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ENHANCING THE TEACHING QUALITY OF
PART-TIME FACULTY IN A JAMAICAN
ADULT EDUCATION INSTITUTION (with a
focus on Continuing Professional
Development)

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ABSTRACT

Typically, adult educators in Jamaica are part-time employees who are either trained in pedagogy or are employed because of their advanced training or skills in a particular discipline. As adult education in Jamaica and the Caribbean undergoes change, policy focus has concentrated on identifying the discipline with lifelong learning rather than adult literacy. Although the importance of the role of adult educators to the change process is acknowledged, the changes in adult education are not yet focussed on the role of the adult educator and equipping the adult educator to function in this dynamic environment.

This study of an adult education institution in Jamaica aims to explore the perceptions of stakeholders, teachers, students and administrators, on how adult education is viewed, the role of part-time faculty in adult education, the quality of teaching they offer and measures to enhance teaching quality in this institution and others like it. I argue that the equipping of adult educators is important for successful adult education, part-time faculty who make up the significant majority of the cohort of adult educators deserve special attention and that Continuing Professional Development is a useful tool that serves the interest of equipping both individual teachers and institutions.

Data was collected and analysed by means of a qualitative methodology utilising interviews, focus groups and qualitative questionnaires in two centres of the case institution. The study finds that teachers are crucial to successful adult education. Because of the ambivalence of adult learners and their needs for emotional as well as cognitive support, the onus is on teachers to provide learning environments in which adult learners can make best use of a learning opportunity. Many teachers, however, do not have specialist training for this task. Part-time faculty in the study want professional development although they do not think traditional methods of professional development suit their circumstances. They do have clear ideas of the kind of CPD support that they think will meet their needs.

The study suggests guidelines for developing a model of CPD that is suitable for part-time faculty in adult education.

Key themes

Adult education, Caribbean, Continuing Professional Development Jamaica, Part-time Faculty, Quality Teaching
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This thesis is lovingly dedicated to the memory of my brother Andrew who encouraged me to start this journey but departed this life before I could complete it.

I believe the Word of God was proved to me again in this experience:

“Because God is working in you to help you want to do and be able to do what pleases him.” (Philippians 2:13 (New Century Version)).
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INTRODUCTION

Quality in Adult Learning and Education is deeply linked to the role of teachers/educators. Diverse learning environments and diverse learners mean that teacher-educators must be able to adjust to the specific needs of the learners they encounter...In the roundtable on quality, teachers were also recognized as one of the most important elements in the quality of adult education. In the best of circumstances, the adult educator is a certified teacher with a higher education degree. Professional development frameworks are well established. These features are seen as indispensable to avoid turn-over rates and ensure motivation. However many countries still rely on non-professional adult educators. Others work with volunteers that are trained as adult educators. Overall there is a clear preoccupation with finding ways to improve the professional training of adult teacher-educators.

(From the Oral Report of the Rapporteur General CONFINTEA VI (Sixth International Conference on Adult Education) held in Brazil, December 2009)¹

Adult Education in Jamaica has been experiencing metamorphosis. Similar to the experience in other parts of the world, in Jamaica, adult education, which once signified basic adult literacy education, has matured to be identified by the term ‘lifelong learning.’ This process of change has acknowledged the changing nature of the adult learner (Brookfield, 2009; Rogers, 2003) and the changing role of policy makers (Torres, 2009).

Some theorists claim that since adult education is truly focused on the adult learner who is at the core, it is the adult learner that is the most important element in adult education and teachers are not as significant (Jarvis, 1995). This thesis takes the perspective that the adult educator has an integral role to play in adult education and indeed must be adequately prepared to execute this integral role in an environment in which both adult learners and the social and economic environments are going through change and growth. This thesis explores perceptions about

teaching quality of adjunct faculty. Research was conducted in an adult education institution in Jamaica in order to identify what kind of measures practitioners think could be taken to improve teaching quality. In this chapter I will explain why I selected this issue as the topic for my research and why I think the issue has relevance to the Jamaican context and to the adult-education discipline. Next I will introduce my research questions and give a brief background to the context of the study. Finally I will describe the structure of the thesis.

**Justification for the Research Topic**

**Rationale (Personal)**

Before beginning this research degree, I worked with the Institute for Theological and Leadership Development (ITLD) which in 2005 became a constituent college of the International University of the Caribbean (IUC), a tertiary institution in Jamaica that offered certificate to degree-level programmes for adult students. From its inception, IUC aimed to broaden access to tertiary education by targeting adult learners in rural locations. IUC (and its antecedent colleges) does not use the name ‘adult education institution’, but simply considers itself a tertiary institution. Nevertheless, it identifies itself as catering to adult learners. IUC’s student population are all over 18 years old. Some matriculate with tertiary level qualifications and others register with IUC having very few post-secondary qualifications. IUC’s programmes are particularly attractive to those learners who do not have normal university matriculation qualifications because IUC offers various tracks to university entry and accepts mature learners by assessing their prior learning and life skills. IUC offers a range of programmes from certificate to degree level. The university was launched in 2005 when antecedent colleges, the Institute for Theological and Leadership Development (ITLD) and the Mel Nathan College (MNC) were merged. As
part of its growth process from college to university, programmes were rationalized, upgraded, registered and submitted to the University Council of Jamaica (UCJ), the country’s tertiary accreditation agency. This process put new demands on both students and teachers as the institution has added new protocols and procedures.

IUC works with a large number of part-time staff. The original courses of the institution were all part-time, evening programmes that facilitated learners who were in full-time employment or were challenged by family responsibilities. Thus, the institution employed a small core of full-time staff and hired approximately 90% of its faculty part-time. Although the programmes have expanded to include day and full-time courses, the university still employs a large number of part-time faculty. Due to the casual nature of their employment, many of the part-time faculty members do not participate in extra-curricular events in the university, nor are they fully included in faculty meetings and occasional training events. Nevertheless, students value the contribution of part-time faculty to the institution. While I worked at IUC, I observed that students did not express the expectation that quality teaching was impacted by the part-time or full-time status of the teacher. Instead, students spoke often of appreciating certain personality characteristics that they associated with good teachers.

I am not a trained teacher. My educational background is in sociology and pastoral counselling. However, I have worked in the field of education directly or indirectly throughout my professional career. I was assigned to work with ITLD (one of the constituent colleges of IUC) to help to develop its leadership and management programmes. I found that I had a unique perspective to offer when I became an insider with the perspective of an outsider. I could tell my colleagues how they appeared to outsiders as
educators and as theologians (since theological education and community development were core offerings of ITLD). I developed what was considered, by my colleagues and students, as good teaching skills and the courses I taught were highly regarded by students. Not having received formal teacher training, I developed my teaching skills by modelling more experienced teachers, researching teaching methodology and using my knowledge of effective communication, leadership, group dynamics and interpersonal relationship skills in teaching my adult students. I was not aware of the tenets of adult education as a discipline but believed in treating my students with respect and dignity. Before teaching formally, I had experience conducting workshops and seminars and had developed skills as a trainer. These skills and experiences were significant assets to my teaching.

As an adult educator, I taught students who were older than me. The day I taught my first class with ITLD I noted that I was the youngest person in the room. Since I had never taught children (formally), I was not tempted to treat the adult students in my class like children. Instead I was humbled by the difference in our ages and my lack of teacher training. However, I felt I had access to some knowledge that I wanted to share and my job was to find the most relevant and accessible ways to do that. So I learned to teach while I taught and asked both students and colleagues for feedback and recommendations.

Later, I moved to ITLD full-time and took on administrative responsibilities including responsibilities involved with recruiting lecturers and tutors for courses and modules. My decisions were informed by students’ feedback on what they valued- content which was clearly and creatively communicated in a learning environment that was respectful and supportive.
My curiosity about what makes a teacher effective has been an underlying interest for a long time. When I decided to focus this study on this issue, I wanted to hear the perspectives of stakeholders themselves and I was more interested in opinions and experiences than in theories. I was interested in finding out what characteristics mark a quality teacher in the eyes of adult learners. I wondered whether teachers were aware of what students valued and whether teachers and students valued the same traits. I also wanted to find out whether the qualities identified could be transmitted from teacher to teacher and so increase the number of teachers in the institution who were valued for their high quality teaching. This matter of transmitting competence was of particular interest to me because our institution utilised so many part-time teachers, many of whom had advanced qualifications in their respective disciplines but, like myself, were not trained teachers. Those private observations, the growing movement to rationalise the tertiary education sector in Jamaica as well as to re-focus adult education as lifelong learning, led to my decision to undertake this study in the area of enhancing teaching quality in adult education with a focus on part-time faculty.

I have used IUC as a case because of three distinctive characteristics: it is a private institution, an adult education institution undergoing change and a regional institution with both urban and rural locations. As a privately run institution IUC determines its own recruitment and staff training policies and practices. I wanted to base my study in an institution that had staff policies developed internally, not imposed by an external authority. As an adult education institution in transition, IUC is updating procedures as it updates and expands programmes to offer more comprehensive educational options for adults. Therefore, there is scope for responding to needs of students and teachers in this environment of growth and change.
I felt using this context allowed me a more organic (unprocessed) view of staff and student relationships in an institution that is still in a process of ‘becoming’ and staff and students have a more natural relationship than in the more established universities where roles are more set. Thirdly, the institution functions out of regional centres and sub-centres across Jamaica and the Cayman Islands and so caters to populations across two Caribbean countries. I interviewed staff and faculty from two centres, one in the South Eastern end of Jamaica, located in a large city, and the other in the North Western end of the island, located in a smaller city with rural sub centres. I saw this as an opportunity to interview persons with a wider range of experiences than would be the case if I focused my study on an institution set in one location.

**Rationale (Context and Discipline)**

A range of terms and concepts are used in the literature of adult education such as adult education, continuing education and lifelong education. In Jamaica in the 1970’s the title ‘adult education’ was first given to basic adult literacy. The field has since embraced the concept of lifelong learning. In this context, a range of educational opportunities for adults are included from basic literacy to workplace learning and various levels of professional development. Consequently, I’ve used this term in the wide sense to mean education for adults (Jarvis, 1995) and to include the range from adult literacy education to education at degree level. The education system in Jamaica does not make many distinctions in post secondary education. The term tertiary education is used to embrace what in the UK would usually be identified separately as Further Education, Adult Education and Higher Education.
A UNESCO publication which gives EFA (Education for All) assessment reports for Caribbean countries offers a definition of adult education which I think aptly reflects how the term is used in Jamaica,

an ongoing learning process, formal or otherwise, whereby people regarded as adults, depending on their society, enrich their knowledge and technical or professional qualifications. It involves both formal, continuing education and non-formal incidental learning (Niles and Bernard, 2000).

In Jamaica, the post-secondary sector has been undergoing rapid change, for many years this sector was dominated by a few colleges and one university. In the last 20 years this sector has increased with the establishment of new local institutions as well as off-shore colleges and universities from North America and Europe. The University Council of Jamaica (UCJ) has been the chief regulating body. Established in 1987, UCJ has responsibility for registering new tertiary institutions, accrediting and monitoring the progress of new programmes. UCJ’s website indicates that, as of July 2010, it has registered 51 private institutions (including 10 overseas institutions), and monitors 195 programmes that have gone through the accreditation process. These private institutions have added their number to the public institutions which include 2 Universities, 6 Teachers’ Colleges, 5 Multi-Disciplinary Colleges and 5 Community Colleges (JFL, 2008). UCJ’s role is important since the Ministry of Education\(^2\) has focused its efforts on standards and improvement for Early Childhood, Primary and Secondary Education.

Jamaica’s formal education is monitored by the Ministry of Education.

\(^2\) The Ministry of Education is the government body with responsibility for the oversight and monitoring of public education in Jamaica. In this study, this government ministry will be represented by the following names and abbreviations- Ministry of Education (MOE)- generic name, Ministry of Education Youth and Culture (MOEYC)- the name before September 2007, Ministry of Education and Youth (MOEY)- the name from September 2007 to present.
Figure 1-1
Organizational Chart of the Ministry of Education, Jamaica

(Source: MOE website, accessed 9/08/10)
The Ministry of Education has over-arching responsibility for primary, secondary as well as the post-secondary sector but, so far, the role in relation to post-secondary education has been exercised through the Ministry’s Tertiary Unit and Statutory Bodies and Agencies. As is depicted in the Ministry’s organizational design, Figure 1-1, they function as an adjunct to the rest of the Ministry’s operations. The practical implication of this is that the tertiary education sector (of which IUC is a part) has been less regulated than the primary and secondary sectors.

The Jamaican government has made a commitment to establish a Tertiary Education Commission in response to a recommendation of the 2004 Task Force Report on Education Reform (JFLL, 2008). Its mandate will be to provide research, inform planning, structure articulation and evaluation systems in order to effect a more efficient use of resources in the sector, in order to establish ‘…a modern [tertiary] network rather than a scattering of tertiary institutions.’ (Minister of Education, Maxine Henry Wilson reported by Jamaica Information Service (JIS, 2005). At time of writing, the unit has still not been established but the current Minister of Education reiterated the commitment in March 2010 (JIS, 2010).

As attention is given to developing standards in tertiary education (including adult and further education), the role of teachers is also acknowledged. Jamaican educator Errol Miller notes that:

Apart from students, teachers are the most important elements in the education enterprise. Reforms in education that conceive of teachers only as agents and instruments and not as subjects and professionals start out with a great impediment (Miller, 2000).

Miller also argues that teaching adults is not simply providing primary education for adults but education using teaching methods that value adult experience, and curriculum that adults find relevant. Adult education
should have a broad enough focus to be relevant for those who need remedial education, those who seek a second chance to succeed as academics, those who seek professional development and certification and those who want education for personal enrichment. Those who teach in adult education (with this broad focus) need to have a wide range of skills and competences. This study asks students and teachers what, in their opinion, are those competencies.

In terms of the recruitment of faculty, institutions like IUC follow their own recruitment policies although they do collaborate and share ideas and concerns through organizations such as the Joint Board of Teacher Education (JBTE) and Jamaica Council for Tertiary Education (JCTE). I noticed that in higher education and adult education, a large proportion of the teaching staff was adjunct faculty and not trained teachers, but persons who had advanced degrees and workplace experience in various disciplines.

Many part-time adult educators have little or no formal preparation for teaching adults and are usually excluded from programmes run for full-time staff. For such staff, professional development may come from learning from their own experiences or their own efforts to improve their teaching by reading books or attending seminars. For part-time faculty however, these two options have particular challenges. Part-time teaching staff often have full-time commitments outside of education and may not have time or training to take responsibility for their own professional development.

There is a growing literature in Jamaica and the Caribbean on adult education (for example, Ellis et al 2000, Barrett 2008, Anderson 2008,
Much of this has been prepared as reports to UNESCO and various adult education fora such as CONFINTÉA (International Conference on Adult Education) UNESCO’s international meeting on adult education and the ICAE (International Council of Adult Education).

This literature acknowledges the importance of professional development of faculty and identifies this as a neglected area (Torres, 2009; Youngman, 2009; Campo, 2005). However this is a recent emphasis. For example, since the inception of CONFINTÉA, in 1949 and up until its fifth meeting in 1997, there was no acknowledgement of the importance of the adult educator to the meeting of adult education goals (Youngman, 2009). The CONFINTÉA V Follow-up Report (UNESCO, 1999) indicated that the training of adult educators was raised as an important issue in seminars in Africa and Latin America and that it was still a neglected theme. In my view, the emphasis on adult learning as a self-directed activity has not facilitated enough reflection on the role of the adult educator, since focus has instead been on the ability of the adult learner to make learning choices. Available documentation indicates that focus of the international community has been on macro issues such as policy, government support and budget. As far as I am aware, there is no published research in the Jamaican context on student and practitioner views of quality teaching in adult education and the professional development needs of adult educators.
Research Problem and Questions

This thesis is concerned with the problem of:

‘Enhancing the Teaching Quality of Adjunct Faculty in a Jamaican Adult Education Institution.’ It uses the International University of the Caribbean as a case and explores the issue of teaching quality of part-time faculty by gathering data through interviews, focus groups, qualitative questionnaire from students, teachers, administrators and policy-makers. This thesis aims to answer the following questions:

1. How has adult education evolved in the Jamaican context?
2. What do adult learners and adult educators in IUC value in adult education?
3. How do adult learners and adult educators in IUC characterise quality teaching?
4. How do adult learners and adult educators in IUC characterise good teachers?
5. Are part-time teachers of adults in the Jamaican context perceived to be adequately equipped to deliver quality teaching?
6. How do adult learners and teachers in IUC think quality teaching of adults should be promoted through Continuing Professional Development of part-time teaching staff?

Structure of Thesis

This thesis consists of six chapters. Chapter 1 is this introduction which gives an insight into how I chose this research topic and why I think it is important. This chapter also outlines the structure of the thesis. Chapters 2 and 3 are foundation chapters. Chapter 2 gives an overview of the historical and policy context of education in Jamaica. This history is
important as it provides the framework on which the study is built. Two significant aspects in Jamaica’s history are the experiences of slavery and colonialism. During these years of the country’s early history, education was used as a tool to keep the large slave population subject and was a privilege for a fortunate few. Adult education as a universal right has only been given prominence since the 1970s. Teacher training was also focused on preparing teachers for the primary and secondary levels. These limitations help to explain the late emphases on adult education and on equipping adult educators. Chapter 3 gives a Literature Review that is relevant to adult education, quality teaching, part-time faculty and Continuing Professional Development. For the literature review, I take a humanistic perspective and explain why this standpoint is appropriate for a discussion of teaching in adult education. The literature I include in the overview largely represents this philosophical perspective as well.

In Chapters 4 and 5 I discuss the data from the study. First in Chapter 4, I outline my methodology which includes my choice of a philosophical and methodological paradigm for conducting my research. Consistent with my humanistic standpoint I make a case for my choice of a constructivist paradigm to explain my epistemology and qualitative methodology to collect and process my data. I also explain how the research was planned and conducted. In chapter 5 I present the data collected and discuss my findings against the background of the context and literature. Chapter 6 highlights my view of the implications of this research, how I think the findings may be useful and what further work I think still needs to be done.

The Chapter that follows sets the context of the study by giving an overview of the historical and policy foundations which I think are relevant to an understanding of adult education in Jamaica.
CHAPTER 2

THE CONTEXT - ADULT EDUCATION IN JAMAICA

In this chapter I aim to establish a foundation which will enable the reader to understand the context in which the research was conducted. I will review some of the literature on the historical development of education in Jamaica. Specifically, I will focus on how adult education has evolved and the policy and legislative support that have aided its growth from adult literacy learning to lifelong education. Jamaica’s history has had an indelible impact on the ways in which its education provisions have developed and this also has implications for the future role of education in general and adult education in particular.

Historical Development

The Pre-Emancipation Period

Jamaica is the largest island in the English speaking Caribbean and the third most populous country in the Anglophone Americas, after the USA and Canada (Map in Figure 2-1). Jamaica’s population is estimated at just fewer than three million people with more than 50% of that number residing in urban centres (CIA, 2010). The country’s recorded history dates back to the arrival of Italian explorer Christopher Columbus, travelling under the flag of Spain in 1494. On a previous voyage, Columbus had encountered a group of inhabited islands that he thought were part of India. He returned to this new world on his second voyage, claiming these islands on behalf of the Spanish crown, landing in Jamaica on May 5, 1494.
At the time of Columbus’ landing, the island was inhabited by the Taino (Arawak) Indians. They had named the island Xaymaca meaning ‘land of wood and water’. It is from that name that the name Jamaica was derived. Over a hundred and fifty years later, in 1655, colonial governance of the island changed when the British seized the island from the Spanish.

The arrival of the Europeans proved to be the undoing of the indigenous Taino people. They were eliminated due to overwork and diseases brought by the Europeans. Various nationalities were imported into the island from elsewhere because they were essential to the economy of the colony. For nearly four hundred years, facilitated by the Atlantic Slave Trade, Africans were brought to colonies like Jamaica as forced labour to sustain sugar cane production. Following the abolition of the slave trade in 1807,

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indentured servants from Europe, India and China supplemented the labour force. From this history Jamaica emerged a racially and culturally diverse country.

However, for most of Jamaica’s history, the majority of the population had neither access to formal education nor the power to determine what their own education needs were and how these needs should be met. Notably, the Jamaican education system served the needs and interests of the holders of economic and political power; it was not developed to equip the local population. From 1494 to the mid seventeenth century, Jamaica’s economic contribution to the Spanish crown of spices, cocoa, sugar cane and tobacco did not require Spain’s investment in her education system. The situation did not improve when the British took control in 1655. The country was governed by British governors, producing goods for export to Britain and depended on Britain to provide the skills needed for government as well as commerce. This colonial plantation system was structured to provide raw materials and goods for the ‘mother country’ and purchase finished products from Europe. It was an economic system efficient in providing wealth for Europe and which allowed for capital accumulation of the colonizers. Ironically, there was no direct social support of this economic contribution to colonial prosperity through structured educational provisions. The plantation was the primary economic unit, but the plantation acted with no obligation to the social and cultural welfare of the colony. Before the end of slavery in 1834, there was very little provision for formal education for the mass of the population. Rich planters made provisions for their children but education was not considered necessary or appropriate for the slave. That is, the education system was not developed for the equipping of the local population.
During almost three centuries of slavery, the plantation system which was both social and economic became ingrained. From the perspective of the planter, the lack of provision for education for the slaves was justifiable. Africans who were forcefully captured and transported from the continent to form the island’s workforce were only considered a social investment in so far as they were able to provide labour. A slave was an expendable commodity only valued for the ability to work. Furthermore, in the eighteenth century, the life expectancy of the African slave on the Jamaican plantation was only seven years (GOJ, 2007). From the planters’ point of view, the maintenance of the existing economic system (which was the priority) did not require the provision of education. Given the life expectancy of the slave it would also not be a good investment so there was no infrastructure for social support.

Additionally, an educated slave was considered dangerous and likely to challenge the status quo. In a society in which the slave class eventually outnumbered the planter class 9 to 1, every means of subjugation was used to ensure control. So, teaching slaves to read was illegal as was the communication of cultural practices and values. In this divided society, the white planter class, which comprised property owners and governors, had ultimate legal and economic power. Decisions about education were in their hands. They made provisions for their own children, often sending them home to Europe to be educated. Professionals, when needed to provide leadership and services in the economy, were imported from Europe. The great wealth generated in the colony was exported to the ‘mother country’ so the colonies experienced short term prosperity but long term underdevelopment. Their societies did not benefit from the development of physical or social infrastructure (such as provisions for education) although they earned vast sums (Miller, 2003).
The Post-Emancipation Period

Although the slave trade was legally ended in 1807, slavery continued to be practised in the colonies until 1834 when a 4 year period of amelioration commenced. Slavery was finally fully abolished in 1838. Caribbean historian Eric Williams (Williams, 1994) argues that the abolition of slavery was not merely an altruistic act, but was driven by economic challenges that were manifest in the declining profitability of sugar. Other historians credit the work of abolitionists such as Wilberforce and the influence of the Movement for the Abolition of Slavery on the British Parliament to outlaw slavery. Whatever the perspective on the source of the abolition movement, the decision came from outside of the colonies and the colonists (who were the decision makers and infrastructure planners in the West Indies and the Americas) were not ready for it. They resented having to make a new economic arrangement and generally were preoccupied with considerations of how the freed slave could be made to continue to sustain their way of life in the colony. From Britain, the compromise was offered to placate the planters with an apprenticeship system that kept the ex-slaves on the plantation for a further 4 years after emancipation.

Policy makers in Britain however, gave consideration to a mass education system in the British colonies after emancipation. Miller (Miller, 2003) considers it a remarkable achievement that this education system in the Caribbean, as limited as it was, was ‘inaugurated’ in the region at the same time that it became a popular institution in Western Europe. The colonists borrowed the educational framework that was emerging in Europe at that time and utilised it in the Caribbean. Miller (2003) identifies three main eras, first education through family and philanthropy, second, a denominational school system with some state support and third, a state
school system with denominational management. In the first era, planters who could afford to make arrangements for their children’s education did so privately. Many sent their children home to Europe as soon as they were old enough. What this practice ensured, was that the brightest minds left the country for further education and their education was indeed structured in such a manner that those who left were unlikely to return. Augier and Gordon (Augier and Gordon, 1962) cite a quotation from Long (1774) that underscores this point,

...what are the mighty advantages which Britain, or the colony, has gained by the many hundreds who have received their education in the former?...they have spent their fortunes in Britain, and learned to renounce their native place, their parents and friends...their industry is, in general, forever lost to the place where it might have been usefully exerted;...The education they usually receive in Great Britain does not qualify them for useful employment in Jamaica. (Augier and Gordon, 1962 p. 107)

Those who could not afford to send their children abroad benefited from endowments that had been bequeathed for the establishment of schools for poor white boys. This provision was not extended to girls and did not include the slave population. Only in the 10 years that preceded emancipation was there evidence of some kind of literacy provided for slaves through Sunday Schools and this was primarily focused on helping the slave learn to read the Bible. The planter class continued to feel that schools for the masses were unnecessary in a plantation economy and had the potential to threaten the plantation’s labour supply. For the few who had some social conscience, but perhaps not courage to confront this widely held view, endowments allowed them to contribute to the establishment of schools for poor free children (Miller, 2003).

After emancipation, the British parliament approved a grant to establish elementary schools, called the Negro Education Grant which was aimed at providing finances for mass schooling in the British colonies. From 1835 to
1845 the Grant contributed every year to the building of schools, training of teachers and provision of equipment for the education of children of ex-slaves. The churches managed the system and the grant was paid to them. Miller (2003) calls this a ‘denominational system’ (p. 362) over which the churches had control and to which they also contributed large sums, particularly when the sum of the grant was reduced in 1842 and was withdrawn completely in 1846.

This cooperation of local assembly, ex-slaves and church created the elementary school system in less than a decade. Beginning in 1835, four teacher training institutions and hundreds of elementary schools were established in the British colonies in the West Indies through endowments. One example is the Mico Trust, established in 1835 by the Lady Mico Charity. The Trust stipulated that after emancipation, the resources of the Charity were to be used for the education of the children of the ex-slaves in the British colonies. Miller points to the significance of this type of arrangement, that although the Mico institutions were of Christian influence they were non-denominational and so introduced a type of school not entirely run by the church. By the end of the nineteenth century, Mico had confined its focus to teacher training institutions. The Mico University College, a teacher training higher education institution still exists in Jamaica today.

The Negro Education Grant, stipulated that its provision was for ‘moral and religious education of the Negro population upon liberal and comprehensive policies’ (Gordon, 1963, Whyte, 1983). Evidently, education was still being used as a tool to ensure subservience. It was not about supporting persons in the realising of their potential or contributing to nation building. Miller notes that the system in England and that in the Caribbean, although bound to legislation passed at the same time, served two different
purposes. The English system, according to the Education Act of 1833, was to address ‘some of the social implications of the industrial revolution’. On the other hand, in the Caribbean, the system was meant to be ‘for meeting the challenges of creating free societies following the abolition of slavery’ (Miller 2003, p. 360). In these new free societies, the primary challenge became, not the creation of aware and involved citizens, but the necessity of maintaining a viable economic system. For the British Crown this meant restoring and maintaining social peace and for the planter class equated to ensuring the supply of willing and subservient labour for the plantation. Schools were ‘institutions of social and political purpose’ (Miller 2003, p. 360).

Christian churches made the earliest efforts to provide structured educational opportunities for the general population. At first, focus was on teaching former slaves to read the Bible and instructing them in catechism. In time, church schools were established at the primary and secondary levels. Elementary education was available to all. However the earliest indigenous secondary level educational institutions, which were intended to provide education for free people of colour who could not afford to send their children to be educated in England, were limited. These institutions were limited in terms of the population they catered to and they charged fees that effectively excluded the majority of the population. Only a few free spaces were available to children of the working class.

This period in which the ethos was that of a denominational system with state support was followed by one in which the state took more authority and led in financial as well as policy determination. After the Morant Bay rebellion in 1865, the House of Assembly was required to surrender its powers and the country was entirely governed by the British Crown. Crown Colony Government lasted from 1866 to 1913. During this period the
educational system went through several phases; in the denominational education system, Miller notes, the rivalry between denominational groups for membership led to many small schools in the same districts. They were inefficient and financially strained and so the churches invited the state to support the educational system. This was consistent with the view in Europe at the time that public education was the responsibility of the state. The government took charge of policy and finances and the church continued the day to day running of the schools. The cooperation between church, state and members of the population in making decisions for education was replaced with rationalisation of schools (some were closed), a cap was put on resources, curriculum was restricted and emphasis was put on vocational education, (especially in agriculture). The imperial government ‘decreed that education should serve the interest of the sugar industry, and therefore the planters’ (Miller 2003, p. 372). The majority of the population lost its influence on the education system and felt alienated from it. Educational development stagnated.

The Twentieth Century

As the country entered the twentieth century, public education was limited to the primary level. There emerged a dual system of education. On the one hand, there were government run schools up to primary level which facilitated functional literacy and were available to the general population. On the other hand, there were private fee paying schools that dominated the secondary level and followed a curriculum which prepared students for further education in Britain. The latter was in some ways an irrelevant and extravagant provision, for the majority of the population did not attend school beyond the primary level and of the few who went on to secondary school, many could not attend universities in the ‘mother country’. Post
secondary education in the colony was limited to teacher education and to theology.

Jamaica’s experience as a British colony mirrored that of other countries that had experienced slavery and the plantation economy. Long after slavery was abolished the patterns of the plantation continued. For instance, in the twentieth century, the bauxite and sugar industries, the main elements of the industrial sector in the post-emancipation period, still functioned according to the plantation model. Local labour was largely low skilled, equipment and expertise were imported while raw materials were exported to be processed outside of the country and so provided employment for a skilled labour force elsewhere. The skilling of the local population was not a priority.

The first organization to focus on the educational needs of the adult learner was the Jamaica Welfare Ltd which was founded in 1936 as Jamaica’s first non-governmental organization (NGO). It continued grass-root education until it was later transformed into the Jamaica Social Welfare Commission. Today this organisation still exists as the Social Development Commission (Riley, 2002). The emphasis of the Jamaica Welfare Limited was on adult literacy for community building.

After Jamaica attained self-government in 1962, education was identified as one of the growth priorities for the newly independent nation. The new government however, had responsibility for the independent island but did not have the economic means to fulfil the obligations of that responsibility. It was not until the early 1970’s that the education system had a place in core government policy and commanded a significant proportion of the
government’s budget. The Ministry of Education had been established in 1953 and its initial focus was on the construction of primary and junior secondary schools. The Education Act of 1965 was the first effort to regulate the system to meet the needs for greater self-financing capability, a better definition of Jamaica’s educational goals and the expansion of the system to meet both individual and national needs (Ja Ed Sector Survey, 1977 p.18 in Ministry of Education, 2004).

Here was the first evidence of educational policy that focused on meeting individual developmental needs as well as national goals that related to the country’s development. However there were still challenges. Even into the 1970’s the education system provided insufficient opportunities beyond the primary level because the system still retained many of the features from the colonial era. The education system was a tiered system that was very class defined. Upper classes paid for private education and the state provisions were accessed by the lower classes. It was a continuation of a system constructed to preserve the plantation society, but unworkable in the post-plantation world (Mordecai and Mordecai, 2001). Education had been used as a tool to keep classes separated. Literacy was a class issue as those who accessed education could also access more options for social and economic mobility. For example, before universal adult suffrage in 1944, many members of the black population were generally excluded from the vote by hurdles such as literacy tests. Later, political parties used the promise of provisions for education as a tool to entice votes.

By the start of the 1970’s, it became evident that education was still not serving the needs of the Jamaican people. A UNESCO sponsored survey of 1970 reported that 40-50% of adults aged 15 and over were illiterate (Riley, 2002). It was now clear that policy makers had to find ways to
redress the educational neglect of the majority of the population. The People’s National Party (PNP) government, during its first term in office (1972-1976), initiated major changes in the educational system. As part of its ideological agenda of democratic socialism, Prime Minister Michael Manley’s government instituted policies aimed at uplifting marginalised segments of the population. Policy changes were manifest in nationalisation, social reform and increased expenditure on health, housing and education. Among the changes were adjustments to the education system such as free secondary and college education and a campaign against illiteracy. These reforms were intended to remedy the inequalities caused by the previously limited system of secondary education and to widen access for Jamaicans. However, the positive effects of social reform were limited by resource restrictions and Jamaica’s struggle to shake off dependency during the global economic challenges of the 1970’s (Payne and Sutton, 1984).

**Teacher Education**

The development of teacher education in Jamaica followed its own distinctive path. Jamaican educator Errol Miller claims that ‘there is growing international consensus that good teachers are key to the delivery of high quality education’ (Miller, 2000); this includes the teacher’s subject knowledge, the teacher’s abilities, teaching methods and teaching experience as well as small class size. Miller cites the ‘National Commission on Teaching and the America’s Future’ that the essence of the argument (is)

- what teachers know and can do are among the most important influences on what students learn
• recruiting, preparing and retaining good teachers is one of the central strategies for improving schools

• school reform cannot succeed unless it focuses on creating the conditions in which teachers can teach and teach well.

Therefore, in this overview of the education system in Jamaica, it is important to acknowledge the role of teachers in education and to comment on how teacher training developed in Jamaica. I will give a brief synopsis of Miller’s (1991, 1992, 2003) account of the historical development of teacher education in Jamaica.

The first teacher colleges were established in 1830 with funding from the Mico trust. From the 1830’s to the 1950’s pre-service training was restricted to primary level teachers. There was no indigenous capacity to train secondary school teachers so secondary schools were mostly staffed by teachers from Britain. By the mid 1950’s, vast improvement and changes led to an expansion in enrolment in colleges. This included raised academic level of training programmes for primary school teachers, the start of training for secondary school teachers, introduction of a variety of delivery modalities (such as 2 and 3 year models of intra-mural plus internship). By the 1980’s more changes had taken place. Certificate and Diploma qualifications were deemed inadequate for the changing times and degree programmes were developed. Options to conventional full-time face-to-face programmes were made available with the introduction of part-time and distance programmes.

In the 1990’s, Miller recalls the change of pedagogical practices in teacher training; this came as a challenge to the traditional authoritarian teacher centred role and focused on more student centred pedagogy. This is evidenced in school based reforms such as the ROSE (The Reform of
Secondary Education) Project. The ROSE project focused on the improving of quality and equity of secondary education. By 2004, 208 teachers were trained in the ROSE curriculum (JIS, 2005). The 1990’s also saw a focus on the graduate teacher, distance education and use of information technology. However, Miller does not refer to adult education as a distinct category, neither as adult literacy nor as wider lifelong learning. In Jamaica, adult literacy teachers who supported the literacy programmes spearheaded by The Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy (JAMAL) from the 1970’s onward were retired teachers (usually from the primary level), many of whom volunteered their services. Today, colleges and other tertiary level institutions provide programmes for adults that range from basic literacy to further and continuing education courses. They are likely to employ diploma level and graduate teachers. Teachers’ colleges, not universities, are the primary training institutions for teachers in Jamaica and teachers’ colleges in Jamaica train teachers for primary or secondary education. Teachers supplement that training with undergraduate and graduate qualifications where required.

Miller points out that teaching has never been a single occupation. There is a sociological perspective to teaching and there are at least five levels to the teaching occupation:

- Community based pre-school teaching, usually comprised of lower class, poorly qualified female teachers.
- Public primary school teaching comprised mostly of pre-trained and diploma trained females.
- Private primary school teaching, comprised also of females but more likely to include persons of the same class and ethnic background as the students that attend these schools. This is true also of public primary schools. Teachers tend to be from similar socio-economic
backgrounds as their pupils. Public schools tend to be primarily attended by children of lower social status and private schools tend to be attended by children from middle class families.

- High school and college teaching again comprised mainly of females and a minority of males of middle class background.
- University teaching comprised mostly of males of the middle and upper classes. This category has the highest prestige among the teaching occupations.

Adult education, which is not mentioned by Miller, has also undergone change in terms of the sociological profile of teachers. As suggested above, adult literacy education was not a high status component of the education matrix. Teachers were mostly volunteers or simply accepted an allowance, classes were held in primary schools or church halls late in the evenings after the regular school day. Students paid nominal fees or no fees at all. Adult education, as is currently practised as part of a lifelong learning mandate, is now usually located in colleges and enjoy a higher status than it did previously. Students are also likely to be taught by secondary level and graduate teachers.

On the issue of continuing professional development for teachers Miller notes that this was provided by:

- Teacher training colleges some of which offer programmes to upgrade teaching diplomas to degrees.
- Teachers’ unions and teachers’ associations (such as The Jamaica Teachers’ Association) which run regular seminars and workshops for their members.
- The Ministry of Education through its Professional Development Unit. The unit carries out assessments and uses that information to plan professional development for specific schools.
Finally, Miller remarks that there have been significant changes in teaching over the last fifty years, these include:

- An expansion of high school and college teaching
- Caribbean nationals have replaced European expatriates as the core of the teaching population at the secondary and college levels
- The region is now training its own secondary level teachers and the vast majority of teachers are locally trained
- The majority of teachers up to the secondary level are female
- A significant number of secondary level teachers are persons who have transitioned to a higher social class as a result of education

In the next section, I will look at the education system as it exists in Jamaica today. In particular, I will explain the structure of the post-secondary sector which is the part of the education landscape most relevant to adult learners.

**The Current Jamaican Education System**

The formal education system in Jamaica today is still based on the British model. It consists of 1,013 institutions offering public education on four levels and is administered by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Culture through regional offices and local school boards (2009 figures). The formal system includes government run institutions and institutions run by government in partnership with churches and trusts. Compulsory education (to age 16) has been core to the system although changing political leadership has meant adjustments in the education budget as well as the focus of the education plan. Tuition-free education to the secondary level has been reinstated by the current government and was a major pin of its campaign for leadership in September 2007.
Below is a table showing how schooling is structured in Jamaica and the number of public education institutions as of 2009.

**Table 2-1**

**Number and Categories of Education Institutions in Jamaica (2009)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Designation in Jamaican Education System and number of schools</th>
<th>Age group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRE-PRIMARY</td>
<td>Basic Schools/ Infant Schools (31)</td>
<td>4-6 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(EARLY CHILDHOOD)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRIMARY</td>
<td>Primary Schools (546)</td>
<td>7-12 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All Age Schools /Primary and Junior High (246)</td>
<td>7-15 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Special (10)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SECONDARY</td>
<td>(Traditional) High Schools (147)</td>
<td>12-18 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vocational High Schools (2)</td>
<td>12-18 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Technical High Schools (14)</td>
<td>12-18 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POST-SECONDARY</td>
<td>Community Colleges (5)</td>
<td>Over 16 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(TERTIARY)</td>
<td>Teachers’ Colleges (5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other Colleges and Universities (7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Ministry of Education Website)

The focus of government policy and resources on education to secondary level is reflected in the difference in the range of provisions at this level versus the provisions at the post-secondary level. Jamaica has nearly
achieved universal primary education with an enrolment rate in 2008 of 95% and although struggling to achieve full access to secondary education UNICEF figures show modest gain. This figure means that, of all students at primary education age who are eligible to attend school 95% are enrolled in school. In 2008 secondary enrolment was 87% and in 2008, tertiary enrolment rate was 24% (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2009). In terms of expenditure in the 2007/8 financial year, education was allocated 12.6% of the national budget. Of this sum, 4.3% was spent on early childhood education, 32.5% on primary, 31.9% on secondary and 18.2% on tertiary level education (JFLL, 2008). These numbers are evidence of the focus given to early childhood and primary education. In the Jamaican economy with its limited resources, post secondary education has, for the most part, been privately funded.

**Post-Secondary Education in Jamaica**

The emphasis in the post-colonial period on early childhood, primary and secondary education was an important political decision for the early years of Jamaica’s independence. Although not receiving the same kind of government focus, the post-secondary education sector has also had to respond to changing needs of the new nation as Jamaica restructured itself after independence. These challenges have been exacerbated by the fact that a significant percentage of school leavers exit the secondary system without having attained acceptable levels (Ministry of Education, 2008). An adult population whose members have not attained at least a grade 11 standard of education cannot take advantage of the social and economic opportunities of the time. Nor can they cope adequately with the challenges of a global economy (Riley, 2002).
Since the mid 1970’s much attention has been paid to the post-secondary sector providing both a supplement and a complement to secondary education. Post-secondary education must supplement secondary education by providing for those who still need basic education or need to re-enter the system after disengaging from formal education. As well, it must present opportunities for those who want to be challenged beyond the secondary level and pursue advanced studies to complement the foundation education.

Post-secondary options have evolved as three distinct streams, academic (mainstream), vocational and adult literacy education. Although distinct but connected, these three streams seemed initially to relate to very different populations. Typically, students who succeed in the formal/mainstream educational system up to secondary level continue the academic route, those who stay in the formal/mainstream system, but do not succeed academically, go on to the vocational education route and those who could not compete in the formal system or never had a chance to enter the formal system take the adult literacy route.

This dichotomy continues into the workplace. For instance, students who follow an academic route are more likely to find employment in professions and white collar careers and are generally more valued by the society in terms of both status and salary. This sense of a tiered system also had class connections. Upper and middle class families seem disproportionately represented in the mainstream group, so too, the percentage of persons left to access adult literacy has been strongly skewed to the lower classes. Public funding for education was always limited, nevertheless government support favoured mainstream education and the earliest provisions were made for this category.
Figure 2-2
Post Secondary Options in the Jamaican Education System

(* HEART- Human Employment and Resource Training Trust, VDTI- Vocational Development Training Institute, JAMAL- Jamaican Movement for Adult Literacy, JFLL- Jamaica Foundation for Lifelong Learning, JACAE- Jamaican Council for Adult and Continuing Education)

Although the categories are distinct, the bifurcation between these categories is not impermeable. Learners do pass from one to the other usually using adult literacy education and/or vocational education to acquire credits towards mainstream academic education. Adult literacy education allows important entry opportunities to mainstream education for persons who would otherwise be excluded.
Mainstream Academic Education

Mainstream academic education provides a path for the student through primary and secondary school to tertiary level education with options for community colleges (for short courses and preparation courses to enter other tertiary level institutions), professional colleges (that offer diploma and degree level courses) and universities. The University of the West Indies (UWI) is the Caribbean region’s oldest indigenous university; it was established in 1948 as a college of the University of London. By 2009 another public university, two private universities as well as a number of local and trans-national colleges had been added to the mix.

The term “Higher Education” is not widely used in Jamaica to make a distinction between colleges and universities. Many college students do plan to go on to university, it is however not always a simple linear path and is a journey that may be interrupted by work and family. The figure below indicates different manifestations of mainstream academic education. Students may pursue their education to college level or enter university from the secondary level or through completing a college level certificate/diploma before going on to university education. The colonial education system was skewed to favour this mainstream academic path. Since only a small percentage of qualified students are able to access tertiary education in general and university education in particular, it is considered to be élitist (Middlehurst and Woodfield, 2004a, Middlehurst and Woodfield, 2004b). Middlehurst and Woodfield assert that education is highly valued from a personal, social and economic perspective in Jamaica and the focus on improving provision at the lower level has led to higher expectations and demands that are not being fully met.
Professional and Vocational Education

Professional and vocational education, at the tertiary level, is primarily provided by colleges that offer certificate and diploma level qualifications. These include training in business and commerce, nursing, theology, agriculture, visual and performing arts, liberal arts, and teacher training. In the last decade some of these colleges have upgraded some programmes to degree level. As indicated before, teachers’ colleges and theological institutions are examples of institutions in this category that have a long history in Jamaica, having been established in the decade after the emancipation of slavery (Miller, 2003)
The Human Employment and Resource Training (HEART) Trust and the Vocational Development Training Institute (VDTI) represent the most recent government addition to this sector. The following section will detail the establishment and contribution of HEART as an illustration of some of the new developments in this sector.

**Figure 2-4**
**Professional and Vocational Education in Jamaica**

HEART TRUST

The HEART Trust was established in response to the need to increase the number of skilled workers who could help meet the country’s development needs. HEART was developed to provide training opportunities for unskilled youth who could not qualify for employment since they had neither certifiable skills nor experience. Employers were able to benefit from the programme as they were provided with apprentices or with trained and certified employees.

HEART’s mission statement reflects a mature understanding of a lifelong learning mandate. It claims that the organization aims to:
create opportunities for training and development to enable people of all ages to acquire useful skills for meaningful participation in the life of the community (HEART/NTA).

This is not merely a focus on basic literacy and numeracy but a wide-ranging attempt to meet both the needs of citizens ‘of all ages’ who want to acquire skills that have value to them, as well as to the needs of the community which wants to have its adults participate in its development (HEART/NTA).

HEART’s objectives are stated as:

1. To develop, encourage, monitor and provide finance for training schemes for employment of trainees.

2. To provide employment opportunities for trainees

3. To direct or assist in the placement of persons seeking employment in Jamaica

4. To promote employment projects (HEART/NTA).

Companies are given two options to contribute to the HEART programme. Paying into its primary funding mechanism, a HEART tax, which was the equivalent of 3% of their gross payroll or by engaging ‘trainees’ for up to 6 months at a time, to a minimum of 3% of their payroll. Training is conducted through classroom-type teaching as well as apprenticeship-type placements in places of commerce and industry. Trainees typically find employment within the firms to which they were assigned or are helped by the Placement Unit of HEART to find employment that allows them to use their new skills.

The HEART ACT (1982) focused on making provisions to train for employment. This was a significant development in Jamaica’s journey to
create more comprehensive educational opportunities for her people. Through HEART, the government has broadened opportunities for those needing additional skills, made provisions to certify those with skills but no formal education and has required industry and commerce to invest in the education sector. This focus on education for employment also indicates effort by policy makers to make education relevant to the needs of society and beneficial for learners.

However, HEART has been unable to meet all of the demand for non-traditional education. Entry into HEART programmes is very competitive. HEART has become one of the options for school leavers without job prospects or the possibility of entry in one of the main-stream academic institutions. Many post-secondary students who qualify for other options turn to HEART because the entire tertiary education sector has not been able to meet demand by offering educational opportunities at an affordable price to every one who desires it. Consequently, waiting lists are long and applicants have to compete with many others for the spaces each year. Students at the lower end of the spectrum, those who function at lower academic and socio-economic levels find that available spaces in HEART programmes get fewer and fewer each year and they are edged out by more able applicants. These are the school-leavers who are from poorer families, and do not have the option to go into the ‘family business’ or benefit from sponsorship in a business of their own. It may be argued that these marginalised post-secondary students were envisioned as the target population when HEART was first established yet once again the limitations of the system has left them frustrated and excluded.
There is a big gap between the kind of educational provisions described so far and what was traditionally called ‘adult education’. In the 1970’s, adult education was the label given to adult literacy education and this stream existed outside of the continuum from primary to secondary education. Since then the adult education organizations in Jamaica have re-branded their product and embraced the mantra of lifelong learning. This evolution will be discussed in the following section.

**Adult Education**

**Figure 2-5**

*Flowchart showing links between Adult (Literacy) Education and the rest of the education sector in Jamaica (1970’s - ‘80’s)*

The adult education route was at first considered only for those in educational deficit. It was effectively basic literacy education for adults who had received little or no formal education and its goal was to bring adult
learners to the level of functional literacy. Very few adult literacy students went beyond this level to participate in the rest of the formal education system. Adult Education was a low status component of the education system (staffed primarily by volunteers with classes held at late evening in church halls or primary schools) that seemed to be an appendage to formal education and not a rightful part of it. Students were generally embarrassed by the fact that attending these classes signified that one was illiterate and needed to ‘learn to read’. Over the years, adult education has gained in status and acceptability as the educational paradigm has broadened and as education is now viewed as a process that continues throughout the lifespan.

TIMELINE OF EVOLUTION OF ADULT EDUCATION

It is possible to chart a course from the colonial period to the present that allows us to appreciate the growth that has occurred in terms of sensitivity to the significance of adult education as an important element of the overall education picture.


In this section I will look at some significant dates in the Adult Education story in Jamaica to illustrate how the discipline has changed in recent years.

1943
Literacy classes conducted by voluntary organizations.
In the mid 1940's the participation of most of the population, those of black or mixed race, in secondary education was insignificant. Less than 1% of blacks and 9% mixed race persons attended secondary school. Early records show that literacy classes were held by voluntary organizations.

By the 1970’s, it was clear to policy makers and the new socialist government that illiterate adults had to be considered in education policy. A Literacy Evaluation Planning Committee was set up in 1970 by the Jamaican Government, assisted by UNESCO with the task of assessing the literacy level of the island. The government, which had been focussing on a range of education policies influencing primary education for all, appreciated that these provisions did not impact illiterate adults. The evaluation revealed that over 40% of the population 15 years and over was illiterate (Riley, 2002). The government’s first action was to establish the National Literacy Board (NLB) in 1972 with the ambitious aim of eradicating illiteracy in four years. In 1973 the NLB was restructured and renamed the Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy (JAMAL). The JAMAL Foundation was assisted by government yet also had permission to attract financial support from private enterprises as well as other local and international organizations. This development in Jamaica coincided with a wider drive in the international community to promote adult education. In particular, the General Assembly of the International Council of Adult Education (ICAE) in 1976 identified the Caribbean as a separate region and an interim council of the Caribbean Regional Council
for Adult Education was established in 1978. Ministers of Education of the Caribbean Common Market (CARICOM) in 1978 accepted the recommendation to establish a regional commission to co-ordinate adult education activities in the region (Ellis et al, 2000 p. 6).

At its inception, three objectives were identified for JAMAL,

1. To eradicate illiteracy in Jamaica in the shortest time possible.
2. To improve the literacy skills of the adult population of Jamaica.
3. To develop human resources and so enable each adult citizen to participate meaningfully in the social, economic and cultural development of the country. (Riley, 2002)

The Foundation has been widely acknowledged locally and internationally for its contribution to the advancement of adult literacy in Jamaica. In the first 15 years of its existence, the illiteracy rate decreased by 22% from over 40% in 1970 to 18% in 1987 (Ellis and Ramsay, 2000).

Perhaps the success of JAMAL may be due, at least in part, to its attempts to remain current and relevant. JAMAL’s programmes were restructured in the 1980’s and again in the 1990’s, its objectives were broadened to include occupational skills and the target audience was expanded to include young adults whose education at the primary level was inadequate. In addition to literacy work, the organization’s focus was expanded to include illiteracy prevention, support for secondary school drop outs, and prevention of regression.
The wave of volunteerism generated by JAMAL was further harnessed by the Jamaica Council for Adult Education (JACAE) which was established in 1984 by volunteers. JAMAL had developed a network of volunteer literacy teachers across the country who would conduct daily afternoon and evening classes. JACAE was able to connect with these interests and skills as the chief NGO responsible for the development of adult education. In addition to literacy support, JACAE had a mandate to encourage the training and development of adult educators in Jamaica.

JACAE’s vision is to promote high-quality lifelong learning for all Jamaican adults. The agency has made some significant contributions to the sector, helping to develop a 2 year certificate in Adult Education by way of UWIDEC (University of the West Indies Distance Education Centre) (1997-8), initiating, in collaboration with the Mt St Vincent University (Canada), a Masters degree programme in Adult Education (1998) and establishing a documentation/resource centre devoted to adult education. In addition, the council has organised several workshops, seminars and events to observe Adult Education Week during the 1990’s (Ellis et al, 2000). The council has made much effort through its public relations arm to send the message that adult education is not only about literacy education for adults but has wider scope and relevance for all adult learners at whatever level.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>1997</th>
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<tr>
<td>Workplace Learning Programme</td>
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<td>WLP and Life Skills Programme</td>
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The effort of the adult education sector to remain current is evidenced also in a 1997 initiative. Based on a study conducted in businesses on the impact of employee literacy on productivity, two new projects were
developed. These two projects the ‘Life Skills Programme’ and the ‘Workplace Learning Programme’ both aim at equipping the adult learner for the workplace. A third programme, the High School Equivalency Programme (HISEP), a collaboration of JAMAL with the National Training Agency (HEART/NTA) is focused on helping persons who have not completed secondary education to acquire certification at that level.

Over time, JAMAL’s focus shifted from its original goal of providing basic literacy skills to a focus on learning as a lifelong process. With this expanded vision, in October 2006, The JAMAL Foundation was renamed the Jamaica Foundation for Lifelong Learning (JFLL) (Anderson, 2008). The JFLL added to the core programmes of basic literacy and numeracy an expanded curriculum that focused on a range of educational opportunities that catered to a wide range of adult learners including the out-of-school and ‘unattached’ youth and continuing with adults of all ages. This is characterised in the mission of the JFLL:

To provide in partnership with other organisations adult education programmes which will establish a culture of lifelong learning that will empower individuals and contribute to national development (JFLL website).

The agency was identified as the coordinating agency for the Government's policy on lifelong learning. This policy was developed in 2005 and sought to promote national growth and development by sustaining personal productivity which is made possible by participation in lifelong learning. Its three major goals were:
- The development and fostering of a culture of learning that includes and benefits every citizen inclusive of persons with disabilities.
- The provision of an enabling environment nationwide that ensures access to lifelong learning
- The development and sustenance of an enlightened, thinking and competent population

These goals show a progression from focus on developing literacy skills (JAMAL goals) to developing thinking and problem-solving skills (JFLL), from an emphasis on adult learning (JAMAL) to an emphasis on learning for ‘every citizen’. Lifelong learning highlights ‘education as a tool of empowerment and economic opportunities’ (JFLL website).

This broadening of vision shows an acknowledgement of the country’s need to equip its citizens to be part of a productive and progressive workforce. There has also been intentional promotion of the lifelong learning philosophy, encouraging adults to be open to continuous learning and re-equipping and searching for innovative ways to bring education to the adult population on the assumption that this will lead to the empowerment of that segment of the population. Lifelong learning then has adopted an economic goal that is considered of high importance to Jamaica’s development planning.

**Relevant Education Policy**

A look at the growth in education policy since the Education Act of 1964 gives some insight into the attempts by policy makers to broaden the education landscape. In addition to those policy initiatives directly related
to adult education that have been detailed above, such as the HEART Act of 1982, other policy reforms were initiated. Here I will briefly mention some that have contributed to supporting adult education provisions.

UNIVERSITY COUNCIL OF JAMAICA ACT

In 1987, The University Council of Jamaica (UCJ) was established. The UCJ is Jamaica’s national quality assurance body and was empowered to approve study programmes, register new academic institutions and to grant academic awards to persons who had completed approved courses of study. UCJ’s establishment is significant as it opened the door to private providers of education at the post-secondary level. This allowed them to challenge the UWI’s (University of the West Indies) hegemony and to offer more diverse and flexible options to learners for whom UWI’s offerings were unattractive or inaccessible.

UCJ’s establishment was a response to the growth in the tertiary sector beyond the public provisions. A large number of private local and foreign based colleges were offering more choice to students. Adult students and employers were also more aware and more demanding of high standards. Consequently, this sector has also embraced pre-service and in-service training in industry and commerce and UCJ’s establishment has facilitated this growth.

UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY ACT

By the University of Technology (UTech) Jamaica Act of 1995, the College of Arts Science and Technology (CAST) was changed to the University of
Technology, consequently the monopoly enjoyed by the University of the West Indies as the only public university in Jamaica was brought to an end. The UTech Act actually charged the institution to advance education by a diversity of means by encouraging and developing learning and creativity for sustainable development for the benefit of the people of Jamaica, the Caribbean and elsewhere (UTECH, 1995).

As CAST, this institution had offered credible higher education opportunities to students who either would not chose the linear academic route of the UWI or may not have matriculated for UWI entry. CAST offered more technical education and was strong on professional development in vocational skills and building workplace competence. CAST also had a carefully designed articulation system that allowed students to enter programmes at a lower level and gain credits to matriculate to diploma or degree level programmes. These features became part of the new UTech and offered an expanded range of higher education options to students.

COUNCIL OF COMMUNITY COLLEGES

In 2001, the Council of Community Colleges was established under an Act of Parliament. Community Colleges had been set up to supplement secondary education and increasingly took on a role of providing continuing education programmes. They became viable options for persons who found the esteemed academic path to university unrealistic or inconvenient. By this Act, the work of community colleges was co-ordinated and a link was created for the Minister of Education to receive advice on relevant policy for community colleges. Significantly, community colleges were now able to collaborate with other further and higher education institutions in the provision of educational opportunities.
Two other milestones indicate the growing interest of policy makers in education at the tertiary level and in particular, strengthening the equipping of teachers. The Consortium of Teacher Education Policy was established on recommendation by a 2004 Task Force in Educational Reform. The Task Force recommended that practising teachers hold at least a bachelors degree. Previous to this, initial training for teachers was a 3 year programme towards a teaching diploma. Diploma level teachers could then attend a degree granting institution to read for a degree. Ten public institutions offering diploma level teacher training presented a policy to form a Consortium of Teacher Education to offer and award undergraduate degrees and eventually post-graduate degrees (JFLL, 2008).

This effort to improve teacher-qualifications, by supporting teachers’ colleges in upgrading their programmes to degree level, affected the system in several ways. They have upgraded their professional offerings; making programmes more attractive to potential students, co-operation between colleges through the Consortium has enabled support, sharing of best practice and monitoring standards and has utilized expertise across colleges. In terms of quality assurance, dialogue through the Consortium has created a base for identifying consistent standards and establishing independent monitoring systems.

A Tertiary Education Commission Policy was part of the government’s five year strategic Education Plan (2006-10). This policy focused on funding and marketing in tertiary education and strengthening the articulation system for those moving between tertiary institutions (JFLL, 2008). The Commission has not yet been launched.
I made the point early in this chapter that adult education, and indeed all forms of tertiary education, was not given as much focus as primary and secondary education in the 1970’s and 80’s. This may have been considered a necessary skew at the time; nevertheless, these policy initiatives suggest that the awareness of the significance of tertiary education has grown. There is also indication from these policy developments that policy makers were making an effort to be relevant to learners and to the expectations of the workplace. Additionally, there seems to be an intention to establish linkages between institutions and between stages of the education cycle so that there are more entry points to certifiable education programmes. This gives some credence to the claim by government that support of lifelong learning is more than rhetoric, that there is some seriousness to offer more than basic skills to the majority of the adult population.

**Redefining Adult Education in Jamaica**

The term ‘adult education’ is used by policy makers but not often by practitioners. The entire post-secondary sector is often referred to as tertiary education. Some institutions such as the International University of the Caribbean (IUC), which is examined as a case in this study, consider themselves both tertiary and adult education institutions. IUC does not focus on basic adult literacy, but offers a wide range of educational opportunities for adult learners in order to build a bridge for adult students from the informal to the formal tertiary sector. In Jamaica the popular definition of adult education is very consistent with UNESCO’s ISCED (International Standards Classification of Education) definition;
The entire body of organized educational processes, whatever the content, level and method, whether formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace initial education in schools, colleges and universities as well as in apprenticeship, whereby persons regarded as adults by the society to which they belong, improve their technical or professional qualifications, further develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge with the purpose: (a) to complete a level of formal education; (b) to acquire knowledge and skills in a new field; (c) to refresh or update their knowledge in a particular field (UNESCO, 2006 (Reprint)).

This concept of adult education, offering a range of options for adults who are at varying stages on the education continuum, is borne out in the kind of institutions that are now considered to be part of the adult education sector. The JFLL’s (Jamaica Foundation for Lifelong Learning) 2008 National Report on the state of Adult Learning and Education (ALE) in Jamaica identifies institutions in several categories as ALE institutions. These institutions and the kind of education they provide are listed below.

- JFLLL - Adult literacy and life skills
- HEART/NTA - Workplace certification
- Professional Colleges - Professional Training
- Community Colleges - Multidisciplinary Training
- Universities - Higher Education institutions

(JFLL, 2008)

Indeed, this wider definition of adult education and adult literacy is reflected in official reports such as Jamaica’s national report to CONFINTSEA VI in which a wider definition of literacy was offered.

Literacy is not just the ability to read and write the kind of definition which for many years in the past was the norm. It is more than that. In order to live and learn in our present knowledge-based and information-intensive societies, literacy needs now to be viewed as the ability to understand and to use various types of information, in
the various communities; it must be linked to societal and cultural practices for the definition to be meaningful. Literacy encompasses among other things the ability to read, write and comprehend in one’s native/standard language; numeracy; the ability to comprehend visual images and representations such as signs, maps and diagrams – visual literacy; information technological literacy and the understanding of how Information/communication technology impacts our every action (e.g. using barcodes on goods we purchase) and also scientific literacy (Torres, 2009).

In this section, I will look at how these wider definitions are important for the kind of role policy makers hope the education for adults will take in national development. Earlier in this chapter, education was identified as a tool for maintaining the social order. Once again, education is being used as a tool. The Jamaican policy makers seem to be articulating it as a tool for the equipping of the population in order to create a population that can positively contribute to the overall development of the country.

The main objectives of the education system were outlined in a White Paper that evolved from a range of public consultations. This White Paper emphasises the concept of lifelong learning, that quality education should be available to all from early childhood to adulthood. The paper, called: ‘Education: The Way Upward-A Path for Jamaica’s Education at the Start of the New Millennium’ (2001) outlined seven objectives:

- To devise and support initiatives striving towards literacy for all in order to extend personal opportunities and contribute to national development

- To secure teaching and learning opportunities that will optimize access, equity and relevance throughout the education system

- To support student achievement and improve institutional performance in order to ensure that national targets are met
• To maximize opportunities throughout the Ministry’s purview that promote cultural development, awareness and self-esteem for individuals, communities and the nation as a whole.

• To devise and implement systems of accountability and performance management in order to improve performance and win the public confidence.

• To optimize the effectiveness and efficiency of staff in all aspects of the service in order to secure continuous improvement in performance.

• To ensure student learning by the greater use of information and communications technology as preparation for life in the national and global communities (Ministry of Education, 2001)

These objectives form the basis of the short and long term planning that guides the Ministry’s corporate and operational plans. These are not limited to primary and secondary education, but are aimed at all members of the population.

The demand for adult education to contribute to these objectives of the whole education sector seems to be at several levels: First, there is still need for adult education that covers the content of primary level education, but provided to adults who would like to complete their basic education. This then is more than basic literacy education and should take the adult learner at least to the level of a student who has completed primary education. The HISEP (High School Equivalency Programme) allows the illiterate adult learner to follow this trajectory beyond this milestone.
(primary level education) to a point where it is possible to gain certification that has currency in the larger society. Also, there is need for adult education that is more than literacy and numeracy, which is broadened to include, skills training, workplace preparation as well as opportunities for adults to explore study interests in areas not covered in school. This is also about creating opportunity for adults to re-enter the education system for those who seek second chances (Miller, 2000). The concern as it relates to national development is with helping adults to develop skills that allow them to fit into and contribute to wider society and meet the expectations of the workplace. The HEART Corporate Plan (1996-2000) details the competencies that employers want employees to possess:

- Strong basic literacy, communications and numeracy skills,
- The ability and willingness to learn and to change with circumstances,
- Flexibility, self discipline and trustworthiness,
- The ability to think through situations, to analyze problems and test solutions,
- The ability to get along with others and work in a team, and
- The desire to join others in collective effort toward shared goals (Blank, 2003).

On a regional level, the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) identified a profile of an “ideal” citizen as one who is:

- Capable of seizing the economic opportunities, which the global environment is presenting
- Able to demonstrate multiple literacies, including foreign language skills, independent and critical thinking
• Has developed the capacity to create and take advantage of opportunities to control, improve, maintain and promote physical, mental, social and spiritual well-being; and to contribute to the health and welfare of the community and country

• Nourishes in him/her and in others, the full development of each person’s potential without gender stereotyping; and embraces the differences and similarities between females and males as a source of mental strength

• Has an informed respect for our cultural heritage and that of others

(Henry Wilson, 2003)

Former Minister of Education Maxine Henry-Wilson quoted this list of characteristics in a speech to CARICOM evidencing the interest of government in promoting adult education and lifelong learning. These ideals underscore the significant work that waits to be done in the adult education sector. If the Jamaican citizen is to make a worthwhile contribution to the country and region, education needs to be both remedial and progressive. It is also necessary that the system allows opportunity for articulation from one level to another. Adult education therefore needs to be layered and responsive to social and economic needs.

So far in this chapter I have painted a picture of the context in which the research takes place. I have looked at Jamaica’s history and development and have highlighted the development of formal education against a background of slavery and colonialism. I have examined adult education in Jamaica as it has evolved from adult literacy education to life long learning. In Jamaica, the concept of adult education has come to embrace a range of
formal education options accessed by adults. It is not limited to basic literacy education but includes the many paths that adults take to improve their educational qualifications.

Finally this chapter will consider some of the challenges that still affect adult education in the Caribbean and in Jamaica in particular and looks ahead at forecasts for the future.

**Limitations of Literature and Policy Development of Adult Education in the Caribbean**

To fully appreciate the challenges for Jamaica as part of the Caribbean region it is helpful to examine the way adult education literature and policy has developed in the region. Ellis et al (2000) highlight the importance of a 1977 meeting of the CARICOM secretariat in St Lucia as a seminal event in the history of adult education in the Caribbean; this conference was focused on organizing and co-ordination adult education activity in the region. Before this time, NGO’s operated at the forefront in providing opportunities for adults to be educated but in many countries this effort was not regulated nor documented and not accounted for in the formal system of education. In 1976, it had been suggested at the International Conference of Adult Education (ICAE) that because of size, the Caribbean territory should be regarded as a sub region of Latin America and the Caribbean. Subsequently, and with the support of the CARICOM secretariat expressed in 1977, an interim Caribbean Regional Council for Adult Education (CARCAE) was established in 1978. CARCAE had responsibility to promote the formation of national associations of adult education and organize and implement programmes of training of adult educators. Its first assembly was held in the Bahamas in 1983 and it continues to meet every three years. CARCAE has mounted courses in adult education, organised
regional conferences and promoted the training of adult educators and research and documentation of adult activities.

By the 1980’s, Ellis notes that there were only a few explicit policy statements or documents in which governments articulated policies on adult education. Some countries had established adult education units in Ministries of Education and appointed adult education officers, yet there was still a marked tendency to see adult education as remedial to supplement the formal school system rather than developmental. This perspective contributed to the absence of national policies. By the 1990’s many adult education associations were dormant. Torres (2000, Torres, 2004) remarks that, in most countries in the region, adult education was almost invisible in education policies and action. In reaction to international polices such as World Bank recommendations to promote investment in primary education and implications that adult literacy actions wasted money, many adult education programmes were discontinued and departments were minimised or closed in several countries. Countries that retained some focus on adult education only included adult education in general education policy.

A reactivation of interest in adult education in the region was evident in the late 1990s and early 2000s. Torres (2004) attributes this to a social and political stability within countries and international focus on issues such as poverty, unemployment and migration. Concern about the poor results of goals related in adult learning in the EFA agenda and the establishment of the lifelong learning paradigm fuelled the work of the international adult education movement.
Nevertheless, policy and research documentation on adult education in the region is still sparse. Many countries that keep records have very little information on participation rates, patterns or evaluation of progress. It is also difficult to make comparisons across the region and determine effect and gaps in provision (Ellis et al. 2000). The difficulty with sparse documentation is compounded by the fact that there are differences in the way adult education is defined (post secondary, tertiary, continuing education, informal education), described and assessed. Even standards for statistics vary from country to country and from year to year.

(a) literacy means different things to different people, and (b) countries use different measures for the assessment of adult literacy. . . . .The situation is further complicated by the fact that terms like basic, simple, and functional literacy are sometimes used synonymously, while at other times they each have more specific meanings (Jennings 2000, p.11).

The majority of countries have no clearly articulated policy, providers operate independently of each other, they have no mechanisms for coordinating and monitoring programmes, no quality control and no way of pooling resources.

...there is a dearth of research on adult education, and while a few research studies have been done, no serious attempts have been made to publish or disseminate them (Ellis 2000, p. 183).

In one published article on adult education in the region Jennings (2000, p. 26) lists 17 studies undertaken by Caribbean researchers and focused on various countries in the region (the Commonwealth Caribbean ,Trinidad and Tobago St. Lucia, Guyana, Belize, Jamaica, St. Vincent and the Grenadines). These studies date from 1987 to 1998 and all focus on the issue of literacy. They provide primarily quantitative information on such issues as literacy rates, contributions to literacy, gender and age variables as they relate to literacy. Ellis et al. examined county reports to UNESCO to gather some data on adult education in the region. They remark that although adult education in the region seems rich and varied, there is little
formal documentation but instead scattered, short (and sometimes) undated reports (2000, p. 169). These inadequate reports restrict the possibility of making meaningful conclusions about the progress of adult education in the region. Indeed, a review of twenty national studies done in 2006-2007, ten years since CONFINTEA V showed “little evolution with respect to the diagnosed situation a decade ago” (Torres, 2009).

These limitations in policy and research have impacted on how adult education has been supported in the region. For example, curriculum development units in Ministries of Education have paid attention mainly to the development of curricula for primary and secondary education (Jennings, 2001), teachers who have been taught in an authoritarian school setting experience this kind of teacher/learner relationship again in teachers’ college (Anderson, 1972. Clarke, 1977 in Jennings 2001) and have difficulty adopting a more learner centred style in the adult classroom. The limitations faced by adult education in the Caribbean are common to small underdeveloped states,

...the peculiar constraints and limitations faced by small states. Some of which are the products of smallness itself, and others being a function of dependence, marginality, and the lack of resources. Many of the difficulties of policy formation point, not to size, but to lack of political will, the absence of inventive genius, and the preoccupation with traditional approaches by public policymakers (Jules, 1994)

Since there is confusion and disagreement on the statistics and there are limitations as a result of resource restrictions and political will, it is difficult to have an accurate picture of the state of adult education in the entire Caribbean region. Yet some common issues are evident and there is need for governments to find the political will to establish;

- A comprehensive holistic system of education, not focus that is piecemeal.
Perhaps because of resource limitations or political priorities, the tendency in the Caribbean has been to focus on some tiers of the education system and leave others. We must acknowledge the interdependence of the various stages of education.

- Planned national adult education programmes that are fully supported, even if not solely funded, by government and not left to the initiative of individuals and groups in a society. This is the only way that adult education goals can keep pace with changing economic, social and technological demands.

- Support for the development of education planners, policymakers and facilitators (teachers) who have an enlarged vision of education for all persons in society (Jennings, 2000).

**Challenges for the Future**

The Literature published after the sixth International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA) held in December 2009 includes national reports and reflections on adult education in the Caribbean and Latin America. CONFINTEA is UNESCO’s focus on the contribution of adult learning and education to sustainable development (UNESCO, 2010b). Torres (2009) having done a synthesis of the pre conference reports from the region, identifies some challenges that continue to exist for adult education in the Caribbean and South America. These challenges were highlighted in country reports and represent the considered views of practitioners and policy makers themselves. I have listed below some of the challenges from Torres’ list that remain true for Jamaica and I discuss what I think applies to the context.
Firstly, there is the low status of adult education which Torres says is ‘misunderstood and mistreated’. She claims this low status is related to the fact that the target population for Adult Learning and Education (ALE) is adult (and not children who are considered generally to have a right to schooling) and of low socio-economic status. This, she says explains the under-financing and low attention to infrastructure in the sector.

Secondly, there is the high political, financial and administrative vulnerability of ALE. Adult Learning and Education are particularly vulnerable to changes in political policy and budgetary priorities because they are at the bottom of the priority list for resources. Changes in local and national politics and administration can threaten the continuity of ALE programmes. Primary and secondary education benefit from the greater percentage of funds and higher education is able to command higher fees. ALE is still not a policy priority.

Thirdly, there are limitations regarding ALE policy. This a gap between what is formally written and what actually occurs, a lack of social consultation in determining policies and the fact that many policies are not really policies ’but rather lists of wishes and goals often not transferable into plans or programmes’ (Torres, 2009, p. 33)

Fourthly there is need to strengthen the equipping of teachers since any available specialist training in adult education is usually short and inadequate. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, teachers are normally trained to teach in primary or secondary schools. Teachers in colleges and universities normally supplement initial teacher education with undergraduate and graduate qualification in their discipline. Training in teaching adults is not widely available or accessed (Campo, 2005). The JACAE has been promoting a graduate degree in association with Mt St
Vincent University in Canada. This is only available to a small proportion of the population since applicants must have undergraduate degrees and must be able to afford a programme that requires them to travel to Canada to complete some of the modules. There is need for indigenous professional development provisions for adult educators and currently this does not get much attention. Torres indicates that this forms a vicious circle of low training, poor working conditions and low status for adult educators.

A fifth challenge is the weak dissemination of research and evaluation. Research and evaluation relevant to the sector are sparse and the little that is done is not widely available to practitioners and so not helpful to them. In addition, Torres notes that evaluations are usually done using quantitative indicators such as enrolment and retention numbers and class size. These quantitative measures give no indication of quality, effectiveness in the delivery of strategies or what challenges exist. For example, I have noted that national reports to UNESCO organizations are good examples of these kinds of quantitative reports that are strong on statistical data, but weak on programme information or information on the experiences of stakeholders. Numbers do seem to work better for policy makers than practitioners.

Finally, there are challenges with coordination at the national, regional and international levels. Nationally, the two umbrella organisations JFLL and JACAE that represent the sector do not have direct links to educational institutions that offer adult education. They are not able to establish and monitor standards in educational institutions and function only as an optional resource which is not accessed by many institutions. Further there are poor linkages between ALE and primary, secondary and higher education. Regionally, there is room for far more collaboration than merely
meeting at conferences and collaboration on completing regional reports. We can learn better from each other and share strategies that have worked and challenges for which we need support.

In the midst of these challenges however, in Jamaica, there has been some reflection on the changing nature of adult education and the national goals to which a strong adult education sector can contribute. In its national report to CONFINTÉA VI, Jamaica identified its vision for adult education post CONFINTÉA VI,

CONFINTÉA VI must result in: a redefined, realistic global policy framework for action in adult education and learning; clearly defined operational goals and strategic objectives proposed as ‘process markers’ and which will help achieve the goals; clearly articulated regional and national targets /outcomes to be achieved within specified timeframes; and commitment to assist with new initiatives at national level, being mindful of failures/ challenges, and drawing on successes, since CONFINTÉA V (Torres, 2009).

In the same vein, the Ministry of Education website identifies the vision of a modernised education programme ‘...for the creating of a world-class education system which will generate the human capital and produce the skills necessary for Jamaicans to compete in the global economy’ (Ministry of Education). As Jamaica tries to restructure its education landscape to find a system that meets the needs of all citizens as well as social and developmental goals, both opportunities and challenges co-exist.

**Relevance of Research Questions to Context History and Literature**

This overview of the historical development of adult education in Jamaica helped to inform the research questions for this study. The lack of empirical research from the perspective of stakeholders and the paucity of data from a qualitative perspective was identified. Research questions 2, 3 and 4 invite participants to express their view on how they experience adult education, quality teaching and good teachers:
RQ 2 What do adult learners and adult educators in IUC value in adult education?

RQ 3 How do adult learners and adult educators in IUC characterise quality teaching?

RQ 4 How do adult learners and adult educators in IUC characterise good teachers?

Research Questions 4, 5 and 6 put focus on the adult educator about whom very little has been written although the importance of their role is widely acknowledged (Campo, 2005; Torres, 2004, 2009; Miller, 2000). These questions ask students, administrators and teachers to comment on the characteristics of good teachers and adequacy of preparation. Finally, respondents were asked to give suggestions on how teaching quality could be enhanced through CPD.

RQ 4 How do adult learners and adult educators in IUC characterise good teachers?

RQ 5 Are part-time teachers of adults in the Jamaican context perceived to be adequately equipped to deliver quality teaching?

RQ 6 How do adult learners and teachers in IUC think quality teaching of adults should be promoted through Continuing Professional Development of part-time teaching staff?

These research questions also address two of the challenges raised in the summary above, the lack of social consultation in developing policies and the need to strengthen the equipping of teachers in adult education.
SUMMARY

The traditional system of education, developed as it was for a colonial economy and society was elitist, exclusionary and promoted a dichotomy between vocational education and academic education. It was a system that produced workers who could follow instructions but not take initiatives (Blank and McArdle, 2003). This system produced an uncompetitive workforce that has proven largely unfit for a global economy that requires literacy and numeracy as well as critical thinking, problem solving, the ability to take initiatives and work well in groups. In this environment of frequent and rapid change, learners must continually upgrade and take responsibility for their own learning (Blank and McArdle, 2003).

Although the early goals for adult education centred on basic literacy focused on filling the gaps left in childhood education, policy makers have been finding more innovative and flexible ways to meet this challenge. Eventually, new issues such as changes in the workplace, the emerging significance of Information Technology and changes in communication methods would challenge policy makers to widen the goals of adult education. The adult education focus now highlights education as it contributes to the needs of the individual as well as the society, ‘one clear purpose of adult education is to enable the individual to achieve their full competencies and status and some control over a complex world’ (Barrett, 2008).

There are strong challenges that face the adult education sector, among them the poor status of adult education, the vulnerability of the sector, the disconnect between policy and practice, the challenge of equipping teachers, the poor dissemination of research and evaluation and the need to foster cooperation on a national, regional and international level. These
challenges point to some clear action steps that need to be taken in order to move adult education in Jamaica forward. They all relate to improving the status of adult education from an inflexible, deficit model, to being valued on the education continuum with properly equipped facilitators.

This study will focus on one of the above recommendations, the challenge of supporting teacher development in adult education. In particular, part-time faculty who hold the majority of the teaching roles in adult education will be highlighted. In this chapter I have focused on adult education in Jamaica from a historical policy perspective. In the following chapters, I will highlight the perspectives of practitioners and students. I am concerned to find out stakeholders’ expectations of their roles in adult education and how they think those roles can be supported.
CHAPTER 3
LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In this chapter, I will look at some of the literature on adult education, adjunct faculty and professional development. In examining the definition of adult education and some examples of theoretical consideration in this area, I am particularly interested in adult teaching and how teachers may be equipped to effectively teach adults. The literature on adult education comes primarily from North America and Europe and presents an expression of adult learning and adult education from those contexts. In Jamaica, adult education has evolved to encompass a range of manifestations from basic literacy to lifelong learning and is generally viewed in a generic sense as any educational activity that involves adults. Nevertheless, this literature review will provide a foundation on which I will discuss opportunities for professional development for adjunct faculty in the Jamaican adult education system.

Adult Education Literature

The Adult Learner (Definitions and Characteristics)

Developmental theory that portrays human development as a linear process (Inhelder and Piaget, 1958, Kohlberg, 1969, Levinson et al., 1978, Erikson, 1993) may lead to the assumption that ability to learn would rise to a plateau then slowly decline. The related implication that education is the major occupation of those who are young, when minds are particularly fertile for learning, could assume that education is about exposing children to a predetermined body of knowledge that when fully grasped, will equip them to function in society for the rest of their lives. Adulthood then would be that phase during which this body of knowledge is utilised.
Adult learners who pursue formal education, may then be perceived as those who missed their chance as children, having either failed at education or having not had the opportunity for formal schooling. The focus on adult education as an option, a choice that is available for adults at various points along the life cycle, is a relatively new concern.

Recent developments in neuroscience have contributed to this shift in thinking away from formal education being considered as only appropriate for children. Once neuroscientists considered the way the brain works to be localised, that different parts of the brain related to functioning in specific areas of the body. It was believed that the brain’s ability to accommodate new information was at its optimal level in the formative years of life and that we learn best as children. Scientists now know that the adult brain is more flexible than formerly believed and that the brain does change in response to stimulation throughout the lifespan (Hill, 2001). Indeed, as Hill reminds us, the brain’s agility is retained by education, physical activity, adequate lung function and absence of chronic disease. So it is, that we have come to appreciate that new learning helps mental acuteness and our neural networks have the potential to become more sophisticated as we age (Fishback 1998/1999 cited in Hill 2001). Neuroplasticity (the brain’s ability to change with learning) does occur over the lifetime although different types of plasticity dominate during certain periods of one’s life and are less prevalent during other periods (Weiner, 2009).

Even as we have come to appreciate that adults have the ability to learn new things and access to information has been widened, the traditional view of education as the formal imparting of a pre-defined ‘package’ of knowledge has also been changing. New facts are uncovered every day; more efficient methods of communication make it possible to disseminate
information almost immediately so the learner does not have to rely on the teacher as the chief ‘imparter’ of knowledge. In the workplace, job functions are not static and employers have found that employees are required to have more flexible skills which allow them to adjust to the needs of a changing work environment. Consequently the idea of education as a fixed body of knowledge to be deposited in childhood has been debunked and the education system has been challenged to facilitate the learner throughout all the changes of the various stages of life.

Definitions
The view that education can be useful in meeting a wide range of needs allows for the concept of ‘adult education’ to include a range of needs and concerns. Included in this category then is education for those without basic literacy and numeracy skills as well as education for those who already have professional qualifications and desire education to advance these qualifications or those who seek education simply for personal enrichment. It allows for adults to start or continue the education journey at various times along the life span and requires the education system, structured as it has been to cater for children, to make adjustments to accommodate learners of all ages.

The discourse on adult education is quite dynamic and spans many issues and concerns for the researcher, a few of these are:

- The characteristics of the adult learner
- The nature of adult learning
- The aims and purposes of adult education
- The motives of adult learners
- The roles and functions of teachers of adult learners
For each of these issues there is again a wide range of ideas on what is worth studying. For instance, Tough (1979) acknowledges that the reasons adults undertake learning activity span a wide range and include, pleasure, esteem, desire to employ what is learned, curiosity, enjoyment gained from content, completing unfinished learning and social benefits. The interests in the field are as wide ranging as are the speculations on the motives behind adult learning. It may be argued that each of these issues are worthy of study and research.

The very concept of adult education is understood in various ways and may bear a variety of labels in different contexts. Some of the labels that are often used to describe education for adults include ‘post compulsory education’, ‘lifelong learning’, ‘continuing education’ as well as ‘adult education’ (Jarvis, 1995). Merriam and Caffarella (1999) include in their work a definition used by Johnstone and Rivera (1965, p. 26) in which activities that fall in the range of a workable definition of adult education are identified. Adult education encompasses activities that involved adults and ‘would have as its main purpose the desire to acquire some type of knowledge, information, or skill and ... would include some form of instruction (including self-instruction)’ (Merriam and Caffarella 1999, p. 47).

Although Johnstone and Rivera were published in 1965, I consider this definition to be general enough to be still relevant and could include full-time, part-time, formal, informal, traditional, non-traditional education as well as self-directed learning events. Noticeable about this definition is the starting point of the desire of the learner. Much of the literature on adult education begins with this assumption that adult learners exercise the
choice to participate in learning activities and that decision is driven by the desire to acquire new knowledge or skill (Knowles, 1970, 1980, Candy, 1991, Brookfield, 1993, Tough, 1967, 1979). The other crucial component of the definition is the provision of some type of instruction. British adult educator Alan Rogers (2002) notes that this may be formal or informal, which may not simply be synonymous with the concepts institutional or non-institutional, but more a distinction between ‘natural learning’ and ‘taught learning’ (Rogers 2002, p. 125).

Although adult education as a discipline seems to have widened its scope, adult education as basic literacy education is still significant. UNESCO launched an adult education programme in 1948 that identified adult education as a priority item on the world’s education agenda. The 1976 UNESCO General Conference in Kenya documented a full definition of adult education that is very suitable in that it covers all educational activities that adults participate in, is sensitive to cultural and social definitions of adulthood, appreciates the personal and collective benefits of adult education and locates adult education in the context of life-long education. This definition recognizes that adult education denotes the entire body of organized educational processes, whatever the content, level and method, whether formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace initial education in schools, colleges and universities as well as in apprenticeship, whereby persons regarded as adult by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve their technical or professional qualifications or turn them in a new direction and bring about changes in their attitudes or behaviour in the twofold perspective of full personal development and participation in balanced and independent social, economic and cultural development; adult education, however, must not be considered as an entity in itself, it is a subdivision, and an integral part of, a global scheme for life-long education and learning. (UNESCO, 1976).
More recently, in 1990 The World Conference on Education for All (WCEFA) in Jomtien, Thailand, UNESCO included adult literacy as one of its six major worldwide goals. UNESCO’s focus has been on ‘literacy’ and ‘adult education’. This has often been considered together to imply ‘second-chance basic education’ carried out among youth and adults. By ‘second chance’, UNESCO refers to educational activities that are meant for those individuals who never attended school (i.e. who missed schooling the ‘first time’ when they were younger), or who left school before completing the acquisition of skills such as literacy and numeracy (UNESCO, 2000). According to this interpretation, adult education focuses on basic skills and basic education in post compulsory schooling. The defining of adult education as synonymous with literacy education versus adult education to include lifelong learning may reflect a difference between adult education in developing and developed countries. UNESCO does categorically indicate that the focus on improving literacy is a focus on the ‘less-developed’ countries of the world. Although education for literacy and basic skills may be more of a concern in poorer countries, UNESCO reports that the level of basic skills is too low in virtually every country (UNESCO, 2000) although that level varies from country to country. Therefore even as we discuss adult education as an increasingly broadening field that includes various expressions of educational support beyond initial education, the need for basic literacy is still a worldwide problem.

This focus on adult education as a separate discipline in the education field has been subject to varying shades of definition and has also developed from several lines of inquiry. For example, Merriam and Caffarella (1999) suggest that theory development pertaining to adult learning stems from considerable research on why adults participate in learning, general knowledge about the adult learner, and self-direction in learning (Cross,
The body of research on adult characteristics, popular ideas pertaining to what Knowles (1980) calls ‘andragogy’, theories based on an adult’s life situation, and theories pertaining to changes in consciousness or perspective (Mezirow, 1991) combine to provide the field’s basis for designing instructional efforts.

Discussions on adult education often begin with an attempt to settle on a definition of the word ‘adult’. This is not a simple matter though. ‘Adult’ is a contextually and socially defined term, it may be defined in terms of chronological years or in terms of legal and social responsibilities and privileges. The term ‘adulthood’ exists only in the context of what each society constructs as ‘adulthood’. Indeed, it might be said that the meaning of the term adulthood has changed in various contexts over time. Today, in some societies the childhood phase of dependence on parents and limited responsibility for one’s own independence seems to have extended for some well into their mid twenties. When children remain in their parents’ emotional and financial care, they, in effect, delay adulthood. In some societies individuals may be able to make this choice until they are well into their twenties so one may question whether they are to be identified as adult. Is adulthood identified by the simple mark-off age of 18 or 21 years? Even in the same social grouping, individuals could be of the same age, but evidence very differently the characteristics that society expects of mature persons. Further, thinkers in education and psychology identify different phases in adulthood. For example, Illeris (2003) identifies two phases of adulthood, ‘early’ adulthood and ‘mature’ adulthood while Erikson (1993) uses the labels ‘young’ adulthood, ‘middle’ adulthood and ‘older’ adulthood.
In as much as the concept of adulthood is subject to contextual definition, one that may change over time as the social expectations change, ‘adult’ is a term that refers to a specific status in society rather than a chronological age. Merriam and Cafferella (1999) identify adults as ‘those who have assumed responsibility for managing their own lives’ (p. 393). Rogers (2002) identifies three dominant characteristics of the western concept of adulthood—maturity, perspective (a sound, balanced approach to life) and autonomy. Adulthood is also a term that labels a diverse group of people. Adulthood does not have a definition that is consistent across social groups, but the concept is one that is acknowledged in every social construct. The concept of adult though, does not suggest a totally homogenous group. All adults are not at the same life stage and do not share the same concerns or goals. Education for adults then is a dynamic encounter, which could take many different forms, that depends on the needs and goals of the particular adult population being served. Some theorists examine adult education from the perspective of identifying what is common to various expressions of adult education. In other words, they look at how adult education is characterised.

**Characteristics**

Stephen Brookfield (1986) identifies six characteristics that are common to all expressions of ‘adult education’ whether they are based in a formal setting or take place outside of a formal setting. These educational experiences have:

1. Adult participants. This refers to persons who have legally, chronologically and culturally reached the age of adulthood.
2. Learners who are engaged in a purposeful exploration of a field of knowledge or set of skills or in a collective reflection on common experiences.
3. These explorations of knowledge, skills and experiences take place in a group setting.

4. Participants bring to the encounter a collection of experiences, skills and knowledge that are going to influence how new ideas are received, new skills acquired and how the experiences of others are interpreted.

5. Prior learning and experience comprise valuable curricular resources. They have an effect on choice of themes explored and direction of discussion. Skills acquired will draw upon and be influenced by prior learning and experience.

6. The transactions in these groups will be characterised by a respect for individual members that will be manifest in the procedures used. (For example, discussion methods that will allow members contributions to be jointly interpreted and explored) (p. 2).

So then, as Brookfield states, adult learning can take place in any setting it can be formal or informal. What is significant is that there is a transaction between adults in which 'experiences are interpreted, skills and knowledge acquired and action taken' (p. 4).

This image of the adult learner as a mature self-directed individual who brings purpose and lifelong experience to the learning experience is very popular in adult education literature. However Illeris (2004b) has observed that one way in which the field has changed is that participants have changed. Instead of skilled adults who come to education to update or extend their skills or for personal development, Illeris' observation is that many adults who seek education today are unskilled or unemployed or challenged by new labour market situations. So, many return to education because they are forced to, and not because they have the luxury of
exercising their choice to self-develop. His concern is that these adults have to adjust their personal, professional and social identities when they choose to return to education. This is because, in requiring adults to return to education, he feels, society is demanding that adults acknowledge that they do not have enough qualification, or training or skill to deal with modern society. This leads to ambivalence in the adult learner who must cope with reconciling the responsibilities of adulthood with these feelings of being threatened with social or economic marginalization if they do not improve their educational status. Brookfield (1986) does not account for this emotional element or this vulnerability that can be part of the experience of learning for the adult. This is a consideration that is significant for the teacher of adults who must appreciate the complex nature of the adult learner and the learning environment.

Although adults, unlike children who simply learn what is available in the context, are capable of taking responsibility for their own learning and even directing that learning (Illeris, 2002), they sometimes do so in the context of strong social and emotional pressures. It is important I believe to examine adult education in context and not simply to assume that all adults behave in the same ways. Adults have different motivations to participate in education, as Burgess (Pratt and Burgess, 1974) identifies, among these are the desire to know, to reach a personal, social or religious goal, to take part in a social activity, to escape or to comply with formal requirements (Cited in Jarvis, 1995). These drives are further filtered through social and cultural lenses that reflect whether or not formal education of a particular type is valued enough to merit the sacrifice that adults must make to participate.

Eighteen years after the Brookfield quote above, Illeris (2004a) sums up the characteristics of adult learning as:
- Adults learn what is meaningful to them.
- Adults draw on the resources they already have in learning.
- Adults take as much responsibility for their learning as they want to take or are allowed to take.
- Adults are not inclined to learn something they are not interested in. If they are forced to, they will give partial, disinterested attention (Illeris 2004a, p. 219).

Brookfield’s characterization is more focused on the structure of the process (group setting, discussion method) while Illeris focuses more on motivations and relationships. This may be simply indicative of a preference of the writer or, more likely, indicative of a change in conceptions about adult education being more about how things are done than about what is done. Alan Rogers (1992, 2009) who is discussed below reflects this change in his writing.

This study is based in the Caribbean nation of Jamaica. Here a contention is also evident. Adult education was practised in the Caribbean at least since the nineteenth century, but was not identified at such. It was only after 1977 that there began an intensive effort to coordinate adult education activities in the region (Ellis et al, 2000). For many years adult education took the form of basic adult literacy and was focused on filling the education gap left by an education system that arose in the remnant of a slave society, that favoured only a small percentage of the population (as highlighted in the previous chapter). From this start, the focus grew to include workplace learning, skills development and now adult education bears the wider embracing label of ‘lifelong learning’ (JFLL, 2008). The meaning of the concept ‘Adult Education’ then has undergone change and development. Yet, as a ‘developing country’, in Jamaica the concern of UNESCO for basic adult literacy training is still very much a part of the
adult education landscape. The phenomenon identified by Illeris (2003) of the changing nature of the adult student is also evident. Adult learners view adult education more and more as an opportunity for the economic improvement that will come from acquiring new or improved skills. Many return to education not out of choice but as a result of subtle or direct pressure from the workplace. The remit of adult education then, must embrace these two poles often depending on the facilitation of staff that have not been specifically prepared for this wide ranging task.

In this study, I have chosen to focus on an institution in which the way adult education is defined is consistent with the more general definitions used by Brookfield (1986), Illeris (2003), Jarvis, (1995) and Merriam and Caffarella (1999). This is adult education, not as basic literacy education, but as lifelong learning. The literature I cite in this chapter takes a broader scope because I want to acknowledge that this manifestation of adult education exists as part of a bigger family. A lot of work has been done on documenting a case for adult education. In recent years, more attention on the education of adults as lifelong learning has taken on increasing economic and political significance. The focus has moved from an emphasis on adult education as basic or supplementary education in literacy and numeracy to the provision of education to the group with the most economic and political power in the society and who also have their own opinions on the way their education should be conducted. Therefore, there is significant interest in understanding how adults learn and how to improve access for adults.

Notwithstanding the fact that much has been written about adult education in the past 30 years, Brookfield (1995) insists that theoretical development is weak. Thus, even as theorists develop a body of work in this area, many
practitioners, particularly those schooled in traditional teacher education, would have been exposed to the fundamental theories of learning and it is very likely that these theories would inform their practice. These theories are built on psychological theories about how humans learn and are taught as part of most initial teacher education programmes, I think it is very likely that these older theories have more impact on teaching practice than many of the newer discussions about teaching and learning. Before discussing examples of adult education theory, it is helpful to acknowledge some foundation learning theories.

Foundations of Adult Education Theory (Four Learning Theories)
Adult education theories find their origins in some basic categorisations used in the discipline of psychology to understand how humans learn. Although most contemporary theories may show evidence of influence from several orientations, the four basic views of the learning process: Behaviourism, Humanism, Cognitive Psychology and Social Learning have provided important foundations. These orientations view human beings and the learning process in very particular ways, thus informing both practice and process in education.

Learning could be thought of as 'a process by which behaviour changes as a result of experience' (Maples and Webster 1980 quoted in Merriam and Caffarella 1999, p. 250). The field of adult education is full of many learning theories, with some dating back over 60 years. Most of these theories have been influenced by the psychological orientations on learning mentioned above. As mentioned before, much of the research on adult teaching and learning adopts the perspective that the adult learner is a definitively focused, self-determined, internally motivated, enthusiastic learner. In other words, these theories start from a particular set of
assumptions about the adult learner as an individual and adult learning as a process; some of these assumptions have been tested and challenged and gradually replaced by new assumptions.

Adult education practitioners bring to the adult learning environment their own philosophical stance on the nature of human beings and the way we learn. Teachers are only able to exercise limited autonomy regarding how they present content in their own classrooms. As the formal education becomes more structured, teachers must answer to demands from powerful outside forces that influence the syllabus. Policymakers, administrators, external examination boards all influence what is taught in the classroom, when, and how. Nevertheless most educators teach in ways that are similar to how they were taught and in ways in which they are most comfortable learning (Amstutz, 1999); they revert to some of the theoretical perspectives that formed the basis of their training as teachers. These fundamental theoretical perspectives are likely to impact some of the various underlined assumptions teachers may hold and how these assumptions may impact the way they communicate with their adult students, the classroom environment that is established and maintained, and the way academic work is presented, and assessed.

Merriam and Caffarella’s 1999 publication provides a summary of the basic tenets of these four orientations (Table 3.1). It is helpful to recall these learning theories and consider their implications for the adult learner.
### 3-1 Table

**Four orientations to learning**

(Adapted from Merriam and Caffarella 1999, p. 264)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Orientation</th>
<th>Behaviourist</th>
<th>Cognitivist</th>
<th>Humanist</th>
<th>Social Learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Learning theorists</strong></td>
<td>Thorndike, Pavlov, Watson, Guthrie, Hull, Tolman, Skinner</td>
<td>Koffka, Kohler, Lewin, Piaget, Ausubel, Bruner, Gagne</td>
<td>Maslow, Rogers</td>
<td>Bandura, Rotter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>View of the learning process</strong></td>
<td>Change in behaviour</td>
<td>Internal mental process (including insight, information processing, memory, perception).</td>
<td>A personal act to fulfil potential.</td>
<td>Interaction /observation in social contexts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Locus of learning</strong></td>
<td>Stimuli in external environment</td>
<td>Internal cognitive structuring</td>
<td>Affective and cognitive needs</td>
<td>Learning is in relationship between people and environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Purpose in education</strong></td>
<td>Produce behavioural change in desired direction</td>
<td>Develop capacity and skills to learn better</td>
<td>Become self-actualized, autonomous</td>
<td>Model new roles and behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Educator’s role</strong></td>
<td>Arranges environment to elicit desired response</td>
<td>Structures content of learning activity</td>
<td>Facilitates development of the whole person</td>
<td>Models and guides new roles and behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Behavioural objectives</td>
<td>Cognitive development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Competency -based education</td>
<td>Intelligence, learning and memory as function of age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Manifestations in adult learning</strong></td>
<td>Skill development and training</td>
<td>Learning how to learn</td>
<td>Andragogy</td>
<td>Socialization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Self-directed learning</td>
<td>Social roles</td>
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<td>Mentoring</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Locus of control</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As mentioned before, although most adult education theories may not fit completely in only one category, these psychological perspectives have been influential in framing the more contemporary perspectives.

**Behaviourism**

The behavioural orientation is based on the premise that all behaviour is learned. Early models were based particularly on the works of Watson (1913) and Skinner (1938, 1953, 1974) and stressed the modification of behaviour in response to external stimuli. According to this model, learning occurs when there is change in overt and observable behaviour.
Behaviourism can effectively explain how we condition learners to do things in certain ways; it is the basis for instruction in competency-based programmes (Amstutz, 1999). This theoretical perspective is often used in job and skills training. It is the teacher who considers the desired outcome for which the student will strive, the teacher must then break down the learning process into tasks, assess the students progress and reinforce desired behaviour. Reinforcements gradually become more intermittent as the learning becomes integrated in the learner’s own behaviour and skills.

The attraction of the behaviourist model lies in its simplicity: there are practical, positive outcomes, achievements are easily identifiable and measurable, and everyone involved understands the goals and expectations implicit in the model (Davis and Florian, 2004). The approach has been criticised because of its mechanistic emphasis on externally observable or measurable achievements (Sebba et al., 1995). As Davis and Florian (2004) assert, there is abundant evidence that what an individual knows and understands may not necessarily be measurable in the form that is required. Since the intent of most behavioural programmes is to have learners conform to a dominant standard, Amstutz asks

What gives adult educators the right to determine what kinds of competencies people need in order to function in their own communities—communities that often lay outside educators’ own experiences in terms of culture, economics, ethnicity, gender and social roles? (Amstutz 1999, p. 22).

Behaviourism is considered a significant psychological theory of learning (Tusting and Barton, 2003), however it does not help us to conceptualise how learners develop their understandings or autonomy.
Cognitivism

Cognitivism arose as an attempt to address this weakness in learning theories. The cognitive perspective is that learning is an internal mental process and the purpose of education is so that the learner can develop the capacity and skills to improve their ability to learn. Learners are regarded as active participants in the construction of their own knowledge. Cognitive models, many derived from Piaget’s (1966) work, provide insight into the mental processes involved in information processing. This theory also proves useful in teaching problem-solving tactics where defined facts and rules apply to unfamiliar situations. This group of theories include some theories labelled ‘developmental’ and suggest that humans develop through stages and that each stage is associated with different cognitive structuring (Tusting and Barton, 2003). Most importantly, for adult education, cognitive models now embrace the concept of intellectual development continuing throughout all the life stages. The learner’s goal is to acquire, retain and retrieve information for future use. Pure cognitive theorists such as Gagne (1985) developed their theories on a model in which learning is primarily about information processing. Some theorists began to focus not simply on learning as assimilating objective knowledge but on learners themselves playing an active role in constructing what was being learnt. ‘Cognitive constructivism’ holds that the role of the educator is to present new material but the learners themselves must construct their own learning (Tusting and Barton, 2003). In adult education, Freire’s critical pedagogy (Freire, 1970) and Mezirow’s theory of transformational learning (Mezirow, 1991) were influenced by this perspective. However many of these theories of development and cognition are socially and culturally influenced and have been criticised for oversimplifying a process that can not be confirmed by observation.
**Humanism**

Humanistic theories such as those of the American psychologist Carl Rogers (Rogers, 1956) and Maslow (1970) are often considered theories of individual growth and development. It is the predominant paradigm of practice within the literature of adult and continuing education. Humanism holds that learning occurs primarily by reflecting on personal experience. The role of instruction is not to put anything in the mind or repertoire of the learner, but to extract lessons from the learner's insights and experience. Knowles’ theory of Andragogy (Knowles, 1973), and the focus of Tough (1989) and Houle (1961) on Self-Directed Learning both reflect this perspective. K P Cross (1981) asserts that the environment of adult education is more accepting and less authoritarian than conventional education. Traditionally adult education was a voluntary pursuit and even today, to a large extent, the onus is on adult learners to decide whether they choose to enter education. This is true, although in some societies it may be said pressure is brought to bear on the adult learner to ‘encourage’ him or her to access further education. What adults choose to pursue and whether they choose to stay to complete a course or programme is the adult’s decision. This seems to reflect the humanist perspective. Nevertheless, humanism can be criticised for being so individualistic it excludes context and the social mechanisms of constructing meaning (Amstutz, 1999).

**Social Learning**

Social Learning theories emphasise the social dimension of learning. They contain elements from both behaviourism and cognitive theory. Learning is understood as a process that is constructed as a result of interactions between people in a social context. Participation in different communities
influences how we see ourselves and how others see us. Bandura’s social learning model (Bandura and Walters, 1963) is perhaps the most well known example of a theory in this category. Bandura claimed that it is possible to learn from observing what someone else does, by giving attention to the model, retaining key information, rehearsing the behaviour and storing the behaviour until the learner is motivated to act upon it. Behaviour is a function of the interaction of the individual with the environment and is a reciprocal relationship in which learners influence the environment and the environment influences how learners behave (Merriam and Caffarella.R., 1999) Social Learning theories suggest that learning focuses not only on its overt behaviour or mental process or personality but on the interaction of all three with the environment.

Cross points out that many learning theories are more easily related to what is learned rather than who does the learning (Cross 1981, p. 233). Her argument is that, humanistic theory seems more relevant to self understanding, behaviourism seems useful in teaching practical skills and developmental (cognitive) theory offers much to the teaching of intellectual and moral development. Therefore, teachers of adults should be encouraged to reflect on the special characteristics and needs of their adult learners as well as the context in which learning takes place and make use of the various streams of research and theory.

I include here the critique by Amstutz (1999) who comments on the historical and contextual inappropriateness of these theories. This critique is particularly relevant in a country like Jamaica which has a history of social, cultural and economic dominance by external imperial forces. Our teachers are taught these learning theories in college and they form the
basis of their theoretical belief system. Some teachers, through experience and their own reading and reflection allow their own theoretical perspectives to challenge some of these constructs. This is similar to the approach taken by Amstutz. She criticises these theories for being a-historical and a-contextual. Amstutz (1999) claims they explain ways of knowing and defining knowledge from the perspective of one culture (white, male, Western-European) and she cites Welton (1995) who labels these types of theories as meeting the needs of mainstream economic, academic and social goals (Amstutz 1999, p. 19). The tendency for these theories to generalize and make assumptions based on this dominant perspective is in effect a tendency to impose a hegemonic filter.

Amstutz identifies three major concerns with these theories which she calls ‘instrumental learning theories’ (Amstutz 1999, p. 23). First they are focused on the individual rather than the group. Second, they may be wrongly assumed to comprise all of adult learning. Third they are ethnocentric-framed from a single dominant cultural view. Amstutz includes in her discourse therefore another category of theories-liberatory learning theories. These take into account context and history of adult learners and encourage them to critically examine assumptions and generalisations. These theories of adult learning (such as Illich, 1971, Freire, 1970, Hill, 2001, Hart, 1992) are sensitive to such realities as gender, race and class and intentionally seek to include the types of knowledge that validate persons who have little social power. Although assumptions of theories are being tested, critiqued and replaced by new understanding, Amstutz asserts that even as new theories emerge practitioners often use strategies from the older theories and these strongly influence their beliefs about teaching. Adult educators will employ the kind of theoretical perspective that supports their own belief of what is
worthwhile and by so doing will help perpetuate that particular point of view.

**Popular Theoretical Schools of Adult Learning (Four Theoretical Schools)**

In terms of adult education, much consideration has been given to theoretical frameworks that capture the concerns of the sector. A number of theories have been focused on how adults learn. I will briefly mention four of these so we can appreciate how thinking in this area has been developing. The discussion below will include theories of Andragogy (Malcolm Knowles), Self-Directed Learning (Alan Tough), Experiential Learning (David Kolb) and Critical Reflection (Stephen Brookfield).

**Andragogy**

American educator, Malcolm Knowles’ (1973, 1980) work on the concept of andragogy is widely appreciated for the way in which it helped put the spotlight on adult education as a distinctive field. Although the term did not originate with Knowles, Knowles is acknowledged for its resurface in education discourse. Andragogy has German origins; Alexander Kapp in 1833 first used the word and made a distinction between education for children (pedagogy, from the Greek- *paid* meaning child) and education for adults (*anere* meaning man). The word, andragogy, was not widely adopted but reappeared in the early twentieth century used by other European writers such as Rosenstock and Linderman (Smith, 1999, 2002) Knowles defines Andragogy as ‘the art and science of helping adults learn’ (Knowles 1980, p. 43). There is still dispute on whether andragogy is indeed a theory or simply a set of assumptions. At the very least, Knowles
opened the door to discuss issues on what might be distinctive about adult learning. His work is built on the premise that adult learning is indeed fundamentally different from the learning of younger people and so adults should be taught in different ways. Knowles’ assumptions on the characteristics of adult learners have formed the basis for other theoretical discussions on adult learning. The characteristics of adult learners which he highlights are: mature self concept, a reservoir of experience, readiness to learn that is focused on tasks related to social roles, orientation to learning that is more focused on problem centeredness and internal motivation to learn. He links the pedagogical model (teaching children) with teacher-directed education and andragogy with teaching adults who know why they need to learn something and are driven by internal as well as external motivation (Tusting and Barton, 2003).

However, Knowles later developed his ideas to come to the position that andragogy was based on a different set of assumptions from pedagogy but that did not necessarily mean it was either superior or unique to adult learners (Cross, 1981). In fact, he posited that the appropriateness of different models of teaching and learning depends on the situation of the learner, the task and the learning environment. Cross notes that there are questions as to whether this is a learning theory, a philosophical position, political reality or a set of hypotheses. Knowles himself identified andragogy as a ‘system of alternative sets of assumptions’ (Knowles, 1984) about adult learning based on research and experience. Nevertheless, although the assumptions of andragogy are yet to be all tested Cross credits it for being successful in gaining the attention of practitioners and sparking debate (Cross 1981, p. 228). In particular, a major contribution of Knowles was the development of the seven elements in the andragogical process:
• Establishment of a climate conducive to adult learning.
• Creation of an organizational structure for participative learning.
• Diagnosis of needs for learning.
• Formulation of directions of learning (objectives).
• Development of a design of activities.
• Operation of the activities.

**Self-directed Learning**

Several theorists focus on self-directed learning. Indeed most literature on adult education assumes this to be an expected characteristic of the adult learner. According to this perspective, pioneered by Alan Tough (1979, 1989), adults are able to take control of their own learning, set their own learning goals, find resources, choose learning materials and evaluate their own progress. A clear connection with Knowles’ assumption that adult learners have strong internal motivation to learn is evident here. Brookfield (1995), notes that the perspective has been criticised for being too representative of middle class subjects, disconnected from wider social and political forces and too limited. In addition, he argues, there is need for more research to examine the cross-cultural dimension of the concept and how self-directedness relates to more traditional forms of educational participation, as well as the significance of variables such as previous experience, nature of the learning task and time. Amstutz (1999) remarks on its disproportionate focus on the individual learner and its failure to consider the social context in which learning takes place. Nevertheless, this
perspective is still widely held in the literature. This perspective implies that educators should take account of the motivations of adult learners for engaging in education and that adults are capable of self-directed autonomous learning. This is a resource that should be drawn on in the classroom.

**Experiential Learning**

Regardless of ideology, most adult educators believe that adult teaching should be grounded in experience and that the experiences of adult learners represent an important resource for learning. Knowles argues in favour of the significance of adult experience in his andragogical assumptions regarding adult characteristics. Kolb’s (1984) model of experiential learning conceptualises learning as a continual process of experience and adaptation to the world. These theories advocate the use of teaching methods and assessment measures that build on learners’ experience. Critics have argued that these theories are narrow, oversimplified, and under-developed and disregard social power relationships that are important to the construction of experience (Hart, 1992; Amstuz, 1999). Brookfield (1995) points to the fact that experience is culturally shaped, not fixed and filtered through unconscious social, historical and cultural filters. There is a danger then, in uncritically affirming people’s experiences as they are neither neutral nor innocent.

These attempts at arriving at a definitive theory of adult learning have yet to meet with widespread approval. Undoubtedly these and other theories make some contributions to providing a theoretical framework within which we can understand what is distinctive about adult education. Yet, some writers, like Brookfied (1995) feel it is an error to try to construct an
exclusive theory of adult learning since variables such as culture, socio-
political constructs and even personality are more significant to learning
than chronological age.

**Critical Reflection**

Brookfield (1995) labels critical reflection ‘the idea of the decade for many
adult educators’ for, he claims, it is distinctively adult in that adults are
able to bring their experiences and worldview to bear on their education in
ways that children can not. Critical reflection focuses on three processes
that are interrelated:

- Adults question a widely held assumption, then reframe it.
- Adults take an alternative perspective on ideas that have been
  previously taken for granted.
- Adults realise that dominant cultural values that are held to be part
  of the ‘natural’ state of the world have hegemonic characteristics.

Cranton (1996) characterizes critical reflection as problem solving, an
intuitive process, interaction, and a developmental process.

Paolo Freire(1970) a Brazilian educator, is probably one of the earliest
theorists in this tradition. Writing forty years ago, his theory was set within
the framework of radical social change (Merriam and Caffarella.R., 1999).
Freire’s theory was of education for social change, in which learners would
be empowered and would have raised consciousness so that they are able
to distinguish between ‘banking’ education (deposits of knowledge which
the student does not control or question) and ‘problem solving ’ education
(teachers and students cooperating in a liberating dialogue). This theory
arose out of a social context of poverty, oppression and illiteracy in Brazil
and was concerned that educated adults should have the tools to challenge
oppressive systems. In Freire’s view, education was not neutral: it either domesticates or liberates (Merriam and Caffarella, 1999).

Transformational learning is another theory in this category. First articulated by Mezirow (1991) transformational learning theory is about change in the way learners see themselves and their world. This is learning that goes beyond simply adding to what is known. This is learning that creates change in people. This theory focuses on the cognitive process of learning and how learners construct their experiences and reflect on the meanings of their experiences. Mezirow calls this ‘emancipatory knowledge’ which is knowledge gained not from a technical interest in an object but gained through critical reflection (Mezirow 1991, p. 87). This critical reflection could be reflection on content (description of the problem), process (strategies used to solve the problem) or premise (underlying assumptions and beliefs). For the adult educator, this theory points beyond the desire to improve technique to a process of understanding anew why we do what we do and being willing to change practice that has been based on habits that are no longer valid or purposeful (Cranton, 1994).

Despite its appeal, critics point to the fact that in these theories issues of context and social change need more examination and that educators are often not adequately prepared for their role in a process of critical reflection. Further, there is dispute regarding whether critical reflection is always necessary for change to take place. There are studies that give evidence that change sometimes takes place through assimilation for example, a change in a situation prompting a change in thought or behaviour without conscious critical reflection (Merriam and Caffarella 1999, p. 330).
Implications for Teaching Adults (Three Perspectives)

Given the problems of arriving at a definitive theory, what should adult educators do? In this section I will look at what some theorists suggest should inform how adult educators function. Since my particular interest is in this connection between adult learning and teaching adults, I will examine what three theorists, Malcolm Knowles (USA), Alan Rogers (UK) and Knud Illeris (Denmark) posit in relation to how what we understand about adult learning impacts on how we teach adults.

Malcolm Knowles

Knowles’ model of andragogy (1970, 1980, and 1984) is built on four basic assumptions that highlight the difference between this model (andragogy) and the pedagogical model that is the traditional model of teaching children. Knowles identifies four characteristics of adult learning: changes in self-concept, the role of experience, readiness to learn and orientation to learning (Knowles, 1973).

First, Knowles claims that the adult self-concept desires self-directedness. Pedagogy views the learner as dependent. The teacher is expected to be the one who determines what is to be learned. Andragogy views the adult learner as one who has matured, is increasingly less dependent and more self-directed. Secondly, adults value experiential learning. Pedagogy sees little validity in the learner’s previous experience. The experience of the teacher, textbook, or other instructional aids is what is valued. Andragogy, on the other hand, views the experience of the learner as a resource for learning. Knowles felt that accepting this assumption that the experience that adults bring to learning is important will lead to the use of participatory and experiential techniques, such as laboratory experiments, discussion, problem-solving cases, simulation games and field experience.
These will be preferred to more transmittal and didactic methods such as lectures. The third assumption is that, adults will learn when they are ready, they are aware of their own learning needs and those needs relate to their life tasks or problems. Pedagogy assumes that learners will be willing to learn what society says that they ought to learn. Further, because most people are ready to learn the same things at the same time a fairly standard curriculum is utilized. Andragogy differs in that it asserts that learners are ready to learn when they experience a need to learn, in order to cope with some real-life task or problem. Fourthly, Knowles identifies adults as competency-based learners who wish to apply newly acquired skills or knowledge to the immediate circumstances. With pedagogy, it is assumed that most learning will be useful in the future, so what is being learned today will be applied at some indefinite date in the future. And so, learning in pedagogy is subject-centred and it moves from mastery of the simple to the more complex. With andragogy, the goal is to learn something that can be applied to make living tomorrow more rewarding; the structure of learning is therefore performance-centred rather than subject-centred (Knowles 1980, p.43-44).

The andragogical model has taken on a broader meaning in addition to suggesting an alternative to pedagogy. The term now is used to refer to learner-focused education for people of all ages. The model asserts then that for the teacher of adults, five issues are worth considering. They include (1) letting learners know why something is important to learn, (2) showing learners how to direct themselves through information, and (3) relating the topic to the learners' experiences. In addition, (4) people will not learn until they are ready and motivated to learn. Often this (5) requires helping them overcome inhibitions, behaviours, and beliefs about learning. The educator who operates in this model would need to
appreciate the distinctiveness of the adult learner and adjust style and method of teaching to respect that distinctiveness. Educators need to know why people are engaged in learning and should support the development of self-direction in learners. Wherever possible, the experiences of learners should be validated and learning should be related to genuine issues in peoples’ lives.

**Alan Rogers**

Rogers made a transition in his own discourse on adult education from the assumption that adult learning is intrinsically distinctive from the learning of young people to a position that there is no real difference between adult learners and younger learners. Rogers argues instead that there are two contrasting approaches to learning: task-conscious or acquisition learning and learning-conscious or formalized learning. He argues that both adults and children may learn in one of these ways or in a hybrid approach (a mix of formal learning and informal learning) depending on the content being learned, the previous experiences of the learners and the goal or outcome desired.

**Figure 3-1**

*Learning Continuum- adapted from Rogers (2002, p. 91)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unintentional</th>
<th>Incidental</th>
<th>Experiential</th>
<th>Purposeful</th>
<th>Self-directed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task-Conscious Learning</strong></td>
<td><strong>Learning-Conscious Learning</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rogers does not believe that any one group (adult or child) learns exclusively in a particular manner. Instead, he sees these types of learning
as being positioned along a type of continuum (Figure 3.1). At one extreme lie those *unintentional* and usually accidental learning events which occur continuously as we walk through life. Next comes *incidental* learning - unconscious learning through acquisition methods which occurs in the course of some other activity. Then there are various activities in which we are somewhat more conscious of learning, *experiential* activities arising from immediate life-related concerns, though even here the focus is still on the task. Then there are more *purposeful* activities - occasions where we set out to learn something in a more systematic way, using whatever comes to hand for that purpose, but often deliberately disregarding engagement with teachers and formal institutions of learning. Further along the continuum lie the *self-directed* learning projects on which there is so much literature. More formalized and generalized (and consequently less contextualized) forms of learning are the distance and open education programmes, where some elements of acquisition learning are often built into the designed learning programme. These relate as on a continuum with no clear boundaries between categories (Rogers 2003, p. 41-2).

Since people (both adults and children) may use different types of learning depending on the situation, the difference between education for adults and education for children then, according to Rogers is not the nature of the learner. Rogers claims that this ability to choose learning type is present in adults and in children. The difference then is in the practice of teaching adults. It is the nature of the relationship between teacher and adult student and the possible tensions between the roles of teacher and student that is distinctive. Rogers explains that for the child, the identity of child and the identity of learner are congruous. Both are under authority, dependent and in a guided relationship. It is a fairly simple matter then for
the child to function in the role of student. The way the adult learner constructs him or herself as adult is very different from their construction as student. These contradictions of being an adult and being a student can create some tension. The teacher in this relationship is therefore challenged to deal with a group of adults with mixed identity who experience the student role in very different ways. This is a very different perspective from those perspectives that hold that there is something inherent to the adult learner that makes adult learning different from how children learn.

The characteristics that are common to all forms of the teaching of adults says Rogers are that adult participants come by choice and they come with an agenda which could be social (for example, meet new people), economic (for example, improve employability) or psychological (for self development). The challenge for adult educators is to be sensitive to the motives and drives of adults as well as their needs and vulnerabilities.

In terms of the profession of teaching, Rogers’ perspective implies that

- There is need to use a wide range of teaching-learning methods mixing informal and formal learning methods (to meet the need for both kinds of learning experiences).
- Teachers should build on adults’ natural learning processes that they have built up over the years
- Teachers should explore the social and cultural dimensions of the tensions between being an adult and a learner.

Although I find the perspective of Rogers to have more relevance to the Caribbean context than an uncritical assumption that all adult learners are different from younger learners, I think that it may be also uncritical to claim that adult learners are just the same as children. If that were so
there would be no need for discussions on how to teach adults. If, as Rogers claims, adult learners as well as younger learners acquire knowledge in different ways depending on context and the content of new information, it must still be acknowledged that the life experiences of adults add an additional dimension to their learning experiences. So adults bring their prior knowledge to the classroom as well as the ambivalence they may experience as they try to manage their normal active role with the passive role of students. Since teachers have more power in the student/teacher relationships they may be in a better position to find a workable balance that allows the adult learner to optimise the experience. How teachers will find this balance depends at least on the group, the context and the content that is being taught. Yet there is more. Rogers acknowledges that the objectives of teachers regarding the learning programme may be different from the objectives of providers. Providers may be concerned with retention numbers and pass rates to secure funding. Teachers may be worried about optimal class size and time to complete the syllabus. There is need for negotiation between teacher, student participant and provider.

Illeris (2004a) discusses some of this ambivalence in his work on adult learning.

**Knud Illeris**

Knud Illeris pushes the discussion to consider multiple dimensions. He assumes that all learning is comprised of two processes, first an external interaction process between the learner and material in the social world and second, there is an internal process of acquisition and elaboration. In
addition, he theorizes that all learning comprises interplay between three dimensions: cognitive, emotional and social (Illeris, 2004a). In this model or framework, the cognitive dimension refers to the learning content (knowledge and skills). The affective, emotional or psychodynamic dimension encompasses mental energy, feelings and motivations. The social dimension is the dimension of external interaction, e.g. participation, communication and co-operation. All three dimensions must be considered when understanding how learning takes place.

From the perspective of Illeris (2004a), the challenge for the educator is to appreciate the social and psychological conflict that adults experience. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, Illeris draws attention to the social pressures that push adults to return to education. These pressures lead to feelings of facing the threat of marginalization if they do not improve their educational status and feelings of ambivalence on the part of the adult learner who must adjust their sense of self in line with the submissive role of student.

With an understanding that effective learning must take into account all the dimensions (internal, external, social, cognitive and emotional); educators can help adult learners through their difficult process of change by combining competent teaching with encouragement toward self-direction. Teachers must recognize and take seriously the problematic situations that adults face, they must understand the ambivalence, that although adults are fundamentally skeptical about the educational process, they are also hopeful that the learning experience will be a positive one.

In this view, motivation to learn is an important connection to a sense of self and adults need to be internally motivated. Teachers should not focus
then on ‘how to motivate adult learners’ rather, they should think of motivation in terms of understanding learners as persons.

This could be done with adult learners by

- helping them connect the text they are attempting to learn in meaningful ways with who they are as a person,
- asking them to take increasing responsibility for their learning,
- helping them to assume authority and control for what and how they learn,
- Helping them see their learning through their location in the lifespan and in the context of their experiences.

**Lessons for Adult Educators**

Although Illeris claims to take a cognitive, psychodynamic and societal view, he focuses very strongly, as do Knowles and Rogers, on a very humanistic perspective of the adult learner as one who desires personal growth and who has the ability to improve their lot. These recommendations to teachers in the context of the humanist orientation seem straightforward enough. Common among them are the concepts that adults want to drive their own learning and want to connect their new learning with their experiences. Nevertheless, as noted above, the teacher’s role is not a simple one. The teacher must negotiate pedagogical choices in the context of adult needs and concerns as acknowledged by all three theorists, but must also respond within organizational and administrative boundaries, meet expectations that relate to recruitment and retention rates, syllabus completion and examination passes. All of this
is further impacted by pressure from policy directives, administrative choices on what courses may be offered and which ones will be discontinued. And, all the while, the adult educator must give emotional support to vulnerable learners. In short the teacher/student relationship is not purely an interaction between two roles in the classroom. It is impacted by socio-political and economic factors as well. Illeris (2002) points out that although lifelong learning has a social argument and an individual argument as well as an economic argument, it is the economic argument that predominates when these arguments are translated into practical policies. This economic argument might impact on the courses that are made available, the numbers that are recruited (not withstanding optimal class size), or the pressure put on the unemployed to return to school. These economic arguments may seem more compelling than the social, psychological and pedagogical arguments and may be the one that adult educators are impacted by the most and over which they have the least control.

Whether discussions arise from the perspective of the desired outcomes of adult education, why adults return to education, how adults learn or how adults should be taught, the question of what is distinctive about adult education continues to be an important debate. Some theorists like Brookfield (2009, 1995) and Rogers (2003) suggest that these special distinctions are more imagined than actual and that the adult learners have as many diverse characteristics and motives as do younger learners and that it is a mistake to assume that general assumptions can be made about them. Indeed, Brookfield (1995) contests that it is an error to attempt to construct an exclusive adult education theory that is made distinctive by the characteristics of adulthood, he feels that issues of culture, ethnicity,
personality, and socio-political ethos are more significant factors in understanding how learning occurs than chronological age.

Even as theorists and practitioners supply us with many ideas to consider regarding adult education the critical question then is not, ‘Which is the best theory?’ but rather, ‘Which theory is most relevant. Which is most effective in describing what takes place in adult education?’ Adulthood as a construct may not in itself define the learner and may not therefore allow us to neatly identify what works for all adult learners. As Rogers points out, what may be effective in one context, with learners who are new to the information they are encountering may not be effective or stimulating for learners who are more familiar with the content and more confident of the skills they already bring to the learning experience.

Amstutz (1999) offers some specific suggestions on how adult educators may adjust instruction to provide learning experiences that have meaning for adult learners. She suggests seven strategies. The first three all relate to validating the experiences and perspective of the learner and encouraging the learner to use their own perspective to engage critically with the dominant education culture.

Amstutz suggests that adult educators.

- Help learners to question and challenge theory from the perspective of their own experience.

  This is also a way to acknowledge the diverse experiences and cultures that may have been brought by learners to the classroom.

- Teach ‘non-dichotomous ways of knowing’ (p. 26).
This includes not presenting the education process as requiring the learner to share the educator’s world view or convictions.

- Seek, acknowledge and foster alternate forms of knowledge.

This requires the openness of educators to hear and learn from different types of knowledge.

Then she highlights the importance of flexibility in pedagogy. Adult educators should;

- Have the courage to teach.

Here educators are encouraged to challenge social injustices that exist in institutions and communities and intentionally teach from that broader agenda.

- Use a variety of instructional strategies.

Amstuz remarks that ‘most educators teach the way they were taught and were most comfortable learning’ (p. 27). She challenges educators to be culturally relevant and open to changing instructional strategies so they can be more inclusive.

- Construct and maintain supportive environments.

Supportive learning environments includes the physical learning space, teaching and learning resources, tools for learners of varying intelligences (Gardner, 1983) as well as psychologically safe environments where community knowledge is welcomed.

- Continually renew educational goals.
The objectives of instruction should include for example, raising consciousness regarding social inequalities, promoting participatory pedagogy and educating learners to recognise the negative effects of globalization and hegemonic policies on all people.

Finally she embraces the affective dimension by suggesting that adult educators

- Teach with love.

This involves teaching with an attitude of caring and genuine interest in the individual conditions of learners. It includes patience, tolerance and helping to empower adult learners to make changes in their communities.

It seems to me then that for teachers of adults to be effective they must be confident both in their content knowledge and in their ability to communicate that content. Only then will they be able to exercise the sensitive flexibility that will allow them to balance the requirements of their employers (the administrators of adult education institutions), the demands of the curriculum, their own goals for the teaching encounter and the needs of their adult students. Teachers are not therapists but, perhaps with opportunities for continued professional development, teachers can have the opportunity to build skills and increase their competence. This agenda though, of investing in the development of teachers, has to be included as a priority for those who make policy, set targets and provide funding.

The terms adult and adult education may not be limited in definition but what theorists say about adult learning has implications about how teachers teach adults. Many theorists suggest that teachers of adults need
to be both competent in cognitive skills and emotionally supportive. This onus on respecting the humanity of the adult learner and making room for the learner to bring their own experiences and participate in goal setting is common to all the theories. There is also a strong emphasis on sensitivity to the ambiguities that the adult learner experiences when they make the choice to submit their adult identity to the more passive role identity of student. In adult education in Jamaica, those who do most of the teaching teach adults part-time. These are casual teaching staff that may or may not have had prior experience teaching adults. Indeed, some part-time faculty may have no formal teaching qualifications or no previous teaching experience at all. Some do very well at their tasks while others struggle to meet the basic requirements. This work will now look at some of the literature that relates to the growing importance of this group of academic staff.

**Adjunct Faculty in Adult Education**

The term adjunct faculty applies to members of faculty who teach on a part-time basis. The term ‘adjunct faculty’ is used frequently in North American literature, while in British literature the term ‘part-time faculty’ is used. I will use both terms interchangeably in this study. Such faculty are hired on a contractual basis to teach one or more modules during a given period of time and typically are not eligible for full-time salary, benefits such as tenure, health care or pension. The growth in the numbers of adjunct faculty in post secondary institutions has been an issue of study in North America. Charfauros and Tierney (1999) call adjunct faculty the fastest growing group in post secondary education.
The roles that adjunct faculty play are diverse. Faculty teach part-time by choice, such as parents or caregivers, others may desire full-time work and are willing to teach part-time to support themselves in the interim, some teach in several institutions, others are substantively employed outside of academia and teach to supplement the income they receive in industry or commerce or for self-fulfilment or to widen their experiences (Watters and Weeks, 1999, Lyons and Burnstad, 2007a, Lyons and Burnstad, 2007b, Lyons, 2007). This is not a homogenous group and their differing objectives reflect on the wider range of theoretical models they may employ (Speight, 2004). Further all institutions do not use part-time faculty in the same ways it is therefore difficult to make wide sweeping policy based on assumptions about this group (Gappa and Leslie, 1993).

Part-time faculty may be characterised in terms of their own motivation for choosing part-time status. American researchers Gappa and Leslie (1993), identity four types of adjunct faculty: specialist, freelancers, career-enders and aspiring academics. Specialists are expert or professionals who are employed full-time outside of academia and often teach to bring their professional perspective to career-oriented programmes. This may include business people and professional such as lawyers, doctors, engineers. Freelancers may have several part-time jobs by choice that could include regular teaching assignments. Examples are consultants and artists. Career-enders are persons who may have retired but want to maintain a connection with their chosen discipline or the profession of teaching. Aspiring academics may include graduate students, recent graduates or career changers. These are persons who would opt for a full-time job in academia if given the opportunity. Many undertake part-time work with the hope that this will lead to a full-time placement in the institution.
Similarly, British academic Speight, in a review of adult education teachers in British universities in the last half of the twentieth century, highlights four distinct groups within the stock of adult tutors: missionaries, apprentices, intellectual casuals and opportunists. Missionaries, she describes as established academics who serve out of a desire to make a contribution to the sector and derive satisfaction from this opportunity to serve. Apprentices work part-time for a short period for career experience. Intellectual casuals are professionals who may be external to the institution and who have no desire to have full-time status but are often involved in adult education as a social contribution. Opportunists are described as those who may teach in adult education as an opportunity for example to carry out research (Speight 2004). It is noteworthy that there is strong similarity in the way part-time faculty is characterised in the USA as well as the UK.

Viewed from another perspective, Palmer (1999) examines the role of part-time faculty in relation to the degree of their involvement in teaching jobs. He identifies the types of jobs part-time community college faculty held outside of the colleges in the USA in 1992:

Part-time faculty with
- no other job - 20.6%
- part-time teaching jobs in more than one college - 14.9%
- a full-time job in one college and part-time in another - 15.2%
- a part-time non-teaching job - 11.6%
- A full-time non teaching job - 37.7% (See Figure 3-2).
These numbers indicate that almost 70% of part-time teachers in this sample have only one formal connection with teaching. That connection is as a part-time staff in a community college. Therefore, it would be helpful if support and development for their teaching task is available from the institution where they teach part-time. The very nature of their part-time appointment means they may be less available to students, rarely have office space or academic support (Miller, 2001), often do not benefit from mentoring or professional development (Buck, 2002) or serve on committees or do service work in the institution. UNESCO acknowledged the limitations of part-time faculty in adult education at its 2000 World Education Forum. The report notes that the fact that the majority of instructional staff are part-time working in contexts of limited resources
with limited strategies for professional development results in a high turnover of staff many of whom are volunteers (UNESCO, 2000).

The Significance of Adjunct Faculty to Adult Education

In American degree granting institutions, the number of teaching staff who have part-time contracts has grown steadily. Figures derived from the data published by National Centre for Education Statistics (Education, 2009 Tables and Figures) show an increase from 22% in 1970 to 48% in 2007 (Table 3-2).

Table 3-2
Percentage of Full and Part-Time Teaching Staff in Degree granting American Colleges (Derived from data of National Centre for Education Statistics)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Full-Time faculty</th>
<th>Part-Time Faculty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reasons for this increase in the numbers of adjunct staff in post compulsory education are many. Economic constrains of academic institutions and need for more flexibility in staffing (Baldwin and Chronister, 2001, Rhoades, 1996) have pushed institutions to seek less expensive teaching staff. On the positive hand, work place experience and specialist knowledge, expertise in career or the technical field (Levin, 2007), community connections (Green, 2007) are all valuable resources that faculty who work in industry and commerce bring to the classroom. It is often these faculty members who can help students see how theory is applied to the real world. In addition, part-time faculty are usually flexible in terms of hours and are often sought to deliver evening or weekend modules and part-time courses and so allow institutions to broaden their
offerings to part-time students (Eagan Jr and Jaeger, 2009). They tend to teach core modules at the introduction level and so have some of the largest classes in the institution such as the institution’s general education programmes (Gappa and Leslie, 1993, Twigg, 1989), are connected to the academic community but some are not fully integrated into that community (Bowen and Schuster, 1986). The paradox is that adjunct faculty are staff who by virtue of their numbers, and the influence they have as teachers of core modules, are integral to post secondary institutions yet are marginal in terms of their involvement in the institutions’ governance and structures. They bring advantages to the institution in exchange for a relatively cheap financial package (Lyons and Burnstad, 2007a).

**Opportunities and Challenges**

Despite their integral role, adjunct faculty are seldom seen as full professionals by their peers in academia (Buck, 2002), they have no voice in the educational institution but are valuable in their roles as tutors yet they are not valued by their departments and schools (Speight, 2004) and since they often find their professional identity outside of academia (Wagoner, 2007) may actually be less interested in the academic institution beyond their teaching role. Yoshioka (2007) highlights the economic uncertainties, little job security, low pay, inadequate health benefits that adjunct faculty endure. Some research has even challenged the positive impact adjunct faculty have on their students. Burgess and Samuels’ study indicates that students were better prepared for subsequent courses if their first course was taught by full-time faculty (Burgess and Samuels, 1999). Although this was a limited sample, the findings seem to concur with the findings of Jacoby (2006) that the increased employment of part-time faculty had a negative effect on degree completion. This may be due to the fact that students have fewer
meaningful interactions with part-time faculty, or it may be because part-time faculty are not themselves integrated in the life of the institution and so cannot fully advise new students on how to become integrated. Another view is that of Baldwin and Chronister (2001) that students may view part-time faculty as less stable or secure and so may be less likely to connect with them and see them as potential role models.

Buck claims that adjunct faculty are ‘hired haphazardly, provided little mentoring or professional development, little in the way of constructive evaluation by other faculty and have little role in shared governance’ (Buck 2002, p.1. Gappa and Leslie (Gappa, 2002, Leslie and Gappa, 2002, Gappa and Leslie, 2002) are optimistic that properly trained adjuncts can provide a flexible, affordable and quality way to achieve the goals of post secondary institutions.

In Jamaica, although there has been no empirical research on the numbers of adjunct faculty and the significance of their contribution, it is likely that the figures could closely resemble American figures. In my research one administrator told me that ‘over 95%‘ of the programmes she managed where taught by adjunct staff. What is evident is that adjunct faculty make up a significant proportion of the staff of post secondary educational institutions.

**Support Needs of Adjunct Faculty**

Researchers have begun to look at the kinds of support that should be offered to adjuncts;

Lyons (1996) found that part-time instructors require:
- Orientation to the institution
- Training in teaching and classroom management skills
- A sense of belonging to the institution
- Initial and ongoing professional development
- Appropriate recognition for quality work

Lyons and Burnstad (2007) give several examples of successful professional development programmes for adjunct faculty, among them are the following:

- An orientation programme at the University of Central Florida that was delivered through several workshop sessions, a day long retreat and an online programme.
- A six session programme put on by the University of Louisville, scheduled with late afternoon and early evening options, including a meal, providing a stipend and certification
- A ‘blended programme’ put on by Valencia Community College in Florida which included online scenario based course as well as face-to-face seminars. This initiative has now become an ‘Associate Faculty Program’ which is also rewarded with a pay increase.
- Mentoring programmes conducted by Grant MacEwan College in Canada and Delgado Community College in New Orleans. In one case, Part-time instructors are matched with a veteran instructor who will focus on instructional processes and philosophy. In another, an Adjunct Mentoring Coordinator position was put in place. This individual was responsible for mentoring all new adjuncts for a year,
- A comprehensive faculty development programme instituted by Indian River Community College, Florida that was a combination approach including orientation, course on
teaching skills, mentoring and the provision of library and online resources on the needs of part-time instructors and professional development. This programme included brown bag professional luncheons and a recognition programme for outstanding adjunct faculty.

I include these examples to suggest that the variety of content, delivery style and mode of facilitation displayed here indicates that there are many options open to planners who want to find professional development options that suit the peculiar needs of their faculty.

Lyons and Burnstad (2007) emphasise the importance of institutional policies that support the development of instructors as significant for ensuring that quality teaching takes place.

The flexible, responsive nature of the programmes highlighted by Lyons and Burnstad may be what makes them attractive for faculty who may feel marginal to the educational institution in which they work and undervalued by it. Below I isolate some features of the programmes highlighted above that characterise this flexibility and responsiveness. Programmes for adjunct faculty could involve any of the following:

- Differing content for different populations.

Orientation and induction focus on teaching skills, continuing professional development, introduction to new skills in methodology and technology; these are all content options that may be of interest to adjunct faculty.

- A choice of delivery.

Face-to-face workshops and Seminars are suitable for some populations and are often the easy choice of educational institutions. Online modules or seminars, day-long, weekend retreats, short afternoon sessions, part self-study and part group discussion modules are ways of adjusting the workshop model to more relevant options.
• Mentoring
Pairing new adjuncts with veteran faculty or identifying an individual who has responsibility for mentoring new staff can provide hands-on support as well as build relationships. This option would also help to introduce the adjunct faculty to the ethos of the institution and integrate part-time staff into participating in more core functions.
• Resources
Making institutional and professional development resources as well as library and on line resources accessible to adjuncts is often over looked particularly in contexts with financial challenges. Many part-time staff complain that they are left on their own to find material that can help them in their jobs. Many do not have the time for the research task, assume the institution does not consider it important and therefore simply focus on delivering the minimum level of teaching for which they are paid.
• Incentives.
Part-time staff members are paid for the exact hours that their contract allows. Often there is little or no remuneration for attending meetings or participating in service work in the institutions. It is fair for adjuncts to assume that the institution will reward behaviour it values. Stipend for attending meetings and seminars, a meal where appropriate, certification when a course of study is completed are important incentives. More fundamentally, part-time members of staff often feel that they do not receive compensation for all their work. They are paid for teaching hours but research and preparation time is simply assumed to be subsumed in the billable contract time.
• Combined programmes.
Lyons and Burnstad (2007) included examples of blended programmes that provided a combination of various elements for their staff. Allowing adjuncts to have options of time, delivery and content increases the
likelihood that staff will invest in professional development activities that are useful to them.

In the context of developing countries these concerns are even more stark. Although this issue is under-researched in the Jamaican context, anecdotal evidence is that part-time faculty are heavily relied on in most adult education institutions and far outnumber full-time educators. Many part-time educators feel isolated and unsupported in their role of adult teachers and actively seek some acceptance and support from the institutions in which they work. UNESCO’s 2010 report from the international adult education conference CONFINTEA VI identifies teachers, trainers and facilitators as the most important quality input in adult education. This is a challenge identified by fifty countries in their national reports which points to the fact that adult educators are often not appropriately trained, qualified or remunerated (UNESCO, 2010c). Professional Development is one way in which this support can be provided. In the following section the significance of professional development for teachers will be discussed. This is not a discussion of professional management for the focus of this thesis is not on the narrow grouping of persons who make up the category of education leaders or managers. My focus is on all educators and particularly on those who interact directly with learners in the teaching relationship. I believe that these persons are educators who could benefit from the contribution that professional development can make to the development of adjunct faculty in particular.

**Professional Development for Adjunct Faculty**

Although part-time faculty contribute substantially to the teaching load, the expenditure of resources to support them is trivial (Rajagpal & Farr, 1989 in Watters and Weeks, 1999). Indeed, Watters and Weeks (1999) point out
that in schools, academic power lies with full-time staff. It is full-time staff who are the ones involved in the day-to-day management of staff, including evaluation of work of part-time staff. Part-time faculty are a consumable and low cost academic workforce (ibid).

unless part-timers are afforded opportunities to contribute to the development of courses as well as teach in them, and to develop teaching skills themselves the current situation of marginalisation and dual labour forces dominated by the market and corporate paradigms will persist (Watters and Weeks 1999, P. 11).

Professional development is one important opportunity that should be available to part-time faculty to help develop teaching skills. Because of the casual nature of their employment, part-time faculty are often excluded from professional development events. Yet there is so much literature on the significance of professional development for teacher growth and improving student learning. In the following section, I look at some of the literature on the significance of professional development in improving teachers’ contribution to student learning. It seems logical that institutions should make every effort to help adjunct faculty access this resource since they play such an important role.

**Definition and Characteristics of Effective Professional Development**

**Day’s** (Day, 1999) definition of professional development is a comprehensive one.

Professional development consists of all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school, which contribute, through these, to the quality of education in the classroom. It is the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues throughout each phase of their teaching lives (p. 4).
The definition acknowledges that professional development may take several forms and ought to lead to reflection and change. The Continuing Professional Development certification website⁴ provides a more general definition relating to any professional:

CPD is the systematic maintenance, improvement and broadening of knowledge and the development of personal qualities necessary for the education of professional and technical duties throughout the practitioner’s working life (p. 2).

Another, more succinct definition is provided by the US Department of Education in 1996 (cited in Trayer, 2006). Professional development is defined as:

...rigorous and relevant content, strategies, and organizational support that ensure the preparation and career-long development of teachers and others whose competence, expectations and actions influence the teaching and learning environment (p. 110)

So then, professional development for teachers is seen as more than random workshops pencilled into the academic calendar. It is expected that professional development is systematic, rigorous and relevant, conscious and planned as well as including natural learning experiences. The purpose of professional development is first of all to be of benefit to teachers in developing both content knowledge and personal qualities but should result in benefit to the school and students as well.

Muijs and Lindsay (2004) cite Galloway (2000) who makes a distinction between continuing professional development and in-service training or on the job learning. Continuing professional development is less limited and therefore can encompass a wide variety of approaches and teaching and learning styles in a variety of setting. Yet it is not as broad as lifelong

⁴ (www.cpduk.co.uk)
learning, and is primarily related to people’s professional identities and roles and the goals of the organisation. Therefore, continuing professional development can be flexible enough to be structured for a specific population in terms of content as well as delivery and can also be adjustable as needs change or as new needs are made known.

In short I see professional development as structured activities that are geared for the broadening of subject knowledge as well as the development of personal qualities and strategies toward the support of effectiveness in teaching. Importantly though, professional development is only worthwhile if these activities make an impact on teacher functioning in a way that leads to improved student performance. Literature on the benefits of professional development indicate that professional development can positively impact the curriculum, the teacher, the school itself and consequently students’ results.

**Why is Professional Development desirable?**

There is significant research to show the potential contribution of professional development. Haycock (1998) and Darling–Hammond (2000), make the case that teacher quality outweighs student background factors in explaining variations in student achievement. Rowe’s research supports this case and makes the claim that ‘quality teachers and teaching, supported by strategic teacher professional development’ (Rowe, 2003) is a most salient influence on student outcomes. Rowe acknowledges that students’ literacy skills, general academic achievements, attitudes, behaviours and experiences are all influenced by background and intake characteristics, yet, ‘the magnitude of these effects pale into insignificance compared with class/teacher effects’ (Rowe 2003, p. 1). One important influence on the quality of teaching is the quality of professional
development experienced by educators. Rowe claims that quality teaching and quality teachers are supported by strategic professional development and since it is difficult to legislate quality teaching, this fact should push those concerned with educational effectiveness to invest in quality teaching through careful recruitment, suitable training and relevant ongoing professional development.

Muijs and Lindsay (2004) also highlight the claim of Talbert and McLaughlin (1994) that continuing professional development has a positive impact on curriculum, pedagogy, teachers’ sense of efficacy and teachers’ relationships with students. Where teachers have clear professional identities and have intrinsic as well as extrinsic rewards for their work they are more satisfied and expand and develop their own teaching repertoire. Professional development is also seen as an essential component to school development as well as teacher growth and wellbeing (Hargreaves, 1994, Day, 1999). Where teachers are able to reflect, access new ideas, experiment and share experiences within school cultures and where leaders encourage appropriate levels of challenge and support, there is greater potential for school and classroom improvement. Improving schools invest in the development of their staff and create opportunities for teachers to collaborate and to share best practice (McLaughlin and Talbert, 2001 cited in Muijs and Lindsay, 2004). Lyons sums up the significance of support for professionals in this statement;

If good teaching that produces evidence of student learning is to be anything other than random, then institutional policies must deliberately support the development of all instructors (Lyons, nd).

Indeed, teachers also give feedback on the usefulness of professional development, Sturman (2005) documents feedback from the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) 2004 and 2005 surveys done
on behalf of the General Teaching Council, to obtain the views of UK teachers on specific aspects of their professional work in teaching. Among the findings there is indication of the value teachers place on professional development. For example, there was a desire for more Continuing Professional Development and more career guidance, and the majority did not feel their professional development needs were being met. Teachers with a cross-school role and supply teachers were significantly less likely than class teachers to feel their CPD needs have been met and over three-quarters of teachers interviewed felt that observing lessons or being observed were among the most valuable forms of CPD. The most common area in which teachers felt they will need Continuing Professional Development is using information and communication technology (ICT) in their teaching, followed closely by developing their skills and knowledge in the area of personalised learning.

This feedback seems to indicate that teachers value professional development and that the research supports the fact that professional development does have positive impact. As indicated earlier, the traditional form of professional development activities have been conducted in workshops or seminars. The literature indicates that there are many other options in terms of structure that offer more flexibility. I will acknowledge some of this literature in the following section.

**Types of Professional Development**
For many teachers, their experiences with professional development involve sitting as passive participants while some ‘expert’ from outside of the organization conducts a one-off workshop focused on some technical skill. Gaible and Burns (2005) assert that this is not the only way in which professional development can be delivered and it may be argued this is not
the most desirable delivery model. In the literature, it is possible to identify several types of professional development. Some writers categorise types of professional development according to structure of delivery others categorise according to desired outcomes or results. The two types of professional development are depicted in Figure 3-3 below.

**Figure 3-3**  
*Types of Professional Development*

![Diagram of Professional Development Types](image)

**Professional Development in Terms of Delivery Structure**

Gaible and Burns (2005) look at types of professional development in terms of how programmes are delivered and divide what they term ‘teachers’ professional development’ (TPD) into three categories:

- Standardised TPD
- Site-based TPD
- Self-Directed TPD

Standardised TPD

Standardised TPD is the most centralised approach of the three and is best used to disseminate information among representatives of a large group.
This may involve workshops or training sessions and focuses on the exploration of new concepts or demonstration of new skills. These are effective in building awareness.

The cascade model is often used in this type of Professional Development. In this model, a small group of teachers are trained, those individuals then return to their own institutions to train their peers. The model is convenient but limited in that the training is often not specific to context, workshops take place at one time, in one location without on-going support and the onus is on the trainee teachers to pass on knowledge to his or her colleagues without being trained as trainers themselves.

Site-Based TPD
These are characterised by intensive learning by groups of teachers in a school or region. Teachers work with in-house facilitators and training is conducted at the specific school or within the broader school community. This type of TPD offers a more gradual process of learning and is more context-based. Site Based TPD is very useful for local issues and needs, and in comparison to standardised TPD is more flexible, more sustained and more intensive. In terms of limitations, this type of professional development is more time and labour intensive, and has the challenge of establishing and maintaining an adequate network of facilitators to meet needs of large scale TPD programmes. Many institutions find they simply do not have close access to a wide enough range of potential facilitators to meet all the professional development needs of their staff.

Self-Directed TPD
This model is focused on teachers’ own independent learning. Teachers take the initiative to design their own professional development. For example, online communities can be helpful to teachers. In this model,
teachers become lifelong learners. Gaible and Burns (2005) believe this should not be used as the primary means of providing TPD and should instead be used to complement and extend standardised or site-based TPD. Indeed, the authors suggest that a careful decision must be made regarding the type of professional development activity that is appropriate for a context. For example, an institution may use standardised TPD to expose staff to policy matters or to introduce new skills and may follow up with site-based TPD. Site-based TPD may be regularly used for curriculum matters and intervention that is specific to the institution. Both types may be complemented by self-directed TPD which may also be more useful for more experienced teacher.

Gaible and Burns (2005) also provide more detail on professional development delivery. They use the site-based TPD model to look at creative delivery methodology which can facilitate more variety to the sit down workshop or seminar. The figure (3-4) below shows a representation of these delivery options.
The authors mention the ‘Observation /Assessment model’. In this case, teachers are observed in classroom by their peers and feedback is discussed. The resulting assessment can be used to identify training needs or support workshops or peer coaching. This model could include ‘open lessons’ or ‘lesson study’. With ‘open lessons’, teachers create lessons and invite colleagues to observe and provide feedback (focus here is on teacher behaviour). In the case of ‘lesson study’- teachers collaboratively plan, develop or improve a lesson, field test it, observe it, make changes and collect data to see the impact of the lesson on student learning. Focus here is on student actions. In addition to observation/assessment types of events there may also be study groups. In the case of study groups, teachers collaborate as a single group or as teams to solve common problems or create plans with common goals. There are also research approaches such as inquiry/action research and case studies. Inquiry/action research approach is an approach where teachers form
teams based on common interest and investigate and research. Teams then plan possible actions to remedy the problem, take action, observe, document results, reflect on outcomes and create action plans to address concerns. Research approaches are different from study groups, as study groups are broad in their focus while inquiry/action research is focused on issues related to instruction. In Case Studies teacher teams examine components of classroom instruction and apply what has been learned to their own classrooms. Finally, the authors mention mentoring. In the case of mentoring, more experienced teachers guide the less experienced in areas of teaching with a one to one or many to many approach. Mentoring can also be facilitated in the context of professional development schools which are partnerships between a school and local teachers college. Master teachers chosen from the school, are given additional training so they can facilitate practical courses with students of the teachers’ college and the schools benefit from similar relations with teachers’ college professionals.

**Professional Development in Terms of Outcome**

Sparks (Sparks and Hirsh, 1997, 2000) of the American organization, National Staff Development Council, advocates a ‘new vision of staff development that is results driven, standards-based, job–embedded, content-rich and school-focused.’ This is a way to evaluate professional development by examining the results of the effort.

Results driven

Results driven professional development has as its goal improved results in terms of student learning. Professional development is seen as not simply to enhance practice but should be evaluated in terms of its impact on student learning and teacher behaviour not in terms of time spent in sessions or participants’ rating of workshops.
Standards-based

Standards-based professional development is concerned with determining the knowledge and skills that educators need to ensure the success of students. That is, defining what students must know and be able to do to succeed at education programmes. This model then describes the expectations for teaching competency, regarding context, process and content.

Job-embedded

Job-embedded professional development critiques staff development from outside. Instead, professional development should be situated in the context so it can be more relevant. The job-embedded description could include study groups, coaching, mentoring, action research or joint lesson planning. The National Foundation for Improvement of Education’s 1996 (Renvi, 1996) report showed that when professional development is built into the daily, weekly and yearlong job of teaching it results in changed practice and student success.

Content-rich

Koppich and Knapp (1998) encourage a deeper understanding of academic content and its application to real world settings. They feel this is necessary if teachers are to be successful in helping students master challenging academic standards. An important component to improving student achievements is teachers’ subject knowledge and ability to translate that knowledge to classroom learning that learners with different background can access. This is an important component of professional development for as Cawelti ‘s (1995) research indicated, few teachers feel that the initial teacher education they received prepared them adequately
to address the specific content standards that students are expected to master. Professional Development provides opportunities for teachers to acquire deeper understandings of content and to model instructional practices.

School-focused
To be sustained, professional development should not merely be the concern of the individual. Even as the capacity of staff is improved, staff members work better if they function as a cohesive unit that strives for continuous improvement (Koppich and Knapp, 1998). Indeed, Sparks (1997) suggests that staff development is most successful when it focuses on goals for student learning based on what is unique in the context of a particular school community. Standards-based and Content-rich results are usually anticipated with traditional professional development. I think Job-embedded and School-focused results pose more challenge for educational institutions. These types of results can only be maintained if the whole organization participates in the process and teachers know that they are part of even bigger expectations than merely attending a requisite number of seminars. It may be particularly useful for adjunct faculty as well to obtain a sense of their significance to the larger institution and to be part of a more comprehensive development plan.

Effective Professional Development
Guskey and Sparks (2004) – suggest that the factors affecting quality of professional development are content characteristics, process variables and context characteristics. In the context of adult education, I expect effective professional development to help equip teachers of adults both in confident content knowledge as well as building the emotional skills to discern what
kind of environment would be most suited to their adult learners. It seems impossible to come up with only one formula for effectiveness. Using Guskey and Sparks’ framework I will summarise the contributions of Cohen and Hill (2000), Supovitz (2001), Hill and Crevola (2003) and Hustler (Hustler et al., 2003) regarding the characteristics observed in effective professional development. Although the writers selected emphasise different characteristics of effective professional development, I have compared their arguments using Guskey and Sparks’ framework.

Table 3-3
Content, Process and Context Characteristics of Effective Professional Development as Conceptualised by Selected Theorists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SOURCE</th>
<th>CONTENT VARIABLES</th>
<th>PROCESS VARIABLES</th>
<th>CONTEXT CHARACTERISTICS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional development should</td>
<td>Professional development should</td>
<td>Professional development should</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohen and Hill (2000)</td>
<td>...be grounded in the curriculum that students study.</td>
<td>...be connected to several elements of instruction</td>
<td>...extend in time. Possibly including follow up during the school year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supovitz (2001)</td>
<td>...help teachers connect their work to specific standards of student performance.</td>
<td>...be intensive and sustained.</td>
<td>...connect to other aspects of school change...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>...focus on subject matter knowledge and deepen content skills</td>
<td>...immerse participants in questioning and experimentation and model inquiry forms of teaching</td>
<td>...emphasize concrete teaching tasks based on teacher’s experience with students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hill and Crevola (2003)</td>
<td>...be theoretically based but emphasise practical situational learning.</td>
<td>...be well planned and presented</td>
<td>...involve whole staff or significant portion of staff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>...be well researched drawing on the latest professional literature.</td>
<td>...be ongoing. Allowing time and opportunity for reflection, trying new approaches and feedback.</td>
<td>...value the knowledge and experience of teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>...be supported by peer counselling and mentoring.</td>
<td>...be conducted in a pleasant environment, that respects participants and is attentive to their personal requirements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hustler et al, 2003</td>
<td>...be focused on teaching skills and subject knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table (Table 3-3) indicates that content characteristics are identified by all theorists (Cohen and Hill, Supovitz, Hill and Crevola and Hustler et al), process variables were mentioned by three of the four (Cohen and Hill, Supovitz and Hill and Crevola) and context characteristics were cited by two theorists (Supovitz and Hill and Crevola). Again the point is clear that it has been traditionally expected that development of content knowledge is an important outcome for effective professional development. In my summary it is evident that all the theorists share this expectation. Perhaps this expectation that the development of content knowledge is important is quite a basic expectation and as demands have increased on teachers in general the process and context characteristics have become important as well. If some teachers need more than just support in understanding the curriculum and knowledge of the subject matter, professional development planners have a more challenging job to find the right mix of programmes for their population.

Hill and Crevola (2003) note that designing programmes that meet all of these features is not a straightforward matter. It is evident that a one-size-fits-all model is not realistic and that professional development planning must consider the content, process and context that are most suitable for a particular educational environment. Diversity, flexibility and responsiveness seem to be significant features. In addition to characteristics of effective professional development, Darling–Hammond and Ball (1998) present five premises that are especially pertinent to improving teachers’ learning opportunities

- teachers’ prior beliefs and experiences affect what they learn
- learning to teach to the new standards takes time and is not easy
- content knowledge is key to learning how to teach subject matter so that students understand it
• knowledge of children (learners) their ideas and their ways of thinking is crucial to teaching for understanding
• opportunities for analysis and reflection are central to learning to teach (p.16)

Similarly, Guskey (2002) adds three principles that are important to understand in working for effective professional development:

1. Change is a gradual and difficult process for teachers
2. Teachers need regular feedback on the student learning progress
3. It is necessary to provide both follow up support and pressure.
   Support to encourage change and pressure to ensure that teachers do not retreat to bad habits.

Sykes (2002) reviewed the literature on principles for professional development and found four principles that were frequently mentioned. The first of these is ‘student learning’, and the literature recommends that professional development be organised around systematic examination of student learning. The second principle identified by Sykes is that professional development should be ‘continuous, ongoing, with follow-up’. The third is that professional development should be part of a comprehensive approach or ‘comprehensive strategy’ to instructional improvement. Finally, the fourth principle that was common to the literature is that professional development should provide teachers with learning opportunities that are meaningful, intellectually engaging, and professionally empowering (Sykes, 2002).

These writers comment on the continuous process that is necessary for effective professional development. This is not the one-shot workshop but a process of analysis, reflection, feedback and follow-up. Professional development is most effective as a comprehensive programme that
touches several aspects of the organization’s life and has the best chance of success when it functions in a context that intentionally provides structural support for teacher and student improvement. Muijs and Lindsay (2004) consider professional development to be a key part of the career development of all professionals which is a shared responsibility with their employers because it serves the interests of both parties.

**Critique of Traditional Professional Development**

Teacher professional development is not without its critics. Kennedy (1999) mentions the limitations of the one shot workshop.

In practice, despite the strong call for experiential, authentic, collaborative, self-directed learning models, staff development remains surprisingly traditional. One-shot workshops on generic topics and little follow-up still account for the majority of professional development experiences. Several sources indicate that teachers have little or no input in either the topics or the format of their professional growth programs (Kennedy 1999, p. 2).

Furthermore, it is unwise to assume that CPD leads to changes in professional practice that automatically leads to improved learner outcomes (Robinson and Sheeba (2005)). More studies point to an improvement in the knowledge and understanding of the teacher than those that identify improved student performance. The difficulties of measuring the impact of teachers’ CPD on pupil outcomes are often mentioned in the literature (Flecknoe, 2000, Guskey, 2000, 2002, Muijs et al., 2004). These difficulties include timetable challenges (since changes often take a long time to impact pupil outcome), and the difficulty of attributing changes to CPD itself since the education system is always impacted by multiple variables. Indeed, Muijs et al (2004), suggest that there is not always a relationship between teachers’ reports of their use of specific practices and the actual occurrence of these practices. The implication is that professional perceptions are not always accurate.
reflections of reality and are not a reliable measure of change where it really matters, in progress and growth experienced by the learner.

Guskey (2002) claims that most programmes are ineffective and they face the challenge of not being given enough time. He says they fail because they do not take into account two things; what motivates teachers to engage in professional development and the process by which change in teachers typically occurs (Guskey, 1986). Teachers are attracted to professional development by their belief that it will expand their knowledge and skills, contribute to their growth and enhance their effectiveness with students. They hope to gain concrete, practical ideas that directly relate to day to day operation of classrooms (Fullan and Miles, 1992). Secondly, Guskey makes an argument similar to that of Robinson and Sheeba, (2005) that the presumption that changes in teachers’ attitudes and belief will follow knowledge and will lead to changes in classroom practices and behaviour and in turn result in improved student learning is not supported in reality.

Gusky (2000, p. 8-10), further highlights that there are often shortcomings in the evaluation process such as;

- Most evaluations simply summarise activities (such as attendance, what courses have been done, credits). These kinds of evaluations give no indication of effectiveness.
- Most evaluations usually consist of participants’ satisfaction questionnaires that ask if the event was considered to be enjoyable or successful but do not address issues as gains in knowledge, changes in practice or changes in student outcomes.
- Typical evaluations tend to be brief, one-off events, often undertaken post hoc while most meaningful change tends to be longer term and so can not be addressed in the evaluation.
The literature suggests then, that although professional development is highly valued by teachers and administrators and has the potential to lead to improved teaching skill and better results among learners, traditional professional development is limited in its effects. A 2002 OFSTED report indicates that although teachers, leadership teams and CPD co-ordinators generally appreciate the wide array of CPD activities, these were rarely selected and put together effectively to form an individual training plan. More often, teachers took part in a range of loosely related, sometimes unfocused activities that did not necessarily provide good value for money or lead to the intended development (OFSTED, 2002).

Inhibitors to success include those factors that affect the teacher such as time, workload and distance from training opportunities. There are also those factors that affect planners such as costs, availability of facilitators and unavailability of helpful feedback. In addition teacher professional development is unlikely to succeed if it does not reflect school development needs. Professional development is not a magic pill, Corcoran (1995) points out that the typical format for staff development is often a waste of time because of what is lacking: clear focus and effective follow-up. Traditional models also fall short of expectations because they are not part of a more long range scheme of learning for teachers.

**Alternatives to Traditional Models**

The literature on professional development shows that it is widely considered to be beneficial. However, whereas the benefits to teachers have been highlighted in the research, there seems to be less evidence that this advantage naturally and consistently translates to benefits for learners. Criticisms of traditional models of professional development include concerns that the workshop/seminar model does not allow for
sufficiently thorough teacher development and that traditional post-seminar evaluations are not sufficiently helpful. In this section, I look at some of the literature that has been emerging regarding alternatives to traditional models of professional development. Guskey (2002) proposes a new model to ensure teacher change and Dufour (2004), Louis and Marks (1998), McLaughlin and Talbet (1993) among others, write about the professional learning community.

**Teacher Change**

Guskey (1986, 2002), in his argument for an alternative model for teacher change from professional development experiences, makes the claim that change in attitude occurs after evidence of improvement. He sites Cohen and Hill (1998); Kennedy (1999) and Wang (Wang et al., 1999) as some of the researchers who point to the ineffectiveness of most professional development programmes. This is due, at least in part, according to Guskey, to a presumption that a change in teacher attitudes and beliefs leads to change in classroom behaviour which naturally leads to improved student learning. Guskey claims that it is not professional development per se but experience of successful implementation that changes teachers’ attitudes and beliefs.

...evidence of improvement or positive change in the learning outcomes of students generally preceded and may be a prerequisite to significant change in the attitudes and beliefs of most teachers (Guskey 2002, p. 384).

Guskey’s alternative model then proposes that teachers should first be encouraged to practice what they have learned in professional development events since it is on experiencing success that their beliefs and attitudes will change.
Guskey (1986) actually suggests that teachers be pushed to employ new behaviours and be encouraged to observe the positive effects on students and then to adopt new behaviours and beliefs. The traditional model expects change of attitude to naturally follow professional development, and expects this attitude change to be a prerequisite to behaviour change. This model follows professional development with required classroom actions. It holds that it is the experience of working through the new learning that leads to change in belief and attitude and therefore a long term impact.

"...neither training alone or training followed by implementation was sufficient for affective change.....changes occurred when training and implementation were combined with evidence of improved student learning’ (Guskey 2002, p 385).

To support this model then, modelling and mentorship are a significant component of the professional development plan and this plan is a process that makes time for all the components. It is not simply a one day workshop but training and practice and feedback. Guskey claims that this model can contribute to planning essential professional development programmes that result in sustained educational improvements. He also believes the model considers the three basic principles for effective
professional development mentioned above, that change is a gradual and difficult process that teachers should receive regular feedback on the student learning process and that continued follow-up support and pressure should be provided.

Guskey is not alone in this view and his position is shared by Floden (Floden et al., 1995) who claims that it takes more than a workshop to develop new abilities in teachers. A wide range of strategies must be used since workshops alone seldom alter attitudes. They identify time, discussion, observation and reflection as essential since attitudes and abilities are shaped and reinforced in the contexts in which teachers work and learn,

**Professional Learning Community**

Newman (2000) argues that professional development policy should not only focus on building teacher capacity but also deliberately aim to build school or organizational ‘capacity’. Newman defines school capacity as the collective power of the school staff to improve student achievement across the entire organization. This view is supported by Loxley et al (2007) who argue that the entire school context has a role in shaping the outcomes associated with professional development and the efforts of professional development can be undermined by systematic and structural issues. McLaughlin and Talbert, (1993) claim that the existence of an active, accountable, professional community within and across schools is important for effective teacher development and high quality teaching. Indeed, Louis and Marks (1998) found higher levels of professional community to be associated with higher student achievement. Elmore (2000) criticises those who believe recruiting, rewarding and retaining high quality teachers is enough to accomplish large-scale reform. The claim here
is that improvement is more than learning to do the right thing, it is learning to do the right things in the context in which teachers work. For Elmore, the key to effective professional learning is to build a new professional culture that is not focused on the private practice of individuals but on the collective responsibility for teaching practice and student learning.

Astuto’s (Astuto et al., 1993) definition of the concept has influenced the work of other theorists such as Hord who identifies professional learning communities as ‘teachers in a school and its administration (who) continuously seek and share learning and act on their learning. The goal of their actions is to enhance their effectiveness as professionals for the students’ benefit, thus this arrangement may be termed communities of continuous inquiry and improvement’ (Hord 1997, p. 10). The defining elements of professional communities are shared decision-making (Darling-Hammond, 1998), shared norms and values, a collective focus on student learning, collaboration, and reflective dialogue (Mclaughlin and Talbert, 1993). In professional learning communities, teachers feel supported (Rosenholtz, 1989), Staff isolation is reduced and staff capacity is increased in a caring and productive environment (Boyd and Hord, 1994) and student outcomes are increased (Hord, 1997).

Professional learning communities are focused on student learning rather than teaching. Teachers and administration work in collaboration to make plans that ensure that students learn, that teachers are required to work in collaborative teams and that the focus of the exercise is on results. Teachers access the resources of all the team, share results, successes and concerns, support each other and attempt to replicate good practice in their own work (DuFour, 2004).
Hord (1997) identifies five attributes of a professional learning community, supportive and shared leadership (especially the principal), collective creativity, shared values and visions, supportive conditions and shared personal practice. Nevertheless, as Dufour notes, the success of a professional learning community does not merely depend on the merits of the concept but on the commitment of the educators within it (Dufour, 2004). It is a challenge for educators to change from working in isolation and protecting their ideas and materials to working together to meet the learning needs of all students.

**Relevance of Professional Development to Adjunct Faculty**

Lankard (1993), asserts that although professional development is widely considered to be important, few institutions offer these activities for their part-time (adjunct) instructors. In fact, not only do few institutions include part-time faculty in professional development programmes, many of the part-time staff are unaware that such activities are available. Full-time staff is more likely to be able to access support such as time off, travel funds, paid tuition, sabbatical and subscriptions to professional journals. Further, for full-time staff there is an obvious relationship between participation in professional development and building a professional identity in an organization. Such an identity is likely to lead to increased responsibilities and promotions. Part-time staff, without tenure or even job security from term to term may not consider it worthwhile to invest in building currency in a particular institution. Adjunct faculty are integral to the function of adult, further and higher education institutions, yet ‘the expenditure of resource to support them is trivial’ (Watters and Weeks 1999, p. 3).
Yet part-time faculty do value professional development. Lankard (1993), through looking at various research studies, identifies training needs that part-time faculty indicated interest in, they include:

- Introduction to the educational setting
- Development of basic teaching skills
- Specialised skills in areas such as counselling, assertiveness, computers
- Methods of teaching adults
- Support in specific subject areas
- Personal development.

The benefits of professional development identified earlier in the chapter are just as true for adjunct faculty as for full-time faculty. Indeed, it may be argued that given that they constitute the majority of the teaching staff and usually all have roles that bring them in direct contact with students, they should be earmarked for professional development opportunities. What is more, a part-time teacher with a full-time job outside of education is unlikely to receive relevant professional development in any place other than the school or college in which she teaches. In this regard, Lankard suggests five guidelines for institutions that employ part-time faculty:

1. Reward part-time teachers who are involved in professional development by making adjustments in their salaries.
2. Encourage them to engage in more activities that build their teaching skill.
3. Promote collegiality between part and full-time faculty.
4. Adjust office hours so that full and part-time staff gets the opportunity to interact.
5. Review institutional policies that may exclude part-time faculty from professional development events (Lankard 1993, p. 3).
Summary

In Chapters Two and Three, I have tried to set the foundation for this study by painting a picture of the historical, policy, literature and theory background to teaching adults in Jamaica. A significant part of this foundation is a historical context in which education favoured the privileged and those who were not educated represented the base of the population. Adult learners have been a part of this less privileged population in Jamaica. Since adult education has never been given priority treatment and has only been given some policy focus since the 1970’s, the sector is still trying to catch up to meet the education needs of adults despite low status, resource limitations, inadequate policy focus and insufficient support mechanisms. The shortage of adequately trained adult educators is one of the support mechanisms in need of attention.

The literature and theoretical background of adult education and professional development also form part of the foundation of this thesis. The literature on adult education indicates that although this is a growing field, the theoretical base is still weak. Adulthood, although widely understood is not consistently defined and adult education exists in various forms in different societies ranging from basic literacy education to lifelong learning. I propose that since education theory is based on psychological theories of learning and since they form a significant part of initial teacher education it is important to acknowledge the theories of behaviourism, cognitivism, humanism and social learning as well as adult education theories such as andragogy, self-directed learning, experiential learning and critical reflection. Although adult education literature is often positioned from the perspective of the adult learner, I want to make the point that adult learners need effective adult educators. To this end, I
include in this chapter a focus on the work of three adult education theorists and highlight implications for adult educators in their work.

Another important part of the foundation was laid in a discussion of literature on adjunct faculty and professional development. I highlighted from the literature, arguments on the significance of adjunct faculty to post-secondary institutions, the opportunities and challenges that adjunct staff experience and ways in which adjunct faculty can be supported. Finally pursuing this theme of supporting adjunct faculty, I examined types of professional development and the value of professional development. This chapter notes that the literature indicates that the traditional delivery mode of professional development has not been totally effective. Two alternative models of professional development are therefore examined. In closing, I looked at some literature proposing the need to make professional development opportunities accessible to part-time faculty in adult education. Since perspectives on professional development are diverse and difficult to measure and since part-time faculty may not have the motivation or the resources to do so, I believe it is not sufficient that individual educators are left to exercise the initiative to access professional development. I believe it to be a responsibility of the institution to offer opportunities for all staff to develop their professional capacity.

In the chapter that follows I will build on this foundation by introducing my own research, indicating how I came to select my research questions and how I made the philosophical and methodological choices that drove my data collection. This Methodology chapter will lead into Chapter 5 in which I will present and analyse the data received before ending the thesis with a discussion on implications of the findings.
CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

Introduction

In the previous chapter I examined some of the theoretical underpinnings of this thesis as they exist in literature on adult learning, adjunct faculty and professional development. In this chapter, my focus shifts to an exploration of how my philosophical framework shaped my approach to designing this research and to a discussion of the practical outworking of my research strategy.

Before I began this journey to decide on the epistemological and methodological direction of my research, I already had ideas of what I wanted to discover and how I expected to discover the ‘truth’ of my research issue. Over time I had developed a predisposition towards humanistic psychology’s focus on affirming the worth and dignity of people and have felt that my task as a researcher was to hear the stories of my respondents from their own unique perspectives in as full and complete a way as possible. I knew that I would have to choose a research approach, data collection methods and a form of analysis that respected this particular worldview. At first, I had not seen this as a predisposition but purely as a personal thought development exercise and did not appreciate how my own world-view would impact the choices I would make for my research. I have since come to understand how my own humanistic perspective helps to position me as a researcher.

Here in chapter 4, I will discuss social research as a process that includes more than hypothesis testing as is carried out in natural sciences, I will identify the links between my own worldview, the dominant theoretical
perspective in the literature and the ontological, epistemological and methodological positions I have adapted. Finally I will outline my research design and research process, discussing my choices in relation to data collection methods and data analysis.

**Social Research**

The way social research is defined can suggest a theoretical focus or a set of theoretical assumptions that tell us what is valued and considered acceptable. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) refer to Kerlinger’s (1970) definition of social research as ‘the systematic, controlled, empirical and critical investigation of hypothetical propositions about the presumed relations among natural phenomena’ (Cohen, Manion and Morrison 2000, p.5). Definitions like these seem to already suggest a bias towards a particular theoretical perspective that social research should strive to be as scientific as possible to be credible. This perspective uses terms such as *objective, rigorous, statistically valid and empirical*. It identifies the task of research as investigating hypothetical propositions. It is a perspective on research that is highly respected and indeed many researchers in education strive to make their research as scientifically rigorous as possible.

Gary Anderson offers a definition of research that seems to embrace another theoretical perspective, that of ‘a disciplined attempt to address questions or solve problems through the collection and analysis of primary data for the purpose of description, explanation, generalization and prediction’ (Anderson et al., 1998). Anderson sees research as basically a problem-solving activity which addresses a problem, tests hypotheses or explains phenomenon (Anderson 1998, p.7). Here the importance of scientific rigour is not undermined, yet research in Anderson’s definition involves not only the kind of research that is based on hypothesis testing...
but could embrace words such as *exploration, thick description, interpretation and relevance*. I find it easy to connect with this later view of research, for while education research, as a type of social investigation, ought to share the rigour of natural sciences research, it also has the concern of human sciences to describe and explain human behaviour (Cohen, Manion, Morrision 2000, p.5), this view of research is that research is always impacted by our conceptions of social reality. Our conceptions of what reality is and how we know things about that reality form part of our theoretical framework. Our theoretical framework influences the decisions we make about research since research is basically about managing information on our social world.

**Theoretical Framework**

**Humanistic Paradigm**

How I conduct social research is impacted by how I see my social world. My word view and the perspective that is core to much of the literature on adult education are both very much consistent with the humanistic paradigm.

I agree with humanists who argue that individuals are capable of understanding their own behaviour and that the meaning of behaviour is essentially personal and subjective (Carl Rogers, Abraham Maslow, Rollo May). This emphasis on subjective meaning is compatible with the use of methods of research that are more qualitative in nature and that allow respondents to explain their realities in their own way. It is true that adult education theories do not all fit neatly in a single paradigm, yet humanistic theory which is often considered the theory of individual growth and development is the predominant paradigm of practice within the literature of adult and continuing education. Humanistic theory includes the theory
that learning occurs primarily by reflecting on personal experience. The 
role of instruction is not to put anything in the mind or repertoire of the 
learner, but to extract lessons from the learner's insights and experience. 
Knowles’ (1973) theory of Andragogy, and the focus of Tough (1989, 
1979) and Houle (1961) on self-directed learning are examples of adult 
education theories that reflect this perspective.

I find that a person-centred philosophy also resonates with a view of the 
researcher as one who is context sensitive, and flexible (Creswell, 1998). I 
am therefore able to see a common thread between my worldview, my 
perceptions of myself as researcher and the kind of approach I take to my 
research. It is possible to elucidate this common thread in the 
epistemological and methodological choices as part of the foundation of my 
research philosophy.

**Constructionist Epistemology**

Epistemology is concerned with the nature and forms of knowledge, how it 
is acquired and how it is communicated to other human beings (Cohen et 
al., 2000). It is important to appreciate that research is not merely the act 
of collecting data in a technically efficient manner, it is motivated by a 
desire to understand our world and so how we view the world and what we 
accept as knowledge about our world are very important. How we ‘align’ 
ourselves profoundly affects how, as researchers, we will go about 
uncovering knowledge of social behaviour (Cohen et al 2000, p. 6). These 
perspectives influenced my research repeatedly as I decided how to collect 
my data, conduct my fieldwork, analyse my data and made choices about 
the significance of various elements in my analysis.
Hitchcock and Hughes (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995) claim ‘ontological assumptions give rise to epistemological assumptions; these, in turn, give rise to methodological considerations; and these, in turn, give rise to issues of instrumentation and data collection’ (p.21). While, Krauss (Krauss, 2005) explains that ‘ontology involves the philosophy of reality, epistemology addresses how we come to know that reality, while methodology identifies the particular practices used to attain knowledge of it’ (2005, p.758-9).

Having struggled through the jungle of terms, concepts and perspectives, I found that, although intimidating, they provide labels for processes with which I was already familiar, and I might have instinctively chosen without fully appreciating how they were connected. It is very likely that even before my exposure to the literature; I would have chosen to collect data in a manner that placed the voice of the respondent in the centre. It is likely that I would have chosen to view the data collected as knowledge that is filtered through the experiences and perceptions of respondents and treated that as authentic reality and so I would have valued their subjective view-point.

I appreciate that my position is somewhat subjective as I have not engaged this research issue as an objective outsider. As someone who has worked in the adult education sector I am interested in hearing the voices of practitioners not merely learning what others (non-practitioners) think is important for practitioners. I wanted to find a way of seeing the reality of the context through the eyes of teachers, students and administrators. I found in constructionism an epistemological position that resonated with my perspectives and expectations.
The basic contention of constructionism is that, there is no meaning in the world until we construct it, reality is socially constructed by and between the persons who experience it (Gergen, 1999). Reality which is completely subjective is also independent of the person living it. So that reality can be different for each person based on our unique understanding of the world and our experience of it (Berger and Luckmann, 1966). This epistemological view holds that knowledge is contingent on human practices. So knowledge is constructed out of interaction between people (Crotty, 1998). Meaning then is not found in objects but depends on the interpretations of humans, indeed there is no meaning in the world unless we construct it. We give meaning to objects by our naming of them and our using of them in particular ways and the meaning we make is affected by our social interpretations of the thing. So constructionism gives a lot of significance to the lenses through which we view our reality; such as the lenses of culture, background knowledge, assumptions and perspectives.

In social research, the focus of the constructionist researcher is to discover the way respondents interpret meaning. Social researchers are not distinct from their subject matter, they cannot study social life as scientists do in a lab, their interaction with their subjects is itself a key part of the sociological enterprise. Language plays an important role in constructionist research; there is more likelihood that there will be a reliance on the spoken word through conversation, interviews, narrative (Gergen, 2001, Padgett, 2004). Through language we expand on the ‘what’ questions asked by positivist research and include ‘why’ and ‘how’ questions (Darlaston-Jones, 2007), so then there seems a natural relationship between constructionist epistemology and qualitative methods and data is usually collected through unstructured interviews and observation for instance. Constructionist research prefers ‘methods of enquiry that accept
and value the role of the subjective rather than the objective’ (Darlaston-Jones 2007, p. 21). These methods allow the investigator to discover how the respondent sees the world. So then, epistemological perspectives are both informed by the world views of the researcher and serve to inform the researcher on options that are consistent with that worldview.

In examining the concerns of my research interest, I have wondered whether there exists an objective entity known as ‘quality teaching’ or whether ‘quality teaching’ is teaching considered to be good quality by those who participate in that interaction. It seemed to me that my research is interested in the perceptions of quality teaching as held by teachers, students and administrators. I am also interested to hear what these stakeholders think may be workable strategies to improve teaching quality.

If my reality is created out of my subjective view of the world then it does not lend itself to objective analysis and scrutiny because no one can see the world exactly the same way as I do. All that an observer can do is interpret my actions through his or her understanding of what he or she thinks the world is like. Therefore as researchers we must instead utilise methods of enquiry that accept and value the role of the subjective rather than the objective in our attempts to understand phenomena from the idiographic perspective. (Darlaston-Jones, 2007:21) (emphasis in the original).

My own interest in enhancing teaching quality through professional development came out of my experience as part of the faculty of an educational institution that identified staff development as an important objective but had only limited success in achieving full participation or in meeting developmental goals. This failure appeared to be due to several factors including the casual nature of the contracts of most of the faculty. Staff development efforts received sporadic support and the quality of teaching as assessed by student evaluation reports was not consistently of a high standard across the board. Some teachers regularly had excellent feedback while others seemed to have difficulty regardless of the subject
area. Also, I wondered if there was any appreciable difference in teaching quality between full and part-time faculty. In this institution, there was significant dependence on part-time faculty. However, administrators did not have much control over how part-time faculty delivered content in the classroom nor did they take any action to standardise the teaching product. Part-time faculty in this institution did not have homogeneous characteristics; they had very different levels of training and experience. Some had very little experience teaching but there existed combinations of a number of characteristics; some had credible subject knowledge and professional experience, others were trained to teach children at the primary or secondary level and were making the transition to teaching adults without additional training, and others held full-time jobs in tertiary level institutions. It was general practice that the primary intervention from administrators was to use student feedback to decide whether to renew contracts of part-time teaching staff.

My research is interested in finding ways of improving teaching quality through Continuing Professional Development (CPD) that is helpful for part-time faculty. I believe that against the background of very little training in adult education, most part-time staff are at a disadvantage and would benefit from professional development programmes. I sought to address this issue in my research.

I do assume that my respondents know their reality better than I do, that even if I can make inferences from what I observe I would benefit from their own explanations of their perceptions and interpretations. Therefore, I selected methods usually associated with qualitative research to address my research questions since researchers often choose methods of data collection consistent with their approach (Cohen, 2000).
Epistemological positions influence methodological choices. Constructionism is considered an anti-positivist epistemological concept. A positivist approach is likely to lead the researcher to utilise traditional options like surveys and experiments. The researcher would be concerned with analysing relationships and regularities between the factors being studied. This more quantitative approach differs from an anti-positivist approach like constructionism. The constructionist researcher will be likely to select methods such as interviews and observation. Here the principal concern is with understanding the ways in which the world is interpreted by individuals (Cohen et al, 2000). It is this anti-positivist, more qualitative approach that I have chosen in my research since it offers a methodology that ‘provide[s] the means to seek a deeper understanding and to explore the nuances of experiences not available through quantification’ (Darlaston-Jones 2007, p. 25).

**Qualitative Methodology**

Denzin and Lincoln (1994) define qualitative research:

> Qualitative research is multi-method in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them. Qualitative research involves the studied use and collection of a variety of empirical materials; case study, personal experience, introspective, life story interview, observational, historical, interactional, and visual texts—that describe routine and problematic moments and meaning in individuals' lives.

Creswell (1994) defines it this way:

> Qualitative research is an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyzes words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting.

I am able to firmly locate my research in this paradigm. This is a paradigm of the discovery of patterns from close observation and careful
documentation and analysis. My research questions are such that ask ‘why’
questions and require a view of the issues from the perspective of
practitioners. This viewpoint is valued so that solutions generated may be
more relevant. This focus on practitioner viewpoint is also a focus on
context. My study is interested in the peculiarities of practice in the
Jamaican context. There is, so far, very little literature on adult education
practice in Jamaica and the most popular formal training option available
for practitioners in this field is offered in an overseas university. We have
found in the context of a small island nation that is still shaking off the
vestiges of colonialism that the prescriptions handed down by the north are
not always relevant to our context. Therefore this study values the stories
of those who have, in their daily work as educators and administrators,
attempted to interpret the theories and prescriptions of a foreign context in
their own context.

Contextual relevance, usefulness and fitness for purpose are very
important. A qualitative study allows individuals to be studied in their
natural setting, data can be collected in the words of the respondents,
participants are able to give feedback and the study may be adjusted if
necessary to better respond to the peculiarities of the context.

Furthermore, as a researcher who has been involved in the context, a
qualitative study allows me to take the role of active learner, telling the
story from the participants’ view-point but also reflecting on the process
myself.

Researchers that tend towards the more positivist orientation argue that
qualitative research is too subjective and so cannot ensure validity. They
claim that this kind of research may be at risk because of the subjective
role of the researcher who shares in the interpretation of meaning and may
experience inaccurate descriptions (not heard, transcribed or remembered inaccurately) or inaccurate inferred meaning- (misrepresented, dismissed or distorted). Further, the risk may arise out of the inability to generalise based on a sample that is too specific or offers only a partial account.

Robert Smith (2000) argues that it is possible to control for these risks by strategies such as:

- verifying conclusions with participants and other researchers and ensuring detailed recording, data saturation and comprehensive sampling.
- using thick description and the language of participants
- using triangulation and multiple data collection
- using rich descriptions of the settings
- ensuring (and documenting) that the context is representative
- valuing and documenting self-reflection on the research process.

Furthermore, qualitative research does offer some advantages over quantitative research. With qualitative research we can address the problem of meaning and operationalization. Since we can never know whether the respondent understands words and phrases in the same way that the researcher intends, the advantage of using a method that allows the researcher to investigate meaning with the respondent is clear. It is also possible for the researcher to explore meaning contradictions since people tend to over-report desirable behaviour and under-report undesirable behaviour.

As a researcher I must balance the advantages and the limitations and make an informed choice, conscious that one decision influences the other. I must choose that which is useful and relevant and that which has the
ability to meet the goals of my research. Qualitative research may be said to be situational and conditional, rather than trying to find general principles, it focuses on understanding a specific context and specific circumstances. (not looking for general principles but focused on understanding specific circumstances (Strauss and Corbin, 1990), this form of research is suitable for my research questions and my research context. I have been able to find a fit between my theoretical foundation (humanism), my epistemology (constructionism) and my choice of methodology (qualitative research) (Figure 4-1). 

**Figure 4-1**

**A Reasonable Fit**

![Diagram](image)

I have found this to be a reasonable fit. As the diagram above depicts, the fit is not seamless or exclusive. I do not claim that no other methodology or epistemology would be appropriate. I simply submit that this fit of humanistic theory, constructionist epistemology and qualitative methodology provide a workable fit for me as researcher and one that I think is suitable for my research context and population.
Research Design

Having settled on my philosophical framework, I then designed a research project that was consistent with the chosen framework. The research design refers to the framework constructed for data collection and analysis (Bryman, 2004). In order to develop this design, I first articulated my research problem and aims and detailed my choice of methodology and methods.

Research Problem

Education for the post compulsory sector in Jamaica has evolved into a system that offers a wide range of options to potential students. Nevertheless, educators of adults in Jamaica and the larger Caribbean have generally not received indigenous training for the task of teaching adults. In the main, Adult Educators are primarily persons trained in local Teachers’ Colleges to work with students in the primary and secondary sectors or persons with advanced qualifications and experience in their disciplines who have made the transition to tertiary and adult education. In particular, most institutions depend significantly on part-time faculty who, in addition to having very little experience or formal training in teaching adults, are also likely to have a marginal relationship with the educational institution in which they work. These part-time adult educators may feel alienated and unsupported and may not benefit from any internal professional development activities. In recent years, some teachers have sought further qualifications by pursuing formal graduate programmes in adult education. However, these are foreign programmes which present particular challenges. They may not be sensitive to the Jamaican culture and up-to date with current issues and concerns in Jamaica. They carry high tuition costs and significant travel and accommodation expenses associated with the compulsory residential component. One of these
programmes has the official support of the Jamaican Council for Adult Education (JACAE). This is a programme offered by the Mt. St. Vincent University in Canada. There are no local programmes to enhance the skills of adult educators. Part-time faculty often do not opt for advanced training since this role (adult educator) is not their substantive job. One approach to improving teaching quality in the sector could be through Continuing Professional Development activities that are locally based and specifically structured to facilitate part-time faculty.

Research Aims

This study aims to explore the following issues:

1. How has adult education evolved in the Jamaican context?
2. What do adult learners and adult educators in IUC value in adult education?
3. How do adult learners and adult educators in IUC characterise quality teaching?
4. How do adult learners and adult educators in IUC characterise good teachers?
5. Are part-time teachers of adults in the Jamaican context perceived to be adequately equipped to deliver quality teaching?
6. How do adult learners and teachers in IUC think quality teaching of adults should be promoted through Continuing Professional Development of part-time teaching staff?

These six questions have been investigated in the context of the International University of the Caribbean (IUC), a tertiary level institution that specialises in diploma and degree level programmes for adults. Below I explore the decision to use a case study as a medium for this research.
and give a brief profile of IUC as well as the rationale for choosing this institution for this investigation.

Case Study
I have chosen to use a case study in order to emphasize contextual detail and highlight the peculiarities of a Jamaican adult education institution. IUC is a private institution and is typical in that 76.5% of the tertiary education sector in Jamaica is privately run\(^5\) (39 of 51 institutions are privately owned and run). As a private institution, IUC establishes its own policies regarding staff recruitment and training although subject to the monitoring of the University Council of Jamaica. I acknowledge that the University of the West Indies has contributed to adult education in Jamaica particularly through its Extra Mural Programmes and UWIDITE (University of the West Indies Distant Teaching experiment) and more recently through the newly launched Open Campus which will develop educational programmes for countries which do not have a physical campus of the university. Nevertheless I chose to study a private institution because the University of the West Indies (UWI) is atypical to tertiary education institutions in Jamaica. UWI is a regional institution sponsored by 15 countries in the English speaking Caribbean functioning out of campuses in three countries. Its governance structure and resource base is very dissimilar to the typical tertiary level institution in Jamaica which does not have access to government sponsorship and must depend primarily on student fees for funding. Logistically, I considered the challenge of obtaining data from all three campuses (in Jamaica, Barbados and Trinidad) which I think would have been necessary had I used UWI as a case. I chose instead to select an institution for study that had characteristics similar to other institutions.

\(^5\) Data taken from the University Council of Jamaica’s list of registered institutions (http://www.ucj.org.jm/accreditation.htm).
in the tertiary sector in Jamaica with the expectation that findings would then be more useful to the wider sector. I was concerned that findings based on a study focused on the UWI could have been viewed by the rest of the sector as remote from their experiences. In some parts of the tertiary education sector in Jamaica, UWI is viewed as having an extremely bureaucratic structure, elaborate, burdensome and evidencing “inadequate interaction and dialogue between staff and students on the one hand and senior administrators on the other” (Howe, 2000). Examining IUC allowed me to stay within the boundaries of one organization yet interview respondents in different geographical locations with both an urban and a rural experience, for IUC has regional centres across Jamaica and the Cayman Islands. At the start of the project, I had intended to include respondents from another institution in the study. Access proved challenging however, and since I had both time and resource limitation, I elected to increase the numbers of IUC respondents and take my entire sample from two regional centres in this institution. Logistically, it was more manageable to use one institution with multiple sites as the entire organization could be accessed through approaching one administrative centre. Using IUC as a case also allowed me to use multiple sources and techniques in data gathering and so to accomplish data triangulation.

In summary, IUC was selected as an appropriate case for this study because of the following characteristics:

- IUC is an indigenous institution to Jamaica (as opposed to an institution which originated and is managed from overseas) and would better reflect issues of concern to the local context.
- In Jamaica’s changing tertiary education landscape (as discussed earlier in chapter 2), there are several institutions
like IUC which offer a wide range of non-traditional programmes delivered in a flexible manner.

- IUC has a large population of adult learners most of whom are continuing education candidates who study part-time and work full-time as teachers, ministers of religion, social workers, guidance counsellors, and business administrators, among other professions.

- IUC considers itself an adult education institution.

- As an emerging institution (incorporated as a university in 2005), IUC is subject to the regulatory and monitoring systems put in place for tertiary level institutions and must function within those boundaries and has been developing internal systems to support its transition to university status. I anticipated that the IUC administration would be open to exploring the issue of supporting part time faculty with CPD.

- IUC’s part-time faculty represents the significant majority of its academic staff.

- Most of IUC’s part-time teachers teach in other institutions as well and so can reflect on their broader experiences as part-time faculty.

- IUC functions out of five regional centres in two countries (Jamaica and Grand Cayman). It is therefore possible to include faculty from both rural and urban centres in the sample.

- Having been employed with the organization, I expected that access to the institution would be unproblematic.
A case study is a holistic research method that uses multiple sources of evidence to analyze or evaluate a specific phenomenon or instance (Anderson et al., 1998). Yin explains that case studies allow the investigation of a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident (Yin, 1994). In other words, the phenomenon is not isolated from the context, as is done in scientific experiments, but it is examined in relation to the influence of the context in which it exists or functions. Case studies are largely descriptive examinations that usually focus on a particular or a small number of sites, groups or individuals.

Case studies can provide very engaging, rich explorations of a project or application as it develops in a real-world setting. Stake (1995) claims that the critical emphasis in case studies is revealing the meaning of phenomena for the participants since case study knowledge is concrete, contextual and interpreted through the readers’ experience. This is consistent with my constructionist perspective, as I consider it important to have the research reflect participant opinions and views in their own words. It is also an appropriate method for research in education as it is concerned with how things happen and why, is process-oriented, flexible and adaptable to changing circumstances and to a dynamic context (Anderson et al., 1998, Robson, 2002). Using a case study offers some advantages to the researcher. Case studies allow for the use of multiple sources of data, the weaknesses of each can be balanced by the strengths of others and this enables a form of triangulation that can produce conclusions based on findings suggested by different data sources. Such conclusions are stronger than those suggested by one data source alone. The flexible nature of case study design allows the researcher to adapt the
research to probe both for answers to planned questions and to questions that emerge during the exploration.

On the other hand, the weaknesses of case studies include the fact that a study of a small number of cases may offer no grounds for establishing reliability and generalizability of findings. However, it may be argued that the goal of a case study is to optimise understanding of the case rather than to generalize beyond it (Stake, 2000). Indeed, Bryman claims that reliability is not the goal of case study researchers who do not claim representative studies and “do not delude themselves that it its possible to identify typical cases that can be used to represent a certain class of objects” (Bryman, 2004) Some critics question the objectivity of the research since a case study is usually an intense examination and the researcher can not stand aside as though their presence had no effect upon the situation (Pring, 2000). However, a case study incorporates a chain- of evidence, a path of recording evidence so that the reader can observe what steps were taken in the acquisition of data.

Stake (1995) identifies three types of case studies: intrinsic, instrumental and collective. In an intrinsic case study, the case is of interest, it is not necessarily representative but it is unique and it is this uniqueness that is interesting to the researcher. In an instrumental case study, the case can provide insight into an issue or problem or refine a theory and so allow better understanding of a specific research question. Thirdly, a collective case study involves a number of case studies so that the researcher can better understand a phenomenon.

This study is based on an instrumental case. I hope my study of part time faculty in IUC will provide insight into the more general issues as they
relate to part time faculty in adult education in Jamaica. Cases are selected in relation to their ability to provide opportunity to learn. It has been argued that we should choose the case from which we feel we can learn the most. This may mean taking the most accessible case or the one we can spend the most time with or the case that can provide a suitable context in which research questions can be answered (Stake, 1995, Bryman, 2004). I concur with the view that potential for learning is sometimes a superior criterion to representativeness and that it may sometimes be “better to learn a lot from an atypical case than a little from a seemingly typical case” (Stake, 2000).

**Data Gathering Methods**

The selection of respondents was limited to participants in part-time programmes. Over 80% of the programmes offered by IUC are part-time programmes with classes held in the evenings or on weekends. Data was gathered through documentation, interviews, focus groups and qualitative questionnaires. The table below (Table 4-1) shows how the data collected relates to the research questions on page 150.

**Table 4-1**

**Data Addressing the Six Research Questions (RQ)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>RQ1</th>
<th>RQ2</th>
<th>RQ3</th>
<th>RQ4</th>
<th>RQ5</th>
<th>RQ6</th>
<th>Data Collection Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Adult Ed Policy Makers</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>Interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrators</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Qualitative Questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part-time Teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Focus Groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Documentation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Interviews

I chose to use key informant, face-to-face/ telephone interviews. Two types of administrators were identified for interview.

(a) Administrators from umbrella organizations involved in contributing to policy development in the adult education sector:

*University Council of Jamaica (UCJ),
*Jamaica Council for Adult Education (JACAE),
*Jamaica Foundation for Lifelong Learning (JFLL),
*Ministry of Education Professional Development Unit.

These umbrella organizations were selected because of their significance in the adult education sector. The University Council of Jamaica is Jamaica’s quality assurance and accreditation agency for the post-secondary sector (see Context Chapter). UCJ’s establishment in Jamaica has facilitated an expansion of the tertiary education sector and the registration of many new institutions. IUC is one such institution. IUC’s governance and operational policies are regulated by UCJ. UCJ is included in the study since they bring to the discussion a broad view on practices in the sector and also can give guidance on how ideas to enhance the skills of teachers may impact or be impacted by boundaries set by itself (UCJ) as the regulator of standards. JACAE and JFLL are the two national organizations that have the mandate to support adult education in Jamaica. The Professional Development Unit of the Ministry of Education is the staff development unit of the Ministry of Education. However, I learnt that this body only monitors professional development in the primary and secondary sector. Officers in this department did not think they could offer anything to my research so no interviews were done with staff from this unit.

b) Administrators from the institution chosen for this study, specifically the individual(s) responsible for recruitment and professional development of
teachers. I interviewed the following persons from the International University of the Caribbean:

* Academic Dean
* Regional Dean
* Director of Human Resource Development
* Vice-President

I chose to speak with Administrators at the central headquarters of IUC and persons in Regional Centres. The Academic Deans and Regional Deans are directly responsible for recruitment, support and evaluation of teaching staff. The Regional Dean is located at one of IUC’s five regional centres. The Director of Human Resource Development and Vice-President were interviewed to gain perspective on policy directions.

Why Interviews?
Semi-structured qualitative interviews were chosen thereby providing scope to probe the views of a small number of respondents whose experience or knowledge is pertinent to the study. This type of interview is aimed at building understanding rather than collecting data to be quantified. A key informant interview is usually a loosely structured, interview with people who have specialized or expert knowledge about the topic or aspects of the research topic. This type of interview can be helpful in refining data collection as well as clarifying findings from other data collection methods. In this case, I will use key informant interviews to get specialist knowledge of issues that have been introduced by other respondents (by way of focus groups and questionnaires).

These interviews are by nature, flexible and questions and topics can be added or omitted during the interview. A challenge of writing questions for key informant interviews is allowing the respondent freedom to give
information from the perspective of their specialist knowledge while keeping the interview focused on my specific research needs. These interviews will be conducted face-to-face or by telephone. Respondents will receive an outline of the interview questions by email so that they will be prepared ahead of time.

Telephone interviews were appropriate since:

- visual contact is not necessarily a priority
- there are no visual aids, charts or diagrams
- all my potential respondents had access to a telephone
- it was very convenient both for the researcher and the respondents and facilitated cross-country contacts.

Frey (1983) defines a telephone conversation as an interactional sequence without the assistance of visual cues. A telephone interview allows the acquisition of data by interpersonal communication without a face-to-face meeting (Carr and Worth 2001, p. 512). Studies that compare telephone and face-to-face interviews conclude that the data produced is comparable in quality (Carr and Worth, 2001, Sturges and Hanrahan, 2004, Tausig and Freeman, 1988). In fact telephone interviews tend to have several notable advantages. Telephone interviews have the advantage of being convenient since they are often easier to arrange in regard to availability. They are also less time intensive than face-to-face interviews for both the researcher and the respondent. In cases in which time and resources are limited, this form of interview is logistically very feasible and usually less disruptive to the respondent. It allows access to hard to reach respondents who are distanced from the researcher by geographical or time limitations and is also both time and cost effective (Lavrakas, 1987).
A major advantage of telephone interviews is the increased likelihood that in a telephone conversation the researcher may be allowed the focused attention of the respondent for the 20 -25 minutes of the interview. The norm of telephone usage is that people feel compelled to answer a ringing phone and silence is rare in telephone conversations (Carr and Worth, 2001, p. 512). These factors work to the advantage of the interviewer who may experience fewer interruptions than in face-to-face interviews which can often be affected by walk-ins, background noise or activity and telephone calls!

The high response rate experienced by telephone interviewers is enhanced where face-to-face recruitment is done (Wilson et al., 1998), and any refusal to participate usually takes place in the initial contact phase (Barriball KL et al., 1996). As is the case with face-to-face interviews, there is opportunity in telephone interviews for the interviewer to correct obvious misunderstandings and to use verbal probes if necessary (Carr and Worth, 2001). Marcus and Crane (1986) claim that telephone interviews may possibly reduce interviewer effects which might result in bias since the researcher does not form an impression of the respondent that is based on visual clues. The primary disadvantages of telephone interviews have to do with the absence of personal interaction. This may lead to difficulty in achieving rapport, and may produce shorter responses. This type of interview tends to place limitations on length and complexity of interview. In addition, the timing of the interview must be carefully negotiated and specialist equipment is needed to record telephone interviews. Such an interview had to be preceded by written communication explaining the purpose of the interview and giving the respondent time to prepare ideas for the interview.
As with all data collection methods, the appropriateness of telephone interviews depends on the nature of the research question and the nature of the sample. I chose telephone interviews because my respondents were geographically difficult to access (in Jamaica) and were persons with demanding work schedules who expressed willingness to commit to a telephone appointment for a specified length of time.

According to Kvale (1996) interviews are conversations and in qualitative research they ‘attempt to understand the world from the subjects’ point of view, to unfold the meaning of people’s experiences, to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations.’ What is special about the conversations that occur in interviews is that they emphasise intellectual understanding (Kvale, 1996) and are a joint product of what both the interviewee and interviewer talk about as well as how they talk (Mishler, 1986b, Mishler, 1986a).

Qualitative interviews may be considered subjective since the researcher decides which quotes or specific examples to report. Indeed they may be experienced as intrusive by the participants and may be more reactive to personalities, moods and the interpersonal dynamics between interviewer and interviewee. Nevertheless, they allow the participant to describe what is meaningful to him or her using his or her own words. This is the task of the qualitative interviewer, to provide a framework that allows people to respond in a way that represents accurately and thoroughly their point of view (Patton, 1987). Therefore, qualitative interviews allow high credibility since the results often ‘ring true’ to the participants and make sense to the audience. On the part of the interviewer, there is the possibility to probe for details, check for accurate interpretation of questions and explore interesting ideas raised by participants.
Focus Groups

Part-time teachers from a rural centre and an urban centre of the institution were invited to participate in focus groups. Four focus groups were held in total. Two were held in a rural Regional Centre and two groups were held in the IUC’s central location in Jamaica’s capital city, Kingston.

Why a Focus Group?

‘A focus group is a carefully planned and moderated informal discussion where one person’s ideas bounce off another’s creating a chain reaction of informative dialogue’ (Anderson 1998, p. 200). Focus groups can mean less control for the researcher and data may be difficult to analyse (because respondents talk as a reaction to other group members’ contributions). Yet a focus group allows the researcher to benefit from the cross-fertilization of ideas that occurs when persons who are knowledgeable about a subject talk together for focus groups are not based on isolated responses but a web of response (Litosseliti, 2003). They also allow the researcher opportunities to check-in with stakeholders on the relevance and validity of the research. A focus group can be limited if the participants are not knowledgeable of the subject matter, or are inhibited by social or power dynamics (and so do not speak freely). In conducting this research, groups were structured with enough homogeneity for openness and comfort so part-time teachers who worked in the same Regional Centre were grouped together and no persons with official or administrative duties were included. However, groups included individuals with different years of experience and who taught different subjects. It was hoped that these differences would encourage the discussion of richer and more varied ideas. Participants were adequately briefed regarding the research subject so that they would be able to come to the group with some ideas prepared.
Focus groups allow an exciting opportunity to evidence the social constructionist philosophy that meaning is co-constructed in social interaction. I believe that having respondents explore the research issue in an environment of dialogue, discussion and cross-fertilization of ideas is a huge advantage. In focus groups, researchers are not detached observers but active participants in the co-construction of meaning. Through questions, probing and moderating the discussion, the researcher (who in this case is an admitted insider) also participates in the process.

**Qualitative Questionnaire**

Qualitative questionnaires were administered to students who were asked to complete a self-administered qualitative questionnaire. Questions were open-ended and allowed respondents to answer in their own words, facilitated unusual responses that I may not have considered (Bryman, 2004) and could be answered in any order that the respondent chose. Students were allowed to take the questionnaire home over a weekend and return it on the following Monday or Tuesday. I chose this method because of a number of characteristics; firstly, all the students were literate and accustomed to being asked to complete written questionnaires usually in the form of evaluation or assessment forms. Secondly, part-time students usually attend classes from 5:30 p.m. to 8:30 p.m. and do not often have much spare time on a lecture evening. Thirdly, because I was aware that respondents could choose to reply with an answer that was not honest (Schloss et al., 1999) since the questions referred to their view on quality teaching, I felt that students would be more comfortable commenting on their lecturers if they felt truly anonymous and if they could do so in the privacy of their homes.
The use of questionnaires also allowed me to have access to more individuals in multiple locations. As a lone researcher, accessing individuals in several locations would have been difficult to accomplish if I had to personally attend to each interview. This method had the advantages of being convenient for respondents, cheaper and quicker to administer and relatively free of interview effects (Bryman, 2004). I had concerns regarding interviewer effects because I had a history with the institution. Having been employed at the institution in a senior position, I had concerns that students in particular would perceive the research as an evaluation being conducted by the administration and would view me as the administrations’ agent.

The disadvantages I faced were classic to this method. I could not prompt or probe, could not add questions or re submit unanswered questions. I have no way of knowing whether the questions were indeed answered by the targeted respondent or if there was collaboration between respondents. Bryman (2004) cautions that the self-administered questionnaire often suffers from a low response rate. In this case response rate was above 85% which is considered ‘excellent’ (Mangione 1995, p. 60-1, in Bryman, 2004).

Interviews, focus groups and questionnaires were chosen to allow for the collection of data that reflected the words and feelings of the respondents. Interviews and focus groups were audio taped and questionnaire designed for open ended responses. Consideration of the types of methods to utilise in collecting data was influenced by my philosophical and epistemological stance as explained above. This stance also influenced the steps I took to make my research consistent and rigorous.
Research Consistency

The traditional way of looking at research consistency is by asking questions about its reliability and validity. Reliability and validity in research are highly regarded in quantitative research as judgements of rigour. Reliability relates to accuracy in terms of whether the research would yield the same findings if it were conducted in the same way by another researcher, in another time and/or with another sample. Validity seeks to determine whether the research describes, explains or measures what it said it would do. These evaluation tools are commonly used to assess the robustness of research. A researcher must therefore plan research that is able to stand up to tests for its rigour and robustness. In qualitative research there are several perspectives on how useful it is to judge the value of research by using the concepts of reliability and validity. On the one hand, some writers think that validity and reliability are concepts that can be assimilated into qualitative research with little or no change in meaning (Bryman 2004) or at least, can be useful if defined differently than in quantitative research (Patton, 2002). Patton’s position is that reliability and validity are enhanced by the use of rigorous techniques and methods for gathering, analyzing and documenting the data as well as focusing on the credibility of the researcher, the use of techniques such as triangulation and the establishment of an audit trail.

Another perspective is that these are relevant concepts in quantitative research but, since reliability and validity in their classic definitions concern measurement, this has no relevance in research that does not give significance to measurement (Stenbacka, 2001). Writers such as Guba and Lincoln (1985) argue that qualitative research should be judged according to different criteria than quantitative research. They use the concepts: credibility, neutrality or conformability, consistency or dependability and...
applicability or transferability as criteria for quality. It is this latter perspective that I have chosen to adopt.

Table 4-2

Comparison of Criteria for Judging the Quality of Quantitative versus Qualitative Research (Hoepfl, 1997)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conventional terms</th>
<th>Naturalistic terms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal validity</td>
<td>Credibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External validity</td>
<td>Transferability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>Dependability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectivity</td>
<td>Confirmability</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Credibility

Credibility parallels internal validity and is concerned about confidence in the ‘truth’ of the findings, in order to ensure credibility the researcher must ensure that the research is carried out according to canons of good practice. This can be done by triangulation, respondent validation and prolonged engagement in the field. Prolonged engagement may mean spending time in the field to develop rapport and trust, facilitate understanding and co-construction of meaning between researcher and respondents. In qualitative research, it is encouraged that research findings be shared with members of the social world for study and confirmation. The researcher must take care to faithfully document these procedures, indeed it is felt that the credibility of qualitative research depends on the ability and effort of the researcher (Patton, 2002, p. 600).
Triangulation

I have sought to support the credibility of my research by engaging in the field over a prolonged period and by use of triangulation. In relation to prolonged engagement, data collection was done over the period January 2008-June 2009. Two field visits totalling five weeks were made in January 2008 and September 2008 at which focus groups and interviews were conducted and questionnaire administered. Telephone interviews were conducted in the period January to June 2009.

Triangulation involves using multiple data sources in an investigation to produce understanding; these data sources are not ranked but equally valued (Foss and Ellefsen, 2002). Denzin (1978) and Patton (1999) identify four types of triangulation: triangulation of methods, sources, theory-perspective and finally, investigator triangulation. Triangulation of methods involves the use of different data collection methods so that consistency can be checked or comparisons noted. Triangulation of sources involves checking the consistency of different data sources. This might be done by comparing information collected by different pockets of the population or collected at different times. Theory triangulation involves using more than one theoretical perspective to interpret the data. So the data is examined from different positions. Finally, Investigator Triangulation involves using more than one researcher or multiple evaluators to collect or review the findings.

Although I have asserted that I believe in the value of the individual perspective of my respondents, I appreciate that one set of individuals may not represent the complete story. Patton (1999) asserts that objectivity may be evidenced in multiple observers agreeing to a phenomenon as against a single perspective which could be considered to represent
subjectivity. This research therefore seeks to address both triangulation of methods and triangulations of sources by using four different data collection methods and including representatives from the student population, the faculty and from persons at the administration and policy level (see Table 4-3). Discussions with my supervisors also allowed some investigator triangulation as we reviewed the data together.

Transferability
Transferability parallels external validity. Transferability is concerned about findings having applicability in other contexts and/or at another time. Qualitative findings tend to be oriented to the contextual uniqueness of the phenomenon being studied. In many ways, this is a strength of qualitative enquiry and in my case certainly one of the reasons I chose this method of research. I wanted to firmly ground my study in the Jamaican context. I also included in my sample, teachers who taught in more than one tertiary level institution so that I could accommodate a range of experiences. Guba and Lincoln (1985) and Geertz (1973) encourage ‘thick description’ since that allows for the evaluation of the extent to which conclusions are transferable to other times, settings, situations and people. Thick description refers to accounts that give significant detail on cultural and social relationships in context. I used a reflective journal during my field work. The notes I took were helpful to me when I wrote up my analysis.

Dependability
Dependability parallels reliability. It is focused on showing that findings are consistent and could be repeated. According to Guba and Lincoln (1985), the important criterion here is the trustworthiness of the researcher. Their proposal is that the researcher adopt an ‘auditing approach’ by keeping complete records of all phases of the research process and using peers as
auditors during the course of the research to establish how far proper procedures have been followed. The research process was documented and frequent discussions with peers and supervisors provided an auditing function. In addition, at a student conference, I made a presentation on qualitative research fieldwork. I found that process very helpful as peers asked questions about my fieldwork process and engaged me in discussion regarding the decisions and actions I participated in while collecting my data.

**Conformability**

Conformability parallels objectivity. Conformability is related to neutrality, the extent to which findings are shaped by the respondents and not affected by research bias or interest. Guba and Lincoln (1985) claim this can be done by ensuring that the researcher can be shown to have acted in good faith. It should be apparent that he/she has not overtly allowed personal values or theoretical inclinations to sway the conduct of the research and the findings derived from it. In acknowledgement of this concern, I have taken a reflexive approach to my research. Reflexivity connotes that ‘social researchers should reflect on the implications of their methods, values, biases and decisions for the knowledge of the social world they generate’ (Bryman 2004, p.500). This requires attention at every step of the research process, not simply at the reporting stage since the researcher’s own philosophy and perspectives affect every research decision, what is investigated, what methods are used, how the findings are considered.

The view that researcher bias is unacceptable has now been challenged by an acceptance that the researcher inevitably comes with preconceptions that may only be considered biases if they are not mentioned (Malterud,
Indeed, the point is not so much whether the researcher affects the research with subjectivity but how that potential effect is accounted for. Malterud uses Haraway’s redefinition of objectivity as, ‘to recognise that knowledge is partial and situated, and to account adequately for the effects of the positioned researcher’ (Haraway, 1991 in Malterud 2001, p.484). Subjectivity arises when the effect of the researcher is ignored and bias or skewedness may never be eliminated from the research but must be accounted for.

I acknowledge that I came to this project with some subjectivity. I had some knowledge and presumptions of the context and environment. Some of these views from my own observation were that

- In Jamaica, the post-secondary education sector is generally referred to in generic terms as the tertiary sector. Policy discussions on this sector includes in this category: adult, further, vocational and higher education.
- The tertiary sector in Jamaica has been growing at an unprecedented rate.
- Adult students in the tertiary level have been exercising more choice and making more demands on tertiary education providers to be relevant and flexible.
- Part-time teachers have become a significant resource in a growing and fluid education market. Many move from institution to institution so many teachers had a range of experience and were in a position to comment on their role from that perspective
- There had not been any research in the Jamaican context from the perspective of end users (practitioners and students) on quality teaching.
Further, I have acknowledged that being a former employee of the academic institution considered, presented the potential for bias. My particular concern was that respondents were not affected in their response because of their familiarity with me as an individual or because of knowledge they had of my earlier connections with the institution. Nor did I want to be perceived as an agent of the administration. This affected my choice of a self-administered qualitative questionnaire for students and focus groups for teachers. I felt students would be more comfortable being anonymous and that teachers may prefer making comments as part of a group instead of in one-on-one interviews. In addition, I took care not to impose on decisions such as the sample selected. All teachers and students available at the particular centre during the data gathering period were invited to participate. Some persons were naturally excluded because of their unavailability for the meeting times (in case of focus groups), others chose not to participate.

In as much as these discussions of data gathering choice and boundaries are important, they are only significant as devices to use in harvesting response from key persons in the context. I will now describe the task of selecting respondents for the study and explain why I think those selected have a contribution to make to this study.

**Respondents**

Selecting student and teacher respondents for a study on how teaching is perceived could be a challenging endeavour if both groups feel they would be judged by each other. I therefore decided to keep the groups separate and to communicate as often as I could that this activity was not an evaluation activity by IUC. Below, I detail the process of choosing a sample and introduce respondents of the study.
**Sampling**

Sampling is the process of systematically selecting that which will be examined during the course of a study. Although sampling procedures in qualitative research are not as rigidly prescribed as in quantitative research (Coyne, 1997), the decision on the type of sampling method to employ is still an important one. This decision is shaped by the time the researcher has available, by the researcher’s framework, by the starting and developing interest and by any restrictions placed upon the researcher’s observations by the respondents (Schatzman and Strauss, 1973). In other words, the researcher selects people according to the aims and constraints of the research. As Hycner (1999) puts it, ‘the phenomenon dictates the method’ (not vice-versa).

**Purposive Sampling**

I chose to use purposive sampling in this research project. This type of sampling involves identifying a population of interest and selecting cases that meet some predetermined criterion of importance. Patton (1990) calls these ‘information-rich cases’. ‘Information rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research,’ (Patton, 1990, p. 169). Welman and Kruger (1999) label purposive sampling the most important kind of non-probability sampling. The sample is selected based on the researcher’s judgement and the purpose of the research (Babbie, 1995, Greig and Taylor, 1999, Schwandt, 1999). The researcher intentionally looks for those who ‘have had experiences relating to the phenomenon to be researched’ (Kruger, 1988). This kind of sampling does not aim to be representative but focuses on increasing credibility.
Patton identifies sixteen types of purposive sampling, they are listed below:

**Box 4-1 Types of Purposive Sampling**

- **Extreme or Deviant Case** - Learning from highly unusual manifestations of the phenomenon of interest, such as outstanding success/notable failures, top of the class/dropouts, exotic events, crises.
- **Intensity** - Information-rich cases that manifest the phenomenon intensely, but not extremely, such as good students/poor students, above average/below average.
- **Maximum Variation** - Purposefully picking a wide range of variation on dimensions of interest...documents unique or diverse variations that have emerged in adapting to different conditions. Identifies important common patterns that cut across variations.
- **Homogeneous** - Focuses, reduces variation, simplifies analysis, facilitates group interviewing.
- **Typical Case** - Illustrates or highlights what is typical, normal, average.
- **Stratified Purposive** - Illustrates characteristics of particular subgroups of interest; facilitates comparisons.
- **Critical Case** - Permits logical generalization and maximum application of information to other cases because if it's true of this once case it's likely to be true of all other cases.
- **Snowball or Chain** - Identifies cases of interest from people who know people who know people who know what cases are information-rich, that is, good examples for study, good interview subjects.
- **Criterion** - Picking all cases that meet some criterion, such as all children abused in a treatment facility. Quality assurance.
- **Theory-Based or Operational Construct** - Finding manifestations of a theoretical construct of interest so as to elaborate and examine the construct.
- **Confirming or Disconfirming** - Elaborating and deepening initial analysis, seeking exceptions, testing variation.
- **Opportunistic** - Following new leads during fieldwork, taking advantage of the unexpected, flexibility.
- **Random Purposive** - (still small sample size) Adds credibility to sample when potential purposive sample is larger than one can handle. Reduces judgment within a purposeful category. (Not for generalizations or representativeness.)
- **Politically Important Cases** - Attracts attention to the study (or avoids attracting undesired attention by purposefully eliminating from the sample politically sensitive cases).
- **Convenience** - Saves time, money, and effort. Poorest rational; lowest credibility. Yields information-poor cases.
- **Combination or Mixed Purposive** - Triangulation, flexibility, meets multiple interests and needs. (Patton, 1990)

In this study, combination or mixed purposive sampling was used. Stratified purposive sampling followed by homogenous and criterion sampling was used to identify the various research groups. The figure below, (Figure 4-2) depicts this process.
Respondents were adult students, adult educators and administrators from the International University of the Caribbean (IUC) as well as individuals in policy positions within the adult education sector. This type of sampling is a kind of selective sampling which has practical advantages and indeed may be considered a practical necessity (Schutzman and Strauss, 1973).

At IUC, both student and teacher respondents were given the option to participate in the study. I included those who had an interest in the subject matter and thought they had something to contribute (Table 4-3). I tried to include persons with a range of experiences, for instance: from rural and urban communities and those new to adult education as well as those who had several years of experience.

Table 4-3
Breakdown of Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Part-time Lecturers</th>
<th>Administrators</th>
<th>Key Informants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regional Centre (Rural) 20</td>
<td>Regional Centre (Rural) 8</td>
<td>Regional Centre (Rural) 1</td>
<td>*JFLL- 1 JACAE- 2 UCJ- 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Central Office (Urban) 34</td>
<td>Central Office (Urban) 3</td>
<td>Central Office (Urban) 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* JFLL- Jamaica Foundation for Lifelong Learning.
  JACAE-Jamaican Council for Adult Education.
  UCJ- University Council of Jamaica.

When enough information is known to identify characteristics that may influence how the phenomenon is manifest, then it may make sense to use a stratified purposive sampling that allows the researcher to interview respondents with the characteristics being targeted. These interviews were key informant interviews. I chose to interview respondents who had knowledge of how adult education had developed in Jamaica and what efforts have been made to equip educators who work with this sector.

Key informant interviews facilitate the collection of detailed and rich data in a relatively easy and inexpensive way, they allow the interviewer to establish rapport with the respondent, clarify questions and even raise interest, and enthusiasm around an issue. There are challenges in key informant interviews such as the difficulty in selecting the most appropriate respondent who will have information that is relevant to the study. It is also difficult to generalise results to the larger population.

Sample Demographics
Interviews and self administered questionnaires were used to elicit responses from students and teachers. Fifty-four students and eleven teachers in two centres participated. In this section the sample characteristics will be detailed.

**Profile of Students**

Students of IUC are generally adults who have already completed secondary education and are in full-time employment. The University aims to provide programmes primarily for students who study part-time. The programmes offered at the time of the institution’s inception targeted individuals who were employed in theology, education and community development who sought flexible degree level education. Students in this sample fit the profile of the average IUC student in that they are mature learners with full-time day jobs. Classes are held on weekday evenings and weekends. Many of IUC’s students already work in the area of the discipline they study and hope to use tertiary level qualifications to advance their career prospects.

Questionnaires were completed by 54 students inclusive of 10 males and 44 females. The sample included 16 respondents under the age of twenty-five years, 19 in the age group twenty-five to thirty-five years, 14 in the thirty-five to forty-five year category and 5 who were over forty-five years. The majority of students (30) were registered in undergraduate degree programmes, (11) in diploma programmes and (6) in postgraduate degree programmes. Only three students in the sample reported to have had no other post-secondary education but the programme they were currently pursuing. A similarly small number (4) reported to have done secondary level qualifications (GCE O or A level) after leaving formal secondary education. The majority (41 students) had completed up to a tertiary level
certificate or diploma and 6 had completed a tertiary level degree. The chart below depicts the composition of the student sample.

**Figure 4-3**

Demographics of Student Sample

Although sample selection was not stratified according to gender, there was a predominance of female students in the sample. This broadly reflects national statistics. In Jamaica, aggregate female enrolment in tertiary education surpasses male enrolment (In 2000-2001 male/female enrolment in tertiary education stood at 32.6%/67.4\%). The most

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represented age group in this sample is the 25-35 year old group and the majority of students (79%) are currently enrolled in undergraduate programmes towards the completion of a Bachelor’s degree in human and social sciences. Other students, (21%) are involved in programmes offered by IUC at the Diploma level or graduate programmes toward the completion of Master’s degrees. The university’s niche in the education sector is catering to adult students who want to upgrade their qualification in order to enhance their employment and career choices. Indeed students are encouraged to start with the qualifications they do have and to steadily articulate to more advanced programmes. Students enrolled in diploma level courses therefore are likely to remain with the institution to work towards degree level qualifications.

The majority of the sample, 94.5%, has been exposed to some post-secondary education of which over 90% (50/54) of the sample was exposed to tertiary level education. These students then have some experience of formal education as adults. Perhaps their views have been shaped by their own experiences of education, first as children then as adults. At any rate, this small sample can contribute to our discussion since they are all currently adult learners and many have had the experience of being adult students in at least one other institution as well as in this one.

**Profile of Teachers**

Eleven teachers participated in focus groups. Of that number five teachers participated in a further interview. The sample of teachers had a similarity with the student sample in that females outnumber males. In this sample, two male teachers were interviewed and nine female teachers. Although this sample was not intentionally stratified for gender, the dominance of female participants reflects the dominance of female teachers in tertiary
education in Jamaica; the 2008 Global Gender Gap Report (Hausmann et al., 2008) records that 60% of teachers in tertiary education in Jamaica were female. Most members of the sample have been teachers’ college educated and held qualifications beyond the bachelor’s level. Figure 4-4 gives a graphic display of the teacher sample in relation to gender, age of respondents, educational qualifications (Qual), number of years of experience in adult education and number of respondents who were Teacher College (TC) trained.

**Figure 4-4**
**Demographics of Teacher Sample**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Qual.</th>
<th>Years in ed</th>
<th>TC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>under 25 years</td>
<td>25-35 years</td>
<td>35-45 years</td>
<td>over 45 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>Bachelors</td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Profile of Key Informants**

I interviewed two sets of key informants, administrators in IUC and individuals whose work contribute to policy that impact adult education. IUC administrators were officers of the organization whose work roles involved the recruitment and/or monitoring of part time faculty. I spoke
with a Vice President, an Academic Dean, a Regional Dean, the Director of Human Resource Development and the Senior Director of Human Resources and Corporate Affairs.

Policy representatives from the Jamaica Council for Adult Education, Ms. McClenan and Miss Una Kettle were interviewed as well as Miss S Prince, Director of Technical Service, Jamaica Foundation for Lifelong Learning and Ms G. Gordon, chief accreditation officer of the University Council of Jamaica.

Research Process

The research process was quite an inductive, iterative process, starting with casual observation and moving back and forth from theory, literature and respondent views. Although constructs in the literature did influence how questions were worded and analysed, every effort was made to appreciate the inductive nature of the process. The chart overleaf (Figure 4-5) depicts my research process.

Figure 4-5
Model of My Research Process

1. My experiences and observations of adjunct faculty in adult education
2. Initial synthesis of the literature
3. Initial research questions/propositions
In the discussion that follows, data collection and data reduction will be addressed. Data Collection started with the conducting of a pilot study and
ended in field work. I will also include comments on my concerns regarding ethics in this section.

Data reduction is explained by Miles and Huberman (1994) as ‘the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting and transforming the data’ (p. 10). Data reduction is often considered to be part of the analysis process; I have included it here in order to detail the technical strategies I employed to make the data manageable.

**Data Collection**

Data collection took place in two of the five regional centres of the International University of the Caribbean (IUC) located in Montego Bay and Kingston, Jamaica. Montego Bay is a rural city located in the north-western end of the country and Kingston is the capital city, a densely populated urban centre located in the south-eastern section of the country.

**Pilot**

A small pilot was conducted before fieldwork in the research context began. The pilot tested both the focus group and interview instruments. One focus group was held with a group of adult education students and two qualitative interviews were done with members of university faculty at the University of Nottingham’s School of Adult and Continuing Education. The account of the pilot study is detailed here.

1. Focus Group Pilot
Seven adult learners participated in the focus group. The group met in a classroom after an afternoon class. All participants were experienced in programmes run for adults having each completed at least three adult education courses.

The questions asked are represented in Box 4-2.

**Box 4-2 Questions for Pilot Focus Group**

1. As an adult, do you think your education needs are different now than when you were a child?

2. Do you think teachers understand these needs?

3. Recall your best memory of a good learning experience. How would you describe it?

4. Are the traits of an effective teacher transferable? If so, how can this be done?

5. Is there a difference in teaching quality between part time and full time teachers?

6. How do you think the skills of teachers of adults could be improved? (Initiative of the institution, initiative of the teacher herself)

7. If we were developing a programme of professional development for teachers, what would you want to be included?

2. Interview Pilot

Two adult educators participated in semi-structured interviews. The questions below were prepared as core questions for the interview.
Box 4-3  Questions for Pilot Interviews

1. How long have you been a teacher?
   - 0-5 years
   - 5-10 years
   - 10 years and over

2. How long have you taught adults?
   - 0-5 years
   - 5-10 years
   - 10 years and over

3. How would you define “adult education”?

4. Is there anything peculiar about adult education as against education for children?

5. In your experience, how is your way of being teacher different when teaching adults as against when teaching children?

6. What are the characteristics of effective teaching in adult education?

7. Are they the same as or different from effective teaching of children?

8. What are some of the peculiar challenges involved in teaching adults?

9. What kinds of pre-service and in-service training have you received in teaching adults specifically.

10. Did your pre-service training prepare you to teach this population?

11. How was that training supplemented?

12. How helpful is formal in service training for adult educators?

13. From Your experience, how would you rate adult education in the UK today in terms of?
   - Competence of Teachers
   - Effectiveness of delivery
   - Relevance of Content
   - Cost effectiveness
   - very good quality
   - reasonable quality
   - poor quality

14. In what ways could training be improved to better prepare teachers of adults? I suppose they could consult teachers more about what they need, where they are finding difficulty.

15. What are the important skills that a teacher of adults must possess/develop in order to be effective?

16. What professional skills have you developed over the years that have helped you to be an effective teacher of adults?

17. How do you think new teachers of adults can be helped to develop professional skills during their teaching career?

18. What should characterize an effective adult education curriculum?

19. How might the curriculum you now use be improved?

20. How do you know when you have taught effectively, what are the indicators?
Respondents were eager to share their views and indicated that they enjoyed the process. Some of the themes that surfaced from the discussion are listed below.

PRELIMINARY THEMES FROM PILOT

Adult Learners

- want to learn more about something they are interested in
- do not want to be patronised and treated as children
- want to be treated as equals, not talked down to
- want the opportunity to discuss, don’t want to be talked at, want to participate
- consider it important to have the ability to choose what courses they should do
- will chose courses that capture their interest
- distinction between those who learn for pleasure and those who have a goal of certification
- adult learners bring their life experience to their learning and are more willing to theorise and respond to questions
- more demanding
- not afraid to be critical
- not shy to ask questions
- more focused
- more committed
- more distracted
- cost them more (money, time, sacrifice)
- want to be asked for their input
- more ownership of process
Teaching Adults

- Adult learners are more demanding, they know what they want and are not afraid to be critical of lecturers.
- Adult educators must meet the requirements of the course but also give students room to interact and to question.
- Adult educators must develop a dynamic group environment in the classroom so that the whole group participates in the teaching and learning.
- Pre-service training not helpful for adult educators. Adult educators learn skills by experience, practice.
- Characteristics of effective adult educators:
  - Adaptable
  - Good listener
  - Good observer
  - Enthusiastic
  - Able to handle distractions
  - Know how to build Rapport
  - Maintain positive Attitude
  - Willing to take a Counselling role
  - Have Skills and Competence in Discipline
  - Flexibility (ability to allow discussion yet stick to syllabus)
  - Competent in subject knowledge
  - Confident
  - Thoroughly prepared
- Effective teaching is more than transferring a body of knowledge from one group of people to another, it is about helping students learn skills that they take on board and later apply.
Skills that are useful for adult educators that can be addressed in CPD include:

- understanding the differences between teaching adults and children
- technical skills
- observation of more experienced teachers
- mentorship
- presentation skills
- First aid training
- mental health issues
- Peer evaluations for teachers

These themes are later reflected in those identified from the primary data. Although the purpose of the pilot was to test the instruments and not to generate data, the similarities in the themes were recognized when the primary data was analysed. Encountering these themes in the pilot also aided my analysis as I prepared myself for the fieldwork by consulting again the literature on adult learning and CPD against the background of the themes generated in the pilot.

IMPLICATIONS OF PILOT ON METHODS AND PRIMARY DATA COLLECTION

The pilot gave useful insight on the appropriateness of both content and structure of the various research instruments. In particular, it allowed for:

- Checking the clarity of questions
- Identifying redundant or misleading questions
- Identifying where additional question should be inserted
- Checking recording equipment and logistics for use of recorder
- Obtaining a sense of timing for interviews and focus groups.
I found the conducting of the pilot interviews and focus group to also be helpful in terms of making adjustments to my research practice. For example I observed the following and made adjustments accordingly:

- I decided it was helpful to explain the purpose of the focus group again at the start of the interview (although the purpose was identified in the initial communication) to ensure that participants were comfortable with the terms and to allow opportunity for questions.

- I had asked the participants to say something about their background on tape but decided to prepare a short questionnaire to gather demographic data.

- I saw the value of checking sound levels for the audio equipment to ensure that each participant was audible and clear. Also, asking participants to say their names on tape helped me to identify and isolate different voices when it was time to transcribe the data.

- I decided that I would repeat, for the recording, comments that may be inaudible because of muffled speech, laughter or overlap of speech.

- I added prompts to my selected questions to be used if the responses I received were not sufficiently thorough.

- Regarding my role as researcher, I noted the need to control my tendency to give anecdotal explanations and to resist the tendency for the focus group to function like a group counselling session.
• I decided that I would include more questions focused on individual experiences rather than ideological positions since participants seemed to answer experience questions more freely.

On the other hand, I confirmed decisions I had made regarding the choice of methods in particular the merits of using focus groups and interviews for the two subsets of the sample population (teachers and administrators).

Fieldwork

Working in a field context in another country posed many challenges, some of which were discussed in the previous chapter. The major challenge was that I could not return to the research context as often as I would have liked and so my access was restricted. Two visits were made to Jamaica between the January 2008 and October 2008. Five weeks in total were spent in the field, partly in a rural location (three weeks) and partly in an urban location (two weeks). In addition, I used email and the telephone to make arrangements for data collection and to conduct telephone interviews.

I had anticipated that access to the context would be trouble free. Having worked in the tertiary education sector in Jamaica, I knew some key individuals. I also knew that there was a great willingness and interest in supporting research in the sector. Indeed, I did not experience resistance when making arrangements for data collection. Persons with whom I spoke were responsive and expressed interest and willingness to be of assistance. I found it easy to get official permission to conduct interviews and focus groups. Nevertheless, when I got to Jamaica, I found that it was more challenging to actually execute plans than it was to get stakeholders to agree to them. I experienced difficulty in arranging actual meetings with
potential respondents. I experienced several ‘no-shows’ and many apologies with requests for rescheduling. This created particular limitations since I was only able to be in Jamaica for three weeks at a time.

Despite having lived and worked in the Jamaican context, I had underestimated the impact of what I will call the “soon come” Jamaican culture. “Soon Come” is a phrase which could literally mean, “I will be with you shortly (soon)” or, more likely, it is a phrase that is used to appease the one who waits and really means “Relax until I get there.” In Jamaican culture, there is a sense that delays are normal and not only should they be expected and tolerated, they should be anticipated. Anticipating delay might mean being late yourself so that time is not lost waiting. Or it could mean expecting that circumstances may change so waiting for confirmation before final arrangements are made. In terms of my research plans, although I had contacted and received the approval of all the relevant persons before my arrival and we had discussed what arrangements would be made in terms of persons and groups of people who would be organised to meet me, many of these plans were not put in effect before I arrived.

The general response I got when I arrived was “Now that you are here, we’ll arrange it.” I spent many days on the phone trying to pin down details with centre managers to whom the task had been delegated by someone in leadership and several hours sitting in waiting rooms to be able to speak to someone who had the influence to stimulate action. In every case the persons I spoke with were polite and affable, were aware of the research, had received the documentation, were willing to be of help but had actually done very little if any of the action we had agreed on such as inviting potential respondents to participate or scheduling actual meeting times for groups or interviews. It was necessary then to spend a lot of valuable time
chasing these details. I mention this not as a critique of Jamaican culture but as an admission of my own shortcoming in forgetting the reality of doing business in this context.

Consequently, I had to make a significant change in my research design. I had planned to interview staff and students from two institutions. In the case of one of the institutions, although approval was granted for the interview and members of the leadership team were all informed and expressed support, I learnt only when I arrived in the context that it was not possible to implement my plans. The institution had an abnormal break in classes, because examinations from the previous semester had been delayed, and students and faculty had been sent on holidays and would only return to school after I was scheduled to leave the country. In addition, the individual who had been put in charge of arrangements for my interviews was out of office on indefinite sick leave and new arrangements could not be made until staff returned from vacation. I therefore decided to exclude this institution. In order to compensate for this change, I decided to increase the number of participants from the other institution in my plan by adding a rural centre to the urban centre that had been arranged.

Data collection consisted of the administration of questionnaires and the conduct of interviews and focus groups. I was able to administer the qualitative questionnaire with help from associates who were resident in the context. All focus groups and Interviews where held on one of the campuses of the International University of the Caribbean (IUC) before or between classes. Participants were generally eager and willing to participate. They expressed understanding of the research aims, found the documentation provided clear and considered the discussions relevant to
themselves. The institution gave support in providing a meeting place and in making contact with participants. I appreciated the offer of help since participants were made aware that the interview or focus group had the approval of the administration and our meeting places were all comfortable and conveniently located. In one instance though, regrettably, some potential participants received erroneous information about date and time of focus group meetings and so were not included.

Two unexpected events affected the functioning of the planned focus groups. On one occasion about thirty minutes after the start of the discussion we experienced an island wide power-cut (electricity outage). With the help of candles, and a battery operated recorder, the discussion continued. Participants were restless however, as some individuals lived in rural areas and had to travel outside of the city. When it became clear that the problem with the electricity was country wide and not expected to be addressed for several hours, I asked whether participants would be willing to continue the discussion another time. There was no mutually convenient time and I was told to continue “but hurry”. At another session in a different location, a huge afternoon shower of rain led to significant traffic delay. The majority of potential focus group participants that day had offered to attend the focus group scheduled one and a half hours before class time, because of their full-time commitment elsewhere; this was their only available time. The traffic delay that resulted from rain caused them to be late and many arrived just in time to begin their classes.

This experience taught me lessons about preparing for the unpredictability of qualitative field work. Some of these are:

- Take account of the culture of the context.
The Jamaican context is very laid back and flexible, this is often considered a positive characteristic. On the other hand, this may mean that many details are not considered final until they are imminent (since things change every day and arrangements may change). I should have taken account of this and planned more time to confirm details myself and follow up contacts myself. This laid back culture was evident in the arrangements I had made with leaders in the relevant organizations to make contact with potential respondents. It was also evident in the response of some respondents. For example when it rained heavily on the day that a focus group was scheduled many persons called to cancel but one teacher turned up an hour and a half after the scheduled time and said he thought we would just be starting late because of the rain. I realise that the onus was on me to be more flexible, not on my respondents to change their way of operating.

- Expect that even in a friendly context, I am an outsider.

As an outsider for example, I am not necessarily entitled to information on schedule changes. I found out information about changes that affected the availability of potential participants often only by chance. Not because this information was hidden from me but because although I was being facilitated, I was not in the communication-loop. This meant much time was spent waiting to reschedule appointments. I found it was more useful to spend all day in the institution than to expect to arrive only for appointments. In the same way, commitment to attend my focus groups given in good faith could be easily eclipsed by a last minute departmental meeting or the need to meet a project deadline. In some cases respondents did not see me as an outsider and did not inform me themselves of the changes. They expressed the view that “I thought IUC told you we had a change in the schedule.” Again this highlighted the need
to be flexible and allow enough time to recover from disruptions. It also highlighted the usefulness of having a contact inside the organization and checking with that contact regularly about changes.

- Expect that everything will take more time than planned. Every interview, focus group, telephone call and conversation took more time than I had anticipated. Waiting for persons to be available and accommodating small talk and interruptions was part of each day’s experience. I simply began to expect it and spent as much time as I could in the institution.

- Take all necessary tools, equipment and resources. Even if it is possible to obtain resources in the context, where possible the researcher should take in all necessary resources or make arrangements well ahead of time. This includes copies of consent forms (as against hoping to copy in the field), extra batteries for recorders, pens, paper and electronic storage devices. I had anticipated this and was well prepared with all the resources I needed. I could not have anticipated an island-wide ‘power-cut’ and am grateful to a member of IUC staff who found candles that I could use.

- Identify and build good relationship with gatekeepers. In the field, I think ‘gatekeepers’ were more important than the ‘officials’ with whom early arrangements were made. This may be clerical staff to whom the details of the research arrangements have been delegated and who may be the only staff persons available when help is needed. I found security guards and ancillary workers also very helpful in making rooms available and directing participants to the appropriate meeting places. Since my focus groups were held after office hours, regular full-time staff
was often unavailable to give any help. I also found it useful to introduce myself to the telephone operator on arrival, I told her my schedule and advised her every time I was out of the building or off the compound. I would have missed many important messages had it not been for her help.

- Be flexible.
It is often suggested that this is a necessary trait of the successful qualitative researcher. I think it can not be understated. Every day of my fieldwork I made some adjustments, however minor. In order to do this, I had to constantly remind myself of my research aims in order to ensure that any adjustment I made did not create inconsistencies. Particularly in qualitative research, the researcher must be flexible and prepared for the possibility of circumstances changing. A prepared researcher will be armed with contingency plans yet will also be open to finding new opportunities in the context (Holliday, 2002).

**Ethics**

One of the preparation steps for conducting fieldwork was ensuring that the study was ethically sound. This study followed the guidelines of the British Education Research Association (BERA). The 2004 BERA guidelines identify eight ethical issues that must be addressed by researchers in relation to their research subjects. These issues are:

1. Voluntary informed consent.
   Prior to their involvement in the research, respondents must understand the nature of the research and the nature of their involvement. They must freely agree to participate.

2. Deception.
   There should be no use of deception or subterfuge to collect data.

3. Right to Withdraw.
Respondents should be advised that they are able to withdraw from the study for any or no reason at any time.

4. Children and vulnerable adults must be specially protected.

5. Incentives.
Incentives if used must be appropriate and must not be used in a way to coerce participation.

6. Detriment to participants.
The research should make known any predictable detriment to participants.

7. Privacy.
The researcher should respect the participant’s right to privacy and guarantee confidential anonymous treatment of the participant’s data.

The researcher may have a duty to disclose illegal or harmful behaviour. This must be made clear to the respondent (BERA, 2004).

Respondents were fully informed of the purpose of the study, what they would be required to do and how the data would be used. They were advised that the data gathered would be treated confidentiality, that their participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw, without penalty, at any time. This information was given in writing ahead of the focus group or interview. When we met I again explained the purpose of the research, the nature of their participation and their right to withdraw. I invited questions and gave clarification where required. I assured respondents that the study was not commissioned by IUC and that details of individual comments would not be shared with IUC. All respondents gave consent in writing. No children or vulnerable adults were included in this study. At the
end of the interview or focus group, participants were given small tokens (note books, diaries, address books, pens) in appreciation for their participation. Before fieldwork commenced, the approval of the ethical coordinator of the University of Nottingham’s School of Education was sought and received.

Halasa (1998) cites Cornett and Chase (1990) who make the point that more important than canons of ethics or ethics checklists is a relationship of trust between the researcher and the researched in which the researcher treats the participant with respect and the participant finds the researcher approachable (Halasa, 1998). As a researcher, I took this very seriously and ensured that I fully disclosed my intentions, gave respondents the opportunity for questions or clarification and respected any requests they had regarding handling the data shared.

**Data Reduction**

The process of organizing qualitative data can be onerous (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, Miles and Huberman, 1994), since the data is unstructured and largely inconsistent. The method of analysis chosen for this study was a data-driven inductive thematic analysis (Boyatzis, 1998, Aronson, 1994). Thematic analysis is a search for themes that emerge as being important to the description of the phenomenon (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2008, 2006). In this case, themes were induced from the raw data.

Encoding the information organizes the data to identify and develop themes from them. Boyatzis (1998) defined a theme as ‘a pattern in the information that at minimum describes and organises the possible observations and at maximum interprets aspects of the phenomenon’ (p. 161). The process involved the identification of themes through ‘careful reading and re-reading of the data’ (Rice and Ezzy, 1999), recognising
patterns within the data and using emerging themes as the categories for analysis.

After many hours of transcription, the data was grouped in categories and assigned codes. Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 56) define codes as ‘tags or labels for assigning units of meaning to the descriptive or inferential information compiled during a study’.

Codes were created in three stages. At first, data was grouped according to common themes as they emerged, then these common ideas were assigned preliminary labels (or tentative codes). As more data was added codes were combined, disaggregated, eliminated or added. Thirdly, as patterns became evident, some data was re-coded (Figure 4-6). In some instances it was possible to re-code using terms found in the literature. As an example, below I will detail the coding process for one of the questions asked of students. Box 4-2 shows some of the responses to one question asked to students and Figure 4-6 depicts the coding process.
Box 4-4
Example of Students’ Responses to Question 1

Question:
Can you recall your best memory of a good learning experience? How would you describe it?

Answers from Students:
- Group presentation – they are informative and interesting to see how ideas can be correlated in a practical fun way to enhance learning.
- Satisfying and informative.
- Learning from peers
- Studying the Bible, interesting, enhanced my confidence
- Interactive and not teacher centred
- Hands on experience
- Learning from peers
- Informative
- Interesting
- When I was in grade 9, I struggled with maths, my family life teacher saw it and decided to help me, when I started to get the full understanding of math I started to love it.
- Passed 4 out of 5 subjects due to the encouragement and dedication of my instructor.
- A teacher who evaluated each class that was taught
- Lecturer went over a concept just to help me understand
- Use of audio visual aids
- Interesting learning experience
- Class started with presentation from a resource person, then group discussion then putting theory in practice.
- My teacher was my uncle and he paid me to become the smartest in the class
- In chemistry class, my teacher took her time to explain things thoroughly even though others were more advanced than me. She also invited me to attend her other class which I wasn’t really scheduled to be in.
- Learning a practical skill
- Scientific approach (experiments)
- Spontaneous, Excellent and empowering
- Interactive
- Not teacher centred
- Engaging
- Hands on experience
- Learn from others
- Teacher provided information in simple terms
- Teacher had attention of all the students, it was captivating
- Hands on, group activity
- Applying practical to theory
- Group work guided by the lecturer
- Audio visuals to enhance the learning experience
- High level of participation
- Final day of teaching practice when the externals visited, it was great
- I was part of a drumming ensemble, it was exciting, the tutor was full of enthusiasm!
- My grades 2 and 3 teachers made my life worthwhile. They tried their best to make sure I was taken care of
- Very visual aids. I still remember
- Given a task and left to figure it out on my own
- Group interaction
- Group presentation
- Ring games in primary school
- Second form experience, teacher’s techniques
- No/None
Responses to questionnaires were coded before interview responses because they were the most structured. Interviews were then coded and the Interview data added to the questionnaire data. Many respondents used similar words and phrases to respond to questions and describe phenomenon. It seemed evident that experiences and opinions shared several common characteristics.

Table 4-5 below presents the final codes (as represented in this discussion) and the relationship of questionnaire items to my research questions.
### Table 4-4

**Codes used in Analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Data Collection Instrument</th>
<th>Codes (and origins)</th>
<th>Meaning of Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What do teachers and students in adult education identify as quality teaching (2, 3)</td>
<td>Student Questionnaire (1,2,3,5)</td>
<td>Cognitive Psychodynamic/Emotional Social ( Illeris (2004a))</td>
<td>Cognitive: Learning content, knowledge and skills. Emotional: Mental energies, feelings and motivations. Social: External interaction, participation, communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Input: the preparation, arrangements and research that goes into the teaching /learning relationship. Outcome: the goals, results that are produced.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are part-time teachers of adults in the Jamaican context perceived to be adequately equipped to deliver quality teaching (4) Are there gaps in teaching quality? (5)</td>
<td>Student Questionnaire (4,6)</td>
<td>Cognitive Psychodynamic/Emotional Social</td>
<td>Cognitive: Learning content, knowledge and skills. Emotional: Mental energy, feelings and motivations. Social: External interaction, participation, communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How can quality teaching of adults be promoted through CPD? (6)</td>
<td>Student Questionnaire (7,8,9)</td>
<td>Types of CPD -Standardised -Site-Based -Self-Directed (Gaible and Burns, 2005)</td>
<td>Standardised: centralised workshops, training seminars. Site Based: focused on a school or region Self-directed: independent learning including online communities. Knowledge: subject knowledge, content Personal Qualities: attitude, emotional intelligence, relationships Professional and technical development: E.g. teaching skills, computer skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How can quality teaching of adults be promoted through CPD? (6)</td>
<td>Student Questionnaire (7,8,9)</td>
<td>Purpose of CPD -Knowledge -Personal Qualities -Professional and technical Development (Day, 1999, cpduk)</td>
<td>Standardised: centralised workshops, training seminars. Site Based: focused on a school or region Self-directed: independent learning including online communities. Knowledge: subject knowledge, content Personal Qualities: attitude, emotional intelligence, relationships Professional and technical development: E.g. teaching skills, computer skills.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Limitations of Study**
The major limitation I faced related to a resource limitation. Time and money limitations as well as distance from the field impacted on my ability to return to the field as often as I would have liked. In particular, my ability to obtain respondent feedback on my findings when my report was complete was affected, I would have found that to be very valuable and regret this exclusion. However, I plan to make this research available to participants with the hope of using its findings as a base for further work in helping institutions to establish CPD solutions for their faculty.

I experienced some problems of access and so altered my research design accordingly. My original plan was to use two institutions in this study. I had no difficulty making arrangements by telephone yet when I arrived in Jamaica I found that the entire student and faculty body were on a mid-semester break. Due to my limited flexibility I had to collect data as planned and used the time to include more participants from the institution that was available. I think this study would have been enhanced by the participation of respondents from this unavailable institution. If it had been convenient to arrange to return to the field I would have made every effort to do so.

As I wrote up my findings I found that I needed to use insight from literature to create structure in which findings could be discussed. Perhaps, I reflected, my orientation to positivistic research was more ingrained than I had realised. I struggled with finding a voice which was truly constructivist with which to discuss the analysis. I sometimes felt that I was too separated from the data but was reluctant to taint the data by over involvement. Finally, I accepted that my interpretation of Crotty’s observation that ‘we do not create meaning. We construct meaning. We have something to work with, what we have to work with is the world and
objects in the world’ (Crotty 1998, pp43-44) was that I could not avoid being influenced by the literature I had read and my own conceptions of the context. The analysis was done within that framework. If I had been able to return to the field after my analysis was complete I would have tested whether the framework I eventually employed was as relevant to the participants as I assume.

**Summary**

In this chapter I detailed my experience as a novice researcher trying to find a workable fit of theory, epistemology and methodology. I explain how I came to choose a qualitative methodology to investigate a subject that is of interest to me and in my view, of value to the adult education community in Jamaica. I discuss my choice of a constructionist perspective which I think values practitioners’ co-construction of meaning and which is in keeping with my own worldview. Against the background of my theoretical and philosophical perspective, I detail the research design used, the aims of the research, how data was collected and from whom it was collected as well as the research process and limitations.

My choice to use the philosophical foundations of humanism, constructionism and qualitative research has allowed me to look at teachers and students in the IUC case with particular eyes. In this study I want to find out from participants how they see themselves as adult learners or teachers of adults and how they think the contribution of part-time teachers can be supported. I collected data from documentation, interviews, focus groups and by using qualitative questionnaires with the expectation that this would provide some form of triangulation and also be convenient for respondents. Working in a context outside of the one in
which I am resident had particular challenges and I detail those challenges in this chapter.

My intention here has been to set the stage for a discussion of the data acquired so that the data can be better appreciated in relation to its context and environment. This stage has philosophical, methodological, personal and professional elements. In the chapter following, I will present the findings of the study.
CHAPTER 5
DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Introduction

In this chapter I introduce The International University of the Caribbean (IUC) and the staff and students who participated in this study. I present and discuss the responses received in four subcategories each in relation to IUC and the experiences and opinions expressed by stakeholders in this institution. The subcategories used in the chapter are; Adult Education, Quality Teaching, Part-time Teachers and Continuing Professional Development. Data was collected by the use of qualitative questionnaires, interviews and focus groups in January and September 2008. The reader will note that data from questionnaires is less dense and thick than data from interviews and focus groups. Questionnaire responses tend to be curt while interview responses are more conversational.

The IUC Story

The International University of the Caribbean (IUC) is relatively new to the Jamaican education landscape. IUC was registered in 2005 when constituent colleges The Institute for Theological and Leadership Development (ITLD) and Mel Nathan College (MNC) merged to form a new university (Figure 5-1.). IUC was selected for this case study for a number of reasons. First, its identity - IUC is an institution indigenous to Jamaica with a focus on contextually relevant education for adult learners; with programmes which are described as ‘insightful responses to the realities and challenges of the Caribbean’ (IUC website). Secondly, the profile of its student population - IUC’s student population consists primarily of working adults who attend classes part-time. Thirdly, its part-time faculty - The University uses primarily part-time faculty to deliver its programmes, many
of whom have the experience of working in other educational institutions and so can reflect multiple experiences through their responses to interview questions. Fourthly, its ethos - this is an institution that started out as one that highly valued the opportunity to provide post-secondary education to adult learners. As the institution has grown and worked towards university status, it has sought to incorporate standards of higher education in its accredited programmes while still maintaining its commitment to its core population of adult learners who have desired wider opportunities than those offered by traditional tertiary institutions.

In addition, IUC is an institution with centres in both urban and regional locations and so respondents can reflect both the urban and rural experiences. This institution, with its relatively new and developing systems provides a good opportunity for investigating the perceptions of part-time adult educators both in the urban and rural Jamaican context. In my view these characteristics made IUC a suitable context in which to find persons who could speak about how quality teaching was experienced in an indigenous adult education institution.

To better understand the ethos of IUC, I consulted documentation on The Institute for Theological and Leadership Development (ITLD), one of the pioneer colleges of the International University of the Caribbean (figure 5-1), to find out how ITLD described itself. Since ITLD was the original institution, registration documents are in the name of ITLD and IUC uses much of this foundation documentation as the record of its history.
IUC and Constituent Colleges

The Institute (ITLD) was established by the Synod of the United Church in Jamaica and the Cayman Islands in March 1989 as an expression of a commitment to implement alternative methods of training in theological education and leadership development for adult learners, specifically, persons engaged in the ministry and mission of the Church. The United Church has a long history of engagement with education in Jamaica and the Cayman Islands. The church is a union of the United Presbyterian Church in Jamaica and Grand Cayman, The Congregational Churches in Jamaica and The Disciples of Christ in Jamaica. The Presbyterians arrived in Jamaica in 1800, the Disciples of Christ in 1832 and Congregationalists in 1834. The three denominations were united in 1992. These foundation denominations have been involved in education in Jamaica since the pre-emancipation period when the churches established plantation schools for slaves. Their pioneering work in education spans Early Childhood, Primary and Secondary levels and when ITLD was established in 1989 it became
the United Church’s second tertiary level institution preceded by Knox Community College which was established in 1975.

(ITLD) started as a theology college then incorporated other programmes in community development, guidance and counselling and Christian education. Programmes grew from certificate and diploma level to degree level and by 2005, the ITLD college of IUC also offered programmes at the Masters Degree level. Through collaboration with overseas universities, the institution has now added doctoral level programmes to its offerings. IUC pledges to offer accessible and contextually relevant education by helping students focus ‘on context-related education that meets community, national, and international needs.’ The institution ‘facilitate(s) the immediate transfer of learning to its practical application in the classroom/congregation/organisation or community’ (IUC, 2009). This claim of accessibility is translated to practice through the university’s five regional centres and sixteen sub-centres (Figure 5-2).

**Figure 5-2**

**IUC’s Regional Centres (RC) and Sub Centres** (from IUC, 2010 web page)
Four of these centres are in Jamaica and one in the Cayman Islands. Learners who would otherwise have to travel outside of their communities for tertiary education can therefore find educational opportunities close to home or work. This feature is particularly valued by ITLD’s many adult students who study part-time and juggle academic responsibilities with work and family commitments.

This commitment to accessible and contextually relevant education is made again in the Institute’s mission statement which reflects the institution’s church roots;

The Institute for Leadership and Theological Development functions on the basis of an understanding of missional calling to influence the formation of quality leaders who are critically, spiritually and culturally sensitive and open to new and lifelong learning and as a consequence promote and cultivate the present and future well being of family community and nation (IUC, 2009 p 13).

Certainly, ITLD sees itself as offering an educational product that is particularly sensitive to the issues of adult learners who want to study in their communities, be able to relate their studies to their various leadership roles in their communities and families and are interested in lifelong learning. ITLD offers programmes in General Studies, Human Resource Management, Psychology, Guidance and Counselling, Theology and Education. Students can enrol for the full or completion (top-up) degree on a full-time or part-time basis. At the Graduate Level, Master’s Degrees are offered in Pastoral Psychology and Counselling, Counselling and Consulting Psychology, Counselling and Community Development, Consulting and Community Development, Environmental Studies, Transformational Leadership, and Missiology. All of these programmes which have been accredited through the University Council of Jamaica have a strong practical element as ITLD’s signature philosophy is ‘learning by doing’ (IUC, 2009 p 7). This means a significant practicum component is included in
these courses. For example, in the Theology and Guidance and Counselling programmes, students are assigned to practicum placements at the time of registration. Staff Tutors and Placement Supervisors are assigned to monitor day-to-day progress. Theology students live and work in their placements.

Again in an effort to be flexible and accessible, ITLD offers most of these programmes in a modular format. There are four categories of students and different delivery options are offered to each:

1. Working students can access the Evening Institute to attend classes on weekday evenings.
2. Full-time theological students are brought together for one week each month for lectures, and spend the other three weeks in their contexts.
3. Full-time students who are not studying theology attend classes during the day.
4. Graduate students attend classes one extended weekend (Friday to Sunday) per month in addition to regular tutorials.

Essentially, the ITLD documentation suggests an institution that understands itself to have a conscious role in the development of productive members of society. It claims to embrace the lifelong learning philosophy and seems to strive to be sensitive to adult learners.

I interacted with students and faculty members of IUC from its Kingston and Montego Bay sub-centres to find out how students and faculty experienced this ethos. Kingston is Jamaica’s capital and is located in the south-eastern region of the island. This particular centre serves both as a programme outlet as well as the IUC’s administrative offices. Montego Bay is the country’s ‘second city’ located in the North-west. The centre here is
structured in the same way as other sub-centres. The discussions were not intended to be an evaluation of IUC, but an examination of the views of adult learners and educators about their experiences in a Jamaican institution that claims to support adult learning.

**The IUC Student**

The typical IUC student is an adult learner who is employed and studies part-time. Students pursue programmes in humanities and social sciences attending classes on weekday evenings and weekends. Many of IUC’s students already work in the discipline they study and hope to use tertiary level qualifications to advance their career prospects. Of the fifty-four students in my sample, thirty-eight (70%) were over the age of 25 years.

IUC’s attractiveness to the mature learner may be attributed to the existence of this wide offering of part-time programmes, the multi-locational nature of the university and the university’s policy of admitting up to 10% of its new student cohort each year from mature students without normal academic matriculation who are assessed on the basis of life experience (IUC 2009, p. 47). All students in the sample had participated in formal education before and 50 of the 54 students in the sample were exposed to tertiary level education. These students then have some experience of formal education as adults. I was interested to see if their views reflected their own experiences of education, first as children then as adults. I had no difficulty getting students to participate in this study by responding to a qualitative questionnaire. The response rate was high and students did not indicate any unease with the questions or the procedure.
Figure 5-3 below gives a graphic representation of students in the study. Female respondents outnumbered males 4:1. This statistic is broadly reflective of the wider picture of post-secondary education in Jamaica. In 2003, male/female enrolment in tertiary education was recorded as 30.08%/69.92%\(^7\). Most of the respondents were between twenty-five and forty-five years old, the majority of respondents were enrolled in undergraduate programmes and had participated in some post-secondary education before IUC.

**Figure 5-3**

**Demographics of IUC Students in Study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Programme</th>
<th>Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Under 25 yrs</td>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>Tertiary- diploma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>35-45 yrs</td>
<td>Undergrad</td>
<td>Tertiary- degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>over 45 yrs</td>
<td>Post grad</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students were invited to complete a self-administered open-ended questionnaire which they took home and returned to IUC after four or five

days. Participation was voluntary and all students who responded to the invitation over a two-week period were given questionnaires.

**IUC Faculty and Administrators**

IUC part-time teachers participated in focus groups and administrators in face-to-face interviews. I invited teachers to focus groups at which we discussed the research questions. Focus groups were held on the university’s compound in an empty classroom either before or after classes. In all cases I had access to an air-conditioned room so doors and windows could be closed providing a private space in which audio recording was possible. I gave participants opportunity to choose the meeting that was more convenient to them. Two focus group meetings were held in Montego Bay and three in Kingston. Participants tended to choose a focus group meeting that was being held on an evening during which they had other commitments at IUC and so did not come to the facility solely to attend my focus group. Initial contact was in the form of an email, to all part-time teachers on roster in the centre for the semester, inviting participation and explaining the purpose of the study and the expectations of participants (see Appendix A). Those who expressed interest were followed up by the IUC office and where possible, (when I was given access to names and contact details) I reinforced the invitation with telephone calls or emails of my own. Administrators were interviewed face-to-face in their offices. In general, I was allowed as much time as I needed and interviewees gave full attention. There were occasional interruptions from phone calls and walk-in visitors. Administrators were selected according to the relevance of their function to the research issue. The rationale for my choice of administrators is detailed in Table 5-1 below. Neither teachers nor administrators objected to being audio taped.
### Table 5-1
**IUC Administrators in Sample**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Job Function</th>
<th>Relevance of function to research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| AD         | Academic Dean-Urban Centre | Supervision of other academic staff and students  
- Implementation and coordination of University events  
- Design, development and evaluation of curriculum materials  
- In collaboration with the Principal, quality control of University programmes  
- Accreditation of faculty programmes  
- Research and publications. | Responsible for selection and evaluation of faculty and executing regional/faculty Continuing Professional Development (CPD) |
| RD         | Regional Dean-Rural Centre | The Chief Operating Officer in the region and has responsibility for the effective and efficient implementation of the range of programmes offered within that area. | Responsible for selection and evaluation of faculty at regional level and executing, regional/faculty CPD |
| HR         | Senior Director of Human Resource Services | Provides oversight for all matters relating to the management of personnel employed to the University. | Implements general policies on selection, evaluation and CPD for organization. |
| VP         | Vice President Human resources and Corporate Relations | Has policy responsibility for all matters relating to the management of personnel employed to the University. | Initiates IUC’s policy on HR, CPD |
| SD         | Senior Director Human Resources and Corporate Relations. | Job function – responsible for implementing the Human resource policies in the organization. | Responsible for contracts and payments. |

IUC’s organizational chart overleaf gives a graphic representation of its management structure. Although the Central Office has overall management responsibility for the entire institution, Regional Centres are
managed by Regional Managers and have their own regional staff. Academic Staff are directly supervised by Deans.
In the case of Regional Centres this supervisory responsibility is the responsibility of the Regional Dean. There are three Regional Deans in IUC. When staff members were interviewed in 2008, in addition to three Regional Deans, there were three Academic Deans: a Dean of Theology, a Dean of Arts and Education and a Dean of Social and Behavioural Sciences.

IUC has a high proportion of part-time staff. In one region, the Regional Dean told me that “easily 90%” (RD, 2008) of the faculty in the region were on part-time contracts. This anecdotal account reflects the figures I received from the IUC Registry. In the academic year 2008-2009, the breakdown of teaching staff on register was: 7 Senior Staff (at the level of Dean and above), 12 Administrative staff (for example, programme directors, heads of departments etc), 3 full-time lecturers and 300 part-time lecturers (Data made available by Sr. Director HR and Corporate Relations, 2009). According to these numbers, approximately 93% of IUC teaching staff in 2008 was on part-time contracts. Part-Time Contracts relate to the preparation and teaching of specific courses, attendance at four core meetings and preparing of examination questions. Faculty members are expected to have at least Masters Degree level qualifications (or be pursuing a Masters degree) and must be qualified at one degree level above the level at which they teach at. IUC staff is expected to evidence the core values of the institution; these are detailed in IUC’s Self Study. This Self Study is documentation prepared by IUC as part of the evaluation and re-accreditation process that the institution undergoes every four years or when new programmes are introduced. Documentation is submitted to the University Council of Jamaica (UCJ) and also serves as an opportunity for the institution to evaluate its growth and progress. The 2009 Self-Study document identifies IUC’s core values as leadership,
people centeredness, integrity, peace, excellence, spirituality and performance.

**Box 5-1**  
**Core values expected of IUC Staff (IUC Self Study, 2009)**

- **Leadership:** A sense of responsibility for facilitating strategic growth in self and others through imaginative decision-making and consistent action.
- **People-centeredness:** People in general, and our students in particular, come first, are treated with dignity and respect, and are encouraged to achieve their full potential;
- **Integrity:** A commitment to honesty and upright choice-making as characteristic of all areas of life – personal, academic and professional.
- **Peace:** A lifestyle focus on engendering holistic harmony within and between persons, with the environment, and with God.
- **Excellence:** A pervasive commitment to high standards.
- **Spirituality:** An awareness of divine presence within the individual and in creation.
- **Performance:** The ability to, with consistency and excellence, plan, execute, and evaluate tasks in accordance with one’s institutional role.

There is no indication of how these values are measured and whether the administration considers these values to be evident in their staff. However, articulating these values does give an indication of what is considered important by IUC and they do seem to be reflected in what both students and teachers identify as important.

In this study, IUC part-time faculty members were invited to be part of focus groups and 5 administrators were interviewed. The tables below outline a profile of those who participated. Teachers are identified by initials which were constructed using randomly assigned letters to represent their given names. Administrators are identified by their positions (see Table 5-1); since I anticipate that their job positions will influence their particular perspectives. Administrators were selected for
involvement in the study if their jobs related to the recruitment and evaluation of part-time faculty.

Table 5-2
IUC Teachers who participated in Focus Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initials Created By Researcher</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>Yrs Teaching</th>
<th>Teachers’ College Trained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>25-35</td>
<td>Masters Degree</td>
<td>&gt;5 yrs</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VW</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Over 45</td>
<td>Masters Degree</td>
<td>&gt;5 yrs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SM</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>35-45</td>
<td>Masters Degree</td>
<td>&gt;5 yrs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TJ</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>35-45</td>
<td>Diploma-Teaching Bachelors Degree.</td>
<td>&gt;5 yrs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AW</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>25-35</td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>&gt;5 yrs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZM</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>+45</td>
<td>Masters Degree</td>
<td>&gt;5 yrs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MT</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>35-45</td>
<td>Masters Degree</td>
<td>&gt;5 yrs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JW</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>+45 yrs</td>
<td>Masters Degree</td>
<td>&gt;5 yrs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>25-35</td>
<td>Masters Degree</td>
<td>&lt;5 yrs</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DK</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>35-45</td>
<td>Masters Degree</td>
<td>&gt;5 yrs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GH</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>35-45</td>
<td>Masters Degree</td>
<td>&gt;5 yrs</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Policy Makers in Adult Education

**Table 5-3**

**Policy Makers Interviewed in Study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Relevance of function to research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VM</td>
<td>JACAE1</td>
<td>Former executive of the Jamaica Council for Adult Education.</td>
<td>JACEA is an NGO with official responsibility for Adult Education in Jamaica. It was helpful to learn from their perspective how developments in the sector are regarded.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>JACAE2</td>
<td>Current Officer of JACAE who functions as local liaison for the post-graduate adult education programme in which some adult educators have participated.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SP</td>
<td>JFLLL</td>
<td>Officer of Jamaica Foundation for Lifelong Learning.</td>
<td>JFLL is the government organization that has umbrella responsibly for all programmes from basic adult literacy to lifelong learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GG</td>
<td>UCJ</td>
<td>Chief Accreditation Officer.</td>
<td>UCJ is the national accreditation agency that has responsibility for registering and monitoring all tertiary level programmes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to set my findings in the wider context of adult education in Jamaica, I also interviewed key informants who work in the adult education sector. These were telephone interviews and were easy to organise but difficult to implement. Respondents expressed interest and gave permission when approached; yet I had to make multiple attempts to execute several of the interviews although I had emailed the questions ahead of time. In one case we had a brief preliminary conversation to be followed by a more in-depth discussion but that second discussion did not take place. In three other cases, respondents eventually sent me a written response to the questions I asked (to support our discussion). One other policy interview had been planned but was not executed. I had planned to speak with the chief executive officer of the Professional Development Unit.
(PDU) of the Ministry of Education. When I contacted the Ministry however, the Director’s secretary advised me that the PDU only had responsibility for working with teachers in the primary and secondary education sector and her Director would not be able to contribute to my study.
Discussion of Data

ADULT EDUCATION

I spoke with administrators, practitioners and adult learners about their perceptions of adult education. In Jamaica, the term ‘lifelong learning’ is increasingly used interchangeably with ‘adult education’ to refer to education beyond the compulsory period that is specifically targeted at adult learners. In my view, although adult education and lifelong learning are talked about in the Jamaican context as valued concepts, that talk is not easily translated into action. I found that official documentation such as the websites of IUC and the Ministry of Education (MOE) mentioned lifelong education as being important to the Jamaican context but there was a dearth of active engagement. While the Ministry of Education (MOE) appears to have a primary focus on early childhood to secondary education, its website showing active links to information on these sectors, yet the link to a tab labelled ‘life long learning’ was inactive.

I also observed that in 2003 a task force was set up to review the Jamaican education system, the Task Force on Educational Reform, however they chose to limit their examination to institutions that offered early childhood to secondary education because of resource and time restrictions (Davis, 2004). Consequently, post-secondary education did not benefit from this ‘comprehensive review’, although the task force did recommend the establishment of a Tertiary Education and Research Commission. The Ministry of Education has been promising a Tertiary Education Commission since 2004 and to date this has not been established. In a March 2010 newspaper report, the Minster of Education is cited as indicating that Cabinet will receive the proposal for the Tertiary Education Commission by April 2010 (Dunkley, 2010).
In Jamaica, adult education used to be characterised as adult literacy. This focus was facilitated by the Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy (JAMAL) since 1973. JAMAL was renamed the Jamaica Foundation of Lifelong Learning (JFLL) in 2006 and its mandate and training methodology expanded.

The mandate of the new organization has been expanded to include not only training in basic literacy/numeracy/lifeskills but to include other programmes which enable learners to better function in a changing world where basic literacy is insufficient...The methodology of training has also been refocused to included a blended approach-facilitation vs. teaching, face-to-face vs. use of computer aided instructions. (S.Prince, Technical Services Director JFLL, Interview 2009)

JFLL is an agency of the Ministry of Education which works closely with other governmental and non-governmental organizations such as the JACAE (Jamaican Council for Adult Education). While JFLL gets some budgetary support from the Ministry of Education, JACAE is resourced by volunteers and private contributions.

I spoke with the former president of JACAE Miss. V McClenan about the challenges faced by JACAE in meeting its objective to support adult and continuing education in Jamaica. Miss McClenan is one of the most experienced adult educators in the country who had played a significant role in the establishment of JACAE and had represented Jamaica and the Caribbean at the international level in adult education.

She identified three challenges:

(a) That adult education is still seen as literacy education rather than lifelong learning by most of the public, who do not become involved in activities labelled ‘adult education’ because they assume these activities are only relevant to persons who are illiterate.

(b) That a low level of fundraising and a small membership base have hampered the operations of JACAE.
(c) That government support has always been inconsistent. She cited some instances in the past when a highly placed government official was involved with the work of JACAE, but she felt Government involvement depended too much on the interest of the individual Minister of Education. Miss McClenan felt that consistent support could be enhanced by a formal unit or a Desk of Adult Education in the Ministry of Education.

Although these bodies have done creditable work and have tried to keep Jamaica connected to the international agenda through involvement in organizations such as ICAE (International Council of Adult Education) and participation in conferences like CONFINTEA (UNESCO’s conference on adult education), I do not see evidence of their influence on adult education provisions at individual educational institutions such as IUC. IUC is proud that its provisions offer alternatives to the standard post-secondary offerings that are largely full-time (some are residential), day school institutions that are largely located in cities and towns. For many adult learners this type of standard variety post-secondary education was inconvenient and more appropriate for younger learners who do not have family responsibilities or work commitments. So undoubtedly there is a market for their offerings. However, the question of how much of what is offered at IUC is actually adult education, as against education for adults (Jarvis, 1995) is an important one. I wondered if IUC offers educational programmes that had the characteristics of adult education and was sensitive to the needs of adult learners and if teachers and learners understood it as such or, if instead, these were simply programmes with a significant adult population. As there is no structure to ensure that institutions such as IUC benefit from the work of JFLL or JACAE, there is no monitoring function that these organizations serve in relation to independent tertiary level institutions. Institutions develop their identity as
adult educators on their own. Despite this shortcoming in the system, my investigation focused on how students and teachers felt about adult learning in IUC. My intention was not to evaluate IUC’s programmes against an external standard but to discover how satisfied were those who were a part of the IUC life that their needs were being met.

This brief reference to adult education in Jamaica creates the background for a discussion on adult teaching and learning in IUC. In the following section I will discuss the responses of teachers, students and administrators to questions about how they experienced adult education in IUC.

**Experiences of Adult Learning and Teaching at IUC**

My questions focussed on the experience of adult students and teachers of adults and not on their definition of adult education. Teachers talked about the roles of teachers and students in adult education. They mentioned the expectation that adult students should be self-directed and indicated that they found students at IUC more focussed on outcome and certification than the experience of learning.

Teachers felt students were not self-directed in that they wanted to be spoon-fed through the process since they were often more interested in the certification than new learning and wanted the easiest path to that certification. JW, a member of one of the focus groups, is a trained teacher with a Master’s degree and 14 years experience teaching part-time. She had been teaching at IUC's Kingston centre for 3 ½ years up to the time that I met her. JW commented on how she experienced, what she saw as, a lack of self-direction in students, which she saw as a challenge to her desire to be a thorough teacher:
It is challenging working with adult students; they don’t always come with the right attitude. Many are trying to get a degree. You have from one extreme to the other. You may have the older ones, saying “I’m nearing retirement, I need this (certificate) to end on” or the younger ones are saying “I need this to get a promotion”. So they don’t always have the attitude that focuses on the work, you have to always be pulling them back. Also the time you have with them is so limited.

You have to pack in a lot in the time. There is so much that can be not gained.....because they often don’t want to be out of their comfort zones, they really don’t want to do the work so you have to continuously pull them back. Those things are challenging. (JW, 2008)

This position was supported by other teachers. CM, who also taught in the same centre but a different subject, had similar views. CM was not a trained teacher and was teaching for the first time while she completed her doctoral studies. She also had the experience of being an adult student who studied part-time. She felt that:

The level of analytical skill that they [students] bring is disappointing. Persons are basically going through the motions, they are already in jobs but they want the paper. So the focus is just on getting the paper. Schooling has become like a market. So you are not turning out persons who are wanting to learn. It’s just to get the paper. It poses a challenge to get students to engage in discussion; read more....you have to be giving more. (CM, 2008)

This attitude, of ‘going through the motions’, the teachers felt, translated into students not wanting to read in advance, prepare for discussions or even meaningfully participate in discussions expecting the teacher to carry the weight of the interaction. JW felt this was not appropriate and indicated that she warned students that they had to change their attitude.

I tell them, “you people will have to up the ante, what you take in depends on the effort you put out.” (JW, 2008)
This view was consistent with those shared by teachers in one of the focus groups held in a Regional Centre. VW who is a retired secondary school teacher had taught in two IUC centres for over eight years. She used similar words as JW to express frustration with what she saw as adult students behaving like children:

> Sometimes I find it challenging because students are inclined to think you are challenging them too much, forgetting they are not in high school, they are adult students... Sometimes they complain about the assignments “could we cut it down from three? Could we have one piece of assessment? Why are there three pieces? and if three pieces, why of this magnitude? They could have been more miniscule”..., while they are adults you would have expected them to understand the standard, I have said to people “you are not in “evening class” it’s a university!” So their minds must operate at that academic level of university status. (VW, 2008)

VW’s comments were made against the background of her own experience of the changes that have taken place in IUC as the institution worked for university level standards. When she first worked with IUC, the institution had just begun to offer degree level programmes and had more of a focus on making tertiary education available to adults who would not have otherwise had the opportunity. By 2008 IUC was focussing on its post graduate offerings. On the journey, IUC had upgraded its modules, made itself attractive to more qualified students and worked hard to meet the expectations of accreditation bodies. She spoke then, as someone who had been a part of some of this process and also had higher expectations of the adult learners. VW expressed the view that some students thought that having come back to school as adults, the difficult work was over and that they did not expect to be stretched in classes. She felt she had to remind them that they should have higher expectations for themselves. Another teacher in the same centre expressed similar views. SG was not a trained teacher, but had taught in IUC for over 5 years and was very passionate
about promoting excellence in his classroom. He spoke about his effort to bring additional resources for students including typed notes and extended references, but found students did not always appreciate his effort.

I find myself making a lot of humour about it as a gentle reminder. So I say, “I notice it is only in education that persons are not asking for their money’s worth.” They never say “sir you are not giving us our money’s worth,” they say, “you are giving us too much!” Just a gentle reminder that they are paying for the stuff. People not saying, “I’m not getting my money’s worth, you were supposed to be prepared to come and teach and you are not coming with any ambition sir!” (SG, 2008)

This matter of teacher expectations was freely expressed by focus group participants. There is, however, no evidence of a forum in which these expectations are communicated between learners and teachers. Administrators at IUC also felt that students came with expectations depending on their circumstances and goals but the institution still sought to challenge some of the expectations. I spoke with one of the University’s vice-presidents who has responsibility for the Human Resource Management Portfolio and who had been with IUC for about five years, having worked before with one of the constituent colleges (see Fig. 5-1.) She remarked that,

We still have a good number of students who come because they have to. Some work with the Social Development Commission or the Ministry of Education and have to upgrade to a degree. Those students come with expectations that they have to be equipped for the particular tasks they are doing. We have a smaller number of students who come because they want a degree rather than need a degree; they too come with expectations that are much more personal. (VP, 2008)

From the perspective of the teachers, expectations to succeed appeared to be equated with expectations to achieve certification and this was divorced from the necessity to work hard. Teachers indicated that some students
who engaged with the material actually expressed surprise that they could find it interesting:

From observation and interaction— if they could get the paper, the certification without the workload, fine! So it’s not so much that they want to learn. If I might be personal again, in research methods, the students ask “why do I have to do a research paper?” But I tell them “it will benefit you”. “In what way? This is a lot of work.” “But you will learn a lot of information along the way, at the end of the day you will have new knowledge. “Like what miss?”....They are not really interested in that... it’s the minimum of what they can do ...to get the paper. (VW, 2008)

I remember once a student wrote in the evaluation, “It scares me, to be honest that I am enjoying the class because the material is just so much”. And that underscores the point! (SG, 2008)

I noted that teachers shared these expectations that adult students would be more excited about the process of learning and more willing to do extra work. They did not use the term “self-directed”, yet their explanation of the kind of adult learner they expected to encounter was easy to relate to Jarvis’s discussion of Tough’s self-directed learner as one who can respond to his own learning needs and self-actualise in the process (Jarvis 1995, p. 19).

I asked students what were their needs as adult learners. Some responses reflected the comments of teachers that students were primarily interested in the final certificate or ‘the paper’. Some of these comments were:

- To be able to get a better paying job.
- Exposure to larger scope in developing my profession
- To get more qualified.
- Self esteem and more income.
- Good passes- to improve on what I have already learnt in previous educational institutions.
I need to accomplish my goals.

Achievement of goals or objectives entered for.

To learn new concepts this can help me to be more qualified so that I can get a better job.

First and foremost knowledge, to take me a far way; and to aid in fulfilling all my dreams.

(From Student Questionnaires (SQ), 2008).

However, these comments were not in the majority. The majority of comments indicated an interest in the relationships and social environment of the classroom and put a lot of onus on the teacher to make emotional connections with students. Examples of these kinds of responses (to the question of what needs they have as adult learners) are:

- As an adult student, I need to be able to understand and interpret what my teachers are saying and requiring of me as a student. Also I need a good learning environment.
- Impartiality, understanding, the ability to understand me as an individual.
- Patience, understanding, mutual respect, achievement of goals.
- Caring and understanding teachers who appreciate the fact that you are studying under trying circumstances.
- As an adult student, I need a proper learning environment, an understanding and knowledgeable instructor who can help me to interpret and think for myself.
- Dedication from lecturers when teaching on a topic so that less room for misunderstanding occurs.
- More understanding with the time frame given for assignment and projects. Patience in the passing on of information.
- An experience which will make me a better person equipped with the essentials to cope with life inside and outside the workplace.
- Quality teaching. Good rapport and a high level of communication skills.
o Good delivery of lessons, understanding, patience, justice.

o I need clarification for concepts and ideas learnt in the past.

o Mutual respect, achievement of goals, high level of patience and understanding. Good satisfaction. Impartiality on the part of facilitator.

o Professionalism on the part of the facilitator. Impartiality, joy and relaxation, achievement of set goals, challenges in activities, mutual respect.

o Holistic development of the mental, physical and spiritual powers.

o An interactive teacher. Someone who is able to identify the ignorance of his/her pupils and address them appropriately. (SQ, 2008)

When taken together all the responses identified needs such as:

- Knowledge (for example, new information,)
- Outcome (for example, Certification, Qualifications)
- Social (for example, friendship, group activities)
- Emotional (for example, mutual respect, being understood)
- Setting and Environment (including clean and comfortable surroundings)

The figure below depicts how student respondents answered this question.
It seems to me that the needs of students may be more complex than the teachers and administrators in this sample appreciated. Most of the student responses made comments on emotional elements, expecting good teacher-student interaction, and strong emotional support. Given the emphasis in adult education literature on the utility value of education for adults (to access new jobs, promotions, and economic gains) it is surprising that these respondents seemed to value the relationships more than the outcome. Perhaps the goals for these adult students are not limited to the outcome they anticipate after graduation, that they do in fact have expectations of the process, that while they are attending classes they should find some kind of fulfilment and should feel that emotional needs are appreciated. Yet teachers did not mention being observant of those needs. In general, teachers seemed to think adult students were more concerned about outcome. Significant issues here are the lack of
channels through which students and teachers communicate expectations to each other, the expectation of teachers that adult students will be self directed and the expectation of students that the learning experience will be engaging and meet emotional needs.

I disaggregated all the responses included in the category that I had labelled ‘emotional need’. This ‘emotional need’ category included a number of comments on how teachers should relate to students, what students say they need from teachers. The responses in this category are depicted below in figure 4. The terms ‘understanding’, ‘patience’, ‘respect’ and ‘impartiality’ were the most popular with respondents. The references to the term ‘understanding’ included both references to the teacher showing general understanding of general needs as well as showing understanding of the circumstances of adult students. This is evidenced in responses such as:

- Impartiality, understanding, the ability to understand me as an individual.
- Patience, understanding, mutual respect, achievement of goals.
- Caring and understanding teachers who appreciate the fact that you are studying under trying circumstances.

(SQ, 2008)
Here it is underscored, as was observed earlier, that adult students do have emotional needs that they expect to be met while they pursue adult education. Adult students are aware of those needs and are not uncomfortable in articulating them when asked. It is not clear from this data whether there is opportunity to express these needs and expectations in the classroom. Teachers did not mention asking students what they needed nor did students mention expressing those needs to teachers. However, when asked this question in this study students clearly identified their needs. It is also not clear whether teachers feel that it is reasonable for students to expect that these needs be addressed in the classroom and if they (teachers) feel equipped to do so.

Some theorists of adult learning point out that an expectation that adult learners will take a self-directed role does not acknowledge that this is not a familiar role for many adult students who have little experience studying in this way. It appears that adult learners sometimes take a passive role when they take on the student role. Rogers (2002) remarks that the
student role and identity is closer to the child role and identity than it is to
the adult role so adults as students often revert to the child role. Perhaps
this is because learners associate being a student with being passive. For
many, their experience of being a student is to follow the lead of the
teacher and to excel at the tasks that are set. It may not be reasonable for
educators to assume that adult learners can effortlessly make this
transition to behaviour of which they have no experience. Indeed, Rogers
notes that teachers have more varied and complex expectations in relation
to adult learners than in relation to younger learners. However, it seems
more likely that even learners who may want to be self-directed may be
unaware of how to function in this way, it is outside of their experience and
if they are uncomfortable in the self-directed student role, they return to
the passive role they know (Brookfield, 1986). Additionally, in a learning
environment where certification and exam passes hold great significance
learners may feel safer knowing that they are under the specific guidance
of their lecturers.

There seems to be a contradiction between statements of policy and actual
practice, Torres (2009) highlights that this is one of the challenges of adult
education in the Caribbean, the gap between policy and practice. IUC
articulates in its mission and vision statements, its commitment to adult
learners and its established structure that allows flexibility and sensitivity
to the challenges of adult learners. Efforts to meet those challenges are
clearly seen in modularised courses, options for course delivery (day,
evening or weekend providing more convenient options) for working
students and accessible tertiary education in urban and rural centres
through regional locations across Jamaica and Grand Cayman, In addition,
provisions are made for a small number of mature students who do not
have academic qualifications to matriculate by documenting their life
experiences and prior learning. Nevertheless, only a few members of IUC’s staff are trained or experienced in adult education. There is no evidence that students and teachers formally communicate with each other about expectations and teachers indicate disappointment in the attitude of students while students express needs of which teachers are aware. The emotional needs that students identify are consistent with the university’s own expectation that faculty exhibit certain core values including people-centredness, integrity, excellence and spirituality. This ideal is expressed in the institution’s self-study. It is not clear however how these values are built and encouraged in staff.

To understand these dynamics better, I asked students, teachers and administrators to comment on the concept of quality teaching. I wanted to see if there was commonality or difference in understanding of what constituted quality teaching in the experience of these stakeholders of IUC.

QUALITY TEACHING

In the previous section, I looked at what teachers, students and administrators identified as important issues for adult education in IUC. Here, I will focus on responses to the specific question of what quality teaching means to both students and teachers. How quality teaching is conceptualised is an important issue for this discussion on adult education given the ambivalence around standards and expectations of both adult learners and educators. IUC students and teachers were asked to characterise quality teaching. They were asked to consider their experience of quality teaching, consider quality teaching as an ideal concept and to identify the characteristics of a quality teacher. In addition, I researched IUC’s documentation to discover the institution’s claims in relation to quality teaching.
IUC’s Self Study document identifies the following as its aims, to:

- create a learning environment which combines the practitioner’s approach with academic rigour
- fashion a learning environment which is responsive to student needs and aspirations
- offer programmes which are culturally sensitive and responsive to the contexts in which the students live and work
- respect the prior learning that students bring and to deepen their skill and knowledge base
- work with students to enable them to move from where they are to where they need to go
- equip students to take advantage of opportunities that exist in the regional and international environments.

(IUC, 2009)

In terms of quality teaching, I saw in these aims some reflection of indicators as detailed in UNESCO’s global report on adult learning and education (UNESCO, 2010c). UNESCO identifies that quality teaching in adult education could have two quality dimensions - relevance and effectiveness. Relevance is related to significance of the educational provisions in addressing the contexts and needs of adult learners and the integration of adult education with other segments in the education sector. This is evidenced by sustained enthusiasm and motivation. Effectiveness means the end relationships, the outcomes for learners and the time needed to achieve this outcome. Effectiveness is impacted by adequate facilities and achievement levels.
The aims of IUC that may be said to relate to this quality of relevance are those that speak to creating a learning environment that combines both theory and practice, that responds to student needs, that respects prior learning and offering programmes that are culturally sensitive and responsive. Those aims that may relate to the effective indicator include those that promise a responsive learning environment that meets students at their point of need and that equips students to take advantage of opportunities in their local and regional environments.

Building on this, I wanted to know how students and teachers described their experiences and if they found any indicators to quality teaching in IUC. Students were asked about their memory of a good learning experience and what the term ‘quality teaching’ meant to them. One question asked for an ideal image of quality teaching and the other asked for recounting an experience of quality teaching. Students did not recall only recent experiences; in fact most respondents recalled experiences from their memory of primary and secondary level education. This suggests that these were memories of events that had strong impact. Over 70% of respondents were older than 25 years old and so were remembering experiences that had occurred at least 10 years before.

Responses were grouped and regrouped repeatedly according to common themes and I examined the data from several perspectives to get a sense of what themes were evident in respondents’ views. In one grouping, categories were identified relating to the following themes:

- personal interest
- emotional satisfaction
- learning from peers/peer interaction
- teaching style
I further reduced these theme groups to three groups: responses dealing with cognitive factors, responses dealing with emotional factors and responses dealing with social factors. Most of the responses to the question that asked for a retelling of the memory of a good teaching/learning experience, recalled cases in which teachers were sensitive to the peculiar needs of students. Some of these comments were:

- When I was in grade 9, I struggled with maths, my family life teacher saw it and decided to help me, when I started to get the full understanding of math I started to love it.

- In chemistry class, my teacher took her time to explain things thoroughly even though others were more advanced than me. She also invited me to attend her other class which I wasn’t really scheduled to be in.

- My grades 2 and 3 teachers made my life worthwhile. They tried their best to make sure I was taken care of. (Student Questionnaire)

- It was great. The teacher had the attention of all the students in the class. We did not want to miss a word of what she was saying. We were all captivated.

- When I was supervised by my Vice Principal to do a lesson, after I was finished, I was given thumbs up for a job well done.

(Student Questionnaire, 2008)

I noted that students remembered good experiences as learners from as early as grades 2 and 3 in primary school (approximately age 6 to 8) and maintained fond memories of teachers who impacted them. Students show appreciation for the efforts of some teachers to work outside of the normal boundaries (‘she also invited me to attend her other class which I wasn’t really scheduled to be in’). However, there may not be enough of an acknowledgement of the challenge teachers face balancing those personal interests with institutional and curriculum rules and standards.

Twenty one responses to this question related to cognitive factors such as teaching skill, how the material was prepared or presented such as using...
visual aids, practical demonstration and the skills and techniques used by
the teacher to explain concepts and make classes interesting. This was the
largest category of positive comments. These included comments such as:

- It was my Economics classes. I was very attentive and the
teacher provided information in simple terms making it
easier for me and my classmates to understand.

- It was mathematics at college. It was so concrete, unlike
what I had experienced in earlier years.

- Was at college, did not grasp the concepts, lecturer went
over just for me, which was very good.

- Informative and interesting.

(SQ, 2008).

Sixteen responses related to experiences that students recalled in
emotional or psychodynamic terms and included responses such as:

- engaging

- succeeded due to the encouragement and dedication of my
teachers

- empowering

- understanding

- exciting

- satisfying

(SQ, 2008)

Twelve responses focused on interaction in the classroom between teacher
and students and between students and their peers. Students made
responses such as:

- Interactive, not teacher-centred.
It was a hands-on, group activity which I found very exciting and meaningful.

Group presentations.

Being engaged in the learning process allows me to gather hands on experience and also to learn from others as no two students have the same learning style.

It was not only educational in the sense of learning only sitting in front of a teacher but in the sense of evaluating each class that was taught.

A class that started with a resource person, followed by group discussion and then putting some of what is learnt in to practice.

Learning from peers. I can still remember the exact location, facial expression and body language and what the person said.

(SQ, 2008)

I chose to use the categorisation of ‘dimensions of learning’ (Illeris. 2004a) to characterise adult learning as having cognitive, psychodynamic and social dimensions. Illeris (2004a) argues that adult learning is characterised by two processes (external and internal) and three dimensions (cognitive, psychodynamic and social). All of which must be considered when understanding how learning takes place. I consider Illeris’ internal and external processes to be reflecting similar meaning as the indicators of relevance and effectiveness as cited above. Illeris identifies the internal psychological process as a process by which students acquire new learning and connect it with prior learning (very similar to ‘Relevance’) and the external interaction process as the interaction between learners and environment (an element of ‘Effectiveness’). In defining the three dimensions, Illeris explains that the cognitive dimension deals with the learning content, the knowledge and skill development. The psychodynamic dimension deals with responses dealing with emotions, motivation and
mental energy, it is the affective dimension. The social dimension focuses on responses dealing with interaction, relationships and co-operation.

The figure below shows the responses to the question of what memory respondents had of a good learning experience categorised in social, cognitive and psychodynamic dimensions. It shows that 13 respondents did not give an answer to this question. I do not know if this signifies that these respondents had only bad memories or if they could not recall any experiences of note.

**Figure 5-7**
**Chat Showing Students Description of a Good Teaching/Learning Experience**

![Diagram showing responses]

Responses that could be identified with the cognitive category accounted for over one-third of the responses. Nevertheless, students seem to remember more emotional and social experiences as positive. The psychodynamic and social categories, which relate to feelings and experiences as learners, when combined, account for 45% of the responses.
and are more popular with respondents than the cognitive category that could be said to put the onus on the teacher’s skill and ability to deliver content.

When students commented on their ideal notion of quality teaching (as against their actual experience) responses showed an even greater preference for the cognitive category including such concepts as being well prepared, having the skills to help the student to learn, being equipped with knowledge of the discipline.

One respondent commented that quality teaching is

- The way in which teachers ensure that each learner gains the optimum benefits of what is being taught not just for the present but for a lifelong experience and this can be passed on by the learner to others (SQ, 2008).

Persons who had not responded to the earlier question regarding learning experiences responded to this question (response rate was 100%). So more respondents returned an answer on what is ideal quality teaching than those who answered regarding their memory of quality teaching. I see a distinction between the notion of an ideal understanding of quality teaching and an actual experience. When students consider what is ideal, I believe those considerations may be influenced by literature, social and cultural norms about quality teaching. In other words, how quality teaching should be. When they recall a memory of a quality incident or event I believe they are then describing how they have experienced quality teaching. It seems that everyone in the sample had an idea of what quality teaching ought to be but not all respondents could recall having experienced it.
Students see learning experiences that have strong cognitive elements as desirable (ideal quality teaching). In considering the ideal learning experience, comments like these were made:

- Content presentation strategies are meaningful and applicable to course of study, topic being done as well as life as a whole.
- Both teacher and student can learn and understand each other, it also enables one to interpret and understand what the teaching is all about.
- The way that lessons are being delivered and the creativity that is used to make learners understand.
- Teacher is a knowledgeable person who can deliver in different ways.
- A quality teacher ensures that the information is correct and is delivered properly and is understandable to each learner. (SQ, 2008)

I grouped comments like these in the category labelled ‘cognitive’.

**Figure 5-8**

Pie Chart Showing Students’ Meaning of Quality Teaching
Students also cited characteristics in which I identified strong social and psychodynamic factors such as:

- Teaching that is able to captivate learners so that its impact will last for a long time.
- Teachers who give their best to their students at all times.
- A method of teaching that focuses mainly on the learner.
- One that involves instructor-student interaction.
- The standard and care that the teacher shows.
- Teachers show individual attention to students.
- Knowing your students and knowing what they are capable of and breaking down the content to be taught in simple terms so as to give students a better understanding and to maintain a student-centred environment. (SQ, 2008)

Nevertheless cognitive factors were far more popular than social and psychodynamic factors. In response to both questions, this question on ideal quality teaching and the previous question on memory of quality teaching, cognitive factors were most highly rated. Yet, when psychodynamic and social factors are combined, this combination dominates cognitive factors in relation to quality experiences. In relation to the ideal of quality teaching, the cognitive category is much more highly rated than both the social and psychodynamic combined. Students highly value more cognitive factors but remember more social and psychodynamic factors.

Respondents also seemed to make their responses in relation to how teachers prepared or what they brought to the process (input), how the lessons was conducted (process) and the desired outcome of the process (output) (See Figure 5-9).
Figure 5-9
Bar Chart Showing how Quality Teaching is understood in terms of Outcome, Process and Input

Viewed from this perspective, the data shows, that students considered the process most important. They also valued the end result or output and considered the input the least important of the three.

The ‘outcome’ category included products or results for teachers or students. In other words, responses indicating that students valued teaching that led to a particular result or outcome where included in this category. Some comments were mentioned more than once such as:

- Helping others achieve their full potential.
- Students leave knowledgeable after the experience.
- Preparing the learner for lifelong experiences.
- Imparting relevant information that makes an individual rounded, that takes in to account all the faculties of an individual; mental, physical and social well being.
- Constructive learning where the students learn substantial things to last for a lifetime.
- Helping students to accomplish their goals.
- One that brings out the best in the individual being taught.
- The way in which teaches ensure that each learner gains the optimum benefits of what is being taught, not just for the
present but for a lifelong experience and this can be passed on by the learner to others.

(SQ, 2008)

In the ‘process’ category, comments that were related to the delivery of content, class environment and relationships that existed during the learning process were included. Students made comments, for example, that they valued:

- Creating an atmosphere conducive to learning.
- An environment in which there was the imparting of knowledge and the employing of interesting strategies.
- Great delivery of material.
- Being able to impart knowledge in a manner that students can understand (as opposed to repeating what the textbook says).
- Using instructional aids to assist in the teaching/learning process and ensure/encourage maximum participation from each student.
- Using creativity to make learners understand.
- Being able to deliver the lesson in many ways so that everyone will understand.

(SQ, 2008)

Thirdly, the ‘input’ category included comments on the students’ perceptions of the preparation and research that teachers put into their work. This category included any training or skill development that students think are important components in quality teaching. Examples of these comments were:

- Taking time to prepare and think of interesting methods.
- A knowledgeable person who can deliver the content.

- Preparing relevant documents, thinking of ways to enforce a topic to his/her students.
- Putting time and effort in ensuring that the students understand what is being taught.
Students showed that they considered the process most important, and that although as adults they had invested time and money in education with the goal of gaining certification, they highly valued the experience of attending classes. They valued the relationships in the classes and the environment that is created by the teacher. This is supported in the literature by Esposito (2006, p.138) who cites Kearsley’s (1996) connection between education for adults and a focus on process,

...andragogy means that instruction for adults needs to focus more on the process and less on the content being taught. Strategies such as case studies, role playing, simulations and self-evaluations are most useful. Educators adopt a role of facilitator rather than lecturer or grader (Kearsley, 1996).

For students, the entire experience of learning is expected to have impact and be worthy of the time, sacrifice and effort that is expended. Respondents do value the reward of certification and a favourable outcome more than the skills or preparation of the teacher. However, even more than the outcome, they seem to value an experience of learning that is worthwhile. The comments that I labelled as ‘outcome’ and ‘process’ comments also seem to be relevant to the concepts of ‘effectiveness’ and ‘relevance’ as explained above. ‘Outcome’ seems to relate to the end products and end relationships and ‘process’ relates to the educational provisions. Therefore looking at the data with these UNESCO definitions in mind also paints a picture. In this picture relevance is more highly rated than effectiveness.
Although the argument was made earlier that the students at IUC did not seem to evidence many traits of self-directed learning and that lecturers found them to be too dependent on teacher-guidance, these responses by students suggest that students may have more complex needs. When reflecting on the teaching/learning experience, and considering what is ideal; students highly value the cognitive element. They expect their teachers to be well prepared and to have the content knowledge necessary to do their jobs. Yet in the actual course of attending and participating in the experience, more mention was made of the value they gave to the process. They seem less concerned about how teachers do their own preparation and re-sourcing and more interested in whether the classroom experience is interesting and stimulating. Perhaps students are not simply asking to be ‘spoon-fed’. Perhaps they are asking to be engaged and accompanied. Perhaps they do not simply want to be told the answer for the exam but they want to feel valued and to feel that time spent in class is both stimulating and meaningful.

Adult learners are complex with multiple motives, interests and needs. Learners will value an educational experience that meets important needs and interests. In this sample learners expressed more esteem for cognitive elements in the teaching/learning experience. In addition, their high regard of the process could well be reflecting a high regard for an experience that is relevant to them as adults.

**Good Teachers**

Goodwin (2008) in a review of research on what makes for a good teacher identifies four important characteristics and five important “intangibles”. Two of these characteristics are commonly used criteria for hiring and
rewarding teachers although research shows that these have only a weak correlation with teacher quality. The four characteristics are experience, preparation, ability and credentials. Quality teachers have some experience, are prepared in content and pedagogy, have strong academic preparation and strong verbal and cognitive ability. However, they do not necessarily need to have traditional licences and credentials or advanced degrees. They should however possess some ‘intangibles’, which are not easily measured: belief that all students can learn, belief in their own abilities, ability to connect with students, are proactive in the classroom (resolving issues before they become a problem) and practice emotional objectivity (for example in disciplinary matters). I found that respondents identified several of these intangibles as important characteristics for good quality teachers.

In my interview with Miss Velma McClenan (VM), who has worked with adult education in Jamaica since its origin as basic adult literacy and has had a significant role establishing organizational support for adult education in Jamaica and the Caribbean, I asked about adult educators. She described the typical adult educator as:

Female, part-time, some retired from their original substantive teaching job, initially Teacher College trained but perhaps having some kind of postgraduate training, not necessarily in adult education but in one of the subject areas such as Psychology, Guidance and Counselling or Management (VM, 2009).

This profile seemed to ring true with teachers I encountered at IUC. Many were not yet retired but fit Miss McClenan’s profile in every other way. When asked whether she thought adult educators were adequately equipped and what were the characteristics of a good teacher of adults, she identified some limitations in that:

I think most [adult educators] have had training in pedagogy and could therefore benefit from a course in andragogy to understand
more fully how adults learn and the kinds of methodologies that are appropriate for use with adults (VM, 2009).

On the other hand, with regard to the characteristics of a good teacher, she indicated that her experience was that good teachers should demonstrate the following characteristics:

- Must understand the difference between pedagogy and andragogy as well as why, when and how adults generally learn.
- Must respect the adults they teach.
- Must recognize and value prior learning and other experiences of adults they teach and understand that they are not just ‘blank slates to be written on’! Such knowledge and experiences could and should be incorporated into teaching whenever relevant.
- Must understand and be prepared to use creative methods of assessment.
- Must be empathetic and must really love interacting with adults.
- Should not be authoritarian.
- Should not become sexually involved with the adults in their class while teaching them. (VM, 2009)

The other policy representative (from the JFLL) with whom I spoke identified the following characteristics of a good adult educator:

A good teacher of adults needs to be equipped with the knowledge of the subject they are going to teach...should have the skills required to deliver the subject; be respectful, confidential, compassionate, empathetic, results-oriented, be able to coach and mentor the learners (SP, 2009).

In both cases, two sets of characteristics were identified, first those that relate to the knowledge and delivery of the content or subject matter, in particular though, this content must be delivered with an understanding of the needs of adult learners (‘andragogy’ not ‘pedagogy’, ‘coaching’, ‘mentor’, ‘prior knowledge’). Secondly characteristics that relate to the teacher’s interaction with students. These are emotional or affective characteristics such as respectful, confidential, compassionate, empathetic, not authoritarian, and ethical.

Similarly, IUC students were clear that they had an image of what good teaching was. Good teaching had cognitive, emotional and social components. It primarily reflected strong content knowledge and thorough
preparation and was experienced as stimulating and interesting. I wanted to find out if respondents thought of good teachers in the same ways. This was the question that received the most responses; on average each student listed six characteristics (54 respondents identifying 354 characteristics). Teachers responded to the question of recalling a positive learning experience with responses about the teachers they remember. First I will discuss the responses of teachers followed by the responses of students to this question.

Teachers spoke of both positive and negative learning experiences that affected them emotionally. They felt that these experiences also impacted upon their development as teachers,

Teachers...model behaviour we have experienced or observed... [Although we] adjust our practice over time, if we are reflective teachers [and our] teaching is impacted by our personalities.

...before you become a teacher of adults you are taught by adults so you would have modelled some of the behaviour you would have seen...one does not come to the task of teaching adults as a blank slate. You come with exposure to adults; you come with some good things and some bad things. Over time you develop your own way of operating that would be impacted to a great extent by who you are as an individual. (SG, 2008)

Some adults bring to the teaching/learning process their own personal biases and personality traits. So if you are a more authoritarian type of personality you are more inclined to have your class be submissive and absorbing rather than interactive and challenging. So you have to re-learn how to be an adult teacher based on your personality. (VW, 2008)

Two years ago I was a student. I try to model the good experiences into my own teaching. Because of my own experience as an adult learner I think I am more sensitive. (MT, 2008)

Having reduced the themes I identified into three groups, cognitive, social and psychodynamic/emotional, I found that once again, respondents showed favour for psychodynamic factors. Psychodynamic and emotional factors mentioned included:
motivating
encouraged students to model excellence
not afraid to be vulnerable
nurturing
caring
warm

The figure below displays the responses of teachers.

**Figure 5-10**
Pie Chart showing Teachers’ View of Quality Teaching

In terms of factors that may be included in the ‘Cognitive’ category; respondents all made mention of the importance of teachers who had good management of the content of their discipline. Yet, these comments were much fewer in number than references to emotional factors. In this (cognitive) category, the following were valued:

- well prepared
- knowledgeable
- well researched
Only one teacher spoke at length on factors in the cognitive category, the other teachers made mention of this category, but emphasised more emotional factors. VW spoke about the flexibility that is possible if a teacher is confident about content:

An excellent teacher ...is one who is knowledgeable, not only knowledgeable but able to transmit that knowledge to the student in a way that made me feel [as a student, that] I could achieve. ...[If ] you know your stuff, you come to the class with that knowledge which makes the student feel comfortable, and they are getting from you what they may need (VW, 2008).

Here again, the knowledgeable teacher evokes an emotional response of confidence in students and teachers are expected to be knowledgeable as well as make an emotional connection with students.

The person can be knowledgeable but if they come across cold and dispassionate, 'I'm here to give you what I have; you are here to get it'. Many times students won't respond as they should even though they have the ability (VW, 2008).

The students will not be motivated by someone who does not know how to impart. You could have the stuff until its flooding but if you don’t know how to impart you are not going to impart so it is both a dimension of your personal characteristic and also your ability to connect. (SG, 2008)

These comments are very similar to those made by students reflecting on quality teaching (as detailed earlier in this chapter). Cognitive qualities were regarded highly but even in identifying these qualities, emotional ones were mentioned.
Teachers repeatedly expressed the view that quality teachers were motivating, they inspired students to model excellence, and they were warm and were not afraid to be vulnerable. These comments generated the most discussion. In the section below, I highlight some of the responses relevant to these characteristics. Teachers explained ‘motivating’ in terms of transmitting excitement about the subject matter.

A good teacher is able to motivate students to bring to the fore their best. One who is able to guide students into their own optimal development (GH, 2008).

Your ability to motivate your students depends on you being motivated...students get excited to learn and they want to please the teacher and they don’t want to fail ‘sir’s’ subject because he puts so much into it. So the excitement is transferable and the student gets motivated too and recognises that ‘hey, I have potential, I can do it’. (VW, 2008).

Excitement is contagious (JW, 2008).

You have to model excellence as the teacher, what I’ve found too is that you have to make knowledge relevant sometimes in terms of motivating them, let them see it. (SG, 2008)

More specifically, this occurred in terms of helping students believe that it was possible for them to succeed, one teacher spoke of her own experience with a teacher who displayed this characteristic;

It made me feel that I could achieve the goal of a high grade (VW, 2008).

Motivation also occurred as students tried to model the teacher because they were impressed with a positive experience or conversely, students vowed to learn from a negative experience and so pledged not to model some behaviour. Two quotes from teachers illustrate this. These are statements made by TJ and SM, both trained teachers in their mid-forties teaching for over 5 years. They comment on motivation by positive example and by a negative example which both encouraged them in their own teaching;

I realise the lecturer I admired got results, I tried to adopt those traits too. (TJ, 2008)
I had an experience with a lecturer that discouraged me. Because of how she treated me, I decided I would never do that to a student, never let any student under my supervision feel the way she made me feel. (SM, 2008)

Teachers spoke freely about these experiences, some recalled experiences from primary or secondary school, and most persons connected those memories to more recent experiences of being adult learners in teacher’s college or university. It was evident that these experiences were connected to deep feelings as the tone of the discussion changed from light-hearted laughs and murmurs of agreement when someone shared a positive experience to low tones and grunts when a negative experience was shared. In the groups there seemed to be a lot of commonality and shared understanding.

Teachers also had fond memories of their own teachers who were not afraid to be vulnerable. Similar to the students, they cited characteristics such as ‘humble’, ‘honest’ and ‘not proud’. For example SG lauded a teacher who was not too proud to say: “I never thought about it that way. Let me think about it some more”.

SM spoke of a teacher she described as warm;

Most lecturers I had before were not warm...after being out of the classroom for 12 years, [this teacher] cushioned the re-entry into adult learning for me, and we have maintained a good rapport since then. She was that warm. I could just go and talk to her. She encouraged me to master whatever I put myself to. I am thankful for having her intervening in my life at the time (SM, 2008)

From the perspective of students, who were asked to list the qualities of a good teacher, the ten most popular characteristics of a great teacher were:

1. Patient- mentioned 24 times
2. Understanding- mentioned 22 times
3. Caring - mentioned 18 times
4. Knowledgeable/well informed - mentioned 16 times.
5. Kind - mentioned 16 times
6. Humble - mentioned 13 times
7. Honest - mentioned 10 times
8. Trust-worthy - mentioned 10 times
9. Tolerant - mentioned 8 times
10. Good listener - mentioned 7 times.

Figure 5-11
Ten Most Popular Characteristics of a Good Teacher

Nine of these characteristics were emotional/social characteristics. Understanding and Patience were the most popular and were each cited by almost fifty percent of the respondents. When all the responses were grouped the psychodynamic category was by far the most popular.
Eighty-one percent of responses could be identified as emotional/psychodynamic characteristics. Respondents used strong nurturing words that suggest students’ need an emotional connection with their teachers and the expectation that teachers want to have a relationship of care with the student. ‘Knowledgeable’ was the most frequently cited word that could be labelled ‘cognitive’ and was the fourth popular word in the line-up. The suggestion here is that a teacher who is well informed on content must complement with emotional and interpersonal skills and indeed the student has expectations of the teacher adopting a care-giving role (understanding, patient, kind, a good listener…and so on.). Indeed, Fasko and Grubb (1997, p.15) claim that ‘effective teachers demonstrate more implementation of learner-centred domains of practice’ and they identify the three primary learner-centred practices exhibited as positive interpersonal climate, honouring student voice and encouraging higher order thinking.
Interestingly, it seemed that some of the respondents, who considered the
cognitive category to be important when recalling their positive experience of
being a learner, chose psychodynamic characteristics when considering
the traits of a good teacher. It may be that respondents value these emotional
and interpersonal skills whether or not they have experience of them and so mention these traits in considering their ideal teacher.
Another explanation could be that students view ‘teaching’ and ‘teacher’
very differently. Teaching is in fact a process with many component parts
that include the teacher, the environment, the content covered, the outcome expected. Teaching exists in a specific cultural and social context.
It is reasonable to expect students to view quality teaching in relation to the education needs that they have to meet. A ‘teacher’ is likely to be regarded as an individual with whom the student has a crucial relationship.
It is therefore understandable that this relationship would be seen in more emotional and social terms.

These adult students even include characteristics such as ‘honest’,
‘humble’, ‘trustworthy’ and ‘tolerant’ among those identified in a great teacher. Perhaps these comments suggest a concern for a power relationship between student and teacher that is equitable and mutually respectful. The comments may also indicate an acknowledgement of the ‘residue of power’ that teachers may not be able to escape from either because their rational-legal position gives them authority in an educational institution or because students accord that authority to them (Jarvis, 1997). Illeris (2004) comments on the ambivalence that adult students feel when they return to formal education as they try to balance their usual independent adult role with the dependent, passive role of being a student. Illeris extends this observation to challenge teachers of adults to be careful to address the emotional factor in their classrooms. This emotional factor is
important for, ‘content and pedagogy interact in complex ways’ (Illeris, 2004b) and good practice is marked by ‘the teacher’s how not the subject matter’s what’ (Chickering and Gamson, 1987:2).

This onus on the skills of the teacher to make an emotional connection with the student acknowledges that this emotional connection tempers how content is delivered and received. It is clear that this is important to the adult students in this study. Rogers (2002) argues that learners have complex expectations of adult educators and these are not limited to their possession of content knowledge. Relationships are important to adult learners and this fact needs to be appreciated by educators.

Both students and teachers in the sample point to the significance of psychodynamic and emotional factors. There is acknowledgement of the importance of subject knowledge and competence in the preparation and delivery of content. Nevertheless the expectation is that this competence must be enhanced with strong affective qualities. Respondents seem to feel these affective qualities become the channel through which the knowledge is communicated and shared with students. Teachers value these affective qualities or emotional factors and students expect that their teachers should possess them (Fasko Jr and Grubb, 1997). When commenting on the discipline of teaching or the experience of being a learner in this relationship, respondents regard psychodynamic factors and cognitive factors with almost equal value. Teaching is a composite of the teacher, the content, the context and the students. Yet, when respondents speak of the nature of the ideal teacher there is evidence of a strong regard for the psychodynamic dimension. So the entire experience has many components in which psychodynamic and cognitive are highly valued, the teacher though is primarily expected to bring strong psychodynamic/emotional
skills. These responses also resonate with the review of Goodwin (2008), mentioned at the beginning of this section. In particular, Goodwin’s list of intangibles is reflected in student responses such as those that relate to the connection between teachers and students and the impact that teacher confidence has on students. Goodwin summarises that teacher effectiveness does not depend on a single attribute so school leaders should weigh several attributes when recruiting candidates, high qualifications do not guarantee instructional quality and intangible traits play a strong role in contributing to teacher effectiveness. The response of one of the teachers in my sample reflects the wide range of skills teachers must develop;

A quality teacher plans, delivers well, evaluated, provides feedback, is punctual, patient, has good communication skills, genuine, honest, empathetic, warm, competent, confidential, always improving competence by attending workshops, reading literature, always trying to ‘upgrade’ self. A quality teacher keeps good records of performance of students and self, is flexible, a nurturer, wise, resourceful, humorous, works on her own initiative. (TJ, 2008)

When teachers talked about how they had improved their own practice in the last two years, they identified issues such as improvement in:

- preparing their students for examinations
  
  Getting the students to prepare for their most important concern, the exam. As a matter of fact I get them to write the exam paper while I teach, without them even realising what they are doing. (SG, 2008)

- meeting the expectations of the curriculum
  
  I am able to pace the class so that we tick all the important boxes but still have time to discuss issues that students are interested in (DK, 2008)

- the ability to spot teachable moments
  
  The ability to spot suitable moments, when the time is just right to teach that nugget of truth. That bit of information that is going to be vital in the whole process (GH, 2008)

- their own efforts at self improvement
Finding resources that help me to do a better job. I also evaluate myself and try to improve on something each time (SM, 2008)

I identified these as cognitive issues. They also highlighted other improvements, which I categorized as emotional issues such as improvements in

- tolerance level
  I am more tolerant and less anxious. More accepting that students may not come on board immediately. (TJ, 2008)

- warmth
  I try to exercise care and communicate openness and warmth, I think if students feel they can talk to you they will let you know when they are having difficulty and you can make adjustments if you know that for example, most of the class not getting a concept but too embarrassed to say so. (JW, 2008)

- nurture
  I think I’m less afraid to be nurturing. I think you sense that students want that kind of relationship but you want to stick to the syllabus. After a while you learn that you can do both (ZM, 2008).

Finally, one teacher identified as a social and relational issue that had improved:

- improving interaction of students during the learning process
  Getting students to interact with each other and to learning, to be part of the process. I ask ‘What do you think?’, ‘How do you understand this?’ It’s not what I say but your understanding of it. So we can have discussions and critique things as a group. It’s not just listening to the teacher. (AW, 2008).

This final item was put forward by one teacher but received the support of many others who elaborated on the value of helping students get more from the process and not limit their expectations of success to doing well in the final examination. This final item is also the one which has a strong social dimension.

Overall, teachers expressed the view that when learners achieve their full potential, when they gain optimum benefits of the course then teachers know that they have succeeded.
So far I have discussed the perspectives of respondents on what characterises quality teaching in adult education and ways in which quality teachers are described. This study appreciates that most of the faculty in IUC are part-time teachers and I wanted to know how respondents felt part-time teachers functioned in IUC.

**Part-time Adult Educators**

One very important link in the chain of quality adult education is the adult educator. Well trained adult educators are essential for the implementation of education programmes that are responsive to the dynamic challenges of the twenty-first century (Youngman, 2005). In this section, the contribution of part-time faculty to IUC will be discussed as well as any limitations that administrators, students and teachers themselves perceive exist because of their part-time status.

IUC employs a large number of part-time staff on contract (for a copy of the contract please see Appendix G). The institution at inception, offered primarily part-time programmes with classes in the evening or on weekends. The flagship programme, Diploma and Bachelors degree in Theology was the only full-time programme but was structured to favour a strong practical component in which classroom time was scheduled for one intensive week per month. Students worked in placement and were visited by tutors in the field. Courses were modularised and delivered over 15-week long semesters. This structure was supported by a small core of full-time staff and a large number of part-time staff. In 2005, the institution gained university status, and now has a wider array of programmes both full and part-time yet the ratio of part-time to full-time teachers is currently still high. For instance, the University Council of Jamaica (UCJ), which has responsibility for registration, accreditation and monitoring post-
secondary programmes, in its 2007 report of an accreditation visit to the institution makes reference to academic staff attached to the Bachelor of Education (Primary). A total of forty-three (43) faculty members were listed of which only four (4) were employed full-time. Of this number, 70% of the faculty were trained teachers and 86% had qualifications above the Masters level. UCJ commented that faculty was, for the most part, qualified to teach the programme but concern was expressed about “the extent of the institution’s dependence on part-time faculty for the delivery of the programme, especially with regard to the institution’s ability to effectively pull faculty together for the kind of staff development activities and the kinds of dialogue and inputs necessary to enhance and enrich the programme” (UCJ, 2007). The UCJ’s recommendation was that every effort be made to

- increase the number of full-time faculty,
- improve student access to faculty, for instance, by encouraging lecturers to have structured consultation times outside of lecture time
- get part-time faculty together in staff development and dialogue (UCJ, 2007).

When I interviewed administrators in 2008, IUC had on register 323 teaching staff of which 93% were part-time staff. This concern was acknowledged by administrators of the university who indicated that this was being seriously examined and that in the first phase the plan is to reduce the aggregate number of part-time faculty and engage those staff who are employed by the institution for more hours. In this way the institution would have a smaller number of adjunct staff who, although part-time, would be involved in more areas of the institution’s life (AD, 2008).
Addressing the UCJ’s concern in this matter does indicate the university’s appreciation of the limitations to the delivery of quality education when an institution does not have enough full-time faculty members. It appears though that this response, of employing fewer part-timers with more responsibilities could be a way of applying a short-sighted ‘band aid’ which does not promote enough real change in the way staffing is structured or in financial investment from the university (avoiding the need to pay for full-time contracts). It does not address the need of part-time faculty for job security and benefits, does not address the need to improve the student/full-time faculty ratio so that students have more staff resources available to them, nor does it guarantee that more faculty will be involved in the university’s extra curricular activities, leadership, administration, decision making and professional development events.

To understand how part-time faculty currently function in IUC, administrators were interviewed on the involvement of part-time teachers in the university and responses were sought from students and teachers themselves on whether part-time teachers made a positive contribution to the university. In particular, I spoke with an Academic Dean and a Regional Dean; both persons had responsibility for appointing academic staff for their programmes, evaluating and renewing of contracts. All of the administrative officers interviewed agree that part-time faculty are integrally involved in the life of the institution however, in terms of their participation in decision-making, their role was not significant although effort was made to involve them more in this area of the institution’s life.

The role is somewhat peripheral … [we would like to] …incorporate them into aspects of the university’s life. For example, we have vetting sessions and curriculum meetings that they are expected to attend as part of the contractual agreement (AD, 2008).
Part-time faculty however were normally only required to attend one vetting and one curriculum meeting per year. Vetting meetings are held to formalise the end of module exam papers and curriculum meetings are held as a one-day retreat to discuss any new courses or other changes in the curriculum. These meetings are included in the part-time teachers’ contract and attendance is considered a part of the basic teaching obligation in addition to teaching and marking papers. In terms of the usefulness of these meetings to the institution, it is clear that the university would value the input of part-time faculty in setting and vetting examination questions and fine-tuning curriculum issues. However, in building skills or providing support to part-time faculty, there is no evidence that these meetings qualify as professional development events. They are the only events to which attendance is required for part-time faculty beyond attendance related to teaching duties. Attendance at any other event is optional. In addition, the university does not offer any incentive other than the payment of travel expenses and lunch to attendees.

AD explained that involvement of part-time teachers in the life of the institution outside of the basic teaching obligation was desirable but that even if the teachers were available, the institution was unable to accommodate them adequately “we have a problem, of space. While we want part-time people to be more integrated, we do not have the space to accommodate them.” By this, she referred to physical working space such as desk space and office space. Generally part-time teachers used the library or a vacant classroom to meet students and to do preparation for their classes. These facilities were not always available and did not guarantee privacy. Indeed, in the focus groups, as the issue of work space was discussed, one teacher went further to cite a desire for parking space,
indicating how this affected her sense of feeling that she was an important part of the organization. Part-time teacher TJ felt part-time staff would feel more valued by the institution if they had secure parking. Instead, they had to park on the road or away from the institution. She pointed out that this was particularly challenging because she had a limited time to get to her evening class after her day job and after searching for parking would often arrive with little time to spare. Consequently, she felt stressed and that the institution did not care about her welfare as long as she delivered her classes.

In one focus group, which discussed this issue of space, teachers spoke of their assumption that full-time teachers had access to better facilities and that it was an indication that full-time staff was more highly regarded by the institution than they were. Other teachers expressed the view that although they felt satisfied about their work they often feel alone and isolated, and experience a lack of interaction that can lead to alienation and de-motivation.

I don’t know if I feel so much a part of the university. I think my work speaks for itself. I think they are OK with me and what I do…but in terms of the whole dynamics of the institution, we don’t know most of the other staff. Unless you had studied with someone and knew each other before, apart from that, we don’t have meetings where we get to know each other. [Because of this poor level of relationship, part-time faculty] really come because you are slated to come and you know your obligation is to come. ..but I get the feeling you are not so much into it in terms of being a part of the institution.

Last semester I did a course and I was the only one teaching it. So I prepared my [exam] paper, I made sure it was well written, you probably wanted a second opinion from somebody teaching but no one else was doing it. So I just took my papers home and marked them, handed in what I’m required to hand in, collect my salary and go. That aspect, the social interaction needs to be worked on, otherwise people don’t take the job seriously because they don’t feel a part and may not put as much effort or interest into what they are doing....it affects the motivation to do the work. (JW, 2008)
Part-time teachers can be isolated; not knowing other faculty, any opportunity to get to know each other would be valued. (GH, 2008)

This feeling of alienation was expressed by several part-time faculty, however, members of IUC administration expressed appreciation of part-time staff and reiterated that they were core to the institutions and were in fact “on the front line” (HR, 2008) and were often the first point of contact for students. One of the university’s vice-presidents considered them “critical to the institution” (VP, 2008) since they offered flexible hours and are able to bring workplace knowledge and practical skills to the classroom. She felt that if there was a difference between the quality of part-time and full-time faculty it was not with regard to their delivery in the classroom but it was the fact that part-timers were not available for wider involvement in the institution. There were part-time staff with strong connections to the institution and VP explained that the administration had been intentionally finding ways to maintain relationship with people who have a connection with the institution. To this end, graduates who had completed Masters and Professional Doctorate programmes were encouraged to return to teach since they were likely to understand the ethos of the institution.

We feel if they are exposed to the ethos as students themselves and the kind of teaching learning approach we use then hopefully, when we employ them as lecturers they will employ those approaches (VP, 2008).

One of the Regional Deans (RD) who managed one of the three rural regional centres felt that the part-time teachers she worked with were committed, managed their time well and generally did a good job. She regretted that the institution did not benefit more from their input because of limitations on their time. This she said meant that students did not usually have access to one-on-one time with teachers and that full-time
staff in her region were put under more pressure to cover the various non-teaching duties that existed. RD indicated that “possibly 90%” of the academic staff in that region were part-time. She indicated that although part-time faculty were generally academically qualified at least up to a Masters degree level, many do not have experience teaching adults but have experience in industry or commerce or are experienced primary and secondary level teachers (RD, 2008). RD also remarked that in rural areas it was sometimes difficult to find teachers with all the skills, qualifications and teaching resources desired and so compromises had to be made. In selecting staff, she looked for those who had interest in the discipline and the institution, interest in the students and a “good attitude” (RD, 2008).

Part-time teachers felt that they took their jobs seriously and did all they could to provide good quality teaching that was sensitive to the peculiar needs of adult students.

We are providing crucial service to the institution. Most of the students are part-time, working people who can only come in the afternoons; we are in the same boat. Teachers have day jobs too and we came to classes in the evening. We share a common bond, we all come in tired, and we are able to make a fruitful give and take. We find a way to help them get on with what we need to get on with. Time does not allow us to give more than we are giving, to be more involved in the life of the organization such as attending meetings is difficult sometimes. (GH, 2008)

I think most people are [well equipped] and if they have any doubt that they are not equipped they make effort to prepare, spend long hours preparing. Its about their own self esteem, they don’t want to fail either, and they remember that they are teaching adults and adults are far more critical, they make the effort and so may even over prepare. (TJ, 2008)

I remind myself that these are adult learners and they come with more than the younger learners in terms of life experiences, a determination that I am here because I want to be here, I don’t have any time to waste. So their being here is more economical. You need to respect their need not to be frivolous. They don’t have the energy, time or money, you need to be economical with how you tier what needs to be done for them to meet requirements (ZM, 2008)
Students were asked whether they experienced any difference in quality between part-time and full-time faculty and to say what they needed from the education experience. The majority of respondents (61%) indicated that they experienced no difference. Some respondents elaborated to say there should be no difference between the two, that teachers should be faithful to their roles regardless of their status, part-time or full-time.

Examples of these responses are:

- Personally I don’t think there is a difference. The teaching quality depends on the teacher’s commitment to the task.

- No [difference in teaching quality], they learn the same thing and bring across the same information but in different ways. The part time teacher may do something else to get additional cash to help out.

- No! A teacher is always a teacher in any given situation for example at home, church, school, on the road. Teaching is a built in character.

- No difference and it should not be. The part time teacher may have less time available in terms of contact with the student but the quality should be the same. Full time teacher may have more contact time.

- There is no difference between the two. The part time teacher works equally hard as the full time teacher.

- No not really. One can be a part time teacher and do a full time teacher’s work. It’s how best you as a teacher manage your work.

- A teacher can not be a part time teacher because eyes are always watching you, modelling you and expecting the best.
  (SQ, 2008)

In the main, these responses seemed not to be focused on experiences but rather on what respondents considered to be ideal, how things should be.
Table 5-4

Student views on differences between part-time and full-time teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No difference</th>
<th>33 (61%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Difference</td>
<td>18 (33%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>3(6%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of those who saw differences, a minority of respondents preferred part-time faculty to full-time faculty since they were seen to be more focused and goal-oriented during the teaching time. These students indicated that;

- Part time teachers tend to be more focused and goal-driven, Full time teachers are usually more stressed as their daily routine some times do not allow for any form of relaxation between classes.

- From my experience, Part time teachers who are also involved in other activities, for example work as business persons; add a greater dimension to the teacher/learner process. (SQ, 2008)

Most of the respondents in this group held the opposite view that full-time faculty were to be preferred because they were more available for contact outside of class hours, more generally accessible, had more time to offer to the student, were more connected to the institution and more informed of student needs. The following list illustrates these responses

- Full-time teachers are more involved in the goal.
- Full-time teachers take time out to know students and are patient with the students who are slow in learning while the part-time teacher is more likely to be interested in getting her work done within the stipulated time frame, not caring whether or not her students learn.
Part-time teaching is teaching by the hour at a particular time. Full-time teaching is teaching during regular hours from Monday to Friday. More contact hours are spent with students during full-time.

Those that are part-time tend not to put in their all as they see themselves as just holding a space for someone.

Part-time teachers are not as dedicated and are less informed about the students’ he/she teaches because of the time spent with them.

Less energy in part-time teachers and they tend to be less prepared for a class especially if coming from a day job.

Full-time teachers are more committed to their job and more concerned about the performance of the student. Most part-time teachers just do it for the extra money.

Full-time teachers are more prepared and easier to reach. Part-time teachers have a focus on other activities.

Part-time teachers bring across their information in a succinct manner, whereas full-time teachers use various methods to facilitate understanding.

Part-time teachers tend to be hasty, sometimes disorganised. (SQ, 2008)

Although no one indicated that they had personally suffered disadvantage, there were comments that part-time faculty were more pressured to limit most of their interaction to class time and so may leave the slow student behind and that

Some part-time teachers do it [teach] only for the extra money (SQ, 2008).

Nevertheless, as indicated above, the most popular response was typified by this comment:

No difference and it should not be. Part-time teachers may have less contact time but the quality should be the same (SQ, 2008).

Students did not seem to identify lecturers by their part-time or full-time status but held the same expectations for all their lecturers. Part-time teachers themselves expressed the view that although they felt on the
periphery of the institution in terms of participation in issues of leadership and management, they felt that they did a good job with their teaching commitments.

Two teachers in the sample expressed the view that there would be a difference between the delivery of trained and untrained teachers. This view was held by two trained teachers and was not expressed by students or administrators. In fact one of IUC’s vice presidents (VP) commented that many students expressed a preference for part-time lectures with experience in industry, commerce or the NGO (non-governmental organization) sectors over those lecturers whose background is in the classroom. Another officer in charge of a rural centre indicated that

Lecturers who teach full-time in teachers’ colleges tend to teach as if they are teaching children – students prefer lecturers who have taught adults (RD, 2008).

Similarly, administrator AD expressed general satisfaction with the contribution of part-time staff in terms of their teaching functions and thought they only lacked “institutional loyalty”.

...this is not their full-time job; their loyalty is to their [full-time] jobs. They are here, maybe to earn additional income...for example, when I teach a class I also focus on how what I do impacts on the university in totality, I don’t know if they [the part-time faculty] see it that way. It might be that the extra mile that a full-time staff will go to, you don’t see in the adjunct staff. For example, if there is a book that is not available in the library, I will go the extra mile to make photocopies [of the section we need] because I know that we may not have money to provide all the books. The adjunct staff will say ‘the book not in the library, tell IUC to put the books in the library’. Our full-time staff will have an engendered loyalty (AD, 2008).

I asked about this loyalty, whether she thought it could be developed and if the institution had a role in its development. She further explained that part-time faculty who have been with the institution a long time and those who have bought into the vision of the institution are more likely to show
that loyalty. Teachers raised this issue in focus groups in that they indicated that they were at a disadvantage in supporting the whole range of student needs as they were not given enough information about the institution outside of information relating to specific teaching responsibilities. This position is supported by Wyles (1998) who claims that in her research part-time and full-time faculty were equally effective and equally qualified and that the limitations of part-time faculty were in large part caused by their contracts which did not allow them time and support to be involved in the institution beyond teaching the modules to which they were assigned.

In my study, part-time faculty expressed the desire to have more involvement in decision-making even as administrators articulated their need for more institutional loyalty. This disconnect was another instance of students and administrators wanting greater involvement of part-time faculty while apparently being unaware that the faculty was indeed open to greater involvement but needed more support in order to be so involved. This appeared typical of communication between part-time faculty and administration and highlighted the recommendation from UCJ (UCJ accreditation report, 2007) that opportunities for dialogue be increased. In fact, teachers who participated in focus groups mentioned how they found the process of talking with their colleagues during the focus groups discussions useful and that they would be willing to continue a similar process to build relationships. In each focus group there were participants who had not met all the members of the group before. On more than one occasion, teachers started conversations with each other about their teaching roles. For example, I mentioned earlier a conversation in which teachers discussed sharing strategies to address the incidences of students submitting assignments after the deadline. Teachers mentioned how much
they would appreciate opportunities for social interaction with their colleagues. At the end of one focus group, four teachers stayed behind just talking about their experiences over the drinks and cookies I had provided. They were sharing anecdotes of teaching adults, hints and suggestions of strategies they have used and laughing together. I was sorry that I had turned the recorder off and did not want to interrupt their spontaneous interaction by asking for permission to turn it on again. I noted however, that these teachers who had not chatted with each other before, although they had all worked with IUC for more than a year each, had easy conversation and seemed to have much in common. Without being prompted they gave support to each other with some of them promising future contact and exchanging telephone numbers.

Feedback from students, teachers and administrators suggest that part-time faculty play an important role in the function of IUC. They form the majority of the teaching staff and are the ones who have the most classroom contact with students. Students and administrators are generally satisfied with their work in the classroom and teachers are pleased with their own work. There is a gap however, in terms of their contribution to the fuller life of the university, they do not participate enough in faculty meetings, often do not take on tasks beyond teaching and are usually unavailable for professional development events. On the other hand, part-time faculty express the desire to improve their contribution to the university, to be more integrated, more informed and more equipped and they claim they would value closer relationships with each other and with the institution itself. To this end of enhancing the contribution of part-time faculty, the data shows that respondents had clear ideas regarding improving the teaching quality of part-time teachers. First of all, respondents identified some skills that they thought adult educators should
have and then made suggestions about how these skills can be strengthened.

**Skills for Adult Educators**

Since adult educators are so integral to the education process for adult learners, the skills that adult educators bring to the classroom are important. Across the sector they also have a wide variety of roles and tasks including ‘teaching, organising, counselling, evaluation, facilitation, coaching and mobilising learners as well as undertaking research and developing teaching materials’ (Youngman and Singh, 2005). Once more, responses were grouped in three categories, Cognitive Skills, Psychodynamic Skills and Social Skills. These categories have been used throughout this study to provide common criteria that can facilitate comparison of responses. The responses in the Cognitive and Psychodynamic categories were the most popular and were almost equally weighted with 41% of the responses being identified as cognitive skills and 48% being identified as psychodynamic skills.

In these categories I included comments that related to the teacher’s capacity to encourage and maintain good interpersonal relationships and to show emotional understanding and give emotional support to student (Psychodynamic) as well as the teacher’s knowledge of content and display of teaching skills (Cognitive) and the teacher’s role in communication and building a healthy social atmosphere in the classroom (Social). Some quotations from student questionnaires reflect students’ expectations of psychodynamic and cognitive skills that their teachers should have. In terms of psychodynamic skills,

- Teachers should have respect for students and understand students’ challenges while being able to offer solutions based on their experiences.
- Teachers should be role models.
- Teachers should be emotionally stable with a high level of self-esteem and self-confidence.
- Persons teaching adults must be flexible, non-judgemental, considerate and understanding. They should also be of a confident personality.
- The person must be approachable and respectful to students, tolerable, sensitive and well-rounded. (SQ, 2008)

Students indicated that part time teachers should display cognitive skills such as:
- These persons should go through andragogical training to assist them to be better prepared to teach adults.
- Lessons should be prepared before hand and sent to students so they come to class prepared.
- Teachers should have good command of the area that they teach and should use more than one method of delivery.
- Teachers should have sound academic qualifications and the ability to impart their knowledge effectively.
- Teaches should be competent in the area they teach, knowledgeable about current economic trends and technologically equipped to do research using internet and other media. (SQ, 2008)

As far as social skills are concerned, students expect that teachers will
- Have good communication skills.
- They should be able to interact with adults and understand what they ask.
- Teachers should be willing to learn from adult students as well.
- Teachers should have the ability to initiate meaningful discussions. (SQ 2008)
The nexus of cognitive and psychodynamic dimensions seem to be highly valued among adult students and this suggests that an awareness of the importance of this connection and in particular the importance of the emotional element to andragogy may be beneficial to educators (Esposito, 2006). Adult learners in the study value the content as well as the process and consistently mention the importance of positive emotional and interpersonal experiences between student and teacher. The feedback from respondents reflects that the way teaching and learning takes place is as important as the content. The teacher is challenged to consider both content and method of delivery according to Chickering and Gamson (1987) ‘What is taught, after all, is at least as important as how it is taught’.

**Figure 5-13**

***Pie chart showing Students’ Views on the Equipping Skills that Teachers should have***

Responses that I have included in the psychodynamic category were particularly popular; some of them were (mentioned here in order of popularity): respectful, knowledgeable, patience/tolerance. In the cognitive category I have included such items as teaching skills, comments such as
clarity, creativity, flexible, as well as comments relating to adult learning. Also included are subject knowledge and responses that referred to knowledge of the subject matter to be taught, preparedness and resourcefulness with regard to communicating the content. A large component in the social category contained comments that related to communication. In the categorization used by Illeris, communication is considered a social dimension, however, in many of the responses communication skills were mentioned in company with other emotional/affective skills. If these categories were combined (social and psychodynamic), 59% of responses would indicate that students feel teachers need equipping in emotional and interpersonal skills. These are skills that may not have been taught in initial teacher-training. In the focus groups, teachers commented that these emotional skills develop over time through experience. If emotional awareness gets better with experience, a novice teacher may be at a disadvantage since he/she may not have the experience to make the kinds of judgement that emotionally aware teachers make.

Since there were so many common responses in the sub-categories, I looked at the data again to identify the most popular responses. The chart below disaggregates these categories. In the category I call psychodynamic skills I include words such as ‘respectful’, ‘patient’, ‘flexible’ and ‘understanding’ which were repeated often. As mentioned earlier, these seem to be particularly valued by adults who want their teachers to be competent in these areas. The category labelled ‘cognitive’ included several responses such as ‘training in teaching adults’ and ‘skills with dealing with adults’ as equipping needs.
The social skills category included responses regarding communication and what one respondent called equipping in skills in being an ‘extrovert’. Students most of all, wanted their teachers to be more equipped in general teaching skills, content/knowledge of their discipline and in emotional skills.

This seems to be consistent with students responses made to other items in the questionnaire that indicate an expectation that quality teaching includes strong cognitive as well as psychodynamic elements. Since
students in the sample seem to be consistent about what they value and what equipping they think teachers should receive, it is appropriate to now consider how students think quality teaching can be enhanced.

**How Quality Teaching can be enhanced.**

Lankard (1983) claims that the quality of part-time teachers can be strengthened by orientation (to the institution and to specific programmes), professional development (since many part-time instructors do not have formal training in education) and evaluation and supervision (to ensure the maintaining of standards). Students, teachers, administrators and policy representatives were asked about provisions to enhance adult educators’ teaching. V.M, U.K. and S.P my three contacts at the level of adult education policy, were not aware of any standard provisions for professional development of adult educators. Instead they expressed the expectation that individual institutions made these provisions:

> I guess at the institution that employs them, there is access to some form of orientation to teaching adults, library resources and other older and hopefully more experienced adult education teachers (VM, 2009).

They also mentioned the Mount St. Vincent University’s (MSVU) graduate programme in Lifelong Learning. Mt St Vincent University is a Canadian University that offers this two-year research-based programme in collaboration with the JACAE. JACAE initiated this collaboration in an effort to provide formal post graduate training for local adult educators (VM, 2009). The programme is usually accessed by trained graduate teachers who teach full time. JACAE did not keep track of teachers who had completed the programme and did not have records of the institutions they worked in. I spoke with the local (Jamaican) administrator (U.K.) of the
programme. She said the programme was highly regarded by teachers, the curriculum was relevant to adult education and students were able to adapt their learning to the Jamaican situation. However, the costs of the programme made it prohibitive for some persons. In addition to tuition fees students have to make time and find finances for travel and accommodation expenses for attending the intramural portion of the programme in Canada. This has been a programme that has been very relevant for adult educators seeking graduate opportunities. For faculty such as those in this study this type of programme was not suitable since it is a graduate programme that requires a level of dedication and investment that part time faculty were generally unable or unwilling to commit to. Without mentioning specific programmes, such as the MSVU programme as models, I sought to determine what respondents felt were reasonable options to support adult educators.

**CPD for IUC staff**

IUC staff, administrators and students were familiar with the concept of Continuous Professional Development and had ideas regarding CPD that would be appropriate for the IUC context. Administrators were asked to comment on the provision of support and in particular CPD opportunities by the institution (IUC) while teachers and students were asked what type of CPD, if any, they thought would be helpful in their context.

From the perspective of an administrator, AD admitted that

> The [professional development] events that have taken place have been more focussed on the needs of the institution rather than the needs of the individual teacher. (AD, 2008)

She mentioned as an example an annual curriculum meeting. This meeting is a day long event at which curriculum issues are discussed. Normally the
first session is a seminar that focuses on an issue that the institution has identified as useful for staff. For instance, seminars in the past have focused on assessment, writing examination questions, teaching to the curriculum. AD admitted that this single session, although considered useful by many teachers, has always been set on the agenda identified by the leadership of the institution,

I find that whatever we put in is usually specific to our needs. We develop them as what we see our needs are. I don’t know that we have looked at their [teachers] needs and planned development for their needs, or asked them what are some of the areas you think we could develop (AD, 2008).

Further, VP pointed out that the one day event is often held during the Easter school holidays; this was convenient for school teachers who once represented the majority of part-time faculty. This is not a time that is suitable for persons working outside of the school system. Generally, AD disclosed, part-time faculty can not afford to attend events that require them to take a day off from their substantive jobs. IUC does not pay for attendance at these events and offers only lunch and reimbursement of travelling expenses. At these and other events such as staff meetings, attendance of part-time faculty is inconsistent. At staff meetings for instance, usually only part-time faculty who have scheduled teaching sessions on the day of the meeting (and would be on the compound regardless) are likely to attend. The institution was aware of these limitations and wanted to put in place measures that would build more cohesion between faculty (both part and full-time). AD discussed the limitations:

It is a two fold issue, there are things we know we should do but are not doing. Some of which, if we do...because of the aspect of their time...they think we contract them for 45 hours plus vetting and curriculum, they feel they are not obliged to attend anything outside of their contract. We try as much as we can to incorporate them in the regular...we invite them to all our functions (AD, 2008).
In attempting to identity these measures, to incorporate part-time faculty in regular activities, I spoke with the Director of Human Resources (HR). HR informed me that some plans were already made to include social events at which staff would meet such as departmental meetings, a system to keep in touch with part-time staff (who are dispersed in regional centres and sub-centres throughout the island) and identify specific needs and networking through the newly established intranet system. It was evident though that currently the scope of HR’s authority was limited to the offices in central administration. She seemed to have conflicting information about whether part-time staff were paid to attend seminars (she said that they were paid while AD said they were not) and was unaware about how evaluation and reviews were conducted and utilised. She said that the responsibility for the welfare of part-time faculty and any human resource issues relevant to them rest in the hands of the Deans who supervise their work. It seemed that this arrangement was considered most relevant since staff was dispersed in regional centres and so related primarily to their line manager who was the Regional Dean or Academic Dean (see IUC organizational chart). These senior managers are not however required to be trained or experienced in Human Resource Management (HRM) while the university’s HRM expert does not relate to regional staff. IUC could consider more efficient use of this staff resource, so that the Director of Human Resources (HR) assume responsibility for the entire HR portfolio and act in an advisory capacity to the Deans who are line managers for part-time faculty.

There is currently no comprehensive Human Resource Development plan that includes all staff. Including part-time faculty in a comprehensive plan would also provide the opportunity to increase interaction and build relationship between part-time and full-time faculty. Apart from the often
cited curriculum and vetting meetings, there were no official occasions at which staff from various centres interacted. In one centre, the Regional Dean (RD) made provisions for staff teaching in the Early Childhood Development programme to participate in training being conducted by a local Teachers’ College.

In order to obtain the perspective of students and teachers themselves, questionnaire and interview respondents were asked a general question about what they think institutions can do to support their academic staff and further to give ideas on the kind of continuing professional development that can be useful toward this end. Responses were made from learners in relation to teachers in general and also specifically in relation to part-time teachers. Examples of general responses are included here:

- Provide adequate resources for training relevant to subject areas.
- Develop and orientation process for students and teachers to explain thoroughly what boundaries, rights and responsibilities are theirs.
- Have sessions arranged where senior teachers sit in class and observe less experienced teachers and make recommendations where they see fit.
- Offer teachers upgrading course to make them marketable.
- Organise workshops or seminars to discuss how to improve teaching quality.
- Conduct evaluation of teachers’ performance every two years to determine the progress made and assess fall backs.
- Provide a safe, clean environment for teachers to work in.
- Provide proper equipment and furniture.
- Grant scholarships for educational benefit of teachers.
Educational institutions should provide opportunities for teachers to engage in reflective activities which promote self-analysis and cooperative learning process. (SQ, 2008)

Students also made comments that relate directly to part-time teachers, these comments showed more emphasis on training support. Here are some examples of comments that relate directly to part-time faculty:

- Institutions should make sure that part-time teachers have a set classroom to stay in so they won’t have to be seeking classrooms to meet students.
- Make materials available to part-time faculty to use in their own time.
- Ensure continuous upgrading for part-time instructors.
- Provide incentive to motivate instructors, these may include: sick and holiday pay.
- Provide a lounge for them to relax when they get here after their day job. This helps them to be more relaxed and comfortable when they are here.
- Individual efforts and achievement should be rewarded. (SQ, 2008)

Three themes were identified from student responses, infrastructure/resource support, emotional/social support and training/education support. Responses that were grouped in the category of ‘infrastructure and resources’ include; classroom space, lounge for teachers and equipment. This category also included those provisions that educational institutions can make to support teachers’ development such as incentives and paid time off. ‘Emotional and social’ issues included responses such as; ‘tolerance’, ‘motivational speaking’, ‘reflective activities’ and ‘compassion’. The ‘training and education’ category included various responses about workshops and seminars including the development of skills in information technology.

**Figure 5-15**
For these questions the category emotional/social had the smallest number of responses. Unlike some previous responses in which the emotional dimension was highly rated, students did not have high expectations of educational institutions providing emotional and social support. In response to the question as it relates to teachers in general, infrastructural support and resource support was cited almost 60% of the time and training/education was mentioned about 30% of the time. However, when asked the same question in relation to part-time staff, responses were reversed. Training/education was cited just less than 60% of the time and infrastructural support more than 30% of the time. In relation to training and education for part-time staff, respondents cited the need for training that was flexible enough to meet the needs of part-timers such as online courses, refresher courses and time incentives (in particular: more time to interact with students, more time to offer counselling and to give clarification and being paid for this extra time).
Teachers indicated that they enhanced their teaching skill by doing advanced academic courses, reading relevant literature and using their own experience as adult learners (Teacher responses 2008) all at their own initiative. Nevertheless, teachers expressed that CPD events organised by the institutions would be helpful.

To engage teachers in furthering their own personal professional development. (MT, 2008)

By being more deliberate in identifying particular challenges that are unique to the profession. (DK, 2008)

When invited to propose inclusions for a CPD programme that had relevance for part-time adult educators, both teachers and students gave suggestions. I have displayed the responses in tables. Ideas are grouped according to the type of CPD suggested, support required and content proposed.

**Table 5-5**

**Respondents’ suggestions of types of CPD for Part-time Teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of CPD</th>
<th>Student Response</th>
<th>Teacher Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fieldwork/practical/hands-on</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Time</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentorship</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On-line support</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ongoing short events</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal rap sessions</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Day-long training</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner Conference (including feedback from students)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentations from Experts</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Field work, practical/hands-on activities and social time were identified by both teachers and students. In addition, students identified the more traditional type of CPD events that involved presentations from experts and day-long training. One significant inclusion is the suggestion of ‘learner
conferences’ at which student feedback is given, part of the agenda is informed by expressed needs of learners and learners are invited to join teachers for part of the programme. Teachers included in their suggestions, options with flexible delivery (online, short events) as well as mentorship relationships.

Table 5-6

Respondents’ suggestions of Professional Development support for Part-Time Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional Support</th>
<th>Development Support</th>
<th>Student Response</th>
<th>Teacher Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Better environment to teach in</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lounge area for part-time staff</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological tools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open communication system</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formative evaluation and student feedback that is available to faculty before the end of the module.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment for time spent in Professional Development (PD)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certification after having completed PD courses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgment by institution of those who have completed PD programmes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of support mechanisms, students suggest tools and infrastructure that will help the teacher (technology, lounge area) while teachers suggest less tangible options such as feedback, incentives and acts of appreciation by the institution. Similarly, in terms of content, students suggest that CPD focus on developing skills (technical, teaching and emotional skills); while teachers seem to focus on CPD that will help build relationships. Teachers identify the need for orientation packages (building relationship with the institution), training on how to teach adults (building relationships with adult students) programmes that build collegiality (building relationships with other teachers).
The majority of respondents made suggestions of content to be included in CPD programmes. Respondents had a variety of ideas on content for CPD programmes as shown in Table 5-7. They also suggested that engagement in a minimum number of CPD courses be a requirement for all staff.

I think you have to look at it as an extension of my service, so there is commitment to the task and benefit from it... in that you are making a statement regarding what you would like the institution to be and the outcome (VW, 2008).

RD commented that it would be helpful for persons from a primary or secondary teaching background to be involved in CPD as they needed to build skill in teaching adults in the same way that those who were not from a teaching background needed help with delivery methodology. Also she thought that delivery could be done through web based programmes

They [CPD programmes] could be packaged in such a way that they [teachers] can access through our website. They could go through it at their own pace and at the end get some kind of certificate. (RD, 2008)

Table 5-7
Respondents’ suggestions on Content of Professional Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional Content</th>
<th>Development Content</th>
<th>Student Response</th>
<th>Teacher Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orientation package for new staff.</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training on how to teach adults</td>
<td></td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programmes to build collegiality, relationship</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open communication system</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of new technology, audio visuals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training in Lesson planning and assessment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training in Time, Stress, Conflict, Behavioural management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Cognitive Coaching Approach”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modules on: Psychology, Communication, Self Confidence, Trust, Teamwork Self-Defence, Character building.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Incentives were considered to be important.
You are going to deal with...how do you motivate? What are the external motivations that the school provides? You talk about trade-off. If I’m going to give up something, to go must be to me more valuable than not to go. (SG, 2008)

Suggestions of incentives included being paid for time spent in CPD as well as certification. It could also include acknowledgement on completion of courses and the building of relationships. VW said

The incentive that you are talking about, teachers do need it, the institution should find ways of valuing the staff. You may not feel valued by the student, by the nature of the work, since we all know it’s a thankless job we should be more proactive in terms of valuing us...[it] can be the rapport that you establish with the person in the working relationship. (VW, 2008)

VP spoke of the requirement by the Ministry of Education that all lecturers receive teacher training. She said that an initial discussion was being held regarding offering teacher training for staff members who need to upgrade. She felt that in the same way the ideas about CPD could form part of a programme for which accreditation was sought that could be made available to interested faculty from other tertiary institutions.

Having compiled responses from students in relation to their memory of a good teacher/learner experience, how they characterize quality teaching and what they value in good teachers, I compared their responses with comments about CPD. Values were converted to percentages so that comparisons could be made. In the figure below I present an amalgamation of responses to four issues raised in this study:

- What is a good learner experience?
- What are the characteristics of good teachers?
- What is quality teaching?
- What features should CPD have?

**Figure 5-16**
Student views on Quality Teaching and CPD
Students particularly value characteristics that I have labelled as cognitive and psychodynamic/emotional characteristics. A good teacher is seen as someone with strong emotional and psychodynamic skills, yet in relation to quality teaching, both as an ideal and as experienced by respondents, although emotional skills are still valued, cognitive skills are considered more important. In fact, quality teaching for respondents is marked by the display of high cognitive skills (cited by 67% of the sample). Students then want a learning experience that is strong in terms of the quality of the content and the ability of the teachers to communicate this content. Yet, they want teachers who (in this context) are caring, warm and nurturing. When it comes to Continuing Professional Development (for part-time faculty), the preference for programmes that enhance emotional and psychodynamic skills is again evident.
In short it seems that respondents consider emotional and psychodynamic skills to be important for the teacher as individuals both in terms of how they should be as the ideal quality teacher and in terms of any further equipping they should receive. Yet, teaching as a whole requires more than strong emotional skills. The respondents expect teaching to be marked by even stronger cognitive skills. There seems to be an anomaly, ‘quality teaching’ is marked by more cognitive characteristics and ‘quality teachers’ are identified as those with strong psychodynamic skills. This may be suggesting that adult students anticipate that the learning experience is a composite of dynamic factors. One important goal is knowledge acquisition so they expect their teachers to be competent in knowledge, that is, content competence is a given expectation in tertiary level education. As well, the teacher is expected to bring more than knowledge and competence in content to the classroom, the teacher is expected to be emotionally sensitive to adult students, to teach in a caring and nurturing atmosphere. This matter of taking the learner’s perspective into account when developing teaching/learning experience is strongly represented in literature on learner–centeredness (McCombs, 1994, Fasko Jr and Grubb, 1997), adult education (Tough, 1967, Mezirow, 1991, Candy, 1991, Knowles, 1973) teaching adults (Rogers, 2002, Illeris, 2003, Brookfield, 1986) and is captured in a quotation mentioned earlier from Chickering and Gamson: ‘What is taught, after all, is at least as important as how it is taught’ (Chickering and Gamson, 1987). This is an important feature of education for the adult students in this sample.

Teachers’ responses also emphasised psychodynamic factors. Teachers spoke of the importance of feelings (VW, GH, JW, SG) both the feelings of students and their own need (as teachers) to make connections with each other. Students need to feel that their teacher has confidence in them and
often work harder if they feel the teacher believes they are capable of succeeding,

...self esteem is impacted so strongly by those who are supposed to build you up...students who are believed in tend to perform better than those who are not believed in...so the emotional aspect of learning is crucial...if someone makes you feel that you can do it then you are motivated to do it (SG, 2008).

Also, part-time teachers need to be able to build relationships with their colleagues. Examples of comments in this regard are:

...we need to have a common approach [to issues like late assignments for example]. (JW, 2008)

Yes, I know we can share strategy and I know there are more experienced teachers in here that I can learn from. (CM, 2008)

...if we could come together in some interactive manner as a group we could help to develop each other (JW. 2008)

For each semester they could have a fun day for lecturers, some little get-together...something that let you get to know each other as family. So you get to know each other and become support for each other and you can network. (DK, 2008)

CPD may be one way to bring these concerns together. Respondents shared many ideas of how professional development could help in building competence. Their suggestions indicated that they felt that professional development could contribute to enhancing both the cognitive and the psychodynamic dimensions.

**Key Points from Research**

Several important points were made by respondents. Below is a summary of the main points as they relate to self-directed learning, what adult learners value, characteristics of quality teaching and quality teachers, support needs of part-time faculty and suggestions for CPD for adult educators.
**Self-directed Learning**

Teachers consider adult students to lack self direction and to need academic guidance but adult students say they want nurture and emotional support. This is consistent with some of the literature on adult learning that claim that self-directed learning is not automatic for adults who do not have an experience of learning in this way. Learners who have been accustomed to a passive role as primary and secondary level students do struggle with the ambivalence of identifying how to manage the role of adult student. The conflict between their behaviour in their normal adult roles of parent, employee or employer and the expectations they have of a student role may make the adult learner uncomfortable and worried. I think the very physical structure of educational arrangements for adult learners—classrooms with desk and chairs in traditional school buildings may also influence these feelings of ambivalence.

Students in the sample however, did not mention a lack of self-directedness. They indicated that they expect nurture, emotional support and sensitivity to their reality as adult students from their teachers.

There seems to be a need for more dialogue about expectations of teachers and students. Teachers who have more power in the student/teacher relationship are in the position to help to create an environment in the classroom in which learner ambivalence can be managed.

**Adult Learners value Process more than Outcome.**

Teachers thought adult learners would be more interested in outcome given the sacrifices most adult student make to return to formal education, the costs and the challenges to manage time and resources. This assumption seemed logical. Student responses indicated that although students valued outcome and had expectations regarding how certification and good grades would be of benefit to them, they valued process more.
The word ‘process’ was used to label responses from students that related to the actual classroom experience and interaction with teachers and peers.

It seems that adult learners in this study had high expectations that the experience of attending classes and interacting with peers and teachers should have emotional and social value.

**Good learning experiences have cognitive and psychodynamic characteristics.**

When recalling a good learning experience, adult learners in the sample made a large number of positive comments about cognitive and psychodynamic elements. These included responses related to how the material was prepared or presented such as using visual aids, practical demonstration and the skills and techniques used by the teacher to explain concepts and make classes interesting. Psychodynamic characteristics include comments about teaching that is engaging, empowering and encouraging. When students cited the characteristics of quality teaching they identified a majority of cognitive factors but when they recalled their own experience of being part of a quality teaching and learning experience, they recalled primarily psychodynamic factors. Teachers as well identified primarily psychodynamic factors when they recalled their own experience of quality teaching and learning.

**Quality Teachers have strong cognitive and emotional characteristics but students value emotional characteristics more highly.**

Responses were grouped in categories. When combined, categories that relate to feelings and experiences as learners were more popular with respondents than the cognitive category. It appears that students expect that teachers’ competence on matters of content must be complemented
by emotional and interpersonal skills and indeed the students have expectations of the teacher adopting a care-giving role (understanding, patient, kind, a good listener...and so on.).

Respondents (adult students) include characteristics such as honest, humble, respectful, patient understanding, trustworthy and tolerant among those identified in a quality teacher. Perhaps this reflects adult students discomfort with the power dynamics between themselves and adult educators.

Respondents identify more cognitive characteristics when they speak of quality teaching but more psychodynamic characteristics when they talk of a quality teacher. This preference for psychodynamic factors indicates the significance of positive relationships in the dynamic between learner and teachers.

**Part-time faculty are valued.**

Part-time faculty are valued and feel they give good service yet they also feel alienated and isolated from the life of the university and from each other. Administrators feel part-time staff lack institutional loyalty. Part-time teachers express their interest in Continuing Professional Development especially events that will promote dialogue and relationship between staff.

**Continuing Professional Development (CPD) is necessary.**

Respondents are interested in CPD. Students believe teachers will benefit from CPD that helps them build skills. Adult students feel that many of their teachers already have cognitive skills and so bring this component to the table; they made strong proposals for programmes that enhanced emotional skills.
Teachers are interested in CPD that helps them build relationships. Respondents gave suggestions of CPD that is flexible, responds to feedback and expressed needs and involves practice (not only attending classes).

In the final chapter I will discuss the implications of these findings for adult educators in Jamaica and for IUC in particular.
CHAPTER 6
RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Introduction

In this thesis I have reported on exploratory research on the issue of enhancing the teaching skills of part-time adult educators in Jamaica through CPD. In the Jamaican context, adult education is at a stage at which it is seen as more than remedial education that compensates adult learners for opportunities lost in their childhood. Adult education is intentionally promoted as lifelong learning, based on a vision that all adults are important to society and should therefore be equipped to make full contribution to social life. In this work, I recognize that quality in adult learning and education is deeply linked to the role of teachers/educators and therefore teacher preparation makes an important contribution to meeting student needs. In fact, I agree with those (such as Miller, 2000; Campo, 2005; Youngman and Singh, 2005 and Torres, 2009) who argue that in the Caribbean context if the significant role of educators in adult education in not acknowledged, reforms in education ‘start out with a great impediment’ (Miller 2000, p 33).

Adult educators in Jamaica are not required to have specialist qualifications in order to teach adults. The majority of adult educators are either untrained teachers with subject/discipline qualifications or are trained to teach at the primary and secondary levels. Also, in institutions that cater to adult students, part-timers make up a significant majority of the faculty. These persons are teaching-staff who carry a considerable portion of the teaching load, but who do not benefit from the job security and professional support systems to which full time faculty have access. Adult educators, therefore, have challenges in the Jamaican context where
expectations of adult education have become more varied, more dynamic and more demanding. In this thesis, I asked students, administrators and part-time teachers, in an adult education institution, to indicate their views on the needs of adult learners, the characteristics of quality teaching and of good teachers and to make suggestions for professional development that can support good teaching.

This final chapter includes a discussion of the findings of the study as they relate to my original research questions and points out some implications of these findings. I offer a brief evaluation of my theoretical and methodological framework and identify some of the limitations encountered. I propose implications for the theoretical development of the field of adult education in general, for promoting quality teaching in the adult education sector in Jamaica in particular and for practice in The International University of the Caribbean (IUC) which is the case that is the context of this study. With reference to the IUC case, I propose a plan for implementing CPD in response to the needs identified by respondents. I argue that this study has significance for policy makers and practitioners and also makes a worthwhile contribution to the field of adult education. Finally, I propose issues that I contend are important for further work on this subject.

Theoretical Framework and Research Methodology

I chose a humanistic paradigm and considered it to be consistent with my own philosophical views and with much of the literature on adult education. Consequently, I chose to gather data for this study from both teachers and students in adult education and to structure my data gathering in a manner that allowed the voices of respondents to be clearly heard. Qualitative questionnaires with open-ended questions, semi-structured interviews and
focus groups were used as data gathering methods. I have also chosen a qualitative perspective for analysis and have used thematic analysis to process the data.

This issue could have been explored by the use of other methods, if my aim had been to conduct a survey or to amass generalisable data I would have attempted a study with a larger sample and collected more quantitative data. This was not my aim. Instead it was my intention to focus on one example of an institution in which adult teachers and learners meet and to hear from these significant players how they understood themselves and each other in the teaching/learning relationship and how they thought teaching quality could be improved.

I chose IUC for the context of this study because it is an institution that claims on ethos of sensitivity to adult learners. Its policies accommodate adult learners who are restricted by geographic boundaries (live in communities distant from traditional educational institutions), have work and family commitment (are unavailable for full-time study) and qualification limitations (do not meet normal matriculation qualification for traditional universities). IUC also requires its teaching staff to appreciate that it delivers a peculiar education product and claims to hire staff who subscribe to the institution’s ethos. Further, as an institution going through transition from College to University, IUC is in the process of adjusting its systems to accommodate this development. I anticipated that the institution would therefore be amenable to having its operations looked at in this study.
Research Implications and Relevance to Research Questions

Data for this research was collected from official organizational documentation, research literature on adult education in Jamaica, as well as students, teachers and administrators in an adult education institution ((IUC)). Participants expressed their views through responding to questionnaires, interviews and focus groups. Below, I summarise the major findings of my research as they relate to the questions that I had at the start of the study. These questions were introduced in Chapter One, as my Research Questions. Each research question will be restated and linked to a summary of the relevant findings.

Research Question 1- How has adult education evolved in the Jamaican context?

Traditionally, adult education held a very low priority in Jamaica’s education system. In Chapter Two, I explained that post-slavery education in Jamaica focused on primary level education. By 1970, eight years after independence from Britain, primary education and secondary education were well structured and the government had made good progress in striving for targets of universal primary and secondary enrolment.

However, in the 1970’s a UNESCO report on adult literacy highlighted that over 40% of the adult population was illiterate (Riley, 2002). The government of the time launched the Jamaican Movement for Adult Literacy (JAMAL). At the time of this study, JAMAL had evolved into JFLL (Jamaica Foundation for Lifelong Learning). This change from JAMAL to JFLL signifies a change in focus from adult education being remedial basic education to adult education signifying education for all-of-life and embracing the whole continuum from basic education to professional development and graduate degrees. Nevertheless, challenges remain in that adult education has low status, very little government funding, policy
and research are disconnected from practice, and teachers are not formally equipped to teach adults (Torres, 2004).

The importance of meeting these challenges to improve the status of adult education has been recognised by policy makers. There are signs of progress and indications of plans to standardise operations in the adult education sector and provide more policy support, nevertheless one area that still needs attention is the training of academic staff.

The majority of the academic staff in adult education institutions are part-time employees who are either not teacher trained or were trained to teach at the primary and secondary level. In the case used in this study, IUC, approximately 93% of academic staff was employed on part-time contracts. Adult education qualifications are not required in Jamaica. Teacher training institutions focus on training teachers for work at the primary and secondary level. The post-secondary level traditionally employees a large number of staff with advanced degrees in their discipline but with no teaching qualification. Although, there has been the encouragement, from academic institutions in further and higher education and the Ministry of Education, for pre-trained graduates to pursue a post-graduate teaching diploma, this is usually a 10 module programme and is not an attractive option for part-time faculty. As there is a shortage of local provisions for training in the specific field of adult education, some individuals access graduate programmes in foreign universities. While some individuals find their own way to improve their skills, but it is not usually a requirement that a part-time faculty have specialist training as adult educators.
This study finds that well-equipped adult educators are a crucial component in the mix to produce well educated adult learners. Since the social environment is so demanding and dynamic, and since most adult educators are part-time employees with no teacher training or training that is not focused on adult education, there is an opportunity for the development of on-the-job continuing professional development programmes to enhance teaching quality. CPD could provide flexible, on site, contextually relevant and interactive skill-building for those who teach in this sector.

**Research Question 2 – What do adult learners and adult educators in IUC value in adult education?**

Adult educators expressed the view that adult learners were primarily interested in certification and would be happy to receive certification for the minimum effort. Adult educators indicated that they expected adult learners to be self-directed and expressed disappointment that adult students seemed dependent and unwilling to challenge themselves or be challenged. On the other hand, adult learners did not indicate the desire to be self-directed as important to them but expressed the desire for emotional support and also valued the process of participating in education more than merely achieving the outcome of certification. When asked to identify what they needed in an education experience, the terms ‘understanding’, ‘patience’, ‘respect’ and ‘impartiality’ were the most popular with adult learners. Of these, the most cited need was the need for ‘understanding’. When students made reference to the term ‘understanding’, they included comments that suggested understanding in regard to general needs as well as special circumstances of adult students. Students also stated that they wanted learning experiences that were worthwhile and this was mentioned more often than the desire for certification or interest in the quality of teacher preparation.
These findings suggest that there is a gap that may be addressed by teachers creating a learning environment in which adult learners feel accepted, valued and comfortable enough to express their learning needs. Since educators have rational/legal power in the classroom that is either accorded to them by the institution and/or acknowledged by the student, teachers have an advantage in the teacher/student relationship (Jarvis, 1997). The onus is on teachers then to create a platform on which the expectations that learners have can be shared and negotiated. Adult educators may not always know how to meet the needs of adult learners and may feel at a disadvantage because adult learners may be older or have more life experience. Yet it is the teacher who has more control over the classroom environment and that environment can be an intimidating space for even a mature learner. It seems from this research that students do not formally communicate these needs to teachers who are unaware of student expectations. Adult educators indicated that end-of-module evaluations were regularly used but were completed at a point (at the end) when intervention in that module was no longer possible and information was only fed to them, from the Dean, who collected the data, when there was a problem with their teaching.

Communicating expectations could be facilitated by structured opportunities at the beginning of the school year (organised by the administration) when students and teachers talk about the programme ahead. Students at IUC were willing to respond to my questions and seemed to have a sense of what they wanted from the learning experience. Teachers could also be required to acquire this feedback from their classes and pass information on to the Heads of Department. In addition to being useful for individual teachers, this information could be fed into
professional development programmes for teachers to help build skills and equip them to provide the kind of support students need.

Research Questions 3 and 4
How do adult learners and adult educators in IUC characterise quality teaching?
How do adult learners and adult educators in IUC characterise good teachers?

Quality Teaching and good teachers must be both relevant and effective and seen to have cognitive, social and psychodynamic characteristics. However, quality teaching that students remember from their own experience seems to be identified with more social and psychodynamic characteristics while quality teaching as an ideal seems to be associated with more cognitive characteristics. In other words, students remember relationships and feelings when they recall a good experience as a learner. When they speak of quality teaching in an objective sense, they speak of matters such as well prepared teachers and well presented material.

Teachers have similar values when they speak of their own experiences as learners, yet they think that adult students regard the outcome of their studies, certification, exam results, more highly than they value the process of being exposed to new learning. Student responses do not concur. Students do value input (for example, what teachers bring to the classroom by way of preparation) process (how classes are conducted and relationships in the classroom) and outcome (certification and resulting benefits like salary increases). Although, students value the reward of certification and a favourable outcome more than the skills or preparation of the teacher, they value the process most. They want the entire experience of learning to have impact and be worthy of the time, sacrifice and effort that they give to it.
Student needs, interests and motives are complex. I don’t think teachers should assume that they understand all these needs or that the needs and interest of students duplicate the needs and interest of teachers. It seems obvious but it must again be stated that there is the need for intentional and effective communication. Adult educators should find creative ways of asking students, with regard to their ability to learn, what needs are being met in the classroom and what needs still need attention. One teacher in the sample (SG) spoke about a professor who taught him. This professor regularly checked with students, through discussion, evaluation forms and other activities, to get feedback on the module he taught. SG appreciated this so much that he has modelled this in his own teaching.

When commenting on the characteristics of good teachers both teacher-respondents and student-respondents identify teaching skills with characteristics such as ‘knowledgeable’, ‘well prepared’ and ‘presents well’. Teachers and students however spoke of more emotional characteristics than cognitive or social characteristics. Teachers spoke of ‘motivating’, ‘warm’ and not being afraid to be ‘vulnerable’. The five most often cited characteristics by students were (with the most popular characteristics mentioned first), ‘patient’, ‘understanding’, ‘caring’, ‘knowledgeable’ and ‘kind’. Eighty-one percent of student responses included an emotional element. Students also used words that reflected their concern about how teachers manage the power they have in the classroom. Some of the words that were used to describe characteristics they valued were ‘fair’, ‘honest’, ‘humble’ and ‘trustworthy’.

These responses highlight the need for teachers to be prepared not only in terms of what they teach, but also in terms of how they teach (Chickering
and Gamson, 1987). These findings point to an opportunity for adult educators to build emotional and relationship skills as well as teaching skills. It seems that adult learners value emotional skills. In fact, teachers as well as students rated emotional skills highly. Teachers who were not trained to teach adults, or who have no teacher training at all seem to build these skills from experience and from self development activities, as indicated by teachers in this study when they spoke of how they improved their own practice. On this point (ways in which teachers had improved their practice) teachers identified improvement in

- preparing their students for examinations
- meeting the expectations of the curriculum
- the ability to spot ‘teachable moments’
- their own efforts at self-improvement
- tolerance level
- warmth
- nurture
- improving interaction of students during the learning process

(From Student Questionnaires, 2008).

These items seem to me to reflect the very characteristics that students say they are looking for. The final item in this list- improving interaction of students during the learning process- was very popular with teachers and generated a lot of discussion. This seemed to be a goal of some teachers; others were proud that they had been achieving this already. This is echoed by the students’ response that they want the learning process to be worthwhile, even more than they look forward to the beneficial results of having done a particular module or course. So, teachers who have improved their practice have done so in ways that also help them to better meet the needs of students. A significant proportion of these needs, as
expressed by students, are emotional/affective needs. This claim has already been made, that in adult education the degree to which there is compatibility between the teachers’ and students’ views of the relationship has an important effect on satisfactory learning (Stephens and Roderick, 1974).

**Research Questions 5 and 6**

*Are part-time teachers of adults in the Jamaican context (as represented by IUC) perceived to be adequately equipped to deliver quality teaching?*

*How do adult learners and teachers in IUC think quality teaching of adults can be promoted through continuing professional development of part-time faculty?*

Part-time teachers were valued and appreciated by students and administrators. Their role in the institution was important because they carried most of the teaching load, taught most of the foundation modules, brought workplace experience to the classroom and could offer flexible hours. However, they did not have a significant role in decision-making in the institution and felt alienated and on the periphery of the university’s life. This difference between the quality of part-time and full-time practice was less a reflection on the qualifications of part-time faculty and more a reflection on the nature of their contracts which limits their teaching time, does not provide incentive to be involved in the wider institution (by only paying for teaching (‘contact’) hours) and may not provide for support such as office space, computers and phones (Jacoby, 2006)). In terms of the quality of their work, part-time academics were satisfied that they did good jobs and 61% of students who completed questionnaires could not identify any difference in teaching quality between part-time and full-time faculty. This finding compare favourably with studies (such as (Wyles, 1998))
which indicate that part-time faculty are as effective and as qualified as their full-time colleagues.

There is evidence that both teachers and students have ideas about what could enhance teaching and learning. Part-time educators expressed the desire to be more involved in the life of the university and an openness to participate in continuing professional development events. Also students could identify the kind of training they feel part-time educators need. Forty-one percent of responses identified skills that had to do with teachers’ preparedness for teaching and ability to teach as skills that part-time faculty need. I grouped these as cognitive factors and they included: teaching skills, clarity, creativity, knowledge of content, knowing how to teach adults and resourcefulness. A slightly larger percentage of responses- 48%- identified emotional skills as important. These include: the teacher’s capacity to encourage, maintain good interpersonal relations, give emotional support and show emotional understanding.

In terms of additional equipping, respondents have ideas about what can be done to facilitate part-time staff. They agree that CPD can be helpful and feedback from respondents echoed Cawelti’s (1995) research findings that only a few teachers feel that their pre-service preparation adequately prepared them for their jobs as adult educators. Students and teachers suggest several types of CPD. They agree on three characteristics: CPD that is based on fieldwork, practical and hands on work; CPD that includes spending time with colleagues to build relationships; CPD that benefits from student feedback. In terms of content, teachers identified CPD that would strengthen their ties with the institution (orientation) with the students (how to teach adults) and with each other (build collegiality). Students identified ideas that seemed to be more focused on building
useful skills such as; writing lesson plans, use of technology in teaching; dealing with personal and emotional issues such as time, stress, conflict and behaviour management.

**Implications for Theory**

**Adult Education and the Adult learner**

This study highlights the eclectic nature of adult education in Jamaica. In this context, the definition of adult education is consistent with the 1976 UNESCO definition of

...organized educational processes ... whereby persons regarded as adult by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve their technical or professional qualifications or turn them in a new direction and bring about changes in their attitudes or behaviour. (UNESCO, 1976)

It is more than adult literacy and adult learners are complex and diverse with varying needs. The study does not support the perspective that all adult learners are by nature self-directed and goal-focused or can function independently of teachers (Jarvis, 1995, Tough, 1989). I find instead that self directed-ness can not be assumed. Some students do not have the experience of being a self directed learner; others do not have the confidence or are affected by insecurity and ambivalence (Brookfield, 1986; Rogers, 2002, 2003; Illeris 2003). Students do not even seem to consider self-directedness an ideal for which to aim. Students value the learning process more than the goal of certification and indicate a strong need for emotional support. The role of the teacher is crucial in ensuring that adult education is effective and in creating a balanced environment in which adult learners can overcome their insecurities, articulate their needs and gain maximum benefit from the learning experience. In adult education (as it is across the education field), quality teaching is a

**Teacher Preparation**

In chapter 3, I cite responses from teachers that suggest that initial teacher preparation does not adequately prepare teachers to teach adults and many of these skills are developed while on the job. Multiple skills are needed to be an effective adult educator and students as well as teachers, when asked to recount an experience of quality teaching, remember more emotional and social factors than cognitive factors as good qualities. Adult educators therefore need to be supported in strengthening these skills in order to function as quality teachers. The figure below depicts the various categories of teaching skills acknowledged by respondents.

**Figure 6.1**

**Skills desired for Adult Educators**

![Diagram of teaching skills for adult educators]

- Subject Knowledge
- Teaching Skills-Andragogy
- Emotional Intelligence
- Interpersonal and social skills
- Context Savvy

Skills for Quality Adult Educators
These skills include more than subject or content knowledge. Adult educators are expected to be knowledgeable about the social and cultural context, aware of the special learning needs of adult and how teaching adults may be different from teaching children and emotionally and socially sensitive. When combined, skills that related to establishing and maintaining good relationships between teachers and students (interpersonal and social and emotional) out-numbered other skills in popularity.

My research has demonstrated the importance of addressing the skills and competencies of adult educators. Student responses stressed the need for strong emotional and social skills. Teachers acquire their academic knowledge through formal credit-bearing programmes, but these crucial soft skills are acquired through experience and on the job learning and observation. Although academic institutions may not acknowledge the importance of these skills and may not value them even in their recruitment processes, adult learners esteem them and frequently mention these skills when they speak of good teachers.

**Responsibility of Academic Institution**

There is an indication that although some adult educators make their own provisions to improve their skills, this is a responsibility that the academic institution should share. Respondents held the view that institutional involvement is important for effort at improving teaching quality to succeed. They identified specific ways in which the academic institution should support the professional development of teachers (for example, incentives, work area, technological support, and affirmation). This perspective resonates with the views of some of the professional
development literature (Sparks, 1997; Koppiach and Knapp, 1998) that advocates that it is necessary that the institution be involved for successful staff development. With respect to part-time faculty, this is crucial as the very contracts that part-timers are bound to may limit their involvement in professional development events. It is not sufficient then, for enterprising teachers to do their own private reading and reflection. I believe the academic institution has a duty to plan for the development of its entire staff complement. This should be a responsibility shared between individual and institution because ‘it serves the interest of both’ (Day and Sachs, 2004, p. 291) and as staff capacity is increased, work is improved and the entire institution can improve (Koppaich and Knapp, 1998).

**Part-time Faculty**

Respondents indicated that part-time faculty do not all want to be on the periphery of the organization. Many desire opportunities to be more involved and would make time for programmes such as CPD events and social/networking events. Part-time faculty make a valuable and valued contribution to adult education but most still feel alienated and marginalised. Teachers interviewed indicted that they would appreciate non-monetary incentives such as parking space, shared office space, public acknowledgement and added organizational privileges for regular part-timers. Many respondents cited an interest in having deeper relationships with colleagues, socialising and networking with other members of the organization.
Traditional CPD may be irrelevant for part-time faculty. There is no one-size fit all CPD programme and institutions must put in place a process to ascertain from learners and educators what is needed. Part-time faculty value CPD that is flexible both in terms of content and structure. This may mean giving staff a choice to select from a list of options, a minimum number of workshops or activities that they think meet their developmental needs. It could also mean working with staff to identify a structure that is mutually convenient (full or half day workshops, self-study or online programmes). Figure 6.2 illustrates some of the characteristics that were valued by respondents.
These characteristics, highlighted by respondents, are in line with some of the work on non-traditional professional development (Guskey, 1986, 2002; Corcoran, 1995; Floden et al, 1995) that argue for more than a workshop and that advocate for the inclusion of the whole organization, including part-time faculty (Lankard, 1993).
Implications for the Future of Adult Education in Jamaica

From the documentation from CONFINTEA meetings, Youngman (2005) identifies five points that represent the international thinking on the training of adult educators. I cite them here as they are relevant to the Jamaican context and are echoed by the findings in this study. CONFINTEA is UNESCO’s most significant international adult education conference at which inter-government dialogue takes place on adult education. International conferences such as CONFINTEA give countries an opportunity to reflect on the changes and progress of their adult education provisions.

With regard to the training of adult educators, Youngman notes that;

(a) Current training programmes are inadequate and have many weaknesses. There is need for innovative programmes that integrate theory and practice, include participatory learning and show concern for the values and socio-political roles of the adult educators (p.3). In chapter one of this study I established that the provisions in the Jamaican context were inadequate and irrelevant to the needs of many adult educators.

(b) Training programmes for adult educators must address multiple roles in terms of delivery mode and content. This is a point I have argued throughout this study and which is repeated in this chapter. In addition to delivery and content, I have added (see Figure 6.2 above) some of the specifics that respondents identify as desirable for example incentives and certification.

(c) Adult educators crave recognition and professionalization. The low status of adult educators is an issue that is often raised at conferences such as CONFINTEA. Part-time faculty in adult education also have no job security and earn relatively low salaries.
In this study adult educators allude to the change in status that could occur if they were more integrally involved in the leadership and decision making of the organization, were given monetary and non-monetary compensation for additional time and built relationships with their colleagues. Respondents mentioned meeting and parking space as well as certification for attending CPD as things they would desire. One respondent was very clear that she felt the full time staff had more privileges and suggested they were more valued.

(d) There are very few national policies on the training of adult educators. This is mirrored in the Jamaican context where adult educators are generally not mentioned in national adult education policies.

(e) International co-operation and networking is unevenly developed. Adult education institutions like IUC do not have a national forum that facilities networking. Each institution works on its own to develop its systems. I found that national organizations such as JFLL and JACAE do not have a structured relationship with institutions like IUC. IUC does not get direct feedback from the debate and decisions that take place in international fora like CONFINTREA.

**Research Implications and Relevance for IUC (an Implementation Plan)**

I believe these findings could impact the teaching quality of part-time faculty in IUC and they suggest action that could be taken by IUC to provide a support system for part time faculty. Below I propose a plan for implementing continuing professional development derived from the
evidence collected and from suggestions made by respondents in this study.

Table 6-1  
CPD Implementation Plan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Question/Issue</th>
<th>Findings (Identified Needs)</th>
<th>Possible CPD Response (What)</th>
<th>Timeline (When)</th>
<th>Desired Outcome (Why)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What do adult learners and educators value in adult education? (RQ2)</td>
<td>There is a gap between communication and expectations and teachers are not always aware of student needs. Students identified strong emotional needs (Figures 5-5 and 5-6). Students indicated that they need a learning environment in which they feel accepted, valued, nurtured.</td>
<td>o Orientation (Include introduction to andragogy for first time adult educators and provide written and online resources for those new to teaching adults) o Learner Feedback (Opportunity for learners to indicate if their needs are being met before the end of the module.) o Ongoing short events (Focused on building psychodynamic competence - for example, communication skills, self confidence, building trust, teamwork, character building, and managing stress).</td>
<td>Beginning of the Academic Year Mid-module evaluation Twice per year on topics as identified by faculty</td>
<td>Awareness of research in adult education and exposure to some of the material on teaching adults. Opportunity for adjustments to be made to better meet student needs. Greater sensitivity to the importance of psychodynamic skills in teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are the characteristics of Good Teachers and Quality Teaching? (RQ3,4)</td>
<td>Quality Teaching is marked by cognitive, social and psychodynamic characteristics. (Figures 5-7 and 5-8). Adult Learners value the entire learning process not only the outcome (Figure 5-9).</td>
<td>o Mentorship/hands on training/peer learning. (To provide new teachers with examples of effective teachers and to trial teaching methods discussed in workshop events).</td>
<td>Scheduled in departments so that each teacher has one session observed by another in her subject team and also conducts one observation. Scheduled feedback time at departmental level.</td>
<td>Guskey’s action-reflection model of CPD (Guskey, 1986, 2002) and theories on professional learning communities (McLaughlin and Talbert, 1993; Elmore, 2000; Lankard, 1993; Boyd and Hord, 1994)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Adult educators and adult learners rated psychodynamic characteristics most highly (Figures 5-10, 5-11, 5-12).

Students feel teachers should be equipped with Psychodynamic, Cognitive and Social skills (Figure 5-13).

- Resource material for teachers on developing psychodynamic skills
- On line resources and intranet discussion fora.

Teachers could be guided through a self assessment process and given the option to choose interest area from a range of options. New learning could then be shared on discussion forums or (if considered relevant) with the wider staff on the one day event (see below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Question</th>
<th>Findings (Identified Needs)</th>
<th>Possible CPD Response (What)</th>
<th>Timeline (When)</th>
<th>Desired Outcome (Why)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Role of the institution</td>
<td>Table 5-6</td>
<td>Providing: - incentives - infrastructure support - social support - certification - materials and technological resources</td>
<td>Ongoing</td>
<td>Theories of Professional Learning Communities point to the significance of institutional support.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adult learners at IUC have a complex mix of needs and expectations, they do not all seem to behave like self-directed learners; they experience ambivalence, are sensitive to power issues and need emotional support. They are excited about achieving their goals at the end of their programmes but expect more than good grades at the end of the
experience; they expect the learning process itself to be worthwhile. Part-
time adult educators at IUC are valued and highly utilised but they feel
alienated and lack institutional loyalty. They are generally eager and well
qualified in their content areas but not all prepared for the complex needs
of adult learners, have an ad hoc relationship with the institution and are
left on their own to enhance their teaching skills. Educators need to build
skill in teaching adults and in giving cognitive and emotional support to
adult students. Nevertheless, I argue that it is not possible to meet student
needs effectively without addressing the preparation of teachers. The data
suggests that this should not only be the responsibility of the individual
teachers, but institutions such as IUC should provide development
opportunities for their staff. Findings support the claim of Wyles (1998)
that there is a problem with the fact that the nature of part-time contracts
allow institutions’ neglect of part-time faculty that excludes, disconnects
and alienates them from the core life of the institution.

In terms of teacher development, the data points to the suitability of
internal (on site) opportunities to develop skills and build relationships
among colleagues. IUC could introduce programmes and events in the
university that faculty will participate in as part of their contracted
programme. Professional development would be mandatory and time for
professional development should be compensated time. In this way, the
university can ensure that the institution’s ethos is communicated and that
relationships are improved between all members of staff. The responsibility
of the institution extends to offering more support to part-time staff. Staff
who participated in the research spoke of the need for physical space to
support their work (such as office space and parking space) as well as
being included in university events (and being compensated for this time).
They indicated they would appreciate incentives for participating in
professional development events but pointed out that this need not be money incentives. Part-time faculty would value certification for professional development modules, a system of credit for completed modules and a regular scheme of recognising effort and showing appreciation for hard work.

This implementation plan could be executed over the period of one academic year with the routine being repeated as the subject-focus is adjusted. A CPD cycle would allow a degree of reflexivity as stakeholders reflect on new learning and identify goals for each new period.

**Figure 6-3**

**Proposed CPD Cycle**

The CPD cycle could begin with feed forward information from students, teachers and administrators that answers the question: what are the interests and needs of stakeholders in the institution that can be addressed by CPD? In my study I found that questionnaires and interviews were
straightforward ways of getting responses to questions like these. Using the template above (Table 6-1) a programme could be planned for the academic year. To follow up, teachers would have the flexibility to identify specific elements from the training events that they are committed to include in their own practice over the next academic year. As Guskey (2002) suggests, when teachers have been exposed to new knowledge they should practise their new learning in the context of the classroom with the support of mentors and more experienced teachers who are able to model the desired action or skill. Practice could also be a team activity. Participants could work as teams to observe and give feedback to each other. At this stage, feedback from students could also be accommodated. The third level requires reflection of teachers, perhaps individually as well as in teams, when teachers would isolate the elements that they thought worked well and discuss any changes they consider useful. The fourth stage of this process is channelling the feedback to the CPD process. This could be done in a group event with a social component since teachers expressed a need for more opportunities to build relationship with their peers. On the bases of this feedback, as a group, participants would set goals for the next level of training. Such a programme would encourage mutual accountability (McLaughlin and Talbert, 1993), build professional culture in the context of the university (Elmore, 2000), encourage shared decision making (Darling-Hammond, 1998) increase staff capacity and reduce staff isolation (Boyd and Hord, 1994).

The vice-president (VP) of IUC with whom I spoke, expressed the view that IUC could develop a CPD programme using some of the modules in their teacher education programme and allowing participants to earn credits towards one of their Master’s Programmes. In Jamaica, although Masters level programmes in Education are offered by several institutions, the only
 provision for post-graduate teaching qualifications is a Diploma in Education that is a part-time programme lasting from 18-24 months. VP thought a provision such as she had suggested would be more attractive to part-time faculty and would allow IUC to ensure that the organization’s ethos is in focus. She felt that accreditation could be sought thus making it even more constructive for persons who want to enhance their teaching careers.

Such a programme would not be without challenges however. One of the reasons that academic institutions hire part time staff is for economic savings. The kind of commitment this proposal anticipates from the school or university may be mitigated by institution’s unwillingness or inability to make the cost investment for staff to which it owes no long-term legal obligation. It may be more realistic that an institution could be convinced to include long term staff in provisions such as those proposed here. There may be less willingness to invest in staff who have no legal obligation to stay and could leave the organization for ‘greener pastures’ when their improved credentials expose them to other employment options. Perhaps, a commitment would have to be made at the level of policy that ensures that funding is available and that measures are considered to allow teachers who benefit from the programme to contribute to its cost or to give-back to the institution in other ways.

Limitations of Study
The limitations I experienced were primarily with field work. There were limitations of time and resources because I did not live in the context. This hindered my ability to collect additional data. Had these limitations not existed, I would have run more focus groups when the number of attendees fell short of my expectations, I would have returned to the field
to speak again with teachers after I had done some analysis of the data. I would also have done all my interviews face-to-face instead of by telephone.

Focus groups were very dynamic although some of the focus groups that were held had fewer participants than planned. I believe it would have been useful to conduct more focus groups. At the end of the study, I would also have liked to share my findings and conclusions with participants in the context of a focus group. I believe that exercise would have generated interesting ideas for my thesis as well ideas that teachers themselves could pursue with IUC administration. Finally, I believe this study would be enhanced by the inclusion of data from one other institution. Data from a public adult education institution would have provided more breadth and perhaps would have generated additional useful ideas for addressing the issue of enhancing the skills of adult educators.

**Significance of Research and the Way Forward**

Publications on adult education in the Caribbean have been based primarily on issues such as policy and resource concerns. Although the role of the adult educator is acknowledged as significant, I have not located any publication that is focused on the development of the adult educator. Also I have not located any publication or study that is based on the perspectives of educators and learners in adult education. This thesis adds to the work in the discipline by presenting a discussion of needs and interests of learners and educators in adult education in Jamaica and their own views on how teaching skill can be enhanced.
In addition, in this study, three important subjects converge: adult education in Jamaica, part-time educators and professional development. Addressing these three subjects as interrelated is a further contribution to the literature now available in the field. In particular, two of these subjects, part–time faculty and professional development, have not been discussed in the literature in relation to adult education in Jamaica and the Caribbean.

This thesis supports the arguments made in some of the literature that adult educators are crucial to the quest for effective adult education, adult learners desire an emotional and social connection with their teachers and formal teacher preparation does not adequately prepare adult educators to meet all the needs of their adult students. These arguments converge to make a case for the promoting of continuing professional development for adult educators.

It is my hope that this study will form a useful foundation for more work in this area. In particular, I believe there is room for a wider study that is more representative of the entire population of adult educators to identify their development needs and how they have improved their ability to teach adults since initial teacher education. Further work could also be done in giving substance to the skeletal CPD model I proposed and actually testing this model with part-time faculty. This is something I would love to have an opportunity to do. The model itself could be the subject of an action/reflection process with a view of establishing a template for the design of professional development options that are responsive to context and site specific. Finally, I think there is occasion, as work continues to regulate the post-secondary education sector in Jamaica, for some research on CPD that has general acceptability across the adult education sector. This would be CPD that adheres to agreed basic standards, that is
accredited (perhaps by UCJ) and that gives adult educators currency that builds their professional profile and which has value from institution to institution.

The more people feel they are being treated as human beings— that their human needs are being taken into account— the more they are likely to learn and learn to learn. (Malcolm Knowles, (1990). Fostering competence in self-directed Learning. In R. M. Smith (Ed.) Learning to learn across the life span, p. 129)

If good teaching that produces evidence of student learning is to be anything other than random, then institutional policies must deliberately support the development of all instructors.  

(Richard Lyons, The Academy Leadership Journal vol.13.2, Fall p. 14)
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APPENDICES

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### Appendix A

#### Glossary of Terms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AD</td>
<td>Academic Dean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALE</td>
<td>Adult Learning and Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>CARCAE</td>
<td>Caribbean Council for Adult Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>CARICOM</td>
<td>Caribbean Common Market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAST</td>
<td>College of Arts Science and Technology, changed to University of Technology (UTECH) in 1995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCC</td>
<td>Council of Community Colleges- supervises and coordinates the work of the Community Colleges</td>
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<tr>
<td>CIA</td>
<td>Central Intelligence Agency of the United States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONFINTEA</td>
<td>UNESCO’s International Conference on Adult Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CXC</td>
<td>Caribbean Examination Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GCE</td>
<td>General Certificate of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOJ</td>
<td>Government of Jamaica</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEART/NTA</td>
<td>Human Employment and Resource Training/National Training Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HISEP</td>
<td>High School Equivalency Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICAE</td>
<td>International Council of Adult Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITLD</td>
<td>Institute for Theological and Leadership Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IUC</td>
<td>International University of the Caribbean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<td>---------</td>
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<tr>
<td>JACAE</td>
<td>Jamaica Council for Adult Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>JAMAL</td>
<td>Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy</td>
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<tr>
<td>JBTE</td>
<td>Joint Board of Teacher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JCTE</td>
<td>Jamaica Council for Tertiary Education - established by UCJ to coordinate activities and strengthen the provision of tertiary education.</td>
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<tr>
<td>JFLL</td>
<td>Jamaican Foundation for Lifelong Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS</td>
<td>Jamaica Information Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JLP</td>
<td>Jamaica Labour Party</td>
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<tr>
<td>JTA</td>
<td>Jamaica Teachers’ Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MNC</td>
<td>Mel Nathan College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education (Jamaica) also known as MOEYC - Ministry of Education Youth and Culture - (before Sept 2007) policy and planning for education, admin and finance of public education institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCTVET</td>
<td>NCTVET - National Council for Technical Vocational Education and Training - accredits training institutions and certifies participants and vocational instructors.</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-governmental Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>NLB</td>
<td>National Literacy Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ofsted</td>
<td>The Office for Standards in Education (UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNP</td>
<td>People’s National Party</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RD</td>
<td>Regional Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROSE</td>
<td>The Reform of Secondary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Organization</td>
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<td>---------</td>
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<tr>
<td>SDC</td>
<td>Social Development Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UCJ</td>
<td>University Council of Jamaica - accrediting, awards and academic body for degrees, diploma and certificate programmes for tertiary institutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nation’s Education and Scientific Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nation’s Children’s Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UTECH</td>
<td>University of Technology, formally College of Arts, Science and Technology (CAST)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWI</td>
<td>University of the West Indies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWIDECEC</td>
<td>University of the West Indies Distance Education Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VDTI</td>
<td>Vocational Development Training Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VP</td>
<td>Vice President</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WLP</td>
<td>Workplace Learning Programme</td>
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</table>
Appendix B

Sample Letter to Participants

Participants’ Information Sheet

Dear Participant,
Thank you for agreeing to take part in this research. Please find useful information below:

Purpose of Research
I am conducting this research to meet the requirements of my PhD degree. I am interested in finding out what role part-time teachers play in the adult and continuing education sector in Jamaica. I want to know how stakeholders think that teaching quality can be enhanced and I would like to obtain suggestions on what would characterise an effective Continuing Professional Development programme for part-time teachers. It is my hope that these suggestions will be useful to planners and administrators.

Expectations of Participants
As a participant in this research you will be asked to take part in either an Interview a Focus Group or to complete a Questionnaire.

Interviews.
Interviews will be one-one conversations not lasting more than 25 minutes. Interviews could be conducted over the telephone or face-to-face. These will be semi-structured interviews in which I will ask general questions and hope that you will express your opinions freely.

Focus groups.
Focus Groups will be 6-8 persons in size and will involve a discussion that will last for not more than 40 minutes. Participants will be invited to meet with a group of persons who share similar characteristics. I hope we will have one focus group representing current students and another, representing teachers.

Interviews and Focus Groups may be video and/or audio taped.

Questionnaires
Qualitative Questionnaires will require respondents to make full answers in their own words. Answers must be written on the questionnaire sheet by respondents.

Confidentiality and Voluntary Participation
In keeping with the ethical guidelines of the University of Nottingham, participants’ confidentiality will be assured. Your identity will be protected and data will be securely stored in a manner that only allows access by authorised persons.

Your participation is voluntary. You may withdraw at any time.

Potential Benefit to Participants
I hope this research will produce insight for the development of adult education in Jamaica and in particular useful ideas on how to strengthen continuing development programmes for part-time teachers.

Please feel free to contact me at any time if you have questions about your involvement in this project that I have not adequately addressed.

Yvonne Dawkins
School of Education
University of Nottingham
Jubilee Campus
NG8 1BB
Nottingham
Email: ttxyd@nottingham.ac.uk, Phone: (44)7825640194
Appendix C

Consent Form for Participants

Project title ....Enhancing Quality Teaching in Adult Education in the Jamaican Context.

Researcher’s name ...Yvonne Dawkins...........

Supervisors’ names ......Simon McGrath and Sarah Speight...........

- I have read the Participant Information Sheet and the nature and purpose of the research project has been explained to me. I understand and agree to take part.
- I understand the purpose of the research project and my involvement in it.
- I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any stage and that this will not affect my status now or in the future.
- I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will remain confidential.
- I understand that data will be stored in hard and electronic transcripts in secure filing cabinets on the compound of the University of Nottingham. Access will be limited to the researcher and research supervisors.
- I understand that I may contact the researcher or supervisor if I require further information about the research, and that I may contact the Research Ethics Coordinator of the School of Education, University of Nottingham, if I wish to make a complaint relating to my involvement in the research.

Signed .................................................................................. (Research Participant)

Print name .................................................................. Date ......................

Organization .................................................................................................

Position ...........................................................................................................

Contact details

Researcher: Yvonne Dawkins: ttxyd@nottingham.ac.uk

Supervisor: Simon McGrath: simon.mcgrath@nottingham.ac.uk, Sarah Speight: sarah.speight@nottingham.ac.uk

School of Education Research Ethics Coordinator: andrew.hobson@nottingham.ac.uk
Appendix D
Copy of Qualitative Questionnaire for Students

Thank you for agreeing to complete this short questionnaire. Please answer the questions below as fully as you can. You may use extra paper if you would like to say more than the spaces allow.

Biographical Data

Please indicate your
i. Age range
   o Under 25 years
   o 25-35 years
   o 35-45 years
   o Over 45 years

ii. Gender
   o male
   o female

iii. What academic programme(s) are you registered in currently?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

v. This academic year (2007-2008), is your:

   o first year
   o final year
   o neither first nor final year

v. What formal education have you participated in since secondary school?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

Questions

1. Can you recall your best memory of a good learning experience? How would you describe it?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

2. When you think of a great teacher, what qualities do you think of?

________________________________________________________________________
3. What does the term ‘quality teaching’ mean to you?

_____________________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________________

4. In terms of teaching quality, is there a difference between part-time and full-time teachers? If so, what difference do you observe?

_____________________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________________

5. As an adult student, what do you need from a formal education experience?

_____________________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________________

6. What skills/traits/equipping should those who teach adults have?

_____________________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________________

7. How can educational institutions support teachers in improving the quality of their teaching?

_____________________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________________

8. In relation to question 7, what particular considerations do you think should be made for part-time teaching staff?

_____________________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________________
9. Knowing what you need as an adult student, if you could help to design a programme of Continuing Professional Development for your teachers, what would you include?

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

THE END

Thank You!
Appendix E

Samples of Key Informant Interview Questions

QUESTIONS FOR JFLL

1. What was the background behind the decision to make a name change from JAMAL to JFLL?
2. How effectively does the JFLL embody the lifelong learning mandate now?
3. What is the administrative structure of the JFLL?
4. Do you think teachers in the lifelong learning sector are sufficiently equipped for their task? (For example, in terms of training, experience, attitude, skills)
5. From your experience, what are the characteristics of a good teacher of adults? (What kind of traits does one need to do well at teaching adults?)
6. What kind of training support is available to the typical adult education teacher in Jamaica?
7. What else (in addition to formal training) could be done to improve the skills of teachers in the sector?
8. What kind of local training or professional development support is there for teachers?
9. How could Continuous Professional Development help? - What form could it take? - What could be included in content?

Thank You.

QUESTIONS FOR JACAE

1. The JACAE is almost 20 years old, how successful has it been in achieving its aims?
2. What are some of the challenges that the organization has faced in pursuing these aims?
3. How has adult education changed in Jamaica in the last 20-25 years?
   - How has the adult student changed?
   - How have provisions for adult education changed?
4. How would you describe the typical adult education teacher? (TC trained, retired, volunteers, advanced training/ qualifications, full-time/part-time?)
5. Do you think teachers of adults are sufficiently equipped for their task?

6. From your experience, what are the characteristics of a good teacher of adults?

7. What kind of training support is available to the typical adult educator in Jamaica?

8. I am aware of the partnership of JACAE with the Mt Saint Vincent University, could we talk about that some more:
   - what were the needs that led to forging this arrangement?
   - how would you evaluate the success of the partnership to date?
   - do you know how many persons have been trained?
   - what feedback has JACAE received from graduates?
   - have there been any limitations to the programme?
   - do you think the training has been relevant to the Jamaican context?

9. Does local training or professional development support exist for teachers in adult education?

10. How could training support for adult education teachers be more relevant?

11. How could Continuous Professional Development help?
   - What gaps could be filled?
   - What form (structure) could it take?
   - What could be included in content?
Appendix F
Focus Group Questions for Teachers

Teaching Quality
1. Can you remember a very satisfying teaching experience? What features stand out for you?
   i. What do you think about the quality of teaching offered in educational programmes for adults in Jamaica today?
   ii. What are the indicators of Quality Teaching for you?

2. What skills and characteristics do you think adult students value in their teacher?
   i. How could these characteristics be encouraged? Are they trainable....transferable?

3. How can teachers of adults improve their own quality teaching?

4. How can educational institutions help teachers to improve quality teaching?

5. How do you know when you have taught effectively?

Part-time Teachers

6. How important are part-time teachers in IUC?

7. Do you think that most teachers of adults are sufficiently equipped for the task?

8. As an adult educator, what do you do more effectively now than two years ago?

CPD

9. How important is CPD in enhancing quality teaching?

10. What experiences have you had of CPD?

11. How could CPD be used to further equip teachers of adults?

12. What could be included in such programmes?

13. What kind of structure would best work in the Jamaican context?

14. Any other ideas?
## Appendix G

### Code Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Data Collection Instrument</th>
<th>Codes (and origins)</th>
<th>Meaning of Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What do teachers and students in adult education identify as quality teaching (3)</td>
<td>Student Questionnaire (1,2,3,) Teacher Focus Groups</td>
<td>Cognitive Psychodynamic/Emotional Social ( Illeris (2004a))</td>
<td>Cognitive: learning content, knowledge and skills. Emotional: mental energy, feelings and motivations. Social: external interaction, participation, communication. Input: the preparation, arrangements and research that goes into the teaching/learning relationship. Outcome: the goals, results that are produced.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are the needs of adult students? (1)</td>
<td>Student Questionnaire (5) Teacher Focus Group</td>
<td>Outcome Social Emotional Knowledge Learning Environment</td>
<td>Outcome: Qualifications, Certification Social: Friendships, Affiliation Emotional: Feelings, motivations Knowledge: new information, skills Learning Environment:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are part-time teachers of adults in the Jamaican context perceived to be adequately equipped to deliver quality teaching? (4) Are there gaps in teaching quality? (5)</td>
<td>Student Questionnaire (4, 6)</td>
<td>Cognitive - Content Knowledge - Teaching Skills</td>
<td>Cognitive: learning content, knowledge and skills.</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Psychodynamic/Emotional Social</td>
<td>Emotional: mental energy, feelings and motivations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How can quality teaching of adults be promoted through CPD? (6)</td>
<td>Student Questionnaire (7, 8, 9)</td>
<td>Types of CPD - Standardised - Site Based - Self-directed (Gaible and Burns, 2005)</td>
<td>Social: external interaction, participation, communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Content of CPD Cognitive - Content Knowledge - Teaching Skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Psychodynamic/Emotional Social</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How can quality teaching of adults be promoted through CPD? (6)</td>
<td>Student Questionnaire (7, 8, 9)</td>
<td>Purpose of CPD - Knowledge - Personal Qualities - Professional and technical Development (Day, 1999, cpduk)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of CPD</th>
<th>Cognitive: learning content, knowledge and skills.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Standardised-centralised workshops, training seminars.</td>
<td>Emotional: mental energy, feelings and motivations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Site Based-focused on a school or region</td>
<td>Social: external interaction, participation, communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-directed-independent learning including online communities.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive: learning content, knowledge and skills.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional: mental energy, feelings and motivations.</td>
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