

01 **Chapter 50**

02 **Ethical Leadership in an Age of Evaluation:**  
03 **Implications for Whole—School Well-Being**

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07 **Gerry McNamara and Joe O’Hara**  
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12  
13 **Abstract** The evaluation and inspection of many public services, including educa-  
14 tion, has become increasingly common in most countries in the developed world  
15 (McNamara & O’Hara, 2004; MacBeath & McGlynn, 2002). There are various rea-  
16 sons why this may be the case. It can be argued that it is, on the one hand, part of  
17 the movement towards low trust policies derived from the ideology of neo-liberalism  
18 which seeks to apply the values of the market to the public sector. On the other hand,  
19 it can be argued that increased evaluation is a necessary and defensible component  
20 of democratic accountability, responsibility and transparency (O’Neill, 2002). The  
21 research reported here sets out to explore the idea of a personal vision or core of  
22 ethics as being central to educational leadership, through in-depth interviews with  
23 a number of school leaders. The chapter begins by briefly placing educational lead-  
24 ership in the modern context, characterised by the paradox of apparently greater  
25 decentralisation of responsibility to schools being in fact coupled with a further  
26 centralisation of actual power and greatly increased surveillance of performance  
27 (Neave, 1998). Relevant developments internationally, and then specifically in the  
28 context of Ireland, are described. It is suggested that in Ireland the modern educa-  
29 tional context may indeed be creating difficult ethical and moral dilemmas for  
30 leaders to face. To see if this is so in practice, five in-depth interviews with school  
31 principals are reported. The evidence arising from these interviews indicates that  
32 school leaders do feel guided by a strong moral or ethical compass.  
33

34 **Introduction**  
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36 The evaluation and inspection of many public services, including education, has  
37 become increasingly common in most countries in the developed world (McNamara  
38 & O’Hara, 2004; MacBeath & McGlynn, 2002). There are various reasons why  
39 this may be the case. It can be argued that it is, on the one hand, a part of the  
40 movement towards low-trust policies derived from the ideology of neo-liberalism  
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01 which seeks to apply the values of the market to the public sector. On the other hand,  
02 it can be argued that increased evaluation is a necessary and defensible component  
03 of democratic accountability, responsibility and transparency (O'Neill, 2002). What  
04 cannot be denied is that this process, both at the level of nation states and through the  
05 policies of influential organisations such as the OECD, the EU and the World Bank,  
06 continues to gather pace. Equally, however, there is also a growing debate regarding  
07 the appropriate extent of such evaluation particularly as research increasingly shows  
08 that external monitoring of an intrusive kind can seriously damage the autonomy and  
09 morale of professionals and organisations (Hansson, 2006).

10 In consequence, a worldwide debate continues as to the balance to be achieved  
11 between accountability and professional autonomy and between professional devel-  
12 opment and external judgement. Resolving these conflicting demands has become  
13 a major burden on school leaders, often caught between requirements for external  
14 accountability on the one hand and their roles as staff motivators and developers  
15 on the other (Bottery, 2004). Research is increasingly pointing to the importance  
16 of an ethical framework which can provide leaders with a secure base from which  
17 to defend the educational philosophy and practices which are important to them  
18 (Fullan, 2004). In addition, new models of educational decision making which  
19 emphasise the centrality of distributed leadership (De Jong & Kerr-Roubicek, 2007)  
20 to the creation and maintenance of whole school well-being (Kilpatrick, Falk, &  
21 Johns, 2002) clearly identify the importance of the school leaders' ethical frame-  
22 work to the creation of a professionally rewarding and personally enriching school  
23 community.

24 The research reported on here sets out to explore the idea of a personal vision or  
25 core of ethics as being central to educational leadership, through in-depth interviews  
26 with a number of school leaders. The chapter begins by briefly placing educational  
27 leadership in the modern context, characterised by the paradox of apparently greater  
28 decentralisation of responsibility to schools being in fact coupled with a further  
29 centralisation of actual power and greatly increased surveillance of performance  
30 (Neave, 1998). Relevant developments internationally, and then specifically in the  
31 context of Ireland, are described. It is suggested that in Ireland the modern edu-  
32 cational context may indeed be creating difficult ethical and moral dilemmas for  
33 leaders to face. To see if this is so in practice five in-depth interviews with school  
34 principals are reported. The evidence arising from these interviews indicates that  
35 school leaders do feel guided by a strong moral or ethical compass. There is also  
36 evidence, however, of both internal contradictions and feelings of conflict with the  
37 essentially pragmatic nature of much of the decision making required by the realities  
38 of day-to-day life as a school principal in twenty-first century Ireland.

## 40 41 **Leading in the Age of Evaluation**

42  
43 In an article entitled "I audit, therefore I am" in *The Times Higher Education Sup-*  
44 *plement* (THES, October 18, 1996, quoted in Simons, 2002, p. 17) Michael Power,  
45 Professor of Accounting at the London School of Economics, defined our era as

01 “the age of inspection, the evaluative state and the audit society”. He went on,  
02 “whatever term one prefers, there can be little doubt that something systematic  
03 has occurred since 1971. In every area of social and economic life, there is more  
04 formalised checking, assessment, scrutiny, verification and evaluation”. The intense  
05 push to develop systems of accountability and increasing concerns with obtaining  
06 value for money that have accompanied this emergence of an “evaluative state”  
07 (Neave, 1998, p. 265) have had a significant impact on education. The roots of this  
08 movement are varied. On the one hand it is clear that much of this tendency can  
09 be closely connected to the dominant political ideologies of recent times, particu-  
10 larly Thatcherism, Reaganomics and Neo-Liberalism (McNamara & O’Hara, 2008).  
11 These ideologies tended to distrust the public sector and to progress an agenda of  
12 making such services responsive to the realities of the market (Giddins, 2004). Inter-  
13 estingly however, even as the political authors of these policies have faded from the  
14 scene and more moderate politicians have come to power much of this self-styled  
15 “reform agenda” has been retained and even further developed. This appears to be  
16 because it has become widely accepted that public services, including the activities  
17 of hitherto relatively autonomous professionals, should be more accountable in a  
18 democratic society (O’Neill, 2002).

19 In the case of education these policy directions have been compounded by the  
20 immense importance which governments worldwide attribute to student achieve-  
21 ment and school effectiveness. A vibrant education system is now widely seen as an  
22 essential component of economic success without which countries cannot hope to  
23 compete for the mobile capital which characterises the modern economy. In conse-  
24 quence in virtually every country in the developed world, and increasingly in the  
25 developing world, the State has systematically sought to improve the quality of  
26 education and training, not only as in the past by increased expenditure, but also  
27 by attempting to increase “output” through systems of evaluation and surveillance  
28 (Bottery, 2004). However, it is important to note that these same developments are  
29 being increasingly challenged in society in general and particularly in education as  
30 the serious consequences of such policies gradually become apparent (Elmore &  
31 Fuhrman, 2001; Moos, 2003).

32 The complex arguments, both philosophical and practical, in relation to the  
33 evaluation of schools and teachers which have exercised researchers both within  
34 education and beyond in recent years (McNamara & O’Hara, 2005) are largely  
35 outside the scope of this study. However, a brief contextual summary of the main  
36 points of the discussion is necessary for an understanding of the rest of the chapter.  
37 It can be argued that much of the policy direction described above is founded on  
38 two fundamental flaws. The first of these is that evaluation systems, which by their  
39 nature must be founded on data and information acquired through social science  
40 research methodologies, can ever in fact produce clear, unambiguous and imple-  
41 mentable results, policies or plans. This is simply because, as a great deal of work  
42 in the social sciences in the past 30 years has shown clearly, complex systems  
43 with wide and various goals such as education are hugely resistant to quantifiable  
44 measurement (Elliott, 2004; Pring, 2004; Peters, 1973). The second fundamental  
45 flaw alleged against the neo-liberalist approaches to evaluation and appraisal is

01 that these policies downplay or totally ignore the serious side effects inherent in  
02 unduly interfering in the reasonable exercise of professional autonomy by groups  
03 such as teachers (Slattery, 2003). It has become increasingly apparent that, in a  
04 nutshell, such policies when implemented in certain forms do more harm than any  
05 demonstrable benefits that may arise (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005).

06 This latter point is important and has resulted in what can be accurately described  
07 as a reconsideration of evaluative policies. One of the reasons for this is that  
08 in most of the developed world, outside of the English-speaking countries, there  
09 remains a strong antipathy towards undue or overweening interference in profes-  
10 sional autonomy. This is also true of some countries which might be regarded as  
11 belonging to the Anglophone world such as Ireland and Scotland (McNamara &  
12 O'Hara, 2006). In most of these countries there has been, admittedly, a signifi-  
13 cant move towards greater processes of school and teacher evaluation. Arguably,  
14 this has a great deal to do with the fact that such policies have been adopted and  
15 strongly supported by influential international agencies particularly the OECD and  
16 to a lesser extent the EU. However, as developed in each individual country the  
17 emerging evaluation systems are in fact a compromise between imported ideolo-  
18 gies and strong local traditions of school and teacher autonomy and independence.  
19 Therefore, what has emerged in most countries is a series of compromises which  
20 involve significant increases in the evaluation of schools and teachers but which are  
21 based fundamentally on the premise that these groupings should primarily evalu-  
22 ate themselves with a degree of external oversight (McNamara & O'Hara, 2004).  
23 This concept, usually referred to as self-evaluation, was virtually unknown 10 or  
24 15 years ago but has now become the dominant force in the discourse on school  
25 and teacher evaluation (Nevo, 2002). In consequence most evaluation systems have  
26 now become a hybrid involving internal or self-evaluation by individual teachers or  
27 entire schools with a greater or lesser degree of external moderation (Simons, 2002;  
28 MacBeath, 2006).

29 In essence what we are seeing is an attempt to produce a series of compromises  
30 which will somehow allow for schools and teachers to evaluate their own perfor-  
31 mance and improve their work while at the same time providing a basis on which  
32 judgements regarding efficiency and effectiveness can be made and political and  
33 public demands for accountability be met. Of course reconciling these different  
34 purposes is extremely difficult since, naturally, professionals respond differently  
35 to a system that is primarily developmental than they do to a system that is pri-  
36 marily judgemental. Increasingly, the responsibility for reconciling these at times  
37 contradictory systemic impulses is falling on the principal working within a school  
38 community.

39 The challenge being faced by principals in this area is a daunting one and  
40 makes many demands, both personally and professionally. Arguably the neo-liberal  
41 reform agenda discussed earlier has reduced and narrowed both the aims and  
42 practice of schooling and consequently the scope for vision, innovation and lead-  
43 ership among educational professionals (MacBeath, 1999; Thrupp & Willmott,  
44 2003). As the definition of achievement and success within education narrows  
45

01 it follows logically that the understanding of what defines a healthy educational  
02 environment becomes redefined. The notion of well-being in the school context  
03 is often inextricably linked to the easily measurable, and at times quite limited,  
04 academic attainments of the students. It is therefore unsurprising that the chal-  
05 lenges of leadership in this hostile context have become the focus of consid-  
06 erable attention in the educational literature (Bottery, 2007; Woods, 2007;  
07 Dunphy, 2007).

08 A good deal of recent research in the area of school management has come to  
09 focus on “the moral imperatives of school leadership” (Fullan, 2004). That is to  
10 say, it is now increasingly understood that school leaders require inner resources,  
11 a kind of guide or compass, in the form of a set of values, morals or ideals, which  
12 inform their leadership and decision making. Many researchers have tried to tease  
13 out further how such a moral compass might be defined. Day, Harris, Hayfield,  
14 Tolley, and Beresford (2000, p. 27) speak of “a personal vision. . . and a core of per-  
15 sonal ethics” as central to educational leadership. Briggs (2007) identifies personal  
16 values as being a key component of professional relationships, while Ball (2003,  
17 p. 215) speaks of “the soul of the teacher”. Woods (2007, p. 136) describes this  
18 guiding framework as “the bigger feeling” or “spirituality”, which she defines as “an  
19 area of the human experience which involves heightened awareness of something  
20 of profound significance beyond what is normally taken as everyday experience”.  
21 Woods’ research suggests that the wellspring of this feeling or awareness may be  
22 religious, but need not necessarily be so. Interestingly, in her research sample the  
23 majority of those of her respondents who defined themselves as atheist, agnostic or  
24 humanist also reported having a spiritual (as defined above by Woods) element to  
25 their resources for leadership (2007, p. 146). Quite a number of other descriptions  
26 of this “bigger feeling” are to be found in the recent literature. However, for the  
27 purposes of this research, it was decided to conceptualise “spirituality” in terms of  
28 Day et al.’s (2000) notion of a personal vision and core of ethics rather than in a  
29 more overtly religious way such as that put forward by Woods. This is because it  
30 was felt that the latter might tend to lead the respondents to interpret the research in  
31 largely religious terms.

32 In summary it can be argued that the research reported above suggests that the  
33 ethical framework adopted by the school leader is of central importance when  
34 the school community as a whole tries to define for itself the core elements of  
35 the concept of well-being. While the emergence of an educationally narrow and  
36 at times destructive definition of accountability has obviously had an impact on  
37 how leaders act out their values in schools, the parallel emergence of a collegially  
38 focused, empowered and distributed leadership model has gone some way towards  
39 ameliorating the impact of this on the quality of the school community. In the  
40 next section we will examine the emergence of an Irish system of school evalua-  
41 tion with a view to examining how the lived experience of Irish school leaders  
42 was actually effected by the introduction of an accountability framework and per-  
43 haps more importantly, how they felt this influenced their own and their colleagues  
44 core values.

## School and Teacher Evaluation: An Example from Ireland

Schools and teachers in Ireland have a long history of being evaluated by a centralised inspectorate, a division of the Department of Education and Science (DES). However, by the early 1990s this system had broken down to a significant degree. The inspection of primary schools had become sporadic and rather idiosyncratic but still existed. In secondary schools inspection had nearly ceased entirely and in fact the largest teacher union supported its members in refusing to teach in front of an inspector.

The reasons for this decline in inspection are varied and need not detain us here. What is interesting is that the impetus for a new approach to inspection and school evaluation in the mid-1990s came from external sources rather than from any pressing domestic demand. This is made clear in the evaluation report prepared by the Department of Education and Science after the first Whole School Evaluation (WSE) pilot project from 1996 to 1999 (DES, 1999). For example, the introduction justifies the development of the WSE pilot scheme by noting that “across the European Union a wide range of approaches is evident to the assessment and evaluation of schools” (DES, 1999, p. 8). On page 9 we read that “there is now a growing tendency across Europe to see external and internal school evaluation processes as being inextricably linked”. Later on the same page it is suggested that “there is an increasing effort to encourage schools to review their own progress in a formal way . . . to engage in their own development planning”.

The external influences made explicit in the above quotes show clearly that, as Boyle (1997) argues, EU policy in the direction of new public management systems such as strategic planning and systematic evaluation has been a key driver of change in the Irish context. As Boyle (1997, 2002) suggests, it was not so much any domestic policy or ideology that drove this process, but rather a migration of EU evaluation policy, together with a strong sense that, as these developments appeared to be happening everywhere else, it was potentially dangerous to lag behind. It is no coincidence that in other areas of education, and indeed across the public sector as a whole, the last decade has witnessed similar developments. Rapid change in the Irish education system, and influential research, has moved school development planning and school and teacher evaluation from the periphery to the centre of education policy.

In May 2003, the DES in Ireland published twin documents entitled *Looking At Our School*, an aid to self-evaluation in primary schools and *Looking At Our School*, an aid to self-evaluation in post-primary schools (DES, 2003a, 2003b) (these documents, although designed for different levels of the education system, are so similar in content that they can be treated as one and are referred to hereafter as LAOS and referenced hereafter as DES (2003). The publications contain a very detailed framework for the inspection and evaluation of schools and teachers, including 143 “themes for self-evaluation” which schools and teachers are invited to consider in preparation for an external evaluation by the inspectorate. The methodology suggested for using these themes “while engaging in a self-evaluation exercise” is described as follows:

01 A school may decide to focus on an area, an aspect or a component. The school will  
 02 gather information in relation to the theme or themes under evaluation. Having engaged  
 03 in a process of collecting and analysing this information and evidence, the school will be in  
 04 a position to make a statement or statements indicating its own performance in the relevant  
 05 component, aspect or area (DES, 2003, p. x).

06 The type of statement regarding each area, aspect or component evaluated which  
 07 schools are invited to make is described as “a continuum consisting of a number of  
 08 reference points representing stages of development in the improvement process”  
 09 (DES, 2003, p. x). This continuum is to be represented for each item by describing  
 10 the situation discovered by the self-evaluation as one of the following:

- 11 ● Significant strengths (uniformly strong)
- 12 ● Strengths outweigh weaknesses (more strengths than weaknesses)
- 13 ● Weaknesses outweigh strengths (more weaknesses than strengths)
- 14 ● Significant major weaknesses (uniformly weak)

15  
 16 Here then is a system of evaluation that at its heart seeks to create a framework of  
 17 quality assurance that relies on internal processes but is ultimately validated exter-  
 18 nally. Whatever about the practical operation of the system, the introduction of these  
 19 structures marked a profound change in Irish education, change that needed and  
 20 indeed needs to be managed. Not surprisingly the onus for ensuring the successful  
 21 transition to a new context fell and continues to fall, for the most part, on the school  
 22 principal. As these approaches to change management, namely external inspection  
 23 and school planning, have become more dominant, certain tensions have emerged.  
 24 For example, there are obvious contradictory pressures for centralised government  
 25 control through inspection and evaluation on the one hand and decentralised respon-  
 26 sibility for implementation, resource management and self-evaluation at local level  
 27 on the other. According to Hopkins, Ainscow, and West (1994) the key challenge is  
 28 “to find a balance between the increasing demands for centrally determined policy  
 29 initiatives and quality control and the encouragement of locally developed school  
 30 improvement efforts” (p. 68). From the perspective of the school leader, balancing  
 31 these contradictory impulses while at the same time enhancing the sense of well-  
 32 being in the school community as a whole creates what are at times considered to  
 33 be ethically challenging situations.  
 34

### 35 36 **Squaring the Circle: Leading the Staff** 37 **and Delivering Accountability** 38

39  
 40 In describing the impact of the rise of new public management on school leaders,  
 41 Bottery (2007) identifies what he calls “many commonalities perceptible in most of  
 42 the western world”. These, he suggests, include

43 economic rationale for educational change, increased criticism of educational institutions,  
 44 decentralization of responsibility but not power, pressure to increase achievement through  
 45 greater testing and the publication of results, oversight systems to measure compliance and

01 managerialist methods for driving change, such as performance management, performance  
02 related pay, inspection and evaluation, strategic planning and target setting (p. 89).

03 Not surprisingly, these developments have substantially changed the nature of  
04 teaching and teacher perceptions about their profession. The work of Andy  
05 Hargreaves demonstrates increasingly negative attitudes to the reform agenda among  
06 teachers in North America (Wolf & Craig, 2004). Hoyle and Wallace (2007, p. 15)  
07 summarise research in the UK on the impact of recent developments there on the  
08 teaching profession.

- 09
- 10 1. Teachers feel directed away from the core task of teaching.
- 11 2. Teachers feel vastly increased pressures, resulting in stress, less job satisfaction  
12 and greater workload.
- 13 3. Teachers feel a high degree of dissatisfaction with the bureaucratic and manage-  
14 rial aspects of the reforms.
- 15 4. There are increasing problems with recruitment and retention.
- 16

17 Research in Ireland by Sugrue (1999) also indicates negative responses among  
18 teachers to what they perceive as external interference and enforced collegiality.

19 In this context, the staff leadership challenges facing school principals are daunt-  
20 ing. Gibton (2004, p. 90) describes school leaders as being caught between the  
21 rhetoric and reality of the reform agenda. The rhetoric emphasises “the reprofes-  
22 sionalising of the teaching profession, including raised standards and democratic  
23 accountability”, while the reality involves “deprofessionalised teachers, reduction-  
24 ist and utilitarian education and centralising cumbersome bureaucratic modes of  
25 surveillance”. It has been suggested by McNamara and Kenny (2006) that as a result  
26 of the corporatist nature of politics and the power of the teacher unions, the reform  
27 agenda has impacted less on Ireland than on other Anglophone countries. Nonethe-  
28 less, as we have seen, the outward and visible signs of the new public management  
29 are gradually emerging in the Irish education system in the form of collaborative  
30 planning, inspection, evaluation and standardised testing.

31 Interestingly, in the week in which this chapter was written, two newspaper  
32 reports illustrated the direction of public policy in education. In the *Irish Times*  
33 of October 5th, it was suggested that school inspection reports published online by  
34 the DES and which up to now have been regarded as extremely bland and cautious  
35 are now becoming “more robust, noticeably more critical of schools and school  
36 departments” (p. 11).

37 A few days earlier, in the *Irish Times* of October 1st, it was reported that the  
38 DES was about to propose that school principals would be required to deal with  
39 underperforming teachers by reporting on their work to the school board of man-  
40 agement and recommend sanctions up to and including dismissal. In theory the  
41 quality of teaching and the supervision of teachers have always been a matter for  
42 school principals, but in practice poor performance is rarely confronted and when  
43 it is, it is largely left up to the inspectorate. The vehement negative response of the  
44 principals’ associations and the teacher unions is instructive in respect to the theme  
45 of this chapter. Both groups were in agreement that actually operationalising the

01 supervisory role of principals over teachers would severely damage the collegial  
02 relationship between the two groups. The post-primary teacher unions added that  
03 only peers with a specialist knowledge of the particular subject area could exercise  
04 such a role, if it were necessary at all, and principals do not have the necessary  
05 expertise. Finally, the unions also suggested that difficult personal relationships  
06 could influence principals' decisions regarding underperforming teachers and that  
07 impartiality would prove impossible.

08 How, then, do school leaders conceptualise and respond to these challenges?  
09 Fullan (1982) suggested that turning policy into good practice stems largely from the  
10 ability of those implementing policy being able to translate it into a particular con-  
11 text and thereby provides new meanings to it. Bottery (2007, p. 190) proposes that  
12 this means practitioners being able to "critique, mediate and if necessary actively  
13 resist some policy developments". Work by Day et al. (2000) and Gold, Evans,  
14 Earley, Halpin, and Collarbone (2003) suggests that most school leaders hold a  
15 personal vision of education and a set of core personal ethics which guide how  
16 they react to external policies and initiatives. Wright (2003) is not so sure, arguing  
17 that school leaders are so constrained by external regulations and pressures that the  
18 best they can do is uncritically implement policies. Roche (1999), cited in Begley,  
19 identifies four strategies used by school principals in coping with ethical dilemmas,  
20 namely avoidance, suspended morality, creative insubordination and, rarely, tak-  
21 ing a moral stance. In contrast, Woods (2007) suggests that school leaders respond  
22 through "transformational and democratic leadership", which she defines as "getting  
23 people working together to raise one another's awareness towards higher ethical  
24 purposes and to the importance of working for the achievement of these in the life  
25 of the organisation" (p. 152). Clearly, therefore, different researchers have come to  
26 varying conclusions regarding the ethical framework and constraints within which  
27 educational leadership is exercised. To explore these ideas further, it was decided  
28 to seek the views of a number of principals of Irish schools around the ethical  
29 challenges of leading in the current age of evaluation.

### 31 **Leading Through an Ethical Framework?** 32 **School Principals Respond**

33  
34  
35 The research that is reported here was conducted with the principals of four post-  
36 primary schools and one primary school, all situated in the greater Dublin area. They  
37 were chosen only because each had recently undertaken a course of postgraduate  
38 study at Dublin City University. Three of the four post-primary principals were men,  
39 one was a woman and the primary principal was male. Each was relatively new to the  
40 job, all falling within a range of 2–6 years as principal. A semi-structured interview  
41 approach was used, involving a schedule of four questions, but allowing for replies  
42 to be clarified and a range of follow-up questions to be asked as appropriate. Each  
43 interview lasted between 30 and 40 minutes.

44 The purpose was to explore the perceptions of these school leaders and the per-  
45 sonal concepts and frameworks which guide their approach to leadership. It should

01 be noted that in advance of each interview the respondent was told that the research  
02 was primarily concerned with the new policy environment as outlined earlier in this  
03 chapter, including issues such as inspection, evaluation, testing and accountability. It  
04 was made clear that the research was intended to focus specifically on staff relations  
05 and organisational development. The interviewees were guaranteed anonymity and  
06 confidentiality.

07 The data is reported by response to each of four questions and the respondents  
08 are referred to as A, B, C, D and E. The basic questions asked were:

- 09 1. In the context of this research as outlined to you, do you feel that the new policies  
10 on school planning, evaluation and inspection involve you in difficult ethical or  
11 moral dilemmas?
- 12 2. Do you feel a personal vision or core of ethics is important to your work?
- 13 3. Do you feel that external pressures are influencing your decision making more  
14 or less than in the past?
- 15 4. Do you feel that the environment for school leadership is improving or  
16 disimproving?  
17  
18  
19

### 20 *Ethical and Moral Dilemmas*

21  
22 In general there was a noticeable tendency at first for the respondents to down-  
23 play what they saw as the rather dramatic terminology in which the question was  
24 framed. A spoke of what he called “the cult of the lone leader” and said that “the  
25 ethos of the school and the various processes for making decisions—for deciding  
26 on admissions and suspensions, for example—tended to clarify most decisions”.  
27 C said that certainly there were hard decisions with moral and ethical implica-  
28 tions, but he doubted if these had changed very much over time—“principals  
29 make much the same kind of decision as they have always done, the difference  
30 is that it is within a very complex legal and bureaucratic framework which makes  
31 you cautious—if you make a mistake or do not follow due process nowadays  
32 you are on your own”. This emphasis on making decisions through established  
33 processes and procedures, the importance of the traditions and policies of the  
34 schools, and the idea of not acting without taking advice, was common across the  
35 responses.

36 On reflection, however, the respondents began to come up with examples of ethi-  
37 cal questions and dilemmas which they were facing. A common theme here was the  
38 perceived pressure for short-term goals, particularly academic achievement, to domi-  
39 nate school life. This manifested itself in increased criticism of particular teachers  
40 and demands for pupils to be placed in certain classes or moved to another class  
41 because of alleged teacher failings. B said: “this is becoming increasing tough, and  
42 despite all the rhetoric about the wider goals of education, results are everything”.  
43 E, principal of a primary school, agreed, saying that, “with standardised testing all  
44 this results pressure will get worse, yet the DES wants everything from road safety  
45 to global warming covered in an already crowded curriculum and more children

01 with special needs. I have had to take some tough decisions refusing special needs  
 02 children when I think a class could not take another one, even with an SNA [Special  
 03 Needs Assistant]. Teachers and the parents are very reluctant to have more than one  
 04 or two in a class”.

05 A second ethical concern mentioned was the conflict between maintaining col-  
 06 legial solidarity with teaching staff and while at the same time seeking to confront  
 07 unacceptable practices and poor teaching. Respondents saw this as becoming more  
 08 pressing, not only with the rise of school and teacher evaluation but also as parents  
 09 became ever more critical of poor standards. The respondents displayed an interest-  
 10 ing degree of pragmatism. B said that “we don’t take criticism well, so it is well that  
 11 the Inspectorate is not going down that route. It is clear that principals and schools  
 12 are going to be left to deal with weak teachers as always, but you have no power,  
 13 and you can cause trouble for no gain. You just follow the old approach, giving  
 14 certain teachers certain classes and so on”. Similarly, D suggested that there were  
 15 contradictions in emerging official policy on schools—“there is a huge emphasis on  
 16 collegial and collaborative effort, meetings, planning etc., this is good, gets people  
 17 working together, but you are also supposed to tackle poor performance, where you  
 18 can easily turn people against you. It is not easy”. Finally, on this theme A said:  
 19 “there are poor teachers in every school, and kids get short changed, which I hate  
 20 to see, and parents complain year in, year out, but you can only really intervene  
 21 in really bad cases, and even then you are in a weak position and may do more  
 22 harm than good—our system has neither carrot nor stick, you need to remember  
 23 that before you do something irrevocable”.

24 It became clear in the responses to Question 1 that the ethos (a word that came  
 25 up often), policies and mission statements of the school were deemed a kind of  
 26 protection for decision makers, and principals are careful not to stray outside these  
 27 boundaries. For example, C said: “the school policy emphasizes the whole person  
 28 and a broad curriculum, and so I am able to hold the line and insist that all students,  
 29 even in exam years, take religious education, social and personal education, PE and  
 30 so on. Often teachers and parents want to use this time for the main subjects, but we  
 31 would be just a grind school then”.

### 32 33 34 *Personal Vision and Core of Ethics*

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37 Given the somewhat pragmatic and cautious tone to Question 1 above, it was interest-  
 38 ing that the five respondents all claimed to be guided by a personal vision and  
 39 core ethical principles. It will be remembered that this form of words was chosen as  
 40 opposed to any reference to spirituality in order to avoid the question being inter-  
 41 preted in a purely religious sense. Four of the five principals are leaders of Catholic  
 42 schools, and the fifth of a Community (State) school, of which a Catholic religious  
 43 order is a Trustee.

44 In defining the vision which informs their practice, all five respondents spoke of  
 45 two related themes: care and commitment to the pupils in their charge, and passion

01 for education and its benefits. A said: “it is a difficult job, and getting harder.  
02 You would only do it for the kids. You feel a commitment to each one”. C said:  
03 “every decision is for the boys, you want to see each reach his potential, you go  
04 the extra mile”. E said that “treating the children with respect, listening to them,  
05 valuing them, is a bottom line for me. I have had to compromise on other things, but  
06 not that”.

07 Although all five principals stress that this commitment to the pupils was about  
08 more than academic achievement, there was, nonetheless, a notable difference of  
09 emphasis between school types. Principals A, C and E stressed all round achieve-  
10 ment, and said that their goal was each single pupil succeeding to the best of their  
11 ability, whatever that may be. C specifically said that his vision was “one of all round  
12 development for each student, but most of all to be good citizens and indeed people”.  
13 B and D are the principals of two academically strong post-primary schools, and  
14 while their replies also stressed wider goals than the merely academic, there was  
15 a noticeable concern with what B described as “excellence, high standards, high  
16 academic and sporting achievement”. B remarked: “we have a very long tradition of  
17 excellence here, as a result we get a certain intake, parents and students expect high  
18 standards”. D said: “we put a lot of effort into high academic and sporting standards,  
19 I think that pursuit of excellence is a good thing. We need not to lose sight of it, not  
20 only as a school but as a society”.

21 Although spirituality or religion was not specifically raised, it nonetheless became  
22 clear that some of the respondents felt that the foundation of their commitment came  
23 from a spiritual source. B said: “well this is a Catholic school, and it stands for  
24 something, a Catholic ethos, something I believe in and want for the children”. D,  
25 in a similar vein, commented: “it sounds old-fashioned, but for me more important  
26 than anything else in the school, is passing on the faith, that is why we are here  
27 really”. Interestingly, in the current climate of mass immigration, E, principal of a  
28 primary school, said: “this is a Catholic school, and that is important to me, staff  
29 and most parents—we will continue to take newcomers, but we will not become  
30 non-denominational, or multi-denominational, or anything like that. We will remain  
31 a Catholic school”.

32 In terms of their vision of education, the principals interviewed were strongly  
33 resistant to any agenda which might reduce education to a pragmatic or instrumen-  
34 talist level. A danger, they perceived, in the current reform agenda. A said: “there  
35 is a danger in all this talk of competencies, testing, etc. that we’ll end up with a  
36 list of boxes to tick, and that is not what I mean by education. It hasn’t happened  
37 yet, but there are straws in the wind, and we must resist it if we can”. C said: “we  
38 need to maintain the best elements of the system as it is. It provides a good general  
39 education, which has served us well. I think this is understood, and I do not think  
40 we will end up with lists of competencies and targets, like elsewhere, but it is a  
41 danger”. Along similar lines, E said: “a lot of the new agenda—inspection, planning,  
42 evaluation, testing etc.—can be very positive and useful, but it could also be very  
43 misused, for example, testing could bring in competition between primary schools,  
44 which is not there now, something I would strongly resist”.

## *External Pressures*

All five respondents indicated, in one way or another, that external agencies exerted significant pressure which was increasing. It was noted normal parental pressure had now been augmented by pressure from other sources. These included the media, with regard to numbers of students going on to achieve college entry and from the state, through inspection, evaluation and mandated strategic planning.

The principals interviewed were uniformly hostile to parental and media pressure, for better and better academic achievement. A said that “we must not lose sight of the mission of education, it is spelt out in the White Paper on Education, a philosophy that includes moral, spiritual, social, personal and physical education, not just academic—I do not know if whoever wrote this believes it, but I do”.

Interestingly, however, and in contrast to the reported feelings of head teachers in England (Bottery, 2007), the principals interviewed were largely positive about the manifestations of the reform agenda in Ireland, including school planning, inspection and evaluation. Principal B mirrored the response of the others when saying “as a result of these initiatives teachers, subject departments and so on are meeting far more regularly and planning together—very much a new development”. Principal D concurred—“it is remarkable how these requirements have gotten the staff working together, I am amazed at the support I have received, even if it comes from a kind of ‘closing of the ranks against outsiders’ mentality”. A final positive point in this regard was made by several of the respondents, to the effect that the new modes of school evaluation presented opportunities for greater teacher involvement in decision making and created opportunities for distributed and democratic management. Principal B said “working on the school plan and preparing for inspection gives a role to everyone, and, just as importantly, gives me a mechanism to consult and share power and responsibility for plans and decisions”.

Once again, principals showed a pragmatic streak in their ability to use external pressures and processes such as inspection to provide, as it were, cover for difficult decisions. Principal D remarked, “the re-emergence of external inspection has had a major effect—it is possible to get a lot done on the grounds that the inspectors will demand it. Surprisingly, teachers are very concerned and influenced by inspection, they treat it like the Parousia (the second coming of Christ)”. In similar vein, Principal C used the inspection process to lead in a direction which her ethical principles suggested but which she perceived as almost impossible otherwise: “the inspection report queried our strict streaming policy. I was delighted, I was long against it, but with this behind me I can say ‘we have to tackle this’ and parents, teachers and the board will at least have to consider it”. This last point confirms a feeling which arose from the interviews in general, which is that, regardless of their own values, no matter how firmly held, principals in the Irish context are very constrained by the power of other stakeholders such as religious Trustees, the DES, teachers and, to a lesser extent, parents.

In terms of ethical concerns and difficult decisions arising from the application of new public management methods to Irish education, the principals interviewed

01 were more concerned with possible future problems than with current realities. Prin-  
02 cipal B remarked “this is not Britain, but we have a tradition of following them and  
03 making the same mistakes a decade later, but I do not think you could end up with  
04 an OFSTED (the inspection body in England) system here—everyone knows it is  
05 a disaster”. Nonetheless principals feared being forced by future developments into  
06 serious ethical dilemmas. Principal A said of school inspection and evaluation: “you  
07 get the feeling the DES are moving with caution, and principals will be caught in the  
08 middle. At the moment they are really only evaluating us, the managers, but when  
09 they start identifying teachers the fur will fly”. Principal E, leader of a primary  
10 school, was concerned about the trend towards national standardised testing—“I  
11 am totally against judging children so young, we do testing now for our own pur-  
12 poses, but any competitive or divisive use of testing would be a serious ethical thing  
13 for me”.

### 16 *The Environment for Leadership*

17  
18 In answer to this question, the replies of the five principals were largely similar  
19 and to the effect that the pressure to make decisions that did not conform to their  
20 values and ethics arose more from resourcing issues than from the new models of  
21 planning and accountability. Principal A said: “we have more responsibility, more  
22 work, but very little power. I have no control over fixed costs, pay and so on, and a  
23 very limited budget outside of this, so I have to prioritise spending, and this is often  
24 very difficult”.

25 The principals perceived that it was unstated but unmistakable DES policy to  
26 decentralise more roles and responsibilities to schools. This created a dilemma for  
27 while we have seen, principals are largely supportive of the new architecture of  
28 school governance and are willing to work with it; they equally feel ill-used by the  
29 steady increase in workload without any increase in administrative help. Principal B  
30 spelt this out: “I think that all the new initiatives are good things in themselves, but in  
31 the end it all comes back to my door, and there is a limit”. Principal E agrees: “most  
32 primary schools are finding it hard to get people to go forward for principal—it is  
33 not surprising. I probably would not do it again if I could roll back the clock”.

34 As already indicated, and at odds with research elsewhere, these five principals  
35 were more concerned that the moral climate for decision making might decline  
36 in the future, as opposed to feeling that they currently face serious ethical dilem-  
37 mas. Principal B stated: “I think that developments such as increased emphasis on  
38 accountability and teacher and school performance will eventually lead to clashes  
39 between different values and ethics. At present, the atmosphere is largely colle-  
40 gial, but that may change”. Principal D said much the same. “If we go down the  
41 route of greater accountability, tensions will arise between desirable but conflicting  
42 requirements, such as working as a staff team, as against imposing higher teaching  
43 standards or similarly between defending teachers and alienating increasingly criti-  
44 cal parents”. Principal E concluded with two interesting remarks which summarise  
45 much of what the other principals implied—“in our system, the principal does not

01 have all that much power. He or she is still *primus inter pares*, not CEO”, and “a lot  
02 of decisions are made for you by very limited resources. If you had more money,  
03 you might have more ethical dilemmas about spending it”.

## 05 Conclusion

07 The data emerging from these five interviews suggest a number of inter-related  
08 findings. First, it is clear that these particular principals perceive themselves to be  
09 guided and supported by a framework of ethics—spirituality, if you will. In three  
10 of the five cases, the respondents clearly indicated a religious dimension to this  
11 ethical framework. Analysing these ethics or values, a number of things become  
12 clear. In the first instance, in defining their educational ethics, the remarks of these  
13 principals were very similar to the research reported in other countries. They were  
14 concerned primarily with doing the best possible for each child, respecting the indi-  
15 vidual pupil, seeing education as a broad developmental process, which should not  
16 be reduced to purely academic achievement, and more specific to the Irish context,  
17 perhaps, seeing faith and faith formation as a key goal of schooling. Also deemed  
18 important were ethical concerns in favour of collegial and collaborative practices,  
19 allowing the sharing of responsibility with the school staff. Also significant was concern  
20 with other stakeholders, particularly the Church, religious orders, parents and  
21 the State.

23 The religious dimension identifiable in these ethical frameworks concerned the  
24 importance of faith and its transmission to the next generation and the pursuit of  
25 excellence perceived by some of the principals as a keystone of Catholic education.  
26 It was clear that these principals saw values-driven leadership as a *sine qua non*,  
27 suggesting that anyone lacking this attribute or quality could not or should not be  
28 doing this work. Finally, in contrast to research in England, it was notable that external  
29 pressures such as school inspections were not yet seen as the key influence on  
30 their decision making.

31 Secondly, and somewhat paradoxically, alongside these concerns with ethics, the  
32 principals interviewed displayed a strong element of pragmatism in their decision  
33 making. They perceived that external pressures and expectations were stronger than  
34 they had been in the past, and that these had to be managed and accommodated  
35 rather than resisted or subverted. The principals saw the advantages of using poli-  
36 cies in the making of key decisions and were acutely aware of the danger of being  
37 exposed by moving outside protective structures and frameworks. In this, as well as  
38 pragmatism, they also displayed considerable realism in being aware that in the Irish  
39 system the power of leadership is limited by the strength of the other stakeholders.  
40 They understood that support from the religious orders, school patrons, boards of  
41 management and teaching staff is required if any initiative is to be implemented suc-  
42 cessfully, or indeed if even the day-to-day activity of the school is to run smoothly.  
43 Very astutely, the principals also showed an awareness of how to use external pres-  
44 sures, particularly those arising from inspection and evaluation as a lever to engineer  
45 change in their schools.

In relation to questions of ethical pressures on decision making, one might summarise the views of the five principals as follows. Most cases where they encounter such dilemmas at present arise largely from the lack of resources in schools, resulting in difficult choices having to be made. These dilemmas are therefore more resource and structure based rather than arising from interpersonal management and organisational concerns. However, it was largely agreed by all five respondents that the policy trend towards greater accountability and increased external monitoring and surveillance will generate future ethical dilemmas and conflicts.

Finally, and rather interestingly, although these principals were drawn from different sectors of the education system, and each professed a clear education vision and ethical framework, yet the pragmatic nature of most of what they said gave the impression that deliberation and caution would be key watchwords in their practice. The limitations of leadership in terms of power and the danger of getting too far ahead of other stakeholders were very clear to these principals. In short, they perceived their roles—to paraphrase the well-known categorisation applied to Irish prime ministers—more as chairmen than chiefs.

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AQ2	959	4	Reference Government of Ireland. (1998) is not cited in the text part. Please provide.
AQ3	959	32	Please update the reference McNamara and O’Hara (2008).
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