for 10 out of the 13 responses. The two other responses in the area of likes were the study of literary elements and the variety of teaching techniques that the subject offers. Meanwhile, teachers' overwhelming dislike was students' lack of interest. This was followed by reading problems, teachers' dislike for time-consuming paperwork, and problems with poor poetry skills displayed by students.

<u>Teachers' perspectives on their problems and the strategies that they use</u>

The in-class task sheet gave a detailed breakdown of teachers' perceptions of the problems they face with teaching literature. The most pervasive problem that teachers reported was reading and decoding deficiencies, which polled 6 out of the 26 responses listed. Students' deficiencies with regard to critical thinking came next, followed by difficulties with poetry. Students' lack of interest and limitations of school infrastructure were each mentioned three times, while the relevance of the texts studied and students' deficiencies in essay writing skills each polled two responses. Students' lack of textbooks was the least cited problem.

With regard to strategies that teachers use to deal with their problems, an inadequacy of methodology is very apparent. Responses indicate that teacher explanation and the giving of traditional assignments are favoured approaches (see Appendix C). In three cases, task organization methods such as group work are cited as strategies. For the problem, "students do not know how to organize an essay," the strategy applied is "teach the structure of an essay," which begs the question rather than offers a teaching plan. The implication is that traditional methods continue to be tried in spite of their apparent ineffectiveness, and that overall, the teaching of topics is done in an imprecise manner. Knowledge of the various components of a topic, how to break down a topic in sequential parts (unit planning), and how to prepare the various elements for teaching seem a puzzle for the teachers. Holistic methods seem to predominate in their strategies.

The initial view of teachers was that the teaching problems were located in students' deficiencies. While working on the task sheet, however, it occurred to some of them that many of the problems they cited were not student problems, but teacher problems related to their own teaching deficiencies. This raises some doubts about the adequacy of a one-year in-service Dip. Ed. programme to transmit the variety of skills required by teachers.

All the same, responses indicate that teachers are aware of the impact that cultural and technological instruments bring to the learning process. Responses indicate an awareness of the importance of including affective strategies such as role-playing, and a willingness to harness elements of

student interest in teaching strategies. However, in terms of preparedness to implement new approaches to literature teaching contained in recent syllabi such as the SEMP syllabi, teachers seem deficient. Questions 14 and 15 of the take-home questionnaire, designed to assess teachers' competence to implement portfolio writing, for instance, showed that 15 of the 20 teachers had never attempted writing portfolios with their students. Eighteen teachers felt, though, that student portfolios would be a good idea, while one did not give an opinion, and one questioned its practicality in terms of time constraints. Extended comments among the 18 who felt it would be a good idea revealed that most were not clear about what portfolio writing entailed.

Teachers' recommendations

Among the recommendations to English departments and to CXC, 7 of the 20 teacher responses were related in some way to students' reading and language deficiencies, and their lack of competence in expression of ideas both orally and in writing. These deficiencies were stated in terms such as:

- "We need an action plan to help remedial cases."
- "Don't discredit children for the way they may speak."
- "Allocate greater time to literature; do not combine language and literature; introduce structured reading periods."

The recommendation that ranked second on the list, accounting for six responses, dealt with student interest. Responses included:

- "The need to develop new techniques and methods to maintain student interest."
- "More texts should be chosen based on students' interest, especially those that contain short stories."

In the admission of their need for "techniques" and "methods," teachers' responses imply that the students' deficiencies that they cite lie more in their own inability to make literature interesting, than in any innate or perverse disinterest on the part of the teenagers they teach. The same indirect admission underlies statements about reading problems couched mainly in terms of students' deficiencies.

The need for infrastructural, administrative, and collegial support was cited in 3 of the 21 responses, and grouped together in one instance: "Have team teaching; get a photocopier; have smaller classes." Other recommendations in this area dealt with the need for professional help such as workshops "to upgrade skills in the teaching of English," with more timetabling for literature, and with making the subject compulsory.

Two responses singled out poetry, one recommending that more poems be used "so that students can develop an appreciation and become more analytical in CXC Paper A and B," and the other recommending that students be made to write poetry. Of the three traditional genres, poetry attracted the most complaints. In these complaints, teachers seemed to be stating indirectly that they did not have necessary teaching skills in these areas

The influence of the external exam, the CXC, on teachers' perspectives of their problems was not as great as was anticipated. In the question asking for recommendations that they would make to CXC, teachers tended to focus on the examination texts rather than on the structure of the examination itself. This implies that teachers either have no problem with the aims of the prescribed syllabus, or that their problems with literature are overwhelmingly internal, that is, within their own educational systems.

**Research Question #3: How far do students' responses correlate with teachers' responses on perceptions of literature and literature teaching?**

Poetry was the only literary genre for which responses were solicited. The stimulus material for student responses included a pilot poetry video that their teachers were involved in producing at the School of Education.

Of the 100 students surveyed in four schools, 73 were girls and 27 were boys. The schools surveyed were: one urban 7-year denominational girls' school, one rural junior secondary, and two government secondaries— one rural and the other urban. All 27 boys were from the government secondary schools (15 - rural and 12 - urban). Over 90% of the students of the rural government secondary were of East Indian descent, while over 90% of the urban government secondary were of African descent.

Overall, 78% of girls and 62% of boys said that they liked poetry. Of the 15 boys from the rural government secondary, 12 said they liked poetry, compared to 5 of the 12 boys from the urban government secondary. In other words, far more boys in the rural government secondary expressed a love for poetry. Like for poetry seemed directly related to interesting classes, and adequacy of teacher explication and class discussion, since among both the urban and rural boys surveyed, numbers of responses for each of these questions were close (see Figure 4).
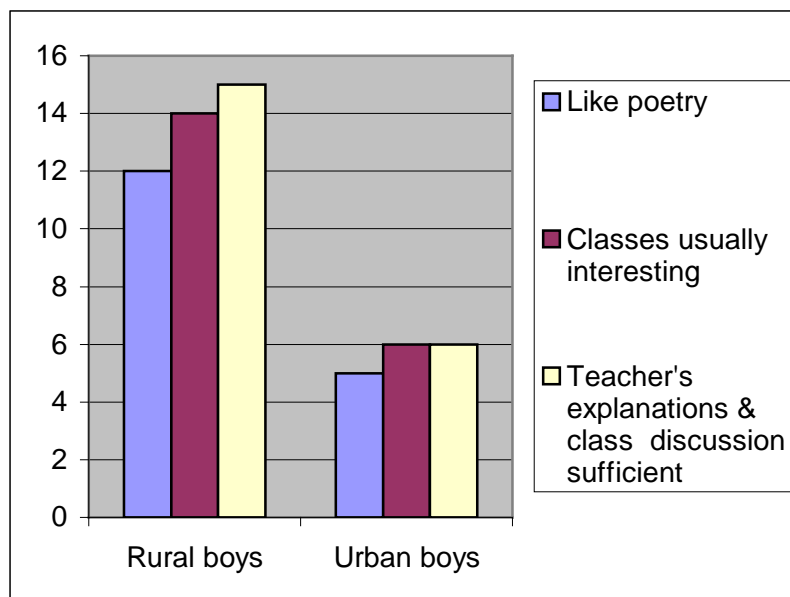


*Figure 4*. Comparison of like for poetry, interesting classes, and adequacy of teacher explanation and class discussion.

There was an overwhelmingly positive response to the effect of the video on interest (85 responses) and understanding (91 responses) among both boys and girls. In terms of the effect of the video on their understanding, 70 students ranked the visualized and dramatic readings as the element of the video that had the most effect; 16 ranked teacher discussion in second place, 5 ranked the unembellished poetry readings third, and 9 did not respond to the question (see Figure 5). With respect to the effect on their interest, the view that a poetry video would lead to more discussion polled the highest response, followed by the view that a poetry video would make students more active. Therefore, overall,

student response to the poetry video with regard to interest and understanding was overwhelmingly positive.
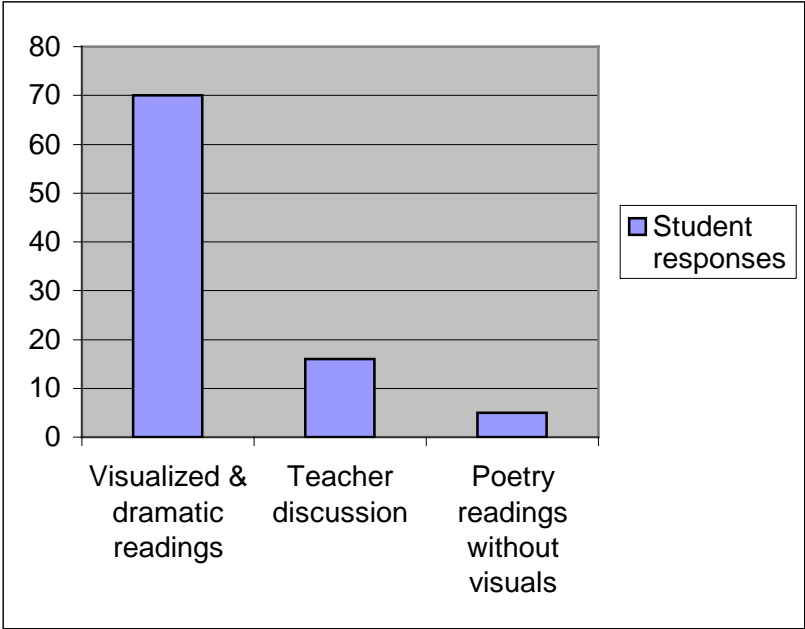


*Figure 5*. Contribution of three video elements to understanding of poem.

However, among rural males within the government secondary school sector, teacher discussion, poetry reading without visuals, and visualized and dramatic poetry readings were ranked equally as "most useful," with four responses each (12 out of 15). By comparison, urban males from the same type of school ranked visualized and dramatic readings as number 1, with 9 out of 12 responses. Among rural girls of the government secondary, too, teacher discussion, and visualized and dramatic readings polled almost equal responses as "most useful," whereas urban girls of the same type of school ranked visualized and dramatic readings overwhelmingly as number 1. Of significance also is the fact that only 7 out of 15 rural boys felt that using video in the classroom would lead to more discussion, while 5 felt that it would lead to less discussion. An entirely opposite picture obtains for boys in the urban equivalent school, where 9 out of 12 boys felt that using video in the classroom would lead to more discussion and only 2 felt it would lead to less discussion. These differences between rural and urban

students with regard to visualized material need further investigation, since they appear to suggest that clientele from different cultures require different teaching-learning approaches.

Additionally, stimulated interest and understanding from the poetry video did not correlate with enhanced critical appreciation for poetry. For, although all students claimed overwhelming interest and understanding, their responses on the KWL sheet contained minimal evidence that they were aware of basic literary elements of critical appreciation such as theme, mood, and elements of figurative language. Rather, understanding and interest tended to generate human interest and efferent responses, even after the video with its teacher discussion element was played twice. It is well accepted that although interest and understanding are the building blocks of critical response, they constitute basal levels of the learning-teaching taxonomy. Students' responses on the KWL sheet tended to corroborate this.

However, the glaring lack of critical terminology usually associated with poetry in the students' KWL responses, in spite of the prominence of this terminology as written section headings of the poetry video teacher discussion, suggests a number of scenarios requiring investigation:

- Perhaps teachers are correct in their claim of students' lack of interest in literature in so far as interest pertains to critical appreciation.
- Perhaps after years of exposure to teacher discussion, students have learned to ignore it.
- Perhaps visualized and dramatic elements of the video form are associated with television entertainment and act as distractions to serious learning.
- Perhaps the unusualness of poetry being presented in video form was a distraction.
- Perhaps the unusualness of the KWL response sheet and the presence of the researcher affected students' responses.

Nevertheless, as their closing response to the questionnaire, 98% of both boys and girls felt that video should be used in poetry classes. Fifty responses stated that it would lead to more understanding, while 24 stated it would stimulate greater interest. Twenty-eight responses were positive in a general way, with comments such as:

- "I support and promote."

- "It will lead to more young poets."
- "I think it will benefit slow learners."
- "Powerful Stuff People!"

A recognizable limitation of video presentations, however, is that they are merely single interpretations of given scenarios and, unless well handled by teachers as resource material, may produce cloned imaginations among students. Also, the usefulness of teacher discussion in resource material needs be analyzed with regard to elements such as presenter's pace and diction, the interspersing of visuals, and the use of section headings and captions.

The overall findings are:

1. Student responses corroborate teachers' responses of poor response to poetry and poor critical appreciation.
2. Teacher discussion is not the most stimulating or effective way to teach poetry appreciation, since students ignored teacher discussion even though the video was played twice, and contained comprehensive literary and poetic information in section headings.
3. Because of differences between rural and urban student responses to elements of the video, and between male and female responses, teachers need to consider a variety of methods in their teaching and presentation of literature.

**Discussion**

The teacher information presented suggests that literature is waning in comprehensive schools. In Trinidad and Tobago, comprehensives have one of the largest intakes of adolescents in the upper school-leaving age group. The implication of this finding is that a large majority of school leavers are going out into society without the socializing benefits of exposure to literature. This does not augur well for the well-being of Trinidadian society in terms of youth adjustment to social mores, gender and family issues, self-awareness, and the inculcation of character attributes such as empathy and tolerance that the study of literature is said to promote. Literature should at least form part of the English A (Language) curriculum in keeping with CXC's concept of an integrated English language-and-literature programme.

In the composites and government secondaries, literature also seems an endangered subject. In one of the composite schools, no literature is done at any level. Of concern, too, must be the fact that in two of the five comprehensives in the sample, literature is not offered in the lower school. Ironically, in both of them it is offered for examination in Forms 4 and 5. In this context, it is not difficult to understand, as one teacher reports, that the number of students opting for the subject is small and the pass rate is poor.

On the other hand, in the junior secondary schools, literature is compulsory and this is commendable. The data show that the 11 to 14+ age group fares better at the junior secondary than at the comprehensive schools in terms of its exposure to literature.

These findings point to the need for a strategy to put literature back into the government public schools, which cater to the bulk of students with limited family support and resources. It must be noted that in the denominational schools, which receive the students with the highest marks from the primary schools, literature is compulsory and the literary culture is positive. It seems an irony that those deemed to have an advantage with regard to Trinidadian Standard English, are given sustained literary exposure, while those who have difficulties with reading and writing are given less literary exposure as they progress through school. Of concern as well, must be the implication that for the older adolescent, reading operates in proportion to the student's ability to read, with a downward spiral for the most reading challenged.

It may be argued that literature is an optional subject in the upper school, as are physics, chemistry, or additional mathematics, and that, as such, the figures revealed in this paper are comparable to the figures for any other optional subject. However, since language is the medium of communication for all school subjects, and it is well accepted that a poor student is generally one who has difficulties with language, it follows that the academic performance of many students in the public sector will be negatively affected by the absence of sustained reading within the curriculum. Reading in contexts other than the efferent (for facts) needs to be encouraged among adolescents to promote the multifarious literacy that is required in today's world.

When the literature statistics presented by the teachers are seen in this light, one understands the importance of establishing a literary culture in

schools. The decline in the status of literature as a discipline of study has perhaps gone unperceived for too long, and steps should be taken to prevent the total disappearance of the subject, particularly in public schools. In this regard, it is encouraging to note that in the school recently built under SEMP, it is reported that literature is increasing and that the subject is most likely to become a compulsory subject across the curriculum.

Only 1 of the 20 schools in the sample uses a literature text alongside its English language text in Forms 4 and 5. This suggests that CXC's idea of an integrated English language-and-literature syllabus is not being implemented. Students doing literature as an examination subject may not be affected by this lack of exposure to sustained literary material. But among the 20 schools, these are in the minority, and "prestige" schools at that. The fact is that the majority of secondary students seem to be entering society without exposure to sustained reading, which does not augur well either for the critical literacy or the cultural literacy and personal growth that literature is well known to promote.

Traditionally, literature has been almost synonymous with reading. But student responses in this study suggest that in an age when both reading and literature make much use of digitalized media, teachers should revolutionize their strategies, not only to maintain the interest of students, but also to effect understanding. Alternative media should also be used to expose students to the variety of forms other than the printed book in which literature is found. In this regard, attention needs to be placed on attracting boys.

Finally, the large-scale reading problem that many teachers report cannot be ignored because, undoubtedly, it affects not only literature, but all subjects. It needs to be noted that secondary school teachers are not trained teachers of reading. The scenarios they report need more help than can be provided by the retired primary school teacher cohort that has recently been drafted to teach remedial reading in secondary schools. Therefore, in light of the problems outlined, the following recommendations are made:

**Recommendations:**

1. There is need for widespread training of secondary school teachers in reading, remedial reading, and critical thinking, if students are to make maximum benefit of their free secondary schooling.

2. There is need for a literature policy, especially for the upper levels of the public secondary schools in Trinidad, to include some element of sustained reading, if not for examination purposes, at least, as recommended by CXC, to accompany the English A syllabus.

3. A broadened view of literature should be adopted to include genres such as non-fiction, science fiction, biographies, and historical fiction in an attempt to attract wider student interest, especially among boys. Alternative media presentations should also be drafted as valid literary material in the cause.

4. Cognizance needs to be taken of the many different cultures and ethnicities among student populations in Trinidad, if the creation of learning experiences and the selection of teaching materials are to be successful. The secondary school population is not by any means homogenous, and this fact needs to be reflected in curricular and teaching strategies. Training programmes such as the Postgraduate Dip. Ed. need to sensitize teachers to cultural differences among their student clientele, and prepare them to deal with varied teaching-learning encounters.

5. Secondary school teachers of language and literature need to be taught the basic content of their subject area, as well as methods of teaching such content, before they are assigned to schools. Most secondary school teachers of English have become competent users of Standard English and producers of literary work through reinforced practice, but have never been officially taught how to sequentially plan or to teach components of language and literature in preparation for teaching in the classroom.

6. In light of the fact that the Dip. Ed. enrolment reflects a broad cross-section of the secondary teaching population, periodic

surveys can be of mutual benefit to teacher educators and teachers themselves, for purposes of structuring curricula and obtaining feedback on the status of literature in schools in an ongoing framework of mediation based on research.

## Notes

1. I wish to acknowledge my indebtedness to the teachers of the English Postgraduate Dip. Ed. Programme 2002-2003 for their participation in this study and for the access they allowed me to their students and their schools.

2. Information on the selection process was obtained from personnel at the School of Education, UWI, St. Augustine.

3. Information on the current status of literature at Queen's Royal College, St. Francois Girls' College, and St. Joseph's Convent, St. Joseph was obtained from telephone interviews with Heads of English departments at the respective schools on November 18, 2002.

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**Appendix A**

**DIPLOMA IN EDUCATION 2002-2003 (ENGLISH CURRICULUM)**
**Questionnaire for English teachers of Forms 1 to 5.**
**Answer ALL relevant questions**

1. Type of Secondary School (Tick one):
a. Junior Secondary (3 year)
b. Senior Secondary Comprehensive (4 year)
c. Senior Secondary Comprehensive (7 year)
d. Government Assisted Denominational (7 year)
e. Government Secondary (5year)
f. Composite (5 year)
g. Newly built High School (SEMP)
h. Other (Please state type)

2. Subjects I teach and classes:
  a. English Language          Class/es _____
  b. English Literature         Class/es _____

3. Approx. number of students doing Literature at each level in my school:
  a. Form 1 _____              out of an approx total of _____
  b. Form 2_____
_____
  c. Form 3_____
_____
  d. Form 4_____
_____
  e. Form 5_____
_____

4. Texts used in the teaching of English Language at each level and reason for choice

Class/level        Text/s          Reason/s for choice

| Class/level | Text/s | Reason/s for choice |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Form 1 | | |
| Form 2 | | |
| Form 3 | | |
| Form 4 | | |
| Form 5 | | |

5. Texts used in the teaching of English Literature at each level and reason for choice:

| Class/level | Text/s | Reason/s for choice |
|---|---|---|
| Form 1 | | |
| Form 2 | | |
| Form 3 | | |
| Form 4 | | |
| Form 5 | | |

6. Tick one. The number of students doing literature in my school is:
     (a) Increasing                     (b) Decreasing
     (c) Constant

Give reason/s. _____

7. Tick as many as are relevant. In my school literature texts are chosen by:
     (a) Teachers      (b) Students have a say in the choice

8. The texts that appeal most to my students are those that deal with:

_____

9. What I like about teaching Literature:

_____

10. What I dislike about teaching Literature:

_____

11. Recommendations to my English Department based on my experiences:

_____

12. For teachers of Form Four and Five English A:

Recommendations I would make to CXC based on my teaching experiences:

_____

13. For teachers of Form Four and Five English B

Recommendations I would make to CXC based on my experiences:
_____

14. In my teaching of English over the last academic year (2001-2002) my students have developed portfolios/done portfolio writing.

     Tick one: (a )Yes       (b) No

     If your answer is yes, name the subject of a portfolio your students developed during the last academic year (2001-2002) and name some of the items your students developed in this portfolio.

     Subject of Portfolio       Sample of Item Headings
     (i.e book, theme, poetry etc.)

     _____       _____

     _____       _____

     _____       _____

15. What are your views on making student portfolios a necessary component of English teaching?

# Appendix B

*List problems your students have with literature and the strategies you use to deal with each:

| Problems | Strategies |
|---|---|
| • Students not willing nor motivated to read<br>• Low or no interest in reading | • Vary reading material<br>• Allow students to bring in material that interest them<br>• Provide material suited to them<br>• Set assignments in which they have to read<br>• Read to students |
| Poor comprehension skills of students | • Practice<br>• Use dictionary<br>• Tackle paragraphs first |
| Students unable to read | • Teacher reads to/with students<br>• Refer to remedial classes<br>• Use of audio-visual material and video cassettes |
| No or low critical thinking and analytical skills on the part of students | • Deal with pertinent issues in the text—conflict resolution approach<br>• Reference to hypothetical situations |
| Students have problems with interpretation of language: (a) Shakespearean, (b) Creole, (c) figurative | • Teacher explanation<br>• For problems with the figurative, introduce poetry through calypso |
| Students unable to think critically because of being spoon-fed by teachers | • Give question for groups to work on<br>• Go in opposite direction of students' opinions to get them to argue their position |
| Students cannot relate to characters in a novel | • Role-playing by students |
| Students' concept of literature is limited to words on the page | • Use practical exercises which stimulate their imagination through creativity to bring literature to life, e.g., construction of a model farm in the teaching of *Animal Farm* |
| Students' inability to read fluently and understand text because of limited vocabulary | • Give a vocabulary list to students based on the text |

| | |
|---|---|
| Student' inability to understand and appreciate poetry | • Read poems to students<br>• Relate poem to students' life experience<br>• Allow students to develop songs/rap that capture the themes of particular poems |
| Students do not have/buy literature texts | • Use photocopied material<br>• Rental system<br>• Group work |
| Students do not know how to organize an essay | • Teach the structure of an essay |
| Students do not provide examples or evidence to support their point of view | • Direct evidence to students and bring to their attention that evidence is lacking |
| Students' poor attitude or mental block specifically with regard to poetry | • Reorient students' thinking<br>• Use material suited to their experiences, e.g., calypso and rap |
| Lack of support systems such as library or audio-visual facilities | • Sensitize administration to needs—prioritize funding |
| Students' inability to fully grasp the complexity of different language structures in diverse texts and so unable to fully grasp meaning | • Break work into simple, smaller modules, pre-teach vocabulary |
| Inadequate time allotted to literature classes | • Review timetable with [timetable] committee |
| Large class size | • Group work—rotating and alternating |
| Students are averse to drama | • Expose students to dramatic experiences through everyday class experiences |
| Students show very little enjoyment | • Present simple literary pieces<br>• Fun pieces—comic (material), cartoons |
| Students do not relate themes to life | • Use literature that reflects their experience, giving guided discourses, e.g., *Miguel Street*<br>• Talk about personal experiences and try to relate to text |
| Students' superficial analysis of poetry | • Use lyrics from popular songs to teach skills |
| Students turned off by size and length of text | • Begin with short stories |

| | |
|---|---|
| Students' inability to recognize concepts | • Teach concepts |
| Students' inability to understand what they read | • Group work |
| Students' inability to recognize and interpret figurative language | • Provide examples they can identify with<br>• Show and examine how they are used in text |

*As they worked on this in-class assignment, some teachers expressed that feeling that many of the problems they cited were not student-problems, but teacher-problems related to their own teaching deficiencies.

**Appendix C**

**Student Questionnaire**

Age                    Sex:                    Form Class:

| Poem | What I Know | What I Want to Know | What the Video Clarified |
|---|---|---|---|
| Background information about the author | | | |
| What the poem is about | | | |
| Theme or message of the poem | | | |
| Who is speaking in the poem | | | |
| Feelings and Moods | | | |
| Language/Words | | | |
| What the poem means to me | | | |

Circle one:

1. I like poetry:          Yes              No

2. My poetry classes are usually interesting:        Yes                No

3. I usually understand the poems that we study in class: Yes       No

4. My teacher's explanations and class discussion give me sufficient understanding:

          Yes              No

5. The video made me understand the poem better than I usually do:
          Yes              No

6. The video has made the poem more interesting than poetry usually is for me:

Yes                No

7. Rank the following aspects of the video in order of most useful to you (1, 2, 3):

the teachers' discussion
the poetry readings without visuals
the visualized and dramatic readings of the poems

8. Which of the aspects above contributed most to your understanding of the poem:

……………………………………………………………………………………

9. I think using video in the classroom will lead to:

less discussion        more discussion
make me passive        make me active

10. My views about using video in poetry classes:

……………………………………………………………………………………

# TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN ENGLISH CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

*Godfrey A. Steele*

This article explores the nature, achievement, and implications of teachers' participation in English curriculum development by focusing on teachers' functions, defined as what teachers do. Responses to a questionnaire (n=79) and data from a sub-sample (n=12) collected from classroom observations, interviews, teacher self-ratings, and student ratings of teachers and their teaching were obtained from teachers in 14 secondary schools in North Trinidad. The study found that teachers have a mainly consultative role in curriculum development. The discussion of the data on teacher functions addresses three issues involved in teacher participation in English curriculum development: its nature, teachers' contribution, and the implications of such teacher contribution for individuals and institutions.

## Introduction

There is uncertainty about the actual and potential role of teachers in curriculum development. For example, this uncertainty is present in the area of curriculum reform and curriculum decision making (Johnston, 1995; Klein, 1999; Konzal, 1997). The classroom teacher faces the challenge of reflecting on philosophical and curriculum development issues which can shape his practice (Pring, 1975, pp. 178-179). In my view, the philosophical issues are a priori questions such as: What should be my curriculum decision-making role? How do I decide what is most appropriate? The curriculum issues are questions about suitability, coverage, balance, depth of content; and questions about planning, implementation, and evaluation.

Practice can also shape the teacher's curriculum beliefs. It has been shown that there is a tendency in official circles not to prescribe specific syllabuses, but to issue general guidelines (Caribbean Examinations Council [CXC], 1982; Miller, 1984, p. 157). It is therefore not unreasonable to assume that in the absence of specific guidelines, the classroom teacher has a critical role in curriculum philosophizing and decision making. The presence of

specific guidelines may not guarantee that teachers will follow them, but their absence can make curriculum supervision more difficult.

In this study, curriculum is treated as "experience and as communication between teacher, learner and environment" (Skilbeck, 1982, p. 4). The curriculum is not merely a static instrument or vehicle for learning. It is a negotiated experience arising out of the interactions emanating from the inputs of the teacher, the learner, and the learning environment. It is not only "what is taught to students" (Sowell, 2000, p. 1). It is also what teachers and students derive from the experience.

The remainder of this paper is presented in four sections: 1) the literature review, which discusses the background issues and the theoretical framework: curriculum concepts, teacher participation, and research questions; 2) a description of the methodology of the study; 3) a presentation of the findings; and 4) a discussion of the implications for individuals such as teachers, students, and administrators; and organizations such as schools, training institutes, and ministries of education.

**Literature Review**

### Historical background

This investigation of teacher participation in English curriculum development took place in the context of the historical background of the English curriculum in Trinidad. The development of English curriculum in the Caribbean and in Trinidad, in particular, was influenced by various approaches to the teaching and learning of English. The learning of English began in nonformal functional settings in 19th century Caribbean slave society (Roberts, 1988), and so the first approach associated with learning English may have been that of fulfilling a practical and functional role. Creole was used in religious education (Devonish, 1983, pp. 58-59), suggesting that it was a means of communication, but this did not mean that Creole had official language status. The official status of English led to the mistaken popular assumption that English was the first language of students in Trinidad (Carrington, Borely, & Knight, 1972, 1974; Robertson, 1996, p. 113). The suggestion here is that English, as a curriculum subject, developed against a background of various societal and historical imperatives.

The development of English curriculum was influenced by a number of difficulties relating to the assumptions behind the teaching of English and the role of English as a subject. Carrington and Borely (1978) commented on language problems in Trinidad, such as uncertainty and lack of clarity about the status and methods of teaching English in the primary school. They noted that "neither the teaching service nor the public have been adequately prepared to accept the [1975 primary school] syllabus" (p. 65). They also recommended that "the teaching force must be intimately involved in all phases of the development of new syllabus and curriculum" (p. 66).

Writing about the teaching of English to vernacular speakers in Caribbean schools, Craig (1999, pp. 30-32) referred to constraints on the efficacy of language education and literacy. These constraints included a number of misconceptions. They were the "tacit assumption that English is the mother tongue"; "confusion of objectives in language and literacy education"; "misconceptions about communicative language teaching"; and "misapplied philosophical positions." In addition, there were wider social and economic factors that created some difficulty, such as "the persistence of elitist traditions among secondary schools," for example; "the unhelpful priority interests of educational publishers"; and "the failure of educational authorities to be focused and consistent in the quest for improvement."

Another feature of the history of the English curriculum in the English-speaking Caribbean is that secondary schools in Trinidad were founded on the tradition of grammar schools in England (Gocking, 1970, p. 104). This means that the British experience in developing English as a subject may have influenced the way English developed as a subject in the curriculum in the Caribbean. In grammar schools, "academic" subjects were emphasized over "technical" subjects. Within this setting, the approach to teaching English teaching would have focused on language as grammar. Shayer (1972) has traced the history of English teaching in England, showing that there was a "strong linguistic grammar bias" in the University of London's first official English paper in 1839. It is not unreasonable to assume that this linguistic bias may have been an influence on the development of a grammar-before-speech emphasis, which deserves more investigation than is possible within the framework of this paper.

**Curriculum development**

Given the difficulties, misconceptions, and academic tradition just described, the pattern in England, to some extent, would have been reflected in the British colony of Trinidad. A likely effect was that those who were responsible for the teaching of English as a subject would have struggled for some time to develop a distinctive subject identity, and to achieve acceptance for English as a subject of study. During this period of change and growth in the subject's identity and status, the teacher's role in curriculum development would have had an opportunity to shape and be shaped by the teacher's relationship to the subject called English. In other words, the curriculum as enacted (Sowell, 2000) would have been shaped by the subjective reality of teachers, and by a view of "curriculum development as a mutual construction of content and meaning by teachers and students" (Paris, 1993 as cited in Sowell, 2000, p. 14). In turn, the experience of a curriculum evolving within a specific context would have had an effect on teachers' and students' enactment of the curriculum.

In addition, a number of social, political, and economic factors, as well as subject identity issues, influenced the development of English curriculum in Trinidad (Steele, 1995, pp. 40-41). The period from 1859 to the mid-1920s in Trinidad was characterized by problems of English subject identity. These related to the study of Latin and the assumption that the mastery of grammar was necessary before reading or writing was possible, and an uncritical acceptance of the utilitarian role of English in preparing an educated elite (James, 1963).

The period of the 1920s to the 1950s was marked by the increasing influence of social, economic, and political forces on the education system, within an increasingly assertive liberal framework. This period was also influenced by an egalitarian mood that witnessed the criticisms of the 1933 Marriott-Mayhew Report. The criticisms of the 1933 report, which echoed responses to previous reports, led to the 1946 primary schools syllabus. This syllabus stressed the "use of every opportunity to correct common errors of speech" as an appropriate strategy for the teacher whose role was to correct "mistakes of speech and writing of the pupils" (Carrington, Borely, & Knight 1972, pp. 13-14).

Other influences on English curriculum development were the expansion of state education in the 1950s to early 1970s (Gocking, 1970, p. 105), and the post-1970 period. This latter period was concerned with the re-evaluation of the role of education in the society, the physical expansion of the school system, the re-evaluation of curricula, and the advent of the

CXC English Language (English A) in 1979 and English Literature (English B) syllabuses in 1980. During this phase of social change and reflection, the school curriculum was under review.

During a period of change and innovation, the meaning of change is rarely clear at the beginning (Fullan with Stiegelbauer, 1991). Furthermore, change is accompanied by ambivalence and uncertainty, and teachers may feel the need to make many decisions (Lieberman, 1992) and may feel pressured, or be unwilling, to participate in "imposed change" (Fullan with Stiegelbauer, 1991, p. 36). I would argue that in such a period it is not unreasonable to expect that the role of the teacher in curriculum development would have been more critical and interpretive.

### Curriculum development and English teaching

In the literature on curriculum development and English teaching, a number of observations and findings provide an orientation to the meaning of curriculum as negotiated experience adopted in this paper. Firstly, curriculum development is treated as a process. This process includes decision making and involves planning, implementation, and evaluation (Oliva, 1982, p. 24). In general, views of reality influence the technical and non-technical perspectives taken by persons involved in curriculum processes (Sowell, 2000). For example, the technical approaches assume objective and subjective approaches to curriculum development. From the technical objective perspective, the concern is with checking that the curriculum, as planned, is implemented. However, this approach has been described as ineffective since the implementers are not part of the change process (Fullan with Stiegelbauer, 1991; Leithwood, 1991; Sowell, 2000, p. 13).

The subjective technical perspective (Patterson, Purkey, & Parker, 1986) recognizes that the curriculum is implemented with students, and that "evaluation includes assessing the degree to which the negotiated curriculum is implemented as well as the degree to which its purpose is attained" (Leithwood, 1991; Sowell, 2000, p. 14). The non-technical approach has a subjective view of reality and is concerned with curriculum development as "mutual construction of content and meaning by teachers and students" (Paris, 1993 as cited in Sowell, 2000, p. 14)). As Sowell (2000) points out, "whether generating a new curriculum or revising an existing one, curriculum development means recreating or modifying what is

taught to students. Development includes a number of decisions" (pp. 10-11).

Further, curriculum development is "rooted in personal meaning and in dialogue about what schools should do" (Miller & Seller, 1985, p. 3). Thus, a curriculum is not merely a document or a programme of activities, but it involves "interaction between students and teachers" (Miller & Seller, 1985, p. 3). This view is consistent with the non-technical subjective perspective in which the curriculum is "enacted" rather than implemented (Sowell, 2000, p. 14). The curriculum is enacted since it is created in the same situation in which it is used.

### The nature of teacher participation

The concept of teacher functions provides some understanding of the nature of teacher participation in English curriculum development in Trinidad. Functions are defined as teachers' actions, tasks, behaviours, or similar variables that could affect their ability to develop the English curriculum. These functions were characterized in six main ways (Steele, 1995, p. 116):

1. Teaching experience
2. Qualifications and training
3. Curriculum development experience
4. Subjects taught
5. Opportunities for curriculum decision making
6. Factors (professional and personal) influencing curriculum decisions

The present study focused on items 3, 5, and 6.

### Research questions

This paper argues that the teacher's role is critical to curriculum development. There are three main dimensions:

- The teacher's conception of curriculum
- The teacher's decision-making
- The nature of power relationships

For the sake of economy and practicality, this paper explores the significance of only the first two dimensions in relation to teacher participation in English curriculum development, by addressing three questions:

1. What is the nature of teacher participation?
2. What can teachers contribute?
3. What are the implications of teacher participation for individuals and institutions?

**Methodology**

### The present study: Purpose and design

A combination of quantitative and qualitative methodologies was used. The quantitative analysis involved frequency counts of statements made in the questionnaire, interviews, and the comparison of rating scores of students and teachers. The qualitative analysis followed the tradition described as grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1994). In this approach, theory emerges in the course of data collection arising from the interplay between data collection and analysis.

The present study focused on selected data concerning teachers' curriculum decisions and the basis of these decisions (items 5 and 6 above). All 95 teachers of English in 14 secondary schools spanning six school types (senior secondary, composite, junior secondary, senior comprehensive, traditional government, traditional assisted) in North Trinidad were asked to complete a 29-item questionnaire designed to explore the role of teachers in curriculum development. There were 79 respondents (83%). Questionnaire items 15-17, related to teachers' decision making and participation in English curriculum development in their schools, are used in this study (see Appendix A).

A sub sample (n=12) of the questionnaire respondents was selected (using two teachers from each of the six types of school) for classroom observation and the members of the sample agreed to be interviewed (see Appendix B) about the lesson observed. The classroom observations were analyzed at four levels: school type, school, teacher, and number of events noted in observing teachers. These levels were selected to reflect the researcher's descriptions of the location, context, personnel, and events observed, as patterns in the data emerged. The interviews were analyzed at four levels: the process of teaching, the influence of students, the curriculum content,

and the school system. These levels were selected using emergent patterns from the data based on grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In this process, the researcher records the statements of interviewees and codes their statements using categories of what the respondents talk about.

The analysis of the interview data focused on the main ways in which teachers functioned (or operated) in the process of teaching, which revealed something about their role in curriculum development. The interview data were compared to ratings of teachers by the teachers and their students (see Appendices C and D). In this way, triangulation of the data was possible. Complementary use of the quantitative and qualitative analyses reinforced the triangulation procedure.

### Findings

#### Questionnaire data

Teachers' responses (n=79: 9 males and 70 females) showed that teachers' functions related to decisions about content and textbooks for levels of schooling, and involved various degrees of participation in curriculum development. For example, 69.6% and 77.2% of the sample respectively reported that the entire department participated in determining what content should be covered and what texts should be used at various levels in the school. More teachers (87.3%) reported being invited to suggest materials for use than being asked to produce or obtain (53.2%) such materials (Items 15-17).

#### Classroom observations

Observations of the sub-sample of 12 teachers teaching their students revealed four categories of functions and two categories of related functions (see Table 1). The frequency counts showed the main types of functions and factors across four levels of analysis: the numbers of the school type, the school, the teacher, and the events noted. Table 1 shows the four significant kinds of functions and two sets of factors. "Functions" are the observed classroom behaviours of teachers as they engaged in curriculum-related activities. "Factors" are the reported influences on teachers' decision making. Teacher factors include teachers' personal knowledge and experiences, as well as their personal values. Student factors include students' input such as comments, their responses, and motivation.

#### Interviews

The interview data (see Appendix B) provided four sets of coded functions associated with the teachers' role in English curriculum development: TEACHING, STUDENT, CONTENT, and SYSTEM. These four functions were associated, respectively, with the process of teaching, the influence of students, curriculum content, and the school system. The findings showed that there were six main ways in which the teachers functioned in the process of teaching. The dominant citations by teachers during the interview occurred in relation to English teaching decisions, planning, evaluation, philosophy and methods. The functions associated with the process of teaching addressed traditionally recognized aspects of curriculum development.

**Table 1. Categories of Observed Teacher Functions**

| Category | No. of School Types | No. of Schools | No. of Teachers | No. of Events Noted |
|----------|------|------|------|------|
| Teacher Functions: | | | | |
| 1.  Guiding | 6 | 9 | 11 | 23 |
| 2.  Task Giving | 6 | 10 | 12 | 38 |
| 3.  Content/ Knowledge Use | 6 | 10 | 12 | 24 |
| 4.  Managing | 6 | 10 | 12 | 19 |
|       Teacher Factors | 3* | 3* | 3* | 3* |
|       Student Factors | 7* | 7* | 7* | 9* |

*This number is an aggregate of various factors.

Table 2 illustrates the areas that appeared to occur most frequently in the interviewer's discussions with teachers. Similarly, the other sets of data (Tables 3-5) illustrate the outstanding citations made by teachers in relation to their students, the curriculum content, and the school system aspects of their English teaching.

**Ratings**

Both teachers and their students were asked to independently rate the teachers' behaviour. Data on ratings by teachers and students were compared. Teachers and students tended to agree on the extent to which teachers:

- select work outside the text
- clarify objectives
- clarify what is expected of students
- try to adhere to objectives
- emphasize aspects of content
- consider the suitability of work
- match content with students' interests

Teachers, however, gave themselves higher ratings than their students in sequencing textbook content and in lesson planning but students' ratings were higher for the provision of adequate time for learning, and for the issue of teachers really testing what they taught.

**Table 2. Categories of Interviewed Teachers' TEACHING Functions**

| Category | No. of School Types | No. of Schools | No. of Teachers | No. of Events Noted |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Personal | 6 | 8 | 10 | 18 |
| English Teaching | 6 | 9 | 10 | 26 |
| Job | | | | |
| 1. Duties | 6 | 9 | 9 | 18 |
| 2. Planning | 6 | 10 | 12 | 31 |
| Planning | 6 | 9 | 9 | 33 |
| Evaluation | 6 | 9 | 10 | 33 |
| Implementation | 4 | 4 | 5 | 5 |
| Design | | | | |
| 1. Philosophy | 5 | 7 | 9 | 29 |
| 2. Syllabus Use | 6 | 10 | 11 | 6 |
| 3. Methods | 6 | 10 | 11 | 26 |
| 4. Time Use | 6 | 9 | 9 | 3 |

**Table 3. Categories of Interviewed Teachers' STUDENT Functions**

| Category | No. of School Types | No. of Schools | No. of Teachers | No. of Events Noted |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Psychological | | | | |
| 1. Motivation | 5 | 6 | 8 | 16 |
| 2. Ability | 6 | 6 | 1 | 18 |
| 3. Needs | 5 | 9 | 9 | 27 |
| Philosophical | 4 | 5 | 5 | 14 |
| Sociological | 6 | 7 | 8 | 16 |

**Table 4. Categories of Interviewed Teachers' CONTENT Functions**

| Category | No. of School Types | No. of Schools | No. of Teachers | No of Events Noted |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Syllabus/ Programme | 5 | 6 | 6 | 11 |
| Texts/ Materials | 5 | 8 | 11 | 16 |

**Table 5. Categories of Interviewed Teachers' SYSTEM Functions**

| Category | No. of School Types | No. of Schools | No. of Teachers | No. of Events Noted |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Education | | | | |
| 1. School Performance | 6 | 9 | 9 | 12 |
| 2. Curriculum Development | 6 | 10 | 12 | 67 |
| 3. School System | 5 | 7 | 11 | 14 |
| Economy | 5* | 7* | 8* | 11* |
| Wider Society | 3 | 3* | 3 | 4 |

**Discussion**

This study addressed the nature of teacher participation, the potential contributions of teachers, and the implications of teacher contribution. What exactly do teachers do that relates to their actual and potential participation in English curriculum development?

### The nature of teacher participation

Teacher participation, in most instances, involved school-based decisions about content and texts. Teachers were more likely to be asked to suggest materials rather than to produce them. This type of teacher participation is consistent with Klein's (1991) six categories of decisions made in the course of developing and using curricula in classrooms: 1) content; 2) goals, objectives and purposes; 3) materials and resources; 4) activities and teaching strategies; 5) evaluation; and 6) grouping, time and space. In the process of making decisions, people's underlying values and beliefs are influential (Goodlad & Su, 1992). An important area of influence for teachers is in the realm of pedagogical content knowledge, a combination of content and pedagogy that is part of the professional understanding that teachers have (Shulman 1987, p. 7). This study confirms the nature of teacher participation in English curriculum development in classroom decision making about content, and the best way of influencing the curriculum, in the sense of not only "what is taught to students" (Sowell, 2000, p. 1), but also what they derive from the experience.

### Teacher contribution

The foregoing discussion of the data presented earlier suggests a number of ways in which teachers participate in curriculum development. The nature of their contribution involves the interplay of functions related to TEACHING, STUDENTS, CONTENT, and SYSTEM. How then can teachers contribute to the overall process of curriculum development? It seems that teachers have a consultative, less involved role than they are capable of having.

Teachers already undertake functions not normally associated with their role as teachers but which, traditionally, in a top-down approach to curriculum development, are associated with curriculum specialists. Teachers are actively involved in traditional activities such as planning, implementation, and evaluation. However, in one study it was

recommended that if teachers are to do more than simply assume the role of administrators in curriculum decision making, their expertise should be fully recognized (Johnston, 1995). A better understanding of teachers' expertise can be achieved by exploring the types of teacher activities outlined above.

As far as other functions are concerned, teachers are interested in giving tasks, using content or knowledge, understanding the nature of English teaching and decision making, and exploring the methodological and philosophical aspects of curriculum design. Teachers are also concerned about a variety of functions or activities associated with inputs from students, curriculum content, and system issues (educational, economic, and wider social concerns).

The main point, however, is that since teachers are involved in implementing the curriculum, their conception of the curriculum and their associated functions in delivering the curriculum should be considered as a critical part of the entire process of curriculum development. There are various ways of recognizing the critical role of teachers mentioned in previous research. For example, it has been recommended that teachers and students should make decisions about the curriculum under the guidance of interested parties (Klein, 1999). A study of physics teachers found that teachers' classroom goals may sometimes be in conflict with covering a list of topics agreed upon by colleagues for inclusion in the curriculum (Feldman & Kropf, 1999). Another way to recognize the teacher's critical role is to explore collaboration between teachers and parents (Konzal, 1997). However, it should be noted that while it may be desirable for teachers and parents to collaborate on curriculum reform, Konzal's study found that it is difficult for parents and teachers to agree on what goes on in "good" classrooms, and suggested that redefining teachers and parents as part of a community could address tensions between both groups. The present study concludes that recognition and acceptance of the teacher's role can have implications for teachers, their students, parents, and the institutions that are interested in what schools do.

### Implications of teacher participation

Three sets of implications arise from the foregoing discussion for teachers, students, and training and examining institutions. If there is recognition and acceptance of the present and potential role of teachers in curriculum development, then one can consider the impact on teachers first of all.

Teachers themselves need to be aware of their present and potential roles. Such awareness would have two possible effects. The first effect is that teachers would become more sensitive to the ways in which they affect the curriculum. Some research shows that teachers are interested in participating in curriculum development in the secondary school (Diphofa, 1995; Jennings, 1990; Osborne, 1997; Steele, 1995). There has been interest in broad participation in curriculum development in the primary and secondary schools, but teachers have expressed reservations about working with parents (Ashton, 1979). There is some evidence of successful teacher participation in curriculum development in primary science (Fraser-Abder, 1989). Nevertheless, it is a sensitive issue requiring an awareness of the impact of teachers on others such as parents, given the new conceptualization of teachers as professionals, which sometimes places teachers in a superior position to parents with respect to knowing what is "good" for the classroom (Konzal, 1997). Curriculum specialists would need to be aware of how teachers influence the curriculum, and could seek to involve teachers as well as produce curricula that are responsive to teacher inputs. The second effect that would need to be considered is the suggestion that different types of school climate can play an important role (Taylor, Thompson, & Bogotch, 1995).

Additionally, a role for students is envisioned. It seems necessary that on the basis of teachers' sensitivity to their students, and on the basis of students' and teachers' agreement on what teachers do, there should be an active and direct role for students in curriculum development. Given the data on teachers' perceptions of students' functions (see Table 3), and given students' ratings of their teachers (Steele, 1995), students appear to be quite aware of what their teachers are doing when the curriculum is being implemented. According to Klein (1999), with the right guidance, teachers and students can work together in a positive fashion in developing a highly desirable personalized curriculum.

Institutions such as the School of Education of The University of the West Indies (UWI), CXC, and teachers' professional associations stand to benefit from recognizing the nature of the teachers' present and potential role. For example, work on teacher training and teacher activities in curriculum units and departments in a Ministry of Education can involve teachers' knowledge and experience. Teacher training programmes and instructional development work at secondary and tertiary levels can take into account what teachers bring to bear upon curriculum conceptualization and

decision making. Carlgren (1999, p. 54) has suggested that "in order to develop professionalism as designers of school practice" student teachers "need experience of the practice of reflective curriculum planning". Links between tertiary-level institutions such as UWI and the secondary school system can be strengthened by recognizing the critical role of teachers as participants in curriculum development. Examination bodies such as CXC already make use of teachers in various ways, as evidenced in workshops and assessment exercises (Griffith, 1999). However, there is need to involve teachers even more in the planning and implementation phases in a fashion similar to that described for school geography (Jennings, 1990). Finally, teachers' professional associations need to consider the significant ways in which teacher input in curriculum development can contribute further to the professionalization of teaching in the Caribbean.

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**Appendix A**

## Curriculum Development Questionnaire Items 15 to 17
### (Excerpt from main questionnaire)

**IV. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT DATA**

15.   WHO DECIDES WHAT CONTENT IS TO BE COVERED IN
      ENGLISH AT A GIVEN LEVEL IN YOUR SCHOOL?

Department Head               ( )
Year Co-ordinator             ( )
Entire Department             ( )
Independent teachers          ( )
Other (Please explain)        ( )        ........................

......................................................................................................

16.   WHO DECIDES WHAT TEXTS ARE TO BE USED IN ENGLISH
      AT A GIVEN LEVEL IN YOUR SCHOOL?

Department Head               ( )
Year Co-ordinator             ( )
Entire Department             ( )
Independent teachers          ( )
Other (Please explain)        ( )        ........................

......................................................................................................

17.   HAVE YOU EVER BEEN INVITED TO

                                          Yes      No

A.  Suggest or identify                   ( )      ( )
B.  Produce or obtain                     ( )      ( )

CONTENT MATERIALS (E.G. TOPICS, THEMES, EXERCISES) FOR
INCLUSION IN A SYLLABUS OR PROGRAMME OF WORK IN
ENGLISH FOR USE IN YOUR SCHOOL?

## Interview Schedule

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

### Classroom Lesson

1.  Why was this lesson done today?

2.  Did the lesson go as planned?

3.  What kind of follow-up work do you have in mind for this class?

4.  Do you plan to evaluate this lesson?

5A.  Can you think of any instances in this lesson when you consciously made a change in your lesson plan?

5B.  If you had to teach this lesson again, would you do it the same way or make changes?

### Students

6.  What kind of students are there in this school?

7.  What kind of students do you have in this class?

8.  To what extent are you influenced by a syllabus/programme of work when you are planning lessons for this class?

9.  Are there any activities or ideas you have in mind which you wish you could do with this class but which are not possible?

10.  Is there any aspect of your English teaching which you feel you would like to be able to do in a better way with these students?

### School

11.  In your view how is the school doing in English?

12. How is the English Department organized?

13. Are there specific duties or functions which you are expected to perform as a member of the department?

14. Do you have a view about what content is suitable for this class which is different to what the Head of Department or other teachers think is suitable?

15. Who selects and decides texts/content to be covered by this class?

### Curriculum Development

16. Would you prefer if curriculum planning for English were done by a central committee set up by the Ministry of Education or a local in-school/district committee?

    Probe: Could you give reasons for your preference?

17. Would you like to be involved in such planning (either local or central)?

    Probe: If yes, why?

    Probe: If no, why not?

18. Are there any advantages or disadvantages to planning at the level you indicated?

19. Can you speculate as to how other teachers of English in

    (a) your school
    (b) other schools

    might feel about being on a curriculum committee at local or national level?

20. What do you think the tasks of such a committee might be?

**Appendix C**

**SELF RATING AS AN ENGLISH TEACHER**

**IN RELATION TO**

**FORM _____**

**SCHOOL _____**

Below are some statements which describe what an English teacher might do in the course of teaching your class. To the right of each statement is a number which indicates how much this statement applies to yourself. Please circle the number which matches the extent to which each statement describes you as an English teacher.

ALL STATEMENTS APPLY TO YOUR TEACHING ENGLISH TO THIS CLASS.

**5 = Always;      4 = Often; 3 = Sometimes; 2 = Hardly;      1 = Never**

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A. Select content materials (e.g. Exercises, activities, topics, themes) that do not follow the textbook order? | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| B. Select work that does not come from the text | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| C. Consider yourself ultimately responsible for planning work for instructing this class? | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| D. Make clear to this class what you are going to try to do in a lesson? | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| E. Tell these students what you expect them to be able to achieve by the end of the lesson? | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

F. Keep to predetermined set of
   objectives or ideas for a
   lesson with this class?          5        4        3        2        1

G. Consider yourself responsible
   for these students' learning?    5        4        3        2        1


TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU

H. Believe you are capable of
   teaching this class?             5        4        3        2        1

I. Emphasize what the more
   important areas of the course
   are?                             5        4        3        2        1

J. Provide adequate instruction
   time?                            5        4        3        2        1

K. Consider the difficulty level
   of content in relation to the
   students' level of
   understanding?                   5        4        3        2        1

L. Match content material to
   students' interest?              5        4        3        2        1

M. Plan for evaluation at the
   same time you are deciding
   what to teach?                   5        4        3        2        1

N. Prefer to teach some areas in
   English more than others?        5        4        3        2        1

         (Please list these areas below)
         _____

         _____

         _____
O. Avoid teaching some areas in
   English?                         5        4        3        2        1

         (Please list these areas below)

         _____

         _____
         _____

**Appendix D**

**STUDENT RATING OF TEACHER**

**WHO TEACHES**

**FORM** _____

**SCHOOL** _____

Below are some statements which describe what your English teacher might do in the course of teaching your class. To the right of each statement is a number which indicates how much this statement applies to your teacher. Please circle the number which matches the extent to which each statement describes your present English teacher.

ALL STATEMENTS RELATE ONLY TO YOUR PRESENT ENGLISH TEACHER

**5 = Always;     4 = Often; 3 = Sometimes; 2 = Hardly;     1 = Never**

TO WHAT EXTENT DOES YOUR ENGLISH TEACHER

A. Select work for you (e.g. exercises
　 Activities, topics, themes) that
　 Does not follow the order of the
　 text?　　　　　　　　　　　5　　　4　　　3　　　2　　　1

B. Select work for you that does not
　 come from the text　　　　　5　　　4　　　3　　　2　　　1

C. Plan what is going to be taught? 5　　　4　　　3　　　2　　　1

D. Make clear to you what he/she is
　 going to try to do in a lesson?　5　　　4　　　3　　　2　　　1

E. Tell you what he/she expects you
　 to be able to do or understand
　 by the end of the lesson?　　　5　　　4　　　3　　　2　　　1

F. Keep to what he/she set out to
　 do at the beginning of a lesson
　 with this class?　　　　　　　5　　　4　　　3　　　2　　　1

G. Feel personally responsible

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| for your learning? | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| H. Seem capable of teaching this class? | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

TO WHAT EXTENT DOES YOUR ENGLISH TEACHER

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I. Stress what the more important areas of the course are? | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| J. Provide enough time for you to learn what is being taught? | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| K. Take into account whether the work is difficult for you to do? | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| L. Match what is taught with what you are interested in? | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| M. Really test what you were taught | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| N. Prefer to teach some areas in English more than others? | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

(Please list these areas below)

_____

_____

_____

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O. Avoid teaching some areas in English? | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

(Please list these areas below)

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# THE PRINCIPAL AS INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER
## AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

*Janet Fullerton-Rawlins*

This bibliography brings together a selection of works on the principal as instructional leader. There has been extensive research in this area, but the bibliography does not attempt to be comprehensive in coverage. Instead, it attempts to provide a basic research tool for researchers on the subject. The bibliography is divided into three sections. The first section deals with the Caribbean. Because of the paucity of literature on the region, it was decided to include most of the relevant literature for which annotations could be provided, regardless of the date of publication. Although the second section is international in scope, the majority of the entries relate to the United States. This section is very selective and only includes literature from 1990, with emphasis on the more recent literature. It is organized by the following areas in which the principal exhibits his influence as an instructional leader: 1) general leadership, 2) staff development, 3) student achievement, and 4) community involvement. The final section identifies some websites that should be useful for Internet research on this topic.

## Introduction

Educational leadership can be broadly defined as a social process in which one person in an educational organization influences the goals, vision, work, individual performances, and relations in that organization (Yukl as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2001). The role of the principal as an educational leader is one of the areas in education that has been widely researched and continues to be researched. However, it is noticeable that the role of the principal as instructional leader, within the broader framework of educational leadership, has been receiving a great deal of attention from researchers. The responsibilities involved in instructional leadership include setting goals and standards, improving student performance, providing professional development for faculty and staff, and engaging the local community. The National Association of Elementary School Principals (2001) in the United States has highlighted six standards of instructional leadership:

1.  Leading schools in a way that puts student and adult learning at the center while serving as leader and teacher.

2.  Promoting the academic success of all students by setting high standards and an environment of achievement.

3.  Creating curriculum and instruction that ensure student progress to agreed-upon academic standards.

4.  Creating a climate of continuous learning for adults that is tied to student learning.

5.  Using multiple sources of data as a diagnostic tool to assess, identify, and apply instructional improvement.

6.  Actively engaging the community to share in responsibility for school success.

According to Brown and Irby (2001), "school reform efforts have focused attention on the principal as the person who facilitates the process of transforming schools and who leads faculty, staff, students, and community to levels of excellence" (p. vii). Therefore, as an instructional leader, the principal is the one responsible for achieving educational excellence in a school.

As a leader, the principal's role is akin to a manager of an organization where the leadership focuses on making decisions about what should be done to improve the organization (Kowalski, 2003). However, whereas management seeks to influence people so that they will achieve predetermined organizational objectives, leadership strives to influence people to create shared objectives and then attain them (Kowalski, p. 3). Leadership involves the embodiment and articulation of a vision and its communication to others (Bush & Bell, 2002). It is this vision that distinguishes leaders from those who are just good managers. This is the role that school principals are required to assume as instructional leaders.

Principals, as instructional leaders, recognize that teaching, learning, and academic achievement are the main business of the school. They recognize that the students, staff, parents, and community all come

together to execute this business in an effective way. The role of principals is to combine all these elements to ensure that the business of the school is successfully carried out and maintained. As instructional leaders, they must ensure that teachers are committed, students are actively engaged in learning, and parents are supportive. They must be able to motivate the staff, provide avenues for professional development, encourage their students, and communicate with parents and the community at large. In addition to having a clear vision for the school, principals, as instructional leaders, must have clear and well-understood goals; establish a safe and positive school climate; focus on academics, teaching, and learning; and practise shared decision making in tandem with teachers, parents, and students (Educational Research Service [ERS], 2000). In effect, they must use their position to move the school to educational excellence (Kimbrough & Burkett, 1990).

One of the earliest models of instructional leadership was proposed by Sergiovanni (1995), who suggests that leadership is made up of a set of forces that the principal uses to make the school effective. These forces are technical, human, educational, symbolic, and cultural:

- The technical leader displays sound management techniques such as planning and time management.
- The human leader harnesses the school's human resources and motivates them.
- The educational leader shows expert knowledge about matters of education, curriculum, teaching, and learning.
- The symbolic leader emphasizes matters of importance to the school community.
- The cultural leader seeks to define a culture of the school—its goals, vision, and values.

Sergiovanni suggests that a school's effectiveness depends on a combination of these forces.

In addition to being instructional leaders, principals must also possess a wide range of skills to manage the school and lead it to excellence. Kimbrough and Burkett (1990) posit that principals need more skills than the ordinary manager in other organizations, and these skills are important in performing the tasks involved in the leadership role.

McEwan (2003) points out that strong principals must exhibit the following behaviours:

- display commitment to academic goals
- provide forceful and dynamic leadership
- consult effectively with others
- create order and discipline
- marshal resources
- use time well
- evaluate results.

Other researchers have identified a number of other skills that principals must possess, which range from communication and public relations, to conflict resolution and mediation skills (ERS, 2000).

Although schools may vary in size, complexity, and location, the fundamental functions of principals remain the same. It is their influence as instructional leaders that will ultimately develop and lead the school to success and to excellence.

## References

Brown, G., & Irby, B. (2001). *The principal portfolio* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Bush, T., & Bell, L. (Eds.). (2002). *The principles and practice of educational management.* London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Educational Research Service. (2000). *The principal, keystone of a high-achieving school: Attracting and keeping the leaders we need.* Arlington, VA: ERS for the National Association of Elementary School Principals and the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Hoy, W., & Miskel, C. (2001). *Educational administration: Theory, research and practice* (6th ed.). Boston: McGraw Hill.

Kimbrough, R. B., & Burkett, C. W. (1990). *The principalship: Concepts and practices.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Kowalski, T. J. (2003). *Contemporary school administration: An introduction* (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

McEwan, Elaine K. (2003). *Seven steps to effective instructional leadership* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

National Association of Elementary School Principals. (2001). *Leading learning communities: Standards for what principals should know and be able to do.* Alexandria, VA: NAESP.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1995). *The principalship: A reflective practice perspective* (3rd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

# BIBLIOGRAPHY

## Caribbean

Buckley-Jones, Barbara A.
*Principals' leadership style, its expression and effect on teachers' job satisfaction.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of the West Indies, Mona, 1988. xiv, 321 p.

This study examined the leadership style of secondary school principals in Jamaica, and attempted to identify its effects on the job satisfaction of teachers. Data were gathered through a questionnaire sent to 23 principals and 119 teachers, drawn from all secondary school types. Results of the data analysis revealed a definite instructional leadership style, as principals indicated that they emphasized planning, decision making, communicating, and social and professional support as aspects of their leadership style, which influenced teacher morale and performance.

David, Douglas E.
*The effects of headmaster/headmistress leadership styles on teachers' morale in primary schools in Region 4.* Unpublished master's thesis, University of Guyana, 1992. vi, 158 p.

This study sought to test the widely held view that leadership styles have an effect on teacher morale. Questionnaires were used to collect data from teachers and headmistresses in 20 primary schools in Region 4, Guyana. One of the findings showed that the leadership style of heads had a significant relationship with teacher morale.

Davidson, Frances E.
*Teachers' perceived leadership behaviour of principals and morale in a selected sample of schools.* Unpublished master's thesis, The University of the West Indies, Mona, 1979. vii, 165 p.

This study sought to identify: 1) the different aspects of principals' leadership behaviour which both principals and teachers considered important for enhancing the harmonious and productive functioning of the school, and 2) the reaction of teachers to these aspects of principals'

leadership. Results of the data analysis showed aspects of instructional leadership, as both principals and teachers considered participation in decision making, consideration, and open communication as the major aspects of the principal's behaviour in relation to staff morale.

Hernandez, Denise Lucy Jeanne
    *The attitudes of primary school principals in St. George East toward the visionary leadership ideal*. Unpublished master's thesis, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine, 1991. x, 262 p.

This study attempted to determine whether or not primary school principals in the St. George East Educational District of Trinidad, exhibited the attributes of visionary leadership in their efforts to achieve quality education. One of the findings of the study revealed that almost all of the principals displayed a positive attitude toward visionary leadership and its practice in schools, in their efforts to achieve quality education.

Joseph, Arthur
    *Principal leadership at the junior secondary school in Trinidad and Tobago*. Unpublished master's thesis, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine, 2000. xii, 377 p.

The study sought to determine: 1) the leadership frames most often used by principals at junior secondary schools in Trinidad and Tobago, 2) the degree of effectiveness of these frames, and 3) the impact of principals' leadership on teachers' commitment to their school and student learning. The schools under study were categorized as high-achieving or low-achieving. The results of the study showed that there are leadership differences as well as teacher commitment differences in high-achieving and low-achieving schools, and that academic performance might be directly related to principal leadership and teacher commitment.

Mills, Carlton
    Leadership and mission: Some challenges for the 21st century. In UNESCO/CARNEID. *The Caribbean education annual,* (pp. 15-19). Bridgetown: CARNEID Coordinating Centre, 1997. (Caribbean Education Annual; vol. IV, 96-97).

This paper attempts to provide: 1) a working definition of the concept of "Leadership and Mission" and advance some suggestions on how

principals can develop effective and achievable missions for their schools; and 2) issue some challenges to principals on how to communicate their mission to staff effectively so that they can help to create better schools for the 21st century.

Mortley-Modeste, Agatha
  *The role of the school principal in staff development in St. Lucia.* Unpublished master's thesis, McGill University, 1993. ix, 114 p.

This study explored the role of the principal in staff development and whether it corresponded with the expectations of school teachers. It found that, generally, school principals play a positive role in staff development and that this matches teachers' expectations. This role takes the form of conducting orientation sessions for new staff, advising staff on teaching techniques, encouraging staff to pursue further studies, inviting their input in school related matters, and preparing effective professional development day sessions.

Scott-McDonald, Kerida Verity
  *Dimensions of principal effectiveness in Jamaican primary level schools – an ethnography.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Harvard University, 1989. [viii], 695 p.

This study, based on one-year's ethnographic research in two Jamaican primary schools, documented and analyzed the leadership behaviour and organization of the principals of these schools. It describes the content and characteristics of the principals' work, the context within which they worked, the problems they encountered, and the strategies they used in solving them. The underlying assumption was that the effectiveness of a school ultimately depended on the effectiveness of its leader. The study concludes with an examination of the facets of leadership behaviour that were particularly responsive to the special demands and constraints of the environment in which the principals worked, and which helped contribute to school effectiveness.

Simmonds, Alletha P.
  *Teachers' perceived leadership behaviour of principals and teachers' performance in a sample of fifty all-age schools in rural and urban Jamaica.* Unpublished master's thesis, The University of the West Indies, Mona, 1994. xii, 194 p.

This study sought to identify the relationship between teachers' perceived leadership behaviour of principals and teachers' performance in a sample of 50 all-age schools in three parishes in Jamaica. From the data collected, it was revealed that there was a positive and significant relationship between teachers' perceived leadership behaviour of principals and teachers' performance. Principals were perceived to demonstrate high levels of leadership behaviour—task- and people-oriented—and teachers were generally perceived to perform at high levels.

Stewart, V. S.
    The role of the principal in the secondary school. *Educational Journal of Trinidad and Tobago, 6* (2), September, 1976, pp. 28-35.

The article defines the role of the principal as sociologist, helmsman, manager, educational expert, and human being. It also shows how the role of principals is to manage the human and other resources of the school so that, with society, child, and curriculum, they can steer or direct the educational process to the all-round development of the child.

Thompson, Cynthia
    Preparing principals to be instructional leaders. *Caribbean Teacher,* October, 2001, pp. 14-15.

This article describes an in-service programme for principals in Belizean primary schools between 1996 and 1999, through which 192 principals received training. It also discusses the role and functions of the principal as instructional leader.

Worrell, George Christopher
    *Primary school leadership: A case of two recently retired principals in the Port of Spain and Environs Education Division.* Unpublished master's thesis, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine, 1994. vii, 114 p.

The thesis examined the leadership principles and practices of two recently retired and highly successful primary school principals of the Port of Spain and Environs Division of the Ministry of Education in Trinidad and Tobago. Results of the data analysis revealed that the leaders' styles were autocratic and were effective in terms of the

academic results of their students. The findings also showed that they used their human and material resources successfully to produce high-performing schools. It was observed that the leaders took full advantage of the location of the schools (one in the centre of Port of Spain and the under in an upper middle-class residential suburb), which set the tone for the leaders drive and commitment to academic excellence.


## INTERNATIONAL

### General

Boyd, Bill
The principal as teacher: A model for instructional leadership. *NASSP Bulletin, 80* (580), May 1996, pp. 65-73.

This article shows how the principal-as-teacher model is one possible means of making principals effective instructional leaders. This approach gives the principal a feel for the educational process, allows for the testing of administrative decisions or policy, provides direct contact between principal and students, and keeps the principal active academically.

Butterworth, Barbara and Weinstein, Rhona S.
Enhancing motivational opportunity in elementary schooling: A case study of the ecology of principal leadership. *Elementary School Journal, 97* (1), September 1996, pp. 57-80.

This article examines the efforts of an elementary school principal to create a motivating school climate. It discusses four ecological principles: 1) the development of activities that recognize individuality and demand involvement and adaptation, 2) the expansion of resources to the whole school community, 3) the interdependence of activities at each school level, and 4) the balancing of resources and activities.

Casavant, Marc D. and Cherkowski, Sabre
Effective leadership: Bringing mentoring and creativity to the principalship. *NASSP Bulletin, 85* (624), April 2001, pp. 71-81.

This article examines the issues and problems associated with the decline in potential leaders applying for the principalship in the United States. It

then explores the behaviours that constitute effective leadership, and suggests that mentoring, combined with creativity training, has the potential to positively affect leadership style.

Childs-Bowen, Deborah; Moller, Gayle and Scrivner, Jennifer
    Principals: Leaders of leaders. *NASSP Bulletin, 84* (616), May 2000, pp. 27-34.

This article states that as leaders, principals must build systems to ensure sustainability of the leadership structure. Four strategies are offered for principals to help leadership in schools: 1) create opportunities for teachers to lead, 2) build professional learning communities, 3) provide quality professional development, and 4) celebrate innovation and teacher expertise.

Cross, Christopher T. and Rice, Robert C.
    The role of the principal as instructional leader in a standards-driven system. *NASSP Bulletin, 84* (620), December 2000, pp. 61-65.

This article explores four elements of effective instructional leadership: 1) vision and commitment, 2) high expectations and trust, 3) effective communication, and 4) courage to collaborate. The principal's role is highlighted and discussed.

Ferrandino, Vincent L.
    Challenges for 21st century elementary school principals. *Phi Delta Kappan, 82* (6), February 2001, pp. 440-442.

This article points out that the principalship of the 21st century requires more than an array of managerial skills. It requires the ability to lead others, to stand for important ideas and values, and more importantly, it requires never losing sight of a vision.

Gordon, Bruce G.; Stockard, J. W. and Williford, H.
    The principal's role as school leader. *Educational Research Quarterly, 15* (4), October 1992, pp. 29-38.

Perceptions of the current and ideal roles of the principal were compared using responses of 147 Alabama teachers. Differences between current and ideal roles were found for categories of counselor, evaluator,

motivator, and supervisor. The results emphasized the varying perceptions teachers have of principals.

Grantham, Tarek C. and Ford, Donna Y.
Principal instructional leadership can reverse the under-representation of Black students in gifted education. *NASSP Bulletin, 82* (595), February 1998, pp. 101-109.

This article states that principals can help to improve the representation of Black students in the United States in gifted education, by focusing on teacher supervision and evaluation, staff development, and quality control.

Hallinger, Philip
The evolving role of American principals: From managerial to instructional to transformational leaders. *Journal of Educational Administration, 30* (3), 1992, pp.35-48.

This article analyzes the evolution of the principalship in the United States between 1960 and 1992, focusing on three main roles: programme manager, instructional leader, and transformational leader. In each case, the article explores the basis of the role and its relationship to the leadership demands from the school environments. It also discusses the implications for the evolving role of the principalship in the United States.

Isherwood, Geoffrey B. and Achoka, Judith
The secondary school principal in Quebec. Role and responsibilities. *Education Canada, 31* (1), Spring 1991, pp. 39-43.

This article focuses on the results of a study done on the role of the principal in English-speaking secondary schools in Quebec. Four aspects of the principal's role were investigated: 1) the expectations held by secondary school principals, 2) conflicts experienced by secondary school principals, 3) ambiguities that exist in the role of the secondary principal, and 4) how the contemporary role of the principal compares with that of 20 years earlier. In looking at the final question, the discussion showed that the role has changed because of changes in the school environment and that the principal is now less autocratic, and more inclined to consult teachers, staff council, parents, and the orientation committee on matters of policy.

Karpicke, Herbert and Murphy, Mary E.
    Productive school culture: Principals working from the inside. *NASSP Bulletin, 80* (576), January 1996, pp. 26-34.

This article asserts that principals are responsible for setting the conditions which result in a culture that produces excellence. It accepts that they cannot do it alone, however, they can provide the leadership and support that produce an environment which reflects productivity.

McEwan, Elaine K.
    *Seven steps to effective instructional leadership* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, 2003. xviii, 197 p.

This book highlights seven steps to instructional leadership. These are: 1) establish, implement, and achieve academic standards; 2) be an instructional resource for staff; 3) create a learning-oriented school culture and climate; 4) communicate school's vision and mission to staff and students; 5) set high expectations for staff and oneself; 6) develop teacher leaders; and 7) develop and maintain positive relationships with students, staff, and parents. It concludes with a checklist of things a principal can do to become an effective instructional leader.

Moorthy, David
    The Canadian principal of the '90s: Manager or instructional leader? Or both? *Education Canada, 32 (*2), Summer 1992, pp. 8-11.

This article states that although principals typically emphasize their managerial role, they need to increase their role as instructional leaders. The principal's role as an instructional leader involves three main areas: 1) defining the school mission, 2) overseeing the instructional programme, and 3) promoting the school learning climate.

National Association of Elementary School Principals
    *Leading learning communities: Standards for what principals should know and be able to do.* Alexandria, VA: NAESP, 2001. 96 p.

This handbook is designed to guide elementary and middle-level principals in developing their responsibilities in key instructional areas. These responsibilities include setting goals and standards, improving

student performance, providing professional development for staff, effectively using data and testing tools, and engaging the local community. It also sets out six standards that define instructional leadership for today's principals. These are: 1) leading schools in a way that puts student and adult learning at the centre, 2) promoting the academic success of all students, 3) creating and demanding rigorous content and instruction, 4) creating a climate of continuous learning for adults, 5) using multiple sources of data as a diagnostic tool, and 6) actively engaging the community.

Niece, Richard D.
    The principal as instructional leader: Past influences and current resources. *NASSP Bulletin, 77* (553), May 1993, pp. 12-18.

The article describes a study of secondary principals that attempted to: 1) generate categories of instructional leadership, 2) identify sources previously influencing secondary principals emerging into instructional leaders, and 3) note sources that principals seek out for advice and information. The findings show that effective instructional leaders are people-oriented, function within a network of other principals, and value strong mentor relationships.

Parker, Stephanie A., and Day, Victoria P.
    Promoting inclusion through instructional leadership: The roles of the secondary school principal. *NASSP Bulletin, 81* (587), March 1997, pp. 83-89.

According to this article, purposeful leadership is the key to school communities. The article outlines five aspects of instructional leadership which principals must practise to create school communities: 1) clearly define and articulate an inclusive school mission, 2) foster a school climate aimed at all students' success, 3) manage and coordinate curriculum and instructional resources to support inclusive goals, 4) monitor and support each student's progress, and 5) model reflective management and teacher supervision practices.

Quinn, David M.
    The impact of principal leadership behaviors on instructional practice and student engagement. *Journal of Educational Administration, 40* (5), 2002, pp. 447-467.

The purpose of this study was to identify the relationship between principal leadership behaviours and teacher instructional practice descriptors. The study was conducted in eight elementary, eight middle, and eight high schools in the United States. Teachers in each school were surveyed on the principal's instructional leadership abilities. Results showed that instructional leadership practices correlated highly with instructional practice descriptors. The study confirmed the importance of instructional leadership and gives some insight into the nature of this leadership.

Schmieder, June H. and Cairns, Donald
   *Ten skills of highly effective principals.* Lancaster, PA: Technomic Publishing Company, 1996. xxiii, 111 p.

This book defines the following 10 skills that educators believe are most likely to create effective leadership and instructional leadership: 1) having a vision; 2) demonstrating a desire to make a significant difference in the lives of staff and students; 3) knowing how to evaluate staff; 4) understanding that change is ongoing and may alter vision; 5) being aware of one's biases, strengths, and weaknesses; 6) knowing how to conduct group meetings; 7) having self-confidence; 8) knowing how to assess job responsibilities; 9) knowing how to encourage involvement by all parties in the educational community; and 10) having a sense of ethics and professional values.

Smith, Roger
   *The primary headteacher's handbook: the essential guide for primary heads.* London: Kogan Page, 2002. 224 p.

This book, which is intended as a guide for primary school principals in the United Kingdom, shows how to approach the day-to-day running of a primary school. It also shows how to create organizational structures in which staff and students can be inspired. It examines topics such as planning for success and a positive school ethos, developing staff, teaching and learning, running the school as an organization, coping with inspection, and raising and maintaining standards.

Wanzare, Zachariah and Da Costa, José L.
   Rethinking instructional leadership roles of the school principal: Challenges and prospects. *Journal of Educational Thought, 35* (3), December 2001, pp. 269-295.

This article argues that the principal's tasks, especially those associated with instructional leadership, are numerous, challenging, and complex. It identifies 38 major roles of the principal, including creating a visible presence in the school and supervising instructional activities of teachers. The article also examines the principal's instructional leadership role, the major constraints inherent in this role, and strategies for alleviating problems.

Welch, Frances C.; Lindsay, Sandra and Halfacre, John
    Quality principals: Questions to consider. *Principal Leadership, 1* (6), February 2001, pp. 56-59.

This article argues that to be effective leaders, principals need to communicate clearly with all concerned with the school—what they believe, what they expect, where they have been, and where they want to go.

## Staff Development

Blase, Joseph and Blase, Jo
    Effective instructional leadership. *Journal of Educational Administration, 38* (2), 2000, pp. 130-141.

This article gives the result of a study in which over 800 American teachers responded to a questionnaire which asked them to identify and describe characteristics of principals that enhanced their classroom instruction, and the impacts those characteristics had on them. The findings revealed two themes of effective instructional leadership: 1) talking with teachers to promote reflection, and 2) promoting professional growth.

Blase, Jo and Blase, Joseph
    The teacher's principal. *Journal of Staff Development, 22* (1), Winter 2001, pp. 22-25.

This article discusses effective instructional leadership. It also looks at how principals can improve teaching, and how teachers' views of leaders affect what they do in the classroom. In addition, it highlights two major themes in instructional leadership—talking with teachers to promote reflection, and promoting professional growth.

Colley, Amy

    What can principals do about new teacher attrition? *Principal, 81* (4), March 2002, pp. 22-24.

This article makes the point that principals can help to stop the flight of teachers from the profession. They can do this by providing support as instructional leaders, culture builders, and mentor coordinators, and by creating an environment in which new teachers are able to thrive.

Educational Research Service

    *The principal, keystone of a high-achieving school: Attracting and keeping the leaders we need.* Arlington, VA: ERS for the National Association of School Principals, and the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 2000. vi, 85 p.

This report reviews the research on the leadership roles of effective principals. It also gives guidelines for recruiting and hiring principals, and gives suggestions for professional development activities.

Kelleher, James

    Encouraging reflective practice. *Principal Leadership, 3* (2), October 2002, pp. 20-23.

This article looks at how principals can encourage their teachers in reflective practice as a part of the professional development vision of the school.

Knipe, Caroll and Speck, Marsha

    Improving competence in the classroom. *Principal Leadership, 3* (2) October 2002, pp. 57-59.

This article states that principals, as leaders of schools, must take an active role in creating adequate professional development for staff members, as this helps to improve student achievement.

Maulding, Wanda and Joachim, Pat

    When quality really counts. *Contemporary Education, 71* (4), 2000, pp. 16-18.

According to this article, quality in education depends to a large extent on the teachers. Principals must establish a partnership between themselves and teachers. They should also emphasize to teachers that the success of the students is important. This will instil an atmosphere of confidence from the staff in the ability of the instructional leader to assist them in improvement and/or growth, when necessary.

Riggs, Ernestine G. and Serafin, Ana Gil
    The principal as instructional leader: Teaching high school teachers how to teach reading. *NASSP Bulletin, 82* (600), October 1998, pp. 78-84.

The main focus of this article is "The Strategic Teaching and Reading Project," which was developed in the United States to be used in secondary classrooms to improve the reading ability of all students. However, the article initially discusses the role of the principal in providing professional development for staff to improve student achievement.

Youngs, Peter and King, M. Bruce
    Principal leadership for professional development to build school capacity. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 38* (5), December 2002, pp. 643-670.

This article gives the findings of a qualitative study of four urban elementary schools in the United States. The study sought to examine the extent to which, and the ways in which, principal leadership for professional development addressed three aspects of school organizational capacity: 1) teachers' knowledge, skills, and dispositions; 2) professional community; and 3) programme coherence. The findings revealed that effective principals can sustain high levels of capacity by establishing trust, creating structures that promote teacher learning, and by either connecting their faculties to external faculties or helping teachers generate reforms internally.

**Student Achievement**

Andrews, Richard L.; Basom, Margaret R. and Basom, Myron
    Instructional leadership: Supervision that makes a difference. *Theory into Practice, 30* (2), Spring 1991, pp. 97-101.

This article examines the supervisory practices of instructional leaders that have been found to increase student achievement. Four practices are identified as important: 1) resource provider, 2) instructional resource, 3) communicator, and 4) visible presence.

Bulach, Clete; Lunenburg, Fred C. and McCallon, R.
    The influence of the principal's leadership style on school climate and student achievement. *People in Education, 3* (3), September 1995, pp. 333-350.

This study examined the influence of the principal's leadership style on school climate and student achievement. Principals and teachers in 20 elementary schools in the United States were involved in the study. The results of the study revealed that principals who involved students, parents, and community in the decision-making process have higher student achievement.

Dempsey, Dennis F.
    The principal push for technology. *High School Magazine, 7* (1), September 1999, pp. 30-33.

This article suggests that if schools are going to meet the challenges of preparing students for the 21st century, school principals must be involved in the integration of technology throughout the school. It also states that the principal must lead by example by using the technology himself and establishing an environment that encourages the use of technology.

DuFour, Richard
    The learning-centered principal. *Educational Leadership, 59* (8), May 2002, pp. 12-15.

In this article, a former principal describes how he transformed his high school from an emphasis on teaching to an emphasis on learning, by functioning as a learning leader rather than an instructional leader. The article asserts that all principals should become learning leaders who promote student and teacher learning.

Ediger, Marlow
    The school principal as leader in reading instruction. *Reading Improvement 37,* (1), Spring 2000, pp. 20-29.

This article suggests that the principal has a leading responsibility in improving the school curriculum. It discusses the principal's vital role in assisting teachers to help each student become the best reader possible, and presents several ways that principals can help teachers improve reading instruction.

Fink, Elaine and Resnick, Lauren B.
    Developing principals as instructional leaders. *Phi Delta Kappan, 82* (8), April 2001, pp. 598-610.

This article reflects on the experiences of the Community School District in New York City over an 11-year period, during which the school district amassed a strong record of successful schooling improvement. It identifies nesting learning communities and cognitive apprenticeships as keys to success, and asserts that principals are responsible for establishing a pervasive culture of learning and teaching in each school.

Foriska, Terry J.
    The principal as instructional leader: Teaming with teachers for student success. *Schools in the Middle, 3* (3), February 1994. pp. 31-34.

This article shows how cooperation between a principal and teachers helped to improve student learning. After administering the cognitive section of the National Association of Secondary School Principal (NASSP) Learning Style to students and tabulating the results, the principal worked with teachers to personalize instruction and improve student learning.

Neuman, Mary and Pelchat, Judith
    The challenge to leadership: Focusing on student achievement. *Phi Delta Kappan, 82* (10), June 2001, pp. 732-736.

In this article, three educators—a superintendent, principal, and teacher leader—reflect on the relationship between leadership and student achievement. The discussion centred on how to promote leadership that encourages instructional agenda in schools.

**Community Involvement**

Epstein, Joyce Levy
    School/family/community partnerships: Caring for the children we share. *Phi Delta Kappan, 76* (9), May 1995, pp. 701-712.

This article states that the reasons for developing school, family, and community partnerships are to: 1) improve school programmes and school climate, 2) provide family services and support, 3) increase parents' skills and leadership, 4) connect families with others in the school and the community, 5) help teachers with their work, and 6) help students succeed in school and later life. The article also provides guidelines for building these relationships.

Epstein, Joyce L. and Sheldon, Steven B.
    Present and accounted for: Improving student attendance through family and community involvement. *Journal of Educational Research, 95* (5), May/June 2002, pp. 309-318.

This study shows how family/school/community partnerships may contribute to the reduction of student absenteeism and truancy. Data were collected on primary and secondary schools' rates of daily student attendance and chronic absenteeism, and on specific partnership practices that were implemented to help increase or sustain student attendance. Results suggest that schools interested in improving or maintaining good attendance could benefit from taking a comprehensive approach, which includes students, educators, parents, and community partners.

Griffith, James
    Principal leadership of parent involvement. *Journal of Educational Administration, 39* (2), 2001, pp. 162-186.

This article reports on a study undertaken to determine the principal behaviours associated with high levels of parental involvement in schools. The study collected data from 82 elementary schools in the United States, school principals, and school archives. The findings of the study reveal that the general belief is that principals' behaviour influence parent involvement. The findings also identify specific roles associated

with parent involvement and factors traditionally associated with parent involvement.

Hatch, Thomas
    How community action contributes to achievement. *Educational Leadership, 55* (8), May 1998, pp. 16-19.

This article highlights developments at Alliance Schools in Texas, USA, which show that the power of community involvement for improving learning may come from a number of different sources. It shows that community involvement contributes to improvement in three areas: 1) the physical conditions, resources, and constituencies that support learning; 2) the attitudes and expectations of parents, teachers, and students; and 3) the depth and quality of the learning experiences in which parents, teachers, and students participate.

Melaville, Atelia I., and Blank, Martin J.
    It takes a whole community…. *Principal, 80* (1), September 2000, pp.18-20, 22.

In this article elementary school principals from several rural and urban community schools explain how close-knit community partnerships created campuses that involved parents, energized teachers, and enhanced children's learning.

McPhee, Rob
    Orchestrating community involvement. *Educational Leadership, 53* (4), December/January 1995/6, pp. 71-74.

In this article, an Alberta high school principal describes the process of transforming a small vocational training school into an innovative school of science and technology. It shows how discussions with all stakeholders proved to be very useful.

Sanders, Mavis G. and Harvey, Adia
    Beyond the school walls: A case study of principal leadership for school-community collaboration. *Teachers College Record, 104* (7), October 2002, pp. 1345-1368.

This paper describes how one urban elementary school in the United States developed strong connections with 10 community businesses and organizations as part of its programme of school, family, and community partnerships. These partnerships supported the school's efforts to provide a challenging and nurturing learning environment for its students.

## WEBSITES

**Educational Leadership**
This website is intended to help people interested in locating information on leadership in education. It contains the following: 1) a bibliography of books on educational leadership, 2) articles on educational leadership, 3) Dr. Ruth Rees' [developer of the website] M.Ed course outline on educational leadership, and 4) a case study. It is intended that, over time, the website will evolve in response to others' input, with case studies, interactive checklists, etc, being added.
**URL:** http://educ.queensu.ca/~reesr/leadership.html

**The Knowledge Loom: Principal as Instructional Leader**
This Knowledge Loom spotlight evolved through the work of the Principals' Leadership Network in the United States, which is a regional programme of the Education Alliance at Brown University in partnership with the National Association of Elementary School Principals. This spotlight allows users to: 1) read about best practices, 2) gain insight into successful strategies, 3) review research that supports the practices, 4) view stories about the best practices in real schools and districts, 5) add their own stories, questions, and bits of wisdom, 6) participate in online panel discussions, and 7) discover supporting organizations and resources.
**URL:** http://knowledgeloom.org/pil/index.jsp

**Leadership in Education: Bibliography**
This outline for a course by Coral Mitchell of the Faculty of Education, Brock University, includes an extensive list of selected references.
**URL:** http://www.ed.brocku.ca/~cmitchell/dout.htm

### Principal Leadership
This is the page for the Center of Excellence in Leadership of Learning's (CELL) Principal Leadership Colloquium Series. Links are provided to the following colloquia: Colloquium I: Challenges of the Modern Principalship; Colloquium II: Shapers of the Principalship; Colloquium III: Paradigms to Strengthen the Principalship.
**URL:** http://cell.uindy.edu/principalleadership.php

### Principal Leadership
This website, created by The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP), is committed to continually improving services to middle and high school leaders. It contains news, views, and highlights about the principalship. It also gives a link to a professional development site.
**URL:** http://www.principals.org

### Principal Reference List
This page from the Institute for Educational Leadership: School Leadership for the 21st Century Initiative has an extensive list of references. Some of the references provide links to the full text of the document.
**URL:** www.iel.org/programs/21strefprincipal.html

### Principals: Annotated Bibliography
This is an online bibliography by the Educational Leadership Academy of Northern New York (ELANNY), which is a specialized resource for enhancing the leadership capabilities of practising and prospective educational administrators. The site provides links to the full text of many of the entries in the bibliography.
**URL**: http://www.clarkson.edu/business/shipley/elanny/AB_Principals.htm

### School Leadership: A Profile Document
This website was created by Valda Svede and Diane Jeudy-Hugo as one of the assignments for the computer conferencing Master's Level Course 1048: Educational Leadership and School Improvement, taught by Dr. Paul Begley at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto. It presents various aspects of the school principal's duties and offers rubrics for evaluation.
**URL:** http://www.oise.utoronto.ca/~vsvede/index.html

# EXAMINING THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK, PERCEPTIONS, AND PRACTICES OF TEACHERS IN THE EASTERN CARIBBEAN
### THE CASE OF SOCIAL STUDIES

*Anthony D. Griffith*

This paper examines the conceptual framework of social studies as held by a sample of primary school teachers, as well as their perceptions and classroom practices. A modified Social Studies Perception Scale (SSPS) was employed with a sample of 98 primary school teachers in seven islands of the Eastern Caribbean. Using percentages, means, and t-tests, it was found that: 1) while the majority of the teachers indicated a clear preference for the reflective inquiry approach to the teaching of social studies, their actual classroom practices appear to be at odds with their perceptions of the subject; 2) while younger teachers are initially reflective in their approach and practice, over time they increasingly become didactic knowledge transmitters; and 3) male teachers are far more likely to exhibit a reflective approach and practices than female teachers. The t-tests also reveal some significant differences between male and female teachers, and between younger and older teachers. These findings may have implications both for the selection of social studies teachers and for teacher preparation programmes in the Caribbean.

## The Conceptual Framework

The literature on social studies advances a number of different, sometimes conflicting, conceptual frameworks of the social studies curriculum and instruction (Brubaker, Simon, & Williams, 1977; Engle & Ochoa, 1988; Janzen, 1995). In an attempt to classify the various conceptions and approaches, Barr, Barth, and Shermis (1977) identified what they called the "three teaching traditions" in social studies, which, they argue, are informed by teachers' purpose, methods, and content in their teaching of the subject. According to this classification, teachers perceive and teach social studies as either (a) citizenship transmission, (b) social science, or (c) reflective inquiry.

Citizen transmission places emphasis on transmitting a body of content, and projects a conception of the ideal society and citizen. The major concern of this approach is with the correct and proper interpretation of that content, and with the inculcation, in students, of certain norms, beliefs, and values.

Teachers in the social scientist tradition, while emphasizing the transmission of content, also engage in some inquiry. But the content, questions, and methods that they use tend to be those of the individual social science discipline, and the focus is more on the discovery of knowledge than on inquiry and decision making.

Teachers who conceptualize social studies as reflective inquiry will tend to nourish the thinking and inquiry process in the classroom. Their emphasis is on rational decision making, and they thus engage their students in examining and investigating social issues, ideas, and values; drawing conclusions; and generating solutions. Such teachers encourage classroom dialogue, and do not present content as providing the final or the right answer.

The Barr, Barth, and Shermis (1977) conceptual framework has remained as the most widely used classification, and has been reaffirmed by several social studies scholars (Engle & Ochoa, 1988). Carter (1990), in a study of teacher classroom practices, developed a psychometrically derived typology of what he called the "three images" of the social studies practitioner. The teacher's preferred approach to teaching, he argues, conditions the activities that take place in the classroom, and this preferred approach can thus be identified by specific teacher and student behaviours. These images thus reflect the preferred approaches to teaching social studies, and were identified as: (a) the knowledge transmitter, (b) the social scientist, and (c) the reflective thinker. Social studies teachers are seen as falling into one of these categories.

In his "pen portraits" of these practitioners, Carter (1990) posits that the teacher whose approach is that of the knowledge transmitter engages mainly in a didactic style, which is designed to enable the learner to memorize facts and retain information. This teacher utilizes expository strategies extensively, and follows a tight organization and pacing of the lesson, which affords little opportunity for student-initiated questions or

activities. Such a teacher views students as passive learners, and having them get the "right" answer is of prime concern.

The social scientist practitioner places much emphasis on the acquisition of skills such as observing, recording, and interpreting. These skills and the accompanying activities, however, are driven by the content and methodology of the parent social science discipline. This teacher thus uses a multidisciplinary approach, rather than being interdisciplinary in practice. While there is a great deal of student-teacher interaction centred around practical involvement with resource materials and raw data, the teacher nevertheless guides and directs all classroom activity.

The social studies teacher, as reflective thinker, emphasizes intellectual and cognitive processes through the active engagement of both teacher and students in probing social issues; and the content used provides the basis for thinking and decision making. The teacher's primary concern is the development of critical thinking and reflective skills among the learners. He therefore devises strategies that force students to use their cognitive skills while seeking to analyze and understand social issues and value positions. Activities in the classroom revolve around the students and play a prominent role in their own learning. The teacher acts primarily as a facilitator of learning, and provides ample opportunity for students to engage in higher order, divergent thinking and in decision making.

Though labelled slightly differently, these two classifications—one conceptually derived and the other based on observed practice—clearly support and reinforce each other, and represent a very effective, if not powerful, framework for analyzing the teaching of social studies. Such a framework becomes even more useful in light of the fact that reflective inquiry, or thinking, embodies the notion of the student as both the centre of his own learning, and a creator/constructor of knowledge. According to both classifications, social studies teachers will fall into one of the categories identified, and will demonstrate a preference for one of these approaches, though Barr, Barth, and Shermis (1978) concede that some teachers may effectively exhibit characteristics of more than one tradition.

**Purpose of the Study**

While some studies have been undertaken on the attitudes of Caribbean teachers towards social studies (Alexander, 1996; Pascale, 1984), very little research has been conducted into identifying and understanding their perceptions and practices, and, by extension, their approaches to the teaching of the subject. Knowledge of these critical dimensions will

have implications not only for achieving the curricular goals of the subject area but, more importantly, for the preparation of social studies teachers.

In light of the above, the following questions are posed in this study: What are the perceptions and practices of Caribbean social studies teachers? Do these teachers fit into the above conceptual approaches to the teaching of social studies? What, if any, is their preferred approach to the teaching of the subject? What image do they project of the social studies practitioner? The purpose of this investigative study, therefore, is to identify any patterns and trends that exist among a sample of social studies teachers in Eastern Caribbean schools, with respect to their approaches, perceptions, and practices in the teaching of social studies.

**Method**

This study is a descriptive analysis, which attempts to address the above questions. It used a randomly selected sample of teachers who were all graduates of teachers' colleges and had received the Certificate in Teaching of The University of the West Indies (UWI). The sample was taken from each of seven territories in the Eastern Caribbean: the British Virgin Islands, St. Kitts-Nevis, Antigua and Barbuda, Dominica, Grenada, St. Lucia, and St. Vincent and the Grenadines. Eight responses were received from the BVI, and 15 from each of the others countries—a total of 98 respondents. Of the respondents in the sample, 74 were female and 24 were male.

The study employed a modified version of the Barth/Shermis Social Studies Preference Scale (1983), which was informed by the Barr, Barth, and Shermis (1977) classification. The modifications made related to the inclusion of some items on teacher practice from the Carter (1990) Teacher Self-Rating Scale. The modified instrument (see Appendix A) was pilot-tested, and yielded a test/retest reliability index of .9397. The instrument consisted of 27 items on a Likert-type scale, which ranged from *Strongly Agree* (1) to *Strongly Disagree* (4). Fifteen items related to the teachers' perceptions of Social studies, with five each reflecting the views of the subject as "knowledge transmission," "social science," and "reflective inquiry." A further 12 items examined the classroom activities/practices of the teachers, with four each reflecting the images of the teacher as "knowledge transmitter," "social scientist," and "reflective thinker/ inquirer."

The data from the questionnaires were transferred to a coding sheet, which contained a six-cell matrix showing each of the three conceptual approaches, and the two dimensions of "perceptions" and "practices." The matrix also contained the questionnaire item numbers corresponding to the relevant dimension and approach.

An overall mean score was calculated for each respondent on each conceptual approach, with the lowest mean score indicating the respondent's preferred approach to teaching social studies. Mean scores were also calculated for each of the two dimensions under each approach, with the lowest mean scores indicating, respectively, the respondent's perception of social studies and the image he projects as a social studies practitioner. A percentage frequency of lowest means was employed as the basis for classifying respondents as either knowledge transmitter, social scientist, or reflective inquirer. The t-test for difference between the means was employed to locate any sources of significant differences among the sample on any of the variables.

**Findings**

The major findings of this study are that:

1.  While the majority of the teachers in the sample indicated a clear preference for the reflective inquiry approach to the teaching of social studies, their perceptions of the subject appear to be at odds with their actual classroom practices.

2.  Younger teachers are more likely to be reflective inquirers in their approach, perceptions, and practice than older teachers; and males are more likely to exhibit a reflective approach and reflective practices than female teachers.

With respect to the three conceptual approaches to the teaching of social studies, as identified in the literature, two-thirds (66.3%) of the respondents exhibited a preference for the reflective inquiry approach (see Table 1). Only a small proportion—10.6% and 8.4% respectively—showed a preference for either the knowledge transmission approach or the social scientist approach. The remaining 14.7% appeared uncertain or ambivalent, since they indicated no clear preference for any one conceptual approach.

This general pattern held across all the territories, and for both the male and female teachers in the sample (see Table 1) who, based on the overall mean (see Table 2), generally appeared committed to the reflective inquiry approach. The male teachers, however, appeared significantly more likely to exhibit the reflective inquiry approach than their females counterparts (see Table 2, Column B).

**Table 1. Teachers' Conceptual Approaches, Perceptions, and Practices in the Teaching of Social Studies**

|  | Approach | Perceptions | Practices |
|---|---|---|---|
|  | % | % | % |
| **Knowledge Transmission** |  |  |  |
| M | 4.2 | - | 37.5 |
| F | 13.9 | 2.7 | 47.9 |
|  |  |  |  |
| **Total** | **10.6** | **2.1** | **45.9** |
| **Social Scientist** |  |  |  |
| M | 8.7 | 8.3 | 4.2 |
| F | 8.3 | 6.8 | 5.4 |
|  |  |  |  |
| **Total** | **8.4** | **7.2** | **5.1** |
| **Reflective Inquiry** |  |  |  |
| M | 83.3 | 73.9 | 37.5 |
| F | 61.1 | 74.7 | 17.6 |
| **Total** | **66.3** | **74.5** | **22.5** |

Note: Percentages will not total 100 due to the number of teachers who do not fall into either conceptual category (= "ambivalent").

The evidence therefore seems to suggest that, in general, the reflective inquiry approach is the conceptual framework preferred by the majority of teachers in teaching social studies. It is also apparent, from the

evidence, that male teachers have a stronger preference and commitment to the reflective inquiry approach than female teachers.

In the context of the pedagogical value of the reflective inquiry approach to teaching, the outlook of the teachers in the sample is both positive and encouraging. It suggests, for example, that these social studies teachers prefer to nourish the thinking and inquiry process in their classroom, and to engage their students in challenging activities, which involve them in the in-depth examination of social issues and in decision making. It also suggests that they prefer a student-centred approach to the teaching of social studies, which emphasizes cognitive and intellectual processes, and encourages classroom dialogue and reflection. These teachers, it also appears, see themselves as facilitators of learning, who devise a variety of strategies to actively engage students in their own learning and in the active construction of knowledge.

The rather low percentage of teachers (10.6%) who indicated a preference for the knowledge transmission approach, further reinforces the preferred approach of this sample of Eastern Caribbean social studies teachers—one that rejects the traditional "banking concept" of education and the notion of learning as the memorization of factual information and the "right answers."

If the reflective inquiry approach is in fact driving the teaching of social studies in Eastern Caribbean schools, then both the teaching and the learning of the subject face very good prospects, and one can be assured of the future of the subject in the Caribbean and of the attainment of its educational and social goals.

However, when one disaggregates the two dimensions of the approaches—perceptions and practice—and examines them individually, a somewhat different picture appears to emerge with respect to the sample's approach to the teaching of social studies. While in their perceptions of social studies, the responses are largely reflective of their preferred conceptual approach, their actual classroom practices appear quite at odds with these perceptions. The consistently low percentage of teachers who indicated a social scientist approach, perception, or practice suggests that the contrasting characteristics among the sample lie mainly between knowledge transmission and reflective inquiry.

In terms of perceptions, a large majority (74.5%) of the teachers in the sample viewed social studies as a process of reflective inquiry, compared to only 7.2% who saw it as social science, and 2.1% who perceived it as knowledge transmission (see Table 1). The remaining 16.2% appeared somewhat ambivalent—not clearly indicating either of the perceptions. The perception of social studies as reflective inquiry was equally shared by both male (73.9%) and female (74.7%) teachers. But males were more likely to have this perception than females (see Table 3, Column B).

In spite of the strong perception of social studies as reflective inquiry by the sample as a whole (74.5%), in terms of their classroom practice, only 22.5% actually practised the classroom behaviours associated with reflective inquiry (see Table 1). On the other hand, the single largest group of the teachers (45.9%) actually engaged in the activities of the knowledge transmitter, as compared with the mere 2.1% who claimed to perceive the subject through this lens. Only 5.1% taught as social scientists. There is thus almost an inverse relationship between the perceptions and the classroom practices of the teachers in the sample (see Tables 2, 3, 4, Column A). In fact, results of the t-test showed that the teachers in the sample were significantly ($p < .001$) more likely to be reflective in their perceptions of social studies than in their classroom practice, and equally more likely to be knowledge transmitters in their practice than in their perceptions.

Only 37.5% of the male teachers and 17.6% of female teachers clearly practised reflective inquiry activities in their classroom, as compared with 37.5% males and 48.7% females who adopted the classroom practices of the knowledge transmitter. Thus, although both groups are more knowledge transmitter than reflective inquirer in their actual classroom practice, the male teachers are somewhat more likely to be reflective inquirers than the female teachers (see Table 4, Column B).

The sample was further analyzed by age. Though older teachers—over 30 years of age—are somewhat under-represented in the sample, it nevertheless appears that the younger teachers—under 30 years of age—are more likely to exhibit a reflective inquiry approach than their older colleagues (see Table 2, Column C), who, in turn, are significantly more likely to prefer the knowledge transmission approach. Younger male teachers, however, are significantly more likely than younger females to adopt a reflective inquiry approach (see Table 2, Column D).

**Table 2. Means and Results of t-test on Independent Variables: Approaches**

| Variables | A<br>Overall Mean | B<br>By Sex<br>M/F | C<br>By Age<br><30/>30 | D<br>By Sex<br>(under 30 yrs)<br>M/F | E<br>By Sex<br>(over 30 yrs)<br>M/F | F<br>By Age<br>(Males)<br><30/>30 | G<br>By Age<br>(Females)<br><30/>30 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Knowledge Transmission | 2.202 | 2.17/2.21<br>p = .489 | 2.21/2.02*<br>p = .048 | 2.12/2.24<br>p =.082 | 2.36/1.93<br>p = .097 | 2.12/2.35<br>p = .399 | 2.24/1.93*<br>p = .025 |
| Reflective Inquiry | 1.795 | 1.64*/1.84<br>p = .017 | 1.77/2.01<br>p = .057 | 1.58*/1.83<br>p =.005 | 2.16/1.97<br>p = .539 | 1.58/2.16<br>p = .137 | 1.83/1.97<br>p = .376 |
| Social Scientist | 2.173 | 2.14/2.18<br>p = .531 | 2.17/2.23<br>p = .613 | 2.13/2.18<br>p =.553 | 2.23/2.23<br>p = .994 | 2.13/2.23<br>p = .760 | 2.18/2.22<br>p = .789 |

N.B. Differences are in favour of the group with the lower mean.
* indicates cases where the differences are significant.

In terms of perceptions, younger males are significantly more likely to perceive social studies as reflective inquiry than younger females (see Table 3, Column D). Additionally, while 77.6% of the teachers under 30 years of age perceive social studies as reflective inquiry, a smaller percentage (44.4%) of older teachers appear to have this perception of the subject area. This apparent difference by age, though not statistically significant (see Table 3, Column C), applies equally to both male and female teachers.

Further, while the younger teachers, both male and female, are significantly more likely to adopt more reflective inquiry activities than their older colleagues (see Table 4, Column C), the older teachers appear to be more knowledge transmitter in practice than the younger teachers. In addition, it is the older female teachers, significantly more so than the older males, who tend to be more expository in practice than their younger colleagues (see Table 4, Columns F, G). This is reflected in the fact that older females are significantly more knowledge transmitter in approach than younger females (see Table 4, Column G).

What is also of interest is that closer examination of the data reveals that more than a quarter (26.5%) of the sample appear to be ambivalent in their practice, with their teaching activities not clearly falling into either of the conceptual categories. In addition to these "ambivalent" practitioners, one can also note that some 17.2% of the teachers may be described as adopting classroom practices which are directly in conflict with their perceptions, that is, while they clearly perceive the subject as reflective inquiry, their classroom activities are equally clearly those of the knowledge transmitter. Thus, some 43.7% of the teachers in the sample are either ambivalent and unclear about their classroom practices, or adopt practices that are actually at odds with their perceptions of the subject.

Female teachers (28.2%) emerge as being somewhat more ambivalent in their classroom practices than male teachers (22.7%), while males (29.2%) appear to be far more contradictory in their perceptions and practice than female teachers (12.2%). Younger teachers, in general, also appear to be somewhat more contradictory in their practice than older teachers. Overall, only 21.4 % of the sample—29.2% of the males and 18.9% of the females—exhibit a clear and consistent perspective towards social studies in terms of both perceptions and practice, all of whom are younger teachers, under 30 years of age.

**Table 3. Means and Results of t-test on Independent Variables: Perceptions**

| Variables | A Overall Mean | B By Sex M/F | C By Age <30/>30 | D By Sex (under 30 yrs) M/F | E By Sex (over 30 yrs) M/F | F By Age (Males) <30/>30 | G By Age (Females) <30/>30 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Knowledge Transmission | 2.716 | 2.73/2.71 p = .842 | 2.74/2.46* p = .046 | 2.73/2.74 p = .889 | 2.70/2.39 p = .382 | 2.73/2.70 p = .824 | 2.74/2.40 p = .082 |
| Reflective Inquiry | 1.725 | 1.59/1.77 p = .059 | 1.71/1.81 p = .466 | 1.52*/1.77 p = .009 | 2.30/1.68 p = .075 | 1.52*/2.30 p = .010 | 1.77/1.68 p = .559 |
| Social Scientist | 2.246 | 2.16/2.28 p = .189 | 2.27/2.09 p = .172 | 2.17/2.30 p = .170 | 2.20/2.06 p = .731 | 2.17/2.20 p = .702 | 2.30/2.06 p =.292 |

N.B. Differences are in favour of the group with the lower mean.
* indicates cases where the differences are significant.

**Table 4. Means and Results of t-test on Independent Variables: Practice**

| Variables | A<br>Overall Mean | B<br>By Sex<br>M/F | C<br>By Age<br><30/>30 | D<br>By Sex<br>(under 30 yrs)<br>M/F | E.<br>By Sex<br>(over 30 yrs)<br>M/F | F<br>By Age<br>(Males)<br><30/>30 | G<br>By Age<br>(Females)<br><30/>30 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Knowledge Transmission | 1.674 | 1.59/1.70<br>p =.199 | 1.67/1.58<br>p = .466 | 1.50*/1.72<br>p = .012 | 2.00/1.46*<br>p = .049 | 1.50/2.00<br>p = .276 | 1.72/1.46*<br>p = .044 |
| Reflective Inquiry | 1.851 | 1.68/1.90<br>p = .053 | 1.81*/2.20<br>p = .019 | 1.64/1.87<br>p = .053 | 2.00/2.26<br>p = .493 | 1.63/2.00<br>p = .355 | 1.86*/2.26<br>p = .027 |
| Social Scientist | 2.10 | 2.11/2.10<br>p = .897 | 2.07/2.36<br>p = .095 | 2.09/2.06<br>p = .837 | 2.25/2.39<br>p = .721 | 2.08/2.25<br>p = .801 | 2.06/2.39<br>p = .093 |

N.B. Differences are in favour of the group with the lower mean.
* indicates cases where the differences are significant.

**Discussion**

The data and findings of this study appear to suggest a number of interesting conclusions:

1. If reflective inquiry is considered as the most effective conceptual approach to teaching social studies, then male teachers in the Eastern Caribbean are better social studies teachers than female teachers.

2. While younger teachers are, initially, reflective in their approach and practice and see themselves as facilitators of learning who nourish thinking and inquiry, they become, over time, increasingly didactic in style, focusing on the transmission of content and ensuring that students get the right answers.

3. A large proportion of social studies teachers in the Eastern Caribbean (> 45%) either engage in classroom activities that are in conflict with their perceptions of the subject, or are rather ambivalent in their classroom practices, that is, not conforming to any identifiable approach or pattern.

What therefore emerges from this research is a rather complex, conflicting image of social studies practitioners in Eastern Caribbean schools. The findings and conclusions have implications for the expected classroom performance of the teachers, and for the assignment of persons to teach social studies. In a wider context, these findings also have implications for teacher-preparation programmes in the Eastern Caribbean.

It is rather difficult to explain why the male teachers seem to emerge as being more reflective in their teaching than their female colleagues. This may reflect the notion that males tend to be more willing to question and actively investigate topics and issues (Evans, 1999) and, perhaps, to be less conventional (Leyser & Tappendorf, 2001) in their approach to teaching. Figueroa (1996) also suggests that while female pedagogical practices tend to be more conventional and passive, the practices of male teachers are more activity oriented and related to what students are interested in and want to do. These latter practices are more consistent with reflective inquiry. However, given that in this study, both groups of teachers appear, initially, to be more reflective in both conceptual

approach and practice, it does seem that other factors may explain why male teachers remain so for a longer period while, over time, their female colleagues become relatively more didactic and knowledge transmitting.

Certainly, however, the image of Caribbean teachers, over their careers, as adopting an increasingly expository, knowledge-transmission approach and practice, clearly does not conform to the existing models of teacher development and expected classroom practice. Research by Berliner (1988), Burden (1990), and Kagan (1992), for example, suggests that novice or beginning teachers are, initially, more concerned about their own capabilities as teachers, and therefore tend to be somewhat obsessed with discipline and class control (Kagan, 1992). As such, their teaching practices tend to be rational and inflexible, leaving little room for experimentation. With time, however, the teachers become more confident and self-assured, more knowledgeable in their subject matter, and more concerned with the students' needs and performance. They have also developed, and perfected, a repertoire of teaching techniques, and are more willing and likely to vary their activities and to challenge students to engage in higher-order thinking, analysis, and decision making.

The teachers in the present sample, however, appear at first to be enthusiastic, highly motivated, and eager to engage their students in challenging, reflective activities. But, over time, they appear to lose that enthusiasm, and to fall into more routine, didactic, knowledge-transmission activities. Both anecdotal and empirical evidence (Griffith, 1999) suggest that lack of resource materials, lack of administrative support, and the demands of content coverage and written examinations may be contributing factors to this pedagogical relapse. These are conditions that need to be addressed, but further research is needed to more clearly indicate the specific factors—personal, professional, or contextual—that may be impacting on this apparent loss in enthusiasm and reflective thinking.

The image of social studies teachers in the Eastern Caribbean is further complicated by the fact that about one-fifth of them do emerge with their perceptions and practices quite consistent with the literature. Interestingly, however, this latter group of teachers are mostly male, and are all younger teachers.

The fact that almost half of the teachers in the sample are either ambivalent or contradictory in their classroom practices also appears to contradict the literature on the relationship between teacher perceptions of the subject and their classroom practice. Brickhouse (1990), Ross, Cornett, and McCutcheon (1992), and other writers are all supportive of the view that teachers' perception of the subject both conditions and reflects their classroom practices. This perception is itself conditioned by the teacher's beliefs and personal experiences (Kagan, 1992). This functional relationship would require that teachers who perceive social studies as reflective inquiry should also be adopting the practices of the reflective inquirer in their classrooms. Clearly, this is not the case with the sample of teachers in this study. If teachers are not clear and consistent, in their own minds, with respect to the subject they teach, then their conflicting practices and perceptions could also have implications, not only for the logic and coherence of their instructional choices, but also for student learning and for the image they project of the subject.

Such apparent contradictions have been recently emerging in the literature on Caribbean teachers. Griffith (1995) and Jones (1997), for example, have found that there is little or no difference in pedagogical performance between trained and untrained teachers in either the elementary or the secondary school. This situation was found to be the case in social studies classes as well as in English and science classes. These apparent contradictions among Caribbean teachers represent an obvious area for our attention. Issues of resource materials and other contextual factors, as well as administrative support, are clearly important variables that need to be factored into teachers' classroom behaviour (Larson, 1999; Richards, 1995). Though clearly relevant, these may not, however, be sufficient to explain the contradictions and the changes in teachers' instructional practices over time. Further research is perhaps needed into what factors may be impacting on teachers' classroom instruction.

Lortie (1975), in his classic work, argues that teachers' predispositions exert a more powerful effect on teacher socialization and classroom practices than either their formal training or subsequent experiences in the work place. Knowles and Holt-Reynolds (1991) further suggest that teacher beliefs and thinking more directly predict their classroom practice than does their cognitive grasp of either theoretical instructional issues or alternative practices.

Given the predispositions and beliefs that individual teachers bring to the classroom, and since these powerfully affect their teaching, the findings of this study could have certain implications for the philosophy, structure, and emphases of teacher preparation programmes in the Caribbean. The findings may, for example, challenge the current conceptions of Caribbean teacher education as being primarily to provide prospective teachers with certain pedagogical knowledge and skills (Jennings, 2000, p. 45), while paying little attention to engaging them in questioning their predispositions and beliefs about teaching (Evans, 2000, p. 8), and to modifying these, if necessary.

The current training programmes in the Eastern Caribbean appear to avoid creating such dissonance, which could creatively help teachers in clarifying their own thinking and perceptions of teaching. Yet, the literature on teacher education is insistent on the benefits of requiring entering teachers, as part of their preparation, to examine their own motivation for teaching (Ryan & Cooper, 1998), and their image of themselves as teachers (Kagan, 1992). Calderhead (1991) further suggests that prospective teachers often hold beliefs that are not, in fact, well adapted to teaching, and it is seen as the role of the teacher education programme to engage them in rethinking their existing beliefs about teaching and learning (Bird, Anderson, Sullivan, & Swidler 1993). Moallem (1997) and Doebler, Roberson, and Ponder (1998) also observe that teacher self-analysis allows them to articulate their implicit theories as a step towards resolving any inconsistencies or conflicting ideas that may exist in their belief system. These unresolved predispositions may help to explain the persistence of the above contradictions among Caribbean teachers.

The structure and emphases in the existing training programmes may then need to shift in order to accommodate more opportunities for teacher reflection and self-examination of their own beliefs and perceptions of teaching. Appropriate mechanisms may also need to be put in place to adequately assist the prospective teachers through this critical process of personal and professional development.

**Conclusion**

Further research would indicate whether, in fact, the findings from this study obtain across other subject areas in the curriculum. An examination of the extent to which teacher predispositions and beliefs are challenged, or confronted, during the teacher training programme

should also prove worthwhile, and may indeed indicate some directions for change in the current programmes.

Clearly, certain factors appear to be impacting on teachers in the Eastern Caribbean during the course of their teaching careers, and to be having a profound effect on their classroom practice and on their professional development. An understanding of the reasons for the apparent anomalies and ambiguities could inform the response to the challenges ahead in adequately preparing future teachers to function optimally in Caribbean classrooms.

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## Appendix A

### Teachers' Self-Rating Scale

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather research data on the views and perceptions of teachers with respect to Social Studies, and their approach to teaching it. The Questionnaire itself is divided into three (3) sections:

SECTION A:     Some general biographical data.

SECTION B:     Your views on Social Studies.

SECTION C:     How you teach Social Studies in your classroom.

Please read each item/question carefully and give your personal response and your **real feelings**.
Your answers and feelings will be held in strict confidence.

Thank you for your kind assistance.

□□□□□□□□□□□.
A. D. Griffith

## SECTION A
## General Information

1.  Age:   Under 20 years          _        21 – 30 years
          31 – 40 years                   Over 40 years

2.  Sex:   Male                            Female

3.  No. of years teaching:

    Less than 1 year           _        1 – 5 years

    6 – 10 years                        11 – 15 years

    Over 15 years

4.  No. of years teaching social Studies:

    Less than 1 year           _        1 – 5 years

    6 – 10 years                        11 – 15 years

    Over 15 years

5.  Is Social Studies your preferred teaching subject?

    Yes                               No

    If 'No', which is/are your preferred teaching subject(s)?
    _____          _____

    _____          _____

## TEACHER SELF-RATING SCALE

| PART 1 | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tick the response which best represents your own perception of what should take place in a Social Studies class. 1 = Strongly Agree  2 = Agree  3 = Disagree  4 = Strongly Disagree | | | | | |
| **No.** | **Statements** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** |
| 1. | All students in the class should learn exactly the same material. | | | | |
| 2. | Teachers should always strictly follow their lesson plans | | | | |
| 3. | The content learned in Social Studies should be taken form History, Geography, or one of the social science subjects. | | | | |
| 4. | Students should investigate social issues in order to acquire relevant facts and to learn new concepts. | | | | |
| 5. | Classroom activities should revolve around the needs and concerns of students. | | | | |
| 6. | Probing and analyzing social issues is a major focus in Social Studies. | | | | |
| 7. | In Social Studies, the textbook should be the major resource material. | | | | |
| 8. | Students should be encouraged to test and challenge the ideas held in geography, history, economics and the other social sciences. | | | | |
| 9. | The teacher should make extensive use of the textbook in all Social Studies classes. | | | | |

| No. | Statements | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|-----|-----------|---|---|---|---|
| 10. | In Social Studies, students should be encouraged to deal with their own ideas, opinions and speculation, rather than with facts and correct information only | | | | |
| 11. | Students should not be allowed to take the initiative in Social Studies classes, since this would indicate that the teacher has lost control. | | | | |
| 12. | Teachers should always give students the correct answer to questions asked, or enable them to arrive at the right answer. | | | | |
| 13. | Students should be encouraged to interrupt the teacher to ask questions or to make comments. | | | | |
| 14. | Students should investigate social issues in order to gain insight and understanding. | | | | |
| 15. | In Social Studies, history, geography, current events and so on should be studied separately. | | | | |

PART 2

Indicate how often you, as a Social Studies teacher, perform and/or encourage your students in the activities listed below, during a typical Social Studies lesson.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | = | Very Often |
| 2 | = | Often |
| 3 | = | Seldom |
| 4 | = | Never |

| No. | Statements | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|-----|-----------|---|---|---|---|
| 16. | Following a set sequence of steps in order to complete a task. | | | | |
| 17. | Applying the research procedures of the social science disciplines | | | | |
| 18. | Making judgements based on facts and sound reasons. | | | | |
| 19. | Using evidence to defend a position taken. | | | | |
| 20. | Applying the concepts of the social science to selected social problems. | | | | |

| No. | Statements | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|-----|-----------|---|---|---|---|
| 21. | Learn/acquire definitions of important terms. | | | | |
| 22. | Stressing the importance of acquiring facts and getting the right answers. | | | | |
| 23. | Identifying and discussing specific examples | | | | |
| 24. | Analyzing a problems and proposing a solution. | | | | |
| 25. | Interpreting observed or recorded data | | | | |
| 26. | Separating fact from opinion | | | | |
| 27. | Testing for knowledge | | | | |

# DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO ON TEACHER SELF-EFFICACY

*Phaedra N. Pierre* and *Frank C. Worrell*

The present study examined self-efficacy in 77 elementary and 146 secondary school teachers, most of whom were taking an educational psychology course at The University of the West Indies (UWI). Participants completed Gibson and Dembo's (1984) Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES), Bandura's (n.d.) Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES), and two single items developed by researchers at the RAND Corporation. Elementary teachers reported higher levels of self-efficacy than did secondary teachers on all variables. TES and TSES subscale scores resulted in moderate to high internal consistency estimates, with the TSES scores having higher scores on average. TSES scores also had stronger intercorrelations than did TES scores or RAND items. Number of Years Teaching (NYT) was not related to self-efficacy, but a single global self-rating of teaching ability had moderate correlations with some efficacy variables. Future research should examine the factor structure of TSES scores and the potential of increasing the self-efficacy of secondary teachers through teacher training.

To date, researchers have identified a number of variables that are related to effective teaching, including clarity (Hines, Cruickshank, & Kennedy, 1985; Land, 1985; Rosenshine & Furst, 1971), enthusiasm (Rosenshine, 1970), knowledge of subject matter (Vecchio & Costin, 1977), and teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Saklofske, Michayluk, & Randhawa, 1988). Although many of these characteristics (e.g., clarity, enthusiasm) are behavioural in nature and can be improved with teacher training (Murray, 1985, 1997; Murray & Lawrence, 1980), teachers' perceived self-efficacy is a cognitive variable, and can only be changed through reflection (Bandura, 1997).

Bandura (1997, p. 37) defined perceived self-efficacy as "what you believe you can do with what you have under a variety of

circumstances," and noted that perceived self-efficacy has a direct impact on performance:

Efficacy beliefs operate as a key factor in a generative system of human competence. Hence, different people with similar skills, or the same person under different circumstances, may perform poorly, adequately, or extraordinarily, depending on fluctuations in their beliefs of personal efficacy. (p. 37)

In other words, the skills and abilities in an individual's repertoire are used more or less efficiently depending on the individual's sense of self-efficacy. Competent individuals may perform poorly if their self-efficacy is low, and less-competent individuals may perform well if their self-efficacy is high (Bandura, 1992; Bandura & Jourden, 1991; Wood & Bandura, 1989). Moreover, Bandura (1977, 1978) argued that self-efficacy consisted of two facets. The first facet is the belief that one has the requisite skills to perform a task (personal self-efficacy), and the second facet is the belief that if one actually performs a task, one will be successful (outcome expectancy).

Although there has been a lot of research on the self-efficacy of teachers in the United States, relatively little attention has been paid to this variable in developing countries. The purpose of the present study was to examine perceptions of self-efficacy in a sample of practising teachers working in a cultural context outside of the United States.

### Measuring Teacher Self-Efficacy

#### Single-item measurement

The measurement of teacher efficacy began in the mid 1970s with two single item variables used by a group of researchers working at the RAND Corporation (Armor et al., 1976; Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly, & Zellman, 1977). The first RAND item—*When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can't do much because most of a student's motivation and performance depends on his or her home environment*—is intended to tap external locus of control, and the second RAND item—*If I really try hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students*—assesses internal locus of control. In these studies, the researchers reversed-scored Item 1 and summed both items to create a composite that they labelled teacher efficacy (TE), which they argued indicated the extent to which a

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teacher was internally controlled (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). Using these items, other researchers related TE to student achievement (Ashton & Webb, 1986), time spent by teachers in interactive instruction (Smylie, 1988), stress (Parkay, Greenwood, Olejnik, & Proller, 1988), and the decision to leave or stay in teaching (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1982). In general, these studies indicated that TE was an important teacher characteristic (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

### Development of the Teacher Efficacy Scale

At the same time that the RAND studies were underway, Bandura (1977, 1978) was articulating his concept of self-efficacy—that behaviour is directly affected by an individual's beliefs. Gibson and Dembo (1984) used Bandura's perspective to develop the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES). These researchers used the RAND items as markers for the two factors on their scale, assuming that the internal and external items reflected Bandura's concepts of personal efficacy and outcome expectancy, respectively (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). The original TES consisted of 30 items, and factor analyses of the responses of 208 teachers revealed two factors consisting of 16 of the 30 items. One factor, consisting of nine items, was labelled Personal Teaching Efficacy (PTE, $\alpha$ = .75) and the other factor, consisting of seven items, was more general and simply labelled Teaching Efficacy (GTE, $\alpha$ = .79). PTE refers to individuals' efficacy beliefs about their teaching competence, whereas GTE, or teaching outcome expectancy, refers to individuals' beliefs about the effectiveness of teaching generally. A teacher with high PTE scores believes that *he can teach*, and a person with high GTE scores believes that *teaching makes a difference*. On the other hand, teachers with low PTE and GTE scores do not see themselves as effective teachers, nor do they believe that teaching can counteract the negative influences on some students (e.g., home environments that are not supportive of learning).

In the same study, Gibson and Dembo (1984) provided convergent and discriminant validity evidence for TE as a construct using a multitrait-multimethod matrix, and concluded with a report on the classroom behaviours of high- and low-efficacy teachers. Gibson and Dembo reported low-efficacy teachers spent more time on small-group instruction, and less time monitoring and checking students' seatwork and preparing for lessons than high-efficacy teachers. Moreover, when students' responses to a question were incorrect, low-efficacy teachers spent less time in guiding the students to the correct answer than high-

efficacy teachers—low-efficacy teachers were more likely to provide the answer themselves, or to ask another student the question. The authors concluded that TE seemed to be related to teacher behaviours that affect student achievement.

Although the TES has been used in a many studies (e.g., Coladarci, 1992; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993; Saklofske et al., 1988; Soodak & Podell, 1993; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990), and researchers have reported support for the two factors identified by Gibson and Dembo (1984), there were concerns about items cross-loading or not achieving a salient loading on either factor (e.g., Soodak & Podell). Hoy and Woolfolk (1993) recommended using 10 of the original 30 items, as these 10 items also yielded the two factors reported by Gibson and Dembo with little attenuation of the reliability estimates of the scores (GTE $\alpha$ = .72; PTE $\alpha$ = .77).

### Bandura's Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale

Bandura (1997) provided another explanation for the mixed findings from the TES. He argued that self-efficacy could not be assessed using general measures as it is not a "global disposition" (p. 42). To accurately measure self-efficacy, Bandura contended, the instruments "must be tailored to domains of functioning and must represent gradations of task demands within those domains" (p. 42). As an example, he noted that perceived self-efficacy to score baskets would probably be much more predictive of Michael Jordan's performance than perceived athletic self-efficacy, as the latter was too global. Similarly, general physical self-efficacy is less predictive of gymnasts' performance than efficacy measures tied to specific gymnastic feats (McAuley & Gill, 1983).

In the domain of TE, Bandura (1997) observed that even though the TES (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) was an improvement over single-item measures, the scale was still too general in orientation. He noted that it was necessary to measure teachers' efficacy in a number of specific areas—for example, maintaining order in the classroom, enlisting resources, involving parents, counteracting negative influences on the students—in order to capture the full range of teacher self-efficacy beliefs. Bandura (n.d.) developed the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES) to demonstrate the range of areas that teachers need to be efficacious in. The TSES has 30 questions listed under seven different efficacy subheadings. A February, 2003 search of the extant literature using PsychInfo and ERIC revealed no studies that have used the TSES. Thus,

there is no information available on the psychometric properties of the instrument's scores.

**The Present Study**

The purpose of the present study was to examine the teacher efficacy construct as measured by the TES (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), the TSES (Bandura, n.d.), and the RAND items in a sample of elementary and secondary school teachers in Trinidad and Tobago. A number of research questions were examined: (a) what are the reliability estimates of TES and TSES subscale scores in this sample; (b) what are the interrelationships among TES, TSES, and RAND measures of TE; and (c) what is the relationship of years of teaching experience and teacher's ratings of their teaching ability to TE variables? A fourth question looked at mean differences between elementary and secondary school teachers on TE variables.

**Method**

**Participants**

The participants consisted of 223 teachers currently employed in elementary (35%) and secondary (65%) schools in Trinidad and Tobago. In the Trinidad and Tobago education system, there are different recruitment processes for elementary and secondary teachers. Elementary teachers are recruited from secondary school graduates and are often assigned to schools as Assistant Teachers. They are considered generalists and are assigned a form class to which they teach all subjects across the curriculum. Within the first two years of service they are given leave to attend one of the teachers' training colleges for a two-year training programme, after which they are designated as Teacher I. Secondary school teachers must have at least a first degree in their subject area. They are considered specialists and may be assigned several classes at different levels in the secondary school. Although they are not required to, they may enrol in the one-year in-service postgraduate Diploma in Education programme at The University of the West Indies (UWI) to further their training.

The elementary school teachers (ETs) had a mean age of about 40 years (see Table 1), and had been teaching for about 18 years on average. Seventy-nine percent of the ETs were female, 47% were of African

descent, 40% were of East Indian descent, and 12% were of Mixed descent. Less than half of the ETs (48.7%) rated their socioeconomic status (SES) as middle class, but the majority of them rated their personal experiences in elementary (77%) and secondary (76%) school as positive. Ninety-nine percent of the ETs had attended teachers' training college, but only 4% had a university degree.

The secondary school teachers (STs) had a mean age of about 35 years and had been in the teaching service for 10 years, on average. Seventy-three percent of the STs were female, 29% were of African descent, 52% of East Indian descent, and 16% of Mixed descent. The majority of STs (73%) rated themselves as middle class, and 95% of them had university degrees. Fifteen percent of the STs had attended teachers training college, and 69% and 77% respectively rated their personal experiences in elementary and secondary school as positive.

ETs were significantly older than STs and had been teaching for a longer period of time. STs reported their SES status as higher than ETs (see Table 1). Since STs are typically hired as Teacher IIs or Special Teachers and ETs are typically hired as Teacher Is, the finding on SES is not surprising. The two groups did not differ on their ratings of elementary and secondary school experiences. Seventy percent of all participants (*n* = 159) were enrolled in two educational psychology courses at UWI, St. Augustine, and 30% were school-based colleagues of the teachers taking the courses. Eighty-five percent of the ETs and 70% of the STs rated their teaching ability as good or very good. The difference in mean scores for this variable was in the medium range (Cohen, 1988), with the difference favouring the ETs.

**Measures**

All participants completed a demographic form, the TES (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), and the TSES (Bandura, n.d.). The demographic form contained questions on a number of variables, including age, gender, ethnicity, SES, teaching assignment (i.e., elementary or secondary), and years of teaching experience. This form also contained three questions asking teachers to rate their teaching ability and their experiences in elementary and secondary schools on 5-point Likert scales with both verbal and numerical anchors. The verbal anchors for the teaching ability question were *Very Poor*, *Poor*, *Average*, *Good*, and *Very Good*, and the

verbal anchors for the school experiences questions were *Very Negative*, *Somewhat Negative*, *Neutral*, *Somewhat Positive*, and *Very Positive*.

### The Teacher Efficacy Scale

The TES (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) is a 30-item instrument developed to measure two aspects of teaching efficacy. Gibson and Dembo reported two factors. Factor I, labelled Personal Teaching Efficacy (PTE), consists of nine items and assesses teachers' beliefs about their personal teaching ability, or "teachers' evaluation of their abilities to bring about positive student change" (Gibson & Dembo, p. 570). Factor II, labelled Teaching Efficacy (GTE), consists of seven items assessing teachers' beliefs about the efficacy of teaching in general, that is, "the extent to which students can be taught given such factors as family background, IQ, and school conditions" (Gibson & Dembo, p. 570). Internal consistency estimates for the two factors' scores were in the moderate range (PTE $\alpha$ = .75; GTE $\alpha$ = .79), and two factors were supported in studies by other researchers (e.g., Coladarci, 1992; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993; Saklofske et al., 1988; Soodak & Podell, 1993; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). The 16 items that made up the two TES factors and the two single-item RAND questions—RANDPTE and RANDGTE—were included on the TES form. Reliability estimates for this sample's scores are reported in the Results section.

### The Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale

The TSES (Bandura, n.d.) is a 30-item measure that was developed to capture the self-efficacy of teachers across a number of roles that teachers engage in. The TSES groups the 30 items under seven subheadings:

1. Efficacy to Influence Decision Making (2 items)
2. Efficacy to Influence School Resources (1 item)
3. Instructional Self-Efficacy (9 items)
4. Disciplinary Self-Efficacy (3 items)
5. Efficacy to Enlist Parental Involvement (3 items)
6. Efficacy to Enlist Community Involvement (4 items)
7. Efficacy to Create a Positive School Climate (8 items)

Respondents rate the items on a 9-point Likert scale with verbal anchors for five of the numerical ratings: 1 = *Nothing,* 3 = *Very little,* 5 = *Some influence,* 7 = *Quite a bit,* and 9 = *A great deal.* Although Bandura (1997) argued for the use of instruments like the TSES, Tschannen-Moran et al.

(1998) warned against developing instruments that were too specific to be useful outside of a narrow context. There is no psychometric information currently available on this measure. Reliability estimates were calculated for the five TSES subscales that had at least three items and are reported in the Results section.

**Procedure**

The demographic form, the TES, and the TSES were administered as part of a larger packet of measures to teachers who were taking an educational psychology class. Six versions of the packet were created. Each version began with the demographic questionnaire, but the other questionnaires were counterbalanced in order. No more than 22% of the sample completed any one of the six versions of the packet. Participants completed the questionnaires on their own time, and packets were returned to a designated box in the Education department at the university. Some teachers also took questionnaire packets to colleagues at the schools in which they were teaching and these packets were also returned to the box in the department. Participation was voluntary and participants did not receive course credit or any other remuneration for participation in the study. All questionnaires were completed anonymously, and the study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of The Pennsylvania State University.

## Results

Table 1 contains the means, standard deviations, skews, and kurtoses for all of the major variables in the study. Although means were nearer to the upper end for the efficacy variables (i.e., closer to 9 than to 1), the distributions were not extremely skewed or kurtotic. All of the efficacy variables were negatively skewed, but no skew was higher than –.87, and only three variables had kurtosis values greater than |1|: RANDGTE had a kurtosis value of –1.21, and SES and teacher ability self-rating had kurtosis values of 2.31 and 1.02, respectively.

**Group Differences on Self-Efficacy**

Differences between the ETs and STs on self-efficacy variables are also reported in Table 1. As can be seen, ETs reported significantly higher scores than STs on 7 of the 11 efficacy variables. The majority of effect sizes for these differences were in the medium to large range, with only

one (i.e., RANDPTE) falling in the small range (Cohen, 1988). Two of the differences that were not significant (i.e., Efficacy to Enlist Community & PTE) had effect sizes in the small to medium range. These findings indicate that the differences between the two groups on teaching self-efficacy are substantial. The two largest differences were in the areas of Instructional Self-Efficacy and Efficacy to Enlist Parents. On average, the two RAND items had lower effect sizes than the subscales.

**Table 1. Means and Standard Deviations of Major Variables**

| Variables | Elementary | | Secondary | | Sig. | Cohen's |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | $M$ | $SD$ | $M$ | $SD$ | | $d$ |
| Age | 39.63 | 7.83 | 34.55 | 8.47 | .001 | .59 |
| Years Teaching | 18.32 | 8.48 | 10.27 | 8.11 | .001 | .40 |
| Socioeconomic Status[a] | 2.56 | 0.60 | 2.87 | 0.57 | .001 | -.51 |
| Teaching Ability[a] | 4.15 | 0.66 | 3.82 | 0.70 | .001 | .47 |
| Elementary School Experiences[a] | 3.99 | 0.86 | 3.86 | 0.95 | .331 | .14 |
| Secondary School Experiences[a] | 4.01 | 0.86 | 4.03 | 0.87 | .863 | -.02 |
| Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale[b] | | | | | | |
| * Efficacy to Infl. Decision Making | 6.02 | 1.88 | 5.03 | 1.68 | .001 | .55 |
| * Efficacy to Infl. School Resources | 5.62 | 2.03 | 5.24 | 2.07 | .198 | .18 |
| * Instructional Self-Efficacy | 6.09 | 1.00 | 5.23 | 1.07 | .001 | .77 |
| * Disciplinary Self-Efficacy | 7.04 | 1.04 | 6.21 | 1.51 | .001 | .55 |
| * Efficacy to Enlist Parents | 6.31 | 1.51 | 4.98 | 1.45 | .001 | .83 |
| * Efficacy to Enlist Community | 4.40 | 1.68 | 3.93 | 1.52 | .034 | .30 |

(*table continues*)

**Table 1. (continued)**

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Efficacy to Create + School Climate | 6.27 | 1.22 | 5.50 | 1.22 | .001 | .61 |
| Teacher Efficacy Scale[c] | | | | | | |
| * Personal Teaching Efficacy | 4.92 | 0.67 | 4.53 | 0.65 | .001 | .58 |
| * General Teaching Efficacy | 3.45 | 0.89 | 3.11 | 0.82 | .004 | .40 |
| RAND Items[c] | | | | | | |
| * Personal Teaching Efficacy | 5.14 | 1.19 | 4.56 | 1.34 | .001 | .17 |
| * General Teaching Efficacy | 4.32 | 1.61 | 3.84 | 1.57 | .035 | .30 |

*Note.* Infl. = Influence; Sig. = significance. The critical alpha for comparisons was .003.
[a]Rated on a 5-point Likert scale. [b]Rated on a 9-point Likert scale. [c]Rated on a 6-point Likert scale.

### Reliability Estimates

Internal consistency reliability estimates were calculated for all subscales with three or more items using Cronbach's alpha. These results are presented in Table 2. Scores on all but one of the TSES subscales resulted in estimates in the .7 to .8 range across the groups (*Mdn* α = .84), with the low estimate occurring for scores on the 3-item Disciplinary Self-Efficacy subscale in the ET group. Internal consistency estimates were in the .7 range for PTE scores and in the .6 range for the GTE scores. On average, the Gibson and Dembo (1984) subscale scores have the lowest reliability estimates.

### Intercorrelations Among Efficacy Subscales

Intercorrelations among the efficacy measures are reported in Table 3. In general, PTE and GTE (Gibson and Dembo, 1984) and RANDPTE and RANDGTE (Armor et al. 1976; Berman et al., 1977) have lower correlations with other efficacy measures than the TSES scores: PTE *Mdn r* = .28, GTE *Mdn r* = .25, RANDPTE *Mdn r* = .26, and RANDGTE *Mdn r* = .20. The intercorrelations among the TSES (Bandura, n.d.) scores are almost all greater than .30, .27 ≤ *r* ≤ .69, *Mdn r* = .43, but intercorrelations

between TSES and TES scores (*Mdn r* = .27), and between TSES scores and RAND scores (*Mdn r* = .24) are also low.

**Table 2. Reliability Estimates of Self-Efficacy Variables**

| Variables | Elementary | Secondary | All |
|---|---|---|---|
| Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale | | | |
| * Instructional Self-Efficacy | .78 | .85 | .85 |
| * Disciplinary Self-Efficacy | .62 | .84 | .81 |
| * Efficacy to Enlist Parents | .85 | .75 | .82 |
| * Efficacy to Enlist Community | .86 | .82 | .83 |
| * Efficacy to Create Positive School Climate | .84 | .85 | .86 |
| Teacher Efficacy Scale | | | |
| * Personal Teaching Efficacy | .79 | .75 | .78 |
| * General Teaching Efficacy | .63 | .63 | .64 |

*Note.* No internal consistency estimates were calculated for Efficacy to Influence Decision Making and Efficacy to Influence School Resources since these subscales had less than three items.

Nonetheless, the pattern of correlations makes theoretical sense. The correlations between GTE and RANDGTE (i.e., variables representing outcome expectancy) and between PTE and RANDPTE (representing efficacy expectancy) are at least .50, indicating 25% shared variance. Correlations between GTE and RANDGTE on one side and all the other efficacy variables are generally low, indicating that outcome and efficacy expectancies are relatively independent constructs. PTE's and RANDPTE's largest correlations with TSES scores occur with the ones more closely related to classroom-based efficacy: efficacy related to instruction, discipline, enlisting parents, and creating a positive school climate. GTE and RANDGTE have their largest correlations with instructional self-efficacy and efficacy related to positive school climate, both of which are variables that promote learning irrespective of student backgrounds.

**Table 3. Intercorrelations Among Self-Efficacy Variables**

| Variables | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Teacher Efficacy Scales | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   1. Personal Teaching Efficacy | -- | | | | | | | | | | |
|   2. General Teaching Efficacy | .10 | -- | | | | | | | | | |
| Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   3. Efficacy to Influence Decision Making | .19 | .22* | -- | | | | | | | | |
|   4. Efficacy to Influence School Resources | .11 | .21* | .36* | -- | | | | | | | |
|   5. Instructional Self-Efficacy | .40* | .41* | .43* | .40* | -- | | | | | | |
|   6. Disciplinary Self-Efficacy | .38* | .29* | .47* | .27* | .67* | -- | | | | | |
|   7. Efficacy to Enlist Parents | .36* | .24* | .37* | .33* | .60* | .55* | -- | | | | |
|   8. Efficacy to Enlist Community | .17 | .21 | .30* | .39* | .42* | .31* | .56* | -- | | | |
|   9. Efficacy to Create Positive School Climate | .36* | .36* | .53* | .40* | .69* | .61* | .67* | .50* | -- | | |
| RAND Variables | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   10. Personal Teaching Efficacy | .50* | .25* | .16 | .22 | .34* | .26* | .28* | .17 | .34* | -- | |
|   11. General Teaching Efficacy | .05 | .57* | .19 | .17 | .29* | .27* | .21* | .18 | .36* | .11 | -- |

*$p$ < .001.

### Concurrent Validity Coefficients

Table 4 contains correlations between the efficacy variables and two variables that were hypothesized to be related to teachers' self-efficacy: Number of Years Teaching (NYT) and Self-Rated Teaching Ability (SRTA).

**Table 4. Concurrent Validity Correlation Coefficients for Efficacy Scores**

| Variables | Elementary | | Secondary | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Teaching Ability | Years Teaching | Teaching Ability | Years Teaching |
| Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale | | | | |
| * Efficacy to Influence Decision Making | .15 | .28 | .13 | .28 |
| * Efficacy to Influence School Resources | .23 | .25 | .12 | .05 |
| * Instructional Self-Efficacy | .29 | .08 | .35* | .21 |
| * Disciplinary Self-Efficacy | .17 | .13 | .39* | .23 |
| * Efficacy to Enlist Parents | .34* | .18 | .21 | .18 |
| * Efficacy to Enlist Community | .18 | .03 | .20 | .19 |
| * Efficacy to Create Positive School Climate | .31 | .22 | .34* | .16 |
| Teacher Efficacy Scale | | | | |
| * Personal Teaching Efficacy | .03 | .10 | .37* | .20 |
| * General Teaching Efficacy | .21 | .06 | .10 | .12 |
| RAND | | | | |
| * Personal Teaching Efficacy | .03 | .05 | .16 | .01 |
| * General Teaching Efficacy | .07 | .14 | .19 | .26 |

Note: Elementary teachers $n$ = 72; Secondary teachers $n$ = 118.
*$p$ < .001.

The correlations are presented separately for elementary and secondary school teachers for two reasons. First, the two groups differed significantly on most of these variables. Second, since most of the ETs

received teacher training but had no degree, and most of the STs had degrees but did not receive teacher training, the two groups represented individuals who had become teachers via different routes. To facilitate interpretation along these lines, teachers who had a degree and had also received teacher training were excluded from these analyses, reducing the participants in both the ET ($n = 72$) and ST ($n = 118$) groups. Only correlations above .30 (i.e., accounting for at least 9% of shared variance) were interpreted.

NYT and SRTA were modestly correlated for the STs, $r$ (115) = .34, $p <$ .001, but there was no relationship between these variables for ETs, $r$ (69) = .13, $p >$ .05. Correlations between NYT and all of the efficacy variables were low and none was statistically significant ($Mdn\ r$ = .17). For ETs, only one efficacy variable correlated significantly with SRTA: Efficacy to Enlist Parents. In the ST group, four efficacy variables had significant relationships and meaningful correlations with SRTA: Instructional Self-Efficacy, Disciplinary Self-Efficacy, Efficacy to Create a Positive School Climate, and PTE. The two RAND variables did not have meaningful correlations with either NYT or SRTA.

## Discussion

In this study, we examined teachers' reports of teaching self-efficacy using the TES (Gibson and Dembo, 1984), the TSES (Bandura, n.d.), and two single items developed by RAND Corporation researchers (Armor et al., 1976; Berman et al., 1977). Results indicated that ETs reported higher self-efficacy scores than STs, with effect sizes in the medium to large range. Scores on most of the subscales resulted in moderate to high reliability estimates. The sole exception was the GTE score from the TES. Intercorrelations among the efficacy subscales were in the low to moderate range, with effect sizes ranging from small to large (Cohen, 1988). The results indicated a modest relationship between NYT and SRTA for STs, and SRTA had significant and meaningful correlations with efficacy variables for both STs and ETs.

### Group Differences in Efficacy Scores

The differences in efficacy scores that were found in this study are substantial and of great interest. Differences were larger on efficacy variables that were more closely tied to classroom practice. For example, on the TES and RAND items, larger effects were obtained for personal

teaching efficacy than for general teaching efficacy. On the TSES subscales, the two smallest effect sizes were found on Efficacy to Influence School Resources and Efficacy to Enlist Community. Given a centralized education system with no local control of budgets, these results make sense, practically. Moreover, they also make sense from a theoretical viewpoint as teachers have far less control over resources than administrators, even in districts with site-based management systems.

What is not clear from the results is the reason for the differences between the two groups. The differences cannot be due to SES, since the STs reported higher SES scores than the ETs. Both groups also reported comparable experiences in their elementary and secondary education, albeit retrospectively. Only the correlation between NYT and Efficacy to Influence Decision Making approached a medium effect size in both groups (Cohen, 1988; Newton & Rudestam, 1999). It is plausible that teachers who have been at a school site for a longer period of time have greater interpersonal power with administrators; nonetheless, this correlation still accounted for less than 10% of shared variance. The most plausible explanation for the higher efficacy scores of ETs is the fact that they actually received teacher training and the STs did not. If, in fact, the difference is based on receiving and or not receiving teacher training, this study provides a powerful argument for the training of secondary teachers in Trinidad and Tobago, an oft-voiced concern of many educators at UWI.

**Reliability Estimates of Scores**

TSES (Bandura, n.d.) scores were generally more reliable than TES (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) scores in this investigation. Even though three of the Bandura subscales are about half the length of the Gibson and Dembo subscales, the former's scores resulted in reliability estimates that were, on average, .12 points higher. These findings support Bandura's (1997) contention that self-efficacy measures should be tied specifically to behaviours that individuals perform in the domain under examination. They also recall the concerns about TES scores raised by several researchers (e.g., Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993; Soodak & Podell, 1993).

### Intercorrelations Among Self-Efficacy Variables

The results of the intercorrelations among the efficacy variables also offer more support for the TSES. The RAND items had almost no relationship with each other, and this lack of relationship was also evident between the two TES subscales, suggesting that personal efficacy and outcome expectancy are not related. On the other hand, the TSES subscales had a moderate set of intercorrelations, and were also correlated with the TES and RAND items in ways supported by theory. For example, Instructional Self-Efficacy and Efficacy to Create a Positive School Climate had moderate relationships with both RAND and TES items, suggesting that teachers who believe that they can teach well and control their classroom climate have higher scores on both personal efficacy and outcome expectancy than teachers whose beliefs in this area are less positive. In other words, improving student learning and students' attitudes toward school is dependent on both of the efficacy pillars. Thus, while personal efficacy and outcome expectancy are independent, depending on the tasks involved, both of them may need to come into play.

### Concurrent Validity of Self-Efficacy Items

SRTA, in essence a home-made global measure of TE, was significantly correlated to Efficacy to Enlist Parents for ETs, and to four self-efficacy variables for STs: Instructional Self-Efficacy, Disciplinary Self-Efficacy, Efficacy to Create a Positive School Climate, and PTE. All correlations were in the moderate range accounting for between 11 and 15% shared variance. Again, there is no obvious reason for the ST and ET differences. Perhaps given the higher ET scores on the TE variables, SRTA was too general to relate to ETs' efficacy beliefs. Additionally, if ETs' self-efficacy beliefs are determined largely by their previous teacher training experiences, this global measure may be more meaningful in capturing the self-efficacy beliefs of the teachers who did not have teacher training, that is, the STs. Certainly, Bandura's (1997) suggestions would indicate that these more global measures are not particularly useful, and should probably be eliminated from research studies.

Perhaps one of the most important findings in this study is the lack of a relationship between NYT and TE. Moreover, one cannot attribute this finding to restriction of range. The range of years teaching was 7 to 40 for ETs and 1 to 33 for STs, respectively. It is often accepted as a truism that

experience results in increased competence and skill and, concomitantly, belief in the ability to complete the task. This study's findings do not support this belief. A question that is often asked in workshops with educators and psychologists goes as follows: Do you have multiple years of experience, or do you have one year of experience multiple times? This study suggests that the answer is the latter. Moreover, the pattern is the same for both the trained and untrained teachers, suggesting that teacher training at the beginning of one's career does not guarantee professional growth during the career.

Three years ago, the School Leadership Center of Trinidad and Tobago was formed. The stated mission of the Center is to improve the teaching and learning in Trinidad and Tobago through reflective practice. Bandura (1997) also noted that self-efficacy beliefs could only be changed through reflection. The results of this study suggest that ongoing professional development is another critical need for teachers in Trinidad and Tobago. This hypothesis is supported by the response to the 2002 Summer Institute of the School Leadership Center, where the most frequent request of teachers was the need for more teacher training in classroom management and instruction (Worrell, 2003).

**Limitations**

As with all studies, this one suffered from a number of limitations. Some of the limitations revolve around the sample. Although participants were from all the educational districts in Trinidad and Tobago, the sample was not randomly selected and may not be representative of the population of teachers. A second concern had to do with the uneven numbers in the two groups. Although both the *t*-test and the correlation coefficient are robust under conditions of unequal sample size, the imbalance in the sample's groups is less than ideal. Third, participants were allowed to complete the surveys at home and return them to class. This option can result in individuals comparing responses and render some of the responses non-independent, violating another assumption of many of the statistical analyses. A final limitation is related to the finding that ETs have higher self-efficacy scores than STs. To determine if this finding is actually related to teacher training will require a sample which has both trained and untrained ETs as well as trained and untrained STs, so that we can examine the contributions of training and teacher assignment (i.e., elementary versus secondary) without these variables being confounded.

To further complicate the trained/untrained dichotomy, within the Trinidad and Tobago context, there also exists the possibility of teachers using their training for elementary teaching to gain university matriculation for a first degree. If they decide to teach afterward, they may then be placed at the secondary level without further training for secondary teaching. This would therefore create additional categories of teachers to be studied in future research: those who are untrained, appropriately placed for training, and inappropriately placed for training.

**Conclusion**

In this study, we examined the construct of TE in a sample of elementary and secondary school teachers in Trinidad and Tobago. The results of the study indicate that the self-efficacy construct seems to be a viable one in Trinidad and Tobago, as it is in many other parts of the world (Scholz, Doña, Sud, & Schwarzer, 2002). Scores on both the TES (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) and the TSES (Bandura, n.d.) resulted in moderate to high reliability estimates. The study's results support Bandura's (1997) contention that self-efficacy is best measured by domain-specific rather than general items, as scores on the TSES resulted in higher reliability estimates than scores on the TES. The results of the study also strongly suggest that teacher training may benefit secondary school teachers by increasing their teaching self-efficacy, which should result in an increase in teaching effectiveness. However, this finding needs to be addressed in other studies. The results also hint at the need for ongoing professional development, as there was no relationship between years teaching and teaching self-efficacy. Although Bandura did not suggest it, the pattern of intercorrelations among TSES subscale scores may indicate a set of factors underlying the items, and the scores should be factor-analyzed to examine this hypothesis. Finally, future research should examine the relationship of TE and student achievement to see if this relationship is as robust in Trinidad and Tobago as it is in other countries.

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