Primary School Initiatives

for Pupils with

Personal and Social Development Needs

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Certification of Originality

Submitted by Jennifer Lerpiniere to the University of Glasgow to be considered for the award of PhD.

I certify that all material in this thesis which is not my own work has been identified and that no material is included for which a degree has previously been conferred upon me.

Abstract

The Scottish Executive has highlighted the important role of personal and social development in primary education to promote the social inclusion of children who have poor life experiences (Scottish Office, 1999a). HMIE reports however suggest that there are few opportunities in primary schools in Scotland for pupils with social difficulties to develop personal and social skills (HMIE, 1999, 2001a, 2001b). This study explored the historical development of provision for personal and social development in primary education in Scotland, and carried out a survey of current perceptions and provision for pupils with personal and social needs in primary schools in Scotland. Following this, an investigation of the organisation and impact of three personal and social development initiatives for pupils with personal and social difficulties was carried out.

Results of the historical review revealed that in the 1960s teaching methods became increasingly child-centred but it was not until later, in the 1980s, that personal and social development became part of the school curriculum. Results of the survey of primary schools showed that schools introduced a range of personal and social development initiatives but that few of these were intended to specifically meet the needs of individuals with personal and social difficulties. The investigation of three initiatives for pupils with personal and social difficulties revealed that initiatives were generally valued by staff, pupils and parents in those schools and that initiatives had a positive impact on a number of personal and social development factors, such as self-esteem.

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Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Context of the Study

Shortly after the Scottish Office, now Scottish Government, became a governing body of Scotland, it published a document, *Social Inclusion: Opening the Door to a Better Scotland*, which stressed the importance of personal and social development within the school curriculum as part of its plan to promote social inclusion (Scottish Office, 1999a). The Scottish Office believed that developing the social skills of children who have poor experiences in life was a key factor in helping them to remain 'included' in society.

> *Many young people enter adult life disadvantaged because of their experiences as a child, [there] is a pressing need to tackle this disadvantage, and to give children and young people the social skills and knowledge which will help them resist exclusion as adults.* (Scottish Office, 1999a , p32)

Social and emotional development was viewed as a basic need for the all round development of children that should be addressed in schools (Scottish Office, 1999a). The Scottish Office encouraged schools to be innovative in their approach to meeting pupils' personal and social needs, suggesting the 5-14 National Guidelines for Personal and Social Development as one way to achieve this, alongside clubs, sports and other extra-curricular activities (Scottish Office, 1999a).

Through the 5-14 National Curriculum Guidelines for Personal and Social Development (SOED, 1993b) schools are currently encouraged to provide opportunities for the development of pupils using whole school, cross-curricular and special focus approaches. These approaches recognise, respectively, the contribution that school life, the curriculum, and focusing on personal and social issues raised by pupils can have on children's personal and social development (SOED, 1993b). A minor section (Section 4) of the guidelines suggests that, in addition to general provision, the needs of individual pupils should be met, referring specifically to the needs of pupils with special educational needs, but adding that ***all*** [their emphasis] *pupils should be encouraged to come to an understanding of themselves, others and*

the world of which they are part, in ways appropriate to their needs (SOED, 1993b, p23).

Evidence from HMIE reports indicate that personal and social development provision in primary schools is good or very good but does not always *meet the needs of some vulnerable pupils* (HMIE, 2001a, paragraph 2.4).

1.2 The Importance of Personal and Social Development

Government and research findings have highlighted the importance of personal and social development for educational progress during childhood and social inclusion during childhood and adulthood. It has been shown that personal and social development attributes such as well-being and satisfaction, social relationships and interactions and self-determination contribute to quality of life (Heal *et al*, 1997). The degree to which individuals are able to develop positive relationships is predictive of life satisfaction and productivity, whereas grades and test scores by themselves are not (Cohen, 2001).

Pupils with good social skills who actively engage in emotion appraisal and regulation are less likely to experience and externalise distress through anti-social behaviours. Individuals with poor social skills are more likely to feel withdrawn, lonely and excluded, which increases their likelihood of behaving in socially unacceptable ways (Petrides *et al*, 2004; Schaffer, 1996). Children who have poor peer relationships, or are peer rejected, are more likely to be bullies or victims than children who have positive peer relationships (Villanueva-Badenes *et al*, 2000).

> *Children without friends are more likely to have emotional problems; to lag behind other children in perspective taking abilities; to be less altruistic; to have deficiencies in such skills as group entry, cooperative play, and conflict management; to be generally less sociable; to show poorer school adjustment; to make fewer educational gains.* (Schaffer, 1996, p327)

Weham and Schleien's (1980) research with children who had severe learning difficulties revealed an inverse relationship between the acquisition of play skills and socially inappropriate self-stimulated/abusive behaviour (such as body rocking and head banging) when children with severe learning disabilities were involved in recreational activities. Weham and Schleien concluded that involvement in

recreational activities   provided children with learning difficulties the opportunity to learn socially appropriate behaviours. Oden (1980) similarly suggested that:

> *Social inclusion provides the child with resources for*
> *development: participation in new activities and interests and*
> *exposure to differing values and perspectives.* (Oden, 1980, p179)

The importance attached to social development in society is so strong that if social competence is severely poor it is regarded as a clinical problem requiring intervention (Heal *et al*, 1997; Howard & Johnson, 2000; Posner & Vandell, 1999; Spence, 1997). Children who exhibit poor peer relations have been shown to be more likely to experience a range of problems as adults, for example, psychiatric disturbance (Cowen *et al*, 1973; Roff *et al*, 1972).

Personal and social development also has implications in an educational context for pupils' achievements, socially and academically. Harter (1982) found that low levels of self-worth were associated with poor academic grades. This association between low self-worth, or self-efficacy, and poor grades is correlated with a tendency of children who have low self-worth to put in less effort than other pupils and to be less likely to take part in learning opportunities or activities (Bandura, 1994).

In schools, high trait emotional intelligence (EI), (which includes traits such as empathy and patience) has been associated with good performance in English and overall exam scores (though not with science or maths scores). For vulnerable pupils who were learning disabled or had a low IQ, increased self-perceptions were found to be associated with improved academic performance. There was no improvement in academic performance for pupils with a high IQ when self-perceptions improved. Pupils with low trait EI were more likely to have been expelled from school, which may be related to emotional and low self-esteem deficits which are predictors of conduct disorders/challenging behaviour (Petrides *et al*, 2004).

Similarly, evidence suggests that self-esteem and locus of control are related to school adjustment and achievement (Carlson *et al*, 1999; Colvin, 2000; Robinson & Kelley, 1999), as are self-awareness, self-competence, and self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 1994; Galloway *et al*, 1995; Grolnick & Ryan, 1990). Students who are motivated to learn display high task engagement, pay attention to lessons and are actively involved

in class activities (Lee & Brophy, 1996). It has been shown that meaningful or deep learning occurs when co-participation and communication are used as teaching methods (Chin & Brown, 2000), but for this to be effective, children should have good personal and social skills (Tobin, 1997). Welsh *et al* (2001) suggest that social competence and academic competence have a 'reciprocal' influence on each other. That is, doing well in school increases social competence and being socially competent helps pupils do well at school.

These results show that personal and social skills have a significant impact on a pupil's likelihood of engaging in activities and doing well in school. In particular, the benefits of being involved in recreational activities are increased for children who have low self-esteem or who display inappropriate behaviours. Given the earlier HMIE (2001a) findings that schools do not always meet the personal and social needs of 'vulnerable' pupils who require additional personal and social support, the current research focused on gaining an understanding of the current provision and impact of personal and social development initiatives for pupils with individual needs in primary schools in Scotland.

1.3 The Research

Developing an understanding of personal and social development initiatives for primary pupils with personal and social difficulties entailed the investigation of three strands of research. The first strand was to understand the historical development of personal and social development in primary schools. The second was to discover current practice and thinking in relation to personal and social development provision and personal and social initiatives. The third research area was to investigate a number of personal and social development initiatives. Research questions were developed to address each strand of the research.

Research Question 1

What has been the historical development of personal and social development provision in primary schools in Scotland which has led to an identification of poor provision for those with individual personal and social needs?

Research Question 2

What is current thinking and practice in relation to personal and social development in primary schools in Scotland? What is the incidence of informal personal and social initiatives for pupils with individual needs in primary schools?

Research Question 3

How have personal and social development initiatives operated within schools and how have they contributed to pupils' personal and social development?

The research was investigated through two frameworks: a processual approach (Dawson, 1994) and activity theory (for example, Engeström, 1999). The processual approach highlights the importance of the historical and political context that has contributed to current levels of personal and social development provision. Activity theory was used to develop an understanding of the contribution of a number of personal and social development initiatives on pupils' personal and social development. Activity theory highlights the importance of the contribution of contextual features of an activity to the outcome of the activity.

1.4 Thesis Outline

This thesis has been arranged in nine chapters, each reflecting a key stage of the development of understanding issues, methods and results of the study. In Chapter Two issues relating to personal and social development are explored, including definitions and aims of personal and social development, and theories of or relating to personal and social development. Chapter Three describes the conceptual framework used to structure the research. Processual and activity theory approaches were used to emphasise the importance of the historical and social context on the development and outcome of initiatives.

Chapter Four presents the results of the brief review of historical literature of personal and social development in the Scottish primary education system dating from the fifth century to the current day (Research Question One). The purpose of this historical review was to develop an understanding of historical influences and developments on

current perspectives and practice relating to personal and social development in Scottish education. Chapter Five presents findings from a survey of personal and social development in primary schools carried out in one local authority in Scotland. The survey was developed to understand current research and practice of personal and social development and to provide an indication of the types of personal and social development initiatives available for pupils with personal and social difficulties (Research Question Two). These findings provide an indication of current practice and aims of personal and social development and of the context within which personal and social development initiatives for pupils with personal and social difficulties are developed.

Chapters Six, Seven and Eight discuss the methodology and results of the investigation of three personal and social development initiatives (Research Question Three). In Chapter Six qualitative methods (informal observation, interviewing and focus groups) and analyses are discussed. Chapter Seven presents results of a qualitative analysis of three informal initiatives (a Craft Club, Buddy System and Enterprise Group) that reflected a range of individual personal and social opportunities introduced by primary schools to meet the needs of primary school pupils with personal and social difficulties. The analysis focused on developing an understanding of the experience of children, staff and parents involved with the initiatives.

Chapter Eight describes the development, implementation and results of a Personal and Social Development Questionnaire designed to assess the impact of initiatives on a number of personal and social dimensions such as self-esteem, social self-esteem and social behaviour. The Likert-style questionnaire was administered on two occasions, six months apart, to discover whether there were significant differences between children who attended the initiative and a comparison group of children who did not attend initiatives. Differences among children attending initiatives are also discussed.

Chapter Nine, the general discussion and conclusion, links the different strands of the investigation together. The findings of the literature reviews and empirical work are tied together to present an account of the historical and political development of

personal and social education in Scottish primary education. This will incorporate a discussion of the contribution of informal personal and social development initiatives to the personal and social development of pupils (aged five to 12 years) who have personal and social needs.

Chapter 2. Personal and Social Development

2.1 The Concept of 'Personal and Social Development'

Personal and social development is a practice based term which is associated with primary education and, to a lesser extent, secondary education. At secondary schools, 'guidance' is a more popular term used to refer to personal and social, health and career development issues (Holm *et al*, 2001).

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the concept of personal and social development including definitions, aims and theories relating to personal and social development. This chapter also explores different types of initiatives that have been introduced in order to promote personal and social development.

2.2 Definitions and Aims of Personal and Social Development

2.2.1 Practitioner definitions and aims

A wide variety of practitioner texts focusing on personal and social development is available. These texts aim to provide guidance for teachers about learning and teaching opportunities for pupils' personal and social development. Authors of these texts define personal and social development in two ways. Personal and social development has been defined as the desirable outcomes (such as self-awareness and self-esteem) of personal and social education (for example, Cartledge & Milburn, 1980; Leach, 2003; Lyseight-jones, 1998; Mortimer, 1998; Slade, 1998; Wakeman, 1984).

Galloway (1989), for example, suggests there are a number of key outcomes of personal and social education including self-esteem, awareness, acceptance of feelings, conflict resolution, problem solving, responsibility and self-direction, values clarification, group-co-operation, clear communication, experiential learning, fantasy and imagination, and fun and enjoyment. Dowling (2000) does not define personal and social development but what she considers to be desirable outcomes can be surmised from the seven chapter headings of her book: confident children, living and learning with others, becoming independent, emotional well-being, dispositions for

learning, moral and spiritual development, and living in the wider world. Under each of these headings she describes a number of factors, such as self-esteem, awareness, and knowledge, that can contribute to positive development.

In other texts personal and social development has been defined as the development of skills or values which enhance these desirable outcomes (such as self-awareness and self-esteem) of personal and social development. For example, Cohen (2001) suggests that personal and social development:

> *… refers to learning skills, understandings, and values that enhance our ability to "read" ourselves and others and then, to use this information to become flexible problem solvers and creative learners.* (Cohen, 2001, pxiii)

The degree of social and emotional competence developed is determined by an individual's ability to understand, process, manage, and express social and emotional experiences (Cohen, 2001).

McLaughlin and Byers (2001), based on the work of Wall (1977), take a slightly different approach proposing seven aspects of the self that can develop personally and socially: the bodily self, sexual self, social self, vocational self, philosophical self, self as learner and, self in the community of the school. They suggest that any one of these 'aspects' of the self may develop at any one time. Development is viewed as being promoted, for example, by critical thinking, self-awareness and interpersonal relationships.

Buck and Inman (1998) suggest that personal and social development *refers both to the processes of development within pupils and to the outcomes of that development* (p7). They propose three main areas of development which are of equal importance: 'knowledge and understanding', 'skills promotion' and 'attitudes and values'.

The first element, 'knowledge and understanding', is concerned with learning about right and wrong, and rights and responsibilities. 'Skills promotion' focuses on, for example, listening skills, the ability to articulate values, and adjusting to social

situations. 'Attitude and value' development aims to develop consistency between belief and action, and being able to value one's own and others' achievements (Inman & Buck, 1998).

A number of authors suggest that to achieve personal and social development pupils must engage in thinking about personal and social issues (for example, McLaughlin & Byers, 2001). Buck and Inman (1998) suggest that pupils' development in each of these areas is enhanced when they are provided with opportunities to engage in thinking about personal and social issues.

> *Personal and Social Development involves engaging pupils in thinking about, enquiring into and discussing issues that have profound importance both at a deep, personal and at a social level. It is the constant interplay between the personal and social that should inform our work with pupils.* (Buck & Inman, 1998, p8)

Pring (1988) agrees that opportunities for development must be afforded but also highlights the individual's own contribution to the development process. His definition of personal and social development captures the idea of independent individual action, and as something that belongs to the individual rather than a list of abstract concepts which individuals may engage in or develop.

> *… the creation of individuals who are empowered to think and to reflect, who can engage with others in a meaningful and sensitive way, who can take on responsibility for their own actions and destiny, and who have a sufficiently strong sense of their own worth and dignity that they are not deflected from the task.*
> (Pring, 1988, p44)

Some authors acknowledge that regression can be a critical dimension of personal and social development (for example, Inman & Buck, 1998), though generally personal and social development is viewed as a positive process with a positive outcome. That is, pupils *improve* their 'personal and social' characteristics.

A distinction is also made in practitioner texts between personal and social education and personal and social development. Personal and social education contributes to personal and social development (by either definition outlined above) in the same

manner as other school experiences such as citizenship education, school ethos, sex education, drama and pupil councils (Holden, 2004; Inman *et al*, 2003; Pooley, 1998). Personal and social education can support children *in developing a positive attitude towards both themselves and others, by providing pleasurable experiences that will further this development* (Leach, 2003, p5).

Definitions found in practitioner texts are useful because they provide an indication of the wide range of factors (for example, self-esteem, self-awareness) that are regarded as personal and social development, and also because they raise questions about the nature of personal and social development as 'an outcome' or 'a process'.

The definitions however are incomplete because they do not discuss theoretical reasoning behind the 'desirable outcomes' for personal and social development. Instead they provide examples of methods and activities that can be used to achieve these outcomes, for example, activities that are based on turn taking, understanding rules, sharing and helping. Lack of theoretical reasoning about the desirable outcomes leaves the reader unsure why certain outcomes have been chosen and not others, and whether it would be possible to add any number of other factors to the list to contribute to the definition of personal and social development.

Definitions are also unsatisfactory because the focus of the definitions, and of the activities proposed, is on personal and social development as an internal trait or state of the individual. Definitions, with the exception of Dowling's (2000) chapter about 'Living in the Wider World', do not include the influence of other factors such as poor building conditions, lack of resources, or of teaching style on personal and social development. For example it has been shown that well-designed and well-equipped facilities can have a positive effect on children's development (Seymour *et al*, 2002). Teaching style similarly has been shown to have an effect on children's development. Children with teachers who are sensitive to individual differences in learning have a higher self-esteem, complete tasks more quickly and are more motivated to engage in learning than children whose teachers are not sensitive to individual learning differences (Rosenfeld & Rosenfeld, 2004).

Definitions of personal and social development in the academic literature were explored to uncover similarities and differences across practitioner and academic texts and to discover whether academic definitions addressed any of the issues outlined above.

2.2.2 Academic definitions

The concept 'personal and social development' does not appear in the academic literature. Theoretical accounts and research focus on 'social development' (Schaffer, 1996), 'social intelligence' (Warden & Christie, 1997), 'emotional intelligence' (Petrides *et al*, 2004), and 'social literacy' (Arthur *et al*, 2000) or similar, and on individual attributes such as self-monitoring (Snyder, 1979), self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1979), and locus of control (Lefcourt, 1982) which are considered in practitioner texts to form part of personal and social development. Definitions of social development contain references to similar constructs and factors as practitioner definitions of personal and social development although the theoretical basis of academic definitions is clearer.

Some definitions are based on developmental perspectives such as Schaffer (1996) and Warden and Christie (1997). According to Schaffer (1996), emotional and social development refers to *the behaviour patterns, feelings, attitudes, and concepts children manifest in relation to other people and to the way that these various aspects change over age* (p1). Development is concerned with learning how to communicate, form relationships, develop self-awareness, a self-concept and self-esteem, develop knowledge of others and an awareness of gender differences within culturally acceptable practice (Schaffer, 1996). Positive social engagement should be intrinsically motivated and not in response to external motivators (Schaffer, 1996):

> *The end product of socialization is an individual who can distinguish right from wrong and is prepared to act accordingly. Such an individual can be said to have acquired a sense of morality, that is, he or she will behave in ways that uphold the social order and will do so through inner convictions and not because of a fear of punishment.* (Schaffer, 1996, p290)

Warden and Christie (1997) use the term social intelligence and highlight the importance of the development of a theory of mind, that is, children's growing ability to understand and be able to predict the thoughts of another person. For example, Bosacki and Astington (1999) found that among 11 year olds a number of measures of theory of mind including empathy and understanding situations, were associated with peer ratings of social competence. Results revealed that children who displayed empathy and a good understanding of social situations on vignette and similar tasks were also those who were more likely to be rated by class peers as having positive social interaction skills.

Arthur *et al* (2000) prefer to use the term 'social literacy'. They maintain that this term captures the non-linear process of development which permits a broader understanding of social maturation.

> *How children develop their social literacy is intrinsically a contextual matter and is not something which can easily be traced in a linear or developmental fashion. The acquisition of social literacy is a complex process which is historically and culturally conditioned and context specific. Children learn through social practices, both explicit and implicit and become human through social interaction.* (Arthur *et al*, 2000, p2)

Arthur *et al* (2000) suggest that values are present in all interactions and that these values shape the social skills and knowledge that children develop.

Petrides *et al* (2004) draw attention to the differences between consistent emotional behaviours or traits and the ability to process emotional information such as emotional expressions. They describe emotional intelligence as relating to Thorndike's social intelligence, referring to the ability to *understand and manage people and to act wisely in human relations* (p277). Petrides and Furnham (2000) distinguish between trait emotional intelligence and information processing emotional intelligence.

> *Trait EI [emotional intelligence] is concerned with cross-situational consistencies in behaviour (manifest in specific traits or behaviours such as empathy, assertiveness, optimism) as opposed to information-processing EI, which concerns abilities (e.g. able to identify, express and label emotions).* (Petrides & Furnham, 2000, p314)

Other authors emphasise the evaluative role of individuals as a determinant of social competence. Trower *et al* (1978) suggest that social adequacy is the ability to affect the behaviour of others in the manner intended, and in a way that society accepts. Ewart *et al* (2002) similarly suggest that social competence includes being able to manage personal characteristics and relationships to achieve desired goals.

> *Social competence is defined broadly as the ability to select and pursue desired, attainable goals by achieving control over one's actions and emotions by understanding, connecting with and influencing other people.* (Ewart *et al*, 2002, p3)

McFall (1982) and Spence (1997) argue that social adequacy is a judgement made by individuals, either the person performing the behaviour or other individuals involved in a situation. McFall (1982) describes social competence as an evaluative term which reflects others' judgements of the adequacy of an individual's performance on a given social task. Spence (1997) agrees that social competence is not so much what a person does as how the performance is evaluated by others. Social incompetence, by contrast, is a failure to achieve successful outcomes or judgements from social interactions (Spence, 1997). Cavell (1990) and Spence (1997) stress the importance of environmental factors. Environmental factors include the context in which a behaviour occurs, non-social characteristics of the individual (such as physical attributes) and the characteristics of the person evaluating the behaviour.

Although known by a variety of names, academic definitions of 'social development' are broadly similar to those of 'personal and social development' provided in practitioner texts. Definitions emphasise the ability to relate to others, to be independent and to build up positive perceptions of the self. In the academic literature, personal attributes such as self-monitoring are considered part of social development. There was also greater emphasis in academic definitions than in practitioner definitions on the importance of environmental or contextual factors on social development. In academic definitions there is a move away from the list like definitions found in practitioner texts. These kinds of lists are thought to be restrictive because they do not provide an understanding of the process of development (Arthur *et al*, 2000). Bosacki and Astington (1999) comment on the

difficulty of defining social understanding though attempts have usually included peer popularity, effective social interaction and friendship formation. They suggest that different aspects of development should be considered separately because they may develop at different rates and in different ways.

2.2.3 Morality and personal and social development

There are three lines of reasoning in relation to personal and social development and morality. There is a belief that morality and personal and social development are inseparable (for example, Wardekker, 2001). A second line of reasoning is that morality has nothing to do with personal and social development (White, 1989b) and a third belief is that morality is related to some aspects of personal and social development (Buck & Inman, 1998; Pring, 1988; Schaffer, 1996).

Wardekker (2001) maintains that all new knowledge is transmitted with associated moral values, and that social education should focus on the transmission of appropriate moral values. He believes there is no real distinction between personal and social education and moral education. This approach to teaching morality or personal and social education is problematic because it assumes that there is 'one best moral value' associated with 'knowledge' at any one time. Often however numerous values can be associated with a particular object and these values vary according to a person's experience of the 'piece of knowledge'. For example, in some cultures cows are sacred, in other cultures cows are to be eaten.

A second argument is that personal and social development is not, or should not be, about morality but should focus on the development of 'personal well-being' (White, 1989b). Personal well-being should not encourage children to become selfish because, according to White, personal well-being includes caring for others' well-being. The main premise of this argument is that if individuals learn to care for others then morality would not have to be used or taught as a method to prevent poor or inappropriate behaviour:

> *In this view personal well-being is not something that has to do only with one's own pleasure or advantage, narrowly conceived, and that requires the encircling constraint of 'morality' to keep it from becoming socially dangerous: it is altruistic from the start.*

The difficulty with this argument is that caring for others is equated with morality. There can be any number of ways of caring for others and individuals may have different values about particular methods of caring. For example, it may be difficult to decide whether to send an elderly relative to a care home or to allow them to stay in their own home with community aid. Each may be a valid caring option but there may still be discussion about which is the best 'moral' option, particularly if the individual concerned objects strongly to an option which provides a good level of care and security.

The third view of moral development is that it forms one part of social development (for example, Schaffer, 1996). Social development includes learning about moral issues, respecting others' beliefs, though it is thought that moral issues are not related to all aspects of social development, for example, most instances of initiating interaction. With such a wide range of social behaviours and social development issues, it is likely that each will have a different association to moral issues or development. As such Schaffer's view is upheld in this thesis, that morality informs some aspects of social development but not others.

2.3 School Practice and 'Theories' of (Personal and) Social Development
Although there are definitions of personal and social development, there is no 'theory of personal and social development' or social development per se. There are however many theories and much evidence about factors that contribute to personal and social development. Schaffer (1996), for example, argues that there are many influences on social development including family relationships (parenting style, extended family and sibling relationships), peer relationships, socio-economic status, school and general experience of society. Children learn from adults and other children acceptable ways of acting towards and reacting to others in society.

He highlighted the impact of culture on the way parents encourage their children to interact and display emotion, and the way in which children interact with their peers, but suggests that children are also participants in their own upbringing. Parents and children mutually adapt, react and respond in their interactions with one another, an

interaction which Schaffer called the 'mutuality model'. Peer relationships are considered by Schaffer to be more important to children's social development than families because children's peer relationships have a more equal balance of power than parent-child relationships.

> *Family relationships are not egalitarian, and just for that reason cannot teach children as effectively as can peer groups skills such as turn-taking, sharing, leadership qualities, or how to cope with hostility and bullying.* (Schaffer, 1996, p313)

Spence (1997) proposed a model of social competence, rather than social development, which has four levels: long-term social outcomes, short-term social outcomes, overt social behaviour, and social-cognitive skills and processes. This model highlights different factors that contribute to developing an individuals' social competence.

Long-term social outcomes refer to an individual's ability to function in family relationships, at work (or school), with friends and in general social interactions with other individuals. Short-term social outcomes are concerned with the effect of an individual's behaviour on the individual and on others involved or observing the interaction. This can include outcomes of conflict resolution, initiating conversations with strangers and asking for help. Overt social behaviour is concerned with specific behaviours, speech, and body language that occur in a social situation. These overt behaviours are related to interactions that affect long- and short- term outcomes. Social-cognitive skills and processes are the equivalent of 'personal development' factors and include, for example, motivation, and self- and other- awareness. These skills allow individuals to process sensory information and respond accordingly. Spence (1997) also highlights the influence of thoughts, attitudes and beliefs in interpretations of social situations.

Schaffer's and Spence's models highlight the range of situations that can contribute to an individual's development, or which can be used to make judgements about social competence. Spence's model in addition suggests that it is important to look at 'personal' factors such as motivation to understand an individual's role or influence in a social situation.

This type of situational thinking has influenced school practice in relation to personal and social development. For example, in the school environment, school ethos is thought to be a crucial contributor to children's personal and social development because it influences the way children behave and what is viewed as acceptable behaviour (Hargreaves *et al*, 1988; McLaughlin & Byers, 2001).

> *It is in the everyday fabric of school life; in its rules and regulations; it's attitudes and expectations; in the entire range of relationships within the school community, that most personal and social learning takes place.* (Hargreaves *et al*, 1988, p184)

Teachers are also encouraged to have a positive impact on personal and social development by modelling and putting into practice the aims of the school. This is achieved, for example, by assuring children that they are effective learners and expecting children to continually improve their learning. Good teaching practice is thought to include valuing children and seeking to enhance their self-esteem and confidence (Lyseight-jones, 1998).

Child-centred education or experiential learning is thought to be one of the key methods that can enhance children's personal and social development. Many authors emphasise the importance of activities and experience as a platform for development. Child-centred education, when it was first accepted as a main stream approach to schooling in the 1960s, reflected new psychological theories about child development It had been found that children's learning was improved, in contrast to rote learning, when they were involved in activities (Darling, 1994). Following this, class activities were designed to reflect the needs and interests of children and children were encouraged to be involved in activities, to ask questions and to learn through experience (Darling, 1994). That is, children's educational achievements were improved by attending to their personal and social needs.

Burnard (1996) agrees that all individuals learn from experience, although points out that not everything that is learnt is learnt through experience, and that sometimes individuals don't learn from experience. He suggests that experiential based learning

is a way of thinking that teachers should adopt towards the development of pupils because it enhances the meaning of learning.

Other authors recommend using a person-centred approach specifically to enhance personal and social learning rather than as a means to promote educational attainment. Pring (1988) believes that learning in personal and social education is enhanced by a person centred approach because pupils are not viewed as 'objects' who learn. Cartledge & Milburn (1980) also highlight the importance of involvement in activities to develop social skills. They suggest that social skills should be practised in a variety of settings and through a variety of activities in order that children understand that social skills are transferable. MacBeath (1986) cautions that it is not simply participating in an activity that is important for development but also the way the activity is organised and who participates in it.

There is however an emphasis on positive personal and social development issues in schools which is not necessarily present in the academic literature. Recommendations for personal and social development in the primary school are geared towards enhancing children's development with little acknowledgement of negative influences on personal and social development (SOED, 1993b). Levine (1963) and Schaffer (1996) emphasise that negative experiences also contribute to personal and social development and these can have negative outcomes on development. Negative experiences may include parental separation, bereavement or bullying.

In addition not all negative personal and social characteristics necessarily indicate poor relationships with others. Cairns *et al* (1988) found that aggressive children, while not as popular as children who weren't aggressive, had the same number of good or best friends as children who weren't aggressive.

A further concern for educational practice is that adults and children can have different views about social behaviours. Christie *et al* (1994) found that children identified certain types of social behaviour as prosocial behaviours. For example, children considered including others in a game or activity to be a prosocial behaviour. For adults, 'helping others' was more frequently considered to be prosocial than 'including others'. There were similar findings for anti-social behaviours. Children and adults considered some anti-social behaviours to be worse than others, although

there was greater conformity among children and adults' perceptions of which behaviours were worst than among which behaviours were most prosocial (Warden *et al*, 1995). These findings have implications for the values that are promoted in schools and whether these should reflect adults' or children's priorities, or both.

2.4 Developing a Definition of Personal and Social Development

Consideration of the definitions and theories of personal and social development led to the proposal of an alternative definition of the term 'personal and social development' that is used in this thesis. This definition incorporates three main premises. The first is consistent with activity theory (see Chapter Three) and is the notion of personal and social skills developing through activity based learning. Activity based learning promotes the understanding of personal and social (and other) meanings associated with 'uses of objects' and 'roles of individuals' within activities. Meanings are transmitted through participation in the activity (for a definition of activity see Chapter Three, Section 3.3). The second premise addresses issues relating to the influence of environmental and contextual factors which were largely absent from practitioner definitions. Participation in the activity, in this definition, incorporates the influence of contextual and environmental features including, for example, other individuals, accommodation and resources. The third premise is that 'development' is viewed as *the sequence of changes over the full life span of an organism* (Reber, 1995, p203). This notion of development is adopted in the current study because social development is non-linear, that is, it does not incrementally increase in a positive direction (for example, Schaffer, 1996; Warden & Christie, 1997). Based on these three premises, personal and social development is a negative or positive 'change' (conscious to the individual or otherwise) in a person's way of thinking or acting in situations or towards others that has come about as a result of participation in an activity or experience (see Figure 1). As Burnard (1996) comments, it is possible that no personal and social development occurs following participation in an activity. In which case, there would be no 'process of personal and social development'.

Figure 1. Process of Personal and Social Development

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│   Prior to participation in Activity │
│                                      │
│        Perceptions of the world      │
│         Actions in the world         │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│     Participation in Activity        │
│                                      │
│   Influence of tasks,                │
│   interactions and                   │
│   environmental factors              │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Following participation in Activity │
│                                      │
│  Changes in perceptions of the world │
│   Changes to actions in the world    │
│                                      │
│  *i.e.* personal and/or social development │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
```
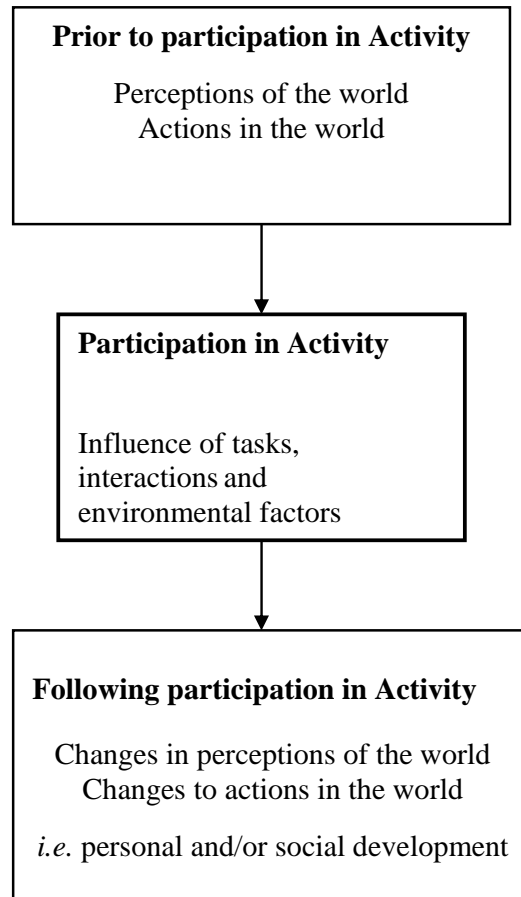
The extent of development may depend on age and previous experience of the activity.

2.5 Initiatives for Personal and Social Development

A plethora of initiatives based on children's involvement in activities have been introduced in educational and community settings to enhance children's personal and social development. These initiatives use a range of methods and target a variety of individuals, groups or personal and social issues. A number of initiatives are explored here in order to develop an understanding of some of the practice associated with personal and social development.

One type of initiative that has been introduced in schools in the United Kingdom is peer counselling or peer mediating projects. These are peer listening schemes which are mainly introduced to support anti-bullying strategies. Pupils in upper primary years are given peer support training involving listening skills, communication skills, buddying skills and anti-bullying training. Using these skills, pupil mediators are then encouraged to help pupils resolve issues they are facing with other pupils (Edwards, 2003).

There are many benefits associated with this type of project including: pupil access to sources of help, confidence and self-esteem building for peer mediators and other children involved in the project, learning of strategies to deal with difficult social situations, promotion of educational attainment, and increased interaction between teachers and children (Edwards, 2003). As indicated earlier in this chapter by McBeath (1986) (see Section 2.3), successful programmes were those which were well organised. They were programmes which were part of a whole school approach to bullying, had senior staff commitment, clear aims and objectives, adequate time, were well staffed, had clear rules about confidentiality, regular and consistent supervision for peer mediators, and ongoing monitoring and evaluation to inform further developments (Edwards, 2003).

Other research has shown that peer support initiatives have positive outcomes for pupils with social/behavioural difficulties (Christensen *et al*, 2004). The 'Positive Behaviour Support' (PBS) initiative was designed to be carried out by class teachers and to be completed within a short space of time. Teachers spent a period of time observing pupils who engaged in many problem behaviours in the classroom. The period of observation allowed teachers to identify times when the pupils were likely to engage in problem behaviours. A programme was created for each child which was designed to help pupils monitor their behaviour with the help of a class peer. The class peer would help the pupil with behaviour problems complete self-assessment questions and encourage the pupil to ask for help in class. The class peer completed the same self-assessment questions and tasks as the pupil and received the same rewards and praise as the child displaying problem behaviours. Results showed that pupils with behaviour problems engaged in more socially appropriate behaviours

during the PBS programme. The research did not indicate whether the positive behaviour was sustained after the programme came to an end.

Other initiatives that have been developed are whole class activities. One school in Scotland created a personal and social education course based on peer interaction and peer learning which involved role play, paired working, individual working, group discussion and brainstorming (Black *et al*, 1991). Evaluations showed that despite increased group working teachers still led the main teaching activities. Most pupils preferred pupil-led working but did not consider them to be as effective for learning as teacher-led approaches. This has implications for children's and teachers' expectations about school and what they are expected to learn. Children and teachers may expect teaching to focus on knowledge development rather than interaction and social development, in which case the personal and social impact of such activities may be undermined.

Houlette *et al* (2004) evaluated a whole class intervention called the 'Green Circle Program'. The purpose of the Green Circle Program was to increase children's sense of inclusion. Pupils were involved in a variety of class activities that were designed to help them understand that they could care for others who were different from themselves in terms of, for example, gender, race, religion and body size. Assessments were carried out prior to and immediately following completion of the four week programme to discover if children had included new people in their 'circle of friends'. Results showed that children had not included a significantly greater number of children in their 'circle of friends' at the end of the programme. Nor had children included more people in their 'circle of friends' compared to a control group who had not been involved in the programme. It is possible that this finding is related to the time the initiative was implemented. The programme was carried out part way through the school year and it is possible that friendships and attitudes were already established and difficult to change. To examine this possibility the initiative should be run at the beginning of a school year when friendships are perhaps less well established. Results could then be compared to a comparison group not involved in the programme.

These whole class activities were less successful than other initiatives discussed in this section. Rather than conclude that whole class initiatives are generally less successful than other types of initiative, it is possible that these two class initiatives were less well organised than other successful initiatives. Features of good programmes include good curricular design, co-ordination of the programme with the wider system, good levels of preparation by the teacher/professional, and a well supported and evaluated programme (Edwards, 2003). No information was provided about the organisation of the whole class initiatives.

Other initiatives have been designed to focus on a specific aspect of children's personal and social development, often self-esteem. Initiatives focusing on self-esteem have shown that the self-esteem of children who have low self-esteem was enhanced more than that of children who had higher levels of self-esteem (for example, Smoll *et al*, 1993). Smoll *et al* (1993) investigated the effect of an initiative in which football coaches participated in social support training in order to provide personal and social support to the pupils involved in their football team. Results showed that boys who had low self-esteem had significantly increased self-esteem at the end of the programme compared to a group of boys with low self-esteem whose coaches hadn't received social support training. There was no significant effect on the self-esteem of boys who did not initially have low self-esteem.

The effect of internal reward versus external reward systems to promote personal and social development has also been examined. Benninga *et al* (1991) investigated two types of schools: those which used a system of external motivation including reward and penalty systems, and other schools which encouraged pupils to become committed to values of co-operative learning, helping behaviours and similar (internal regulation). Two different patterns of results emerged. Pupils attending schools where an external motivation system was used had increased self-esteem at the end of the study, and self-esteem that was higher than pupils attending schools with internal regulation systems. At schools involved in internal motivation systems, pupils engaged in more helping and supportive behaviours than pupils at schools with external motivation systems. This has implications for the type of personal and social development factors that school's wish to promote.

In other schools specific groups of pupils have been targeted, for example, pupils with learning disabilities, children from low-income families and children of parents who have separated or divorced.

Daniel and King (1997) found that schools in their sample used one of three methods to promote the inclusion of pupils with learning disabilities in main stream schools. In some schools pupils were randomly distributed across all classes in the school. In other schools pupils with special educational needs were included in a small cluster of classes. In a third set of schools, pupils attended mainstream classes for part of the day but also spent part of the day being taught in another area of the school that was equipped for pupils with special educational needs. The research evaluated the effect of these three types of inclusion on pupils' academic achievement, self-esteem and teacher reported instances of problem behaviours.

Results showed that although there were a few instances in which pupils' academic achievement improved, consistent improvement was not associated with any of the inclusion types. Where pupils were randomly distributed across classes or belonged to one of a small cluster of classes there were more instances of behaviour problems among all pupils than when pupils with special educational needs spent part of the day being taught in a separate area of the school. Self-esteem was also lower among all pupils, not only those with special educational needs, when pupils with learning disabilities were placed randomly in classes or in clusters of classes than children who were taught in a separate part of the school for part of the day.

One after-school initiative targeted children who lived in low-income families (Posner & Vandell, 1994). The study investigated the academic performance and peer relations of children who were cared for in one of four after school settings: maternal care, informal adult supervision, self-care, and formal after-school programmes. Children who attended after-school programmes had better grades in reading, maths and behaviour than children who were cared for after school by their mothers, and better grades in other academic areas than all other groups of children. Children who attended formal after-school programmes were rated as having better work habits and peer relations than children who were supervised after school, and had better levels of emotional adjustment than children cared for informally or by their mothers. Results

also showed that children who were involved in after school activities were less likely to be involved in anti-social behaviour than children in self-care.

Another intervention was intended to address children's emotional and behaviour issues that emerged following their parents' divorce (Alpert-Gillis *et al*, 1989). The 16 week programme was intended to help children cope with less contact with non-custodial parents and to encourage children to use extended family and other adults as sources of support. At the start of the intervention children whose parents were divorced were significantly less well adjusted on a number of measures (children's perceptions of their families, self-confidence, social skills, anxiety, parents perceptions of their child's feelings, behaviours and problems solving skills; teachers perceptions of classroom behaviour) than their peers whose parents had not separated.

Following completion of the programme children who participated showed increases in almost all of these measures compared to a group of children whose parents were divorced but who had not participated in the programme. Children reported more positive feelings towards their families, and a heightened ability to deal with their situation. Teachers reported improvement in academic achievements but not improvement in behaviour. Parents reported that their children were able to deal with their feelings better, behave appropriately and solve problems. It was thought that the opportunity to discuss issues intimately with peers in a similar situation had helped children to identify their feelings and express them appropriately.

'Learning Space' is a service available in the South East of England for young people who have behavioural difficulties at secondary school. Staff from 'Learning Space' identify key issues young people are facing and negotiate with schools, parents and the young person the best way to deal with the problems, for example, reducing timetables, introducing adult mentors within school and organising periods of work experience. For those schools involved with the project there were reductions in exclusions and truancy, improvements in school support for disaffected young people and improvements in school ethos and atmosphere (North, 2000).

It has been shown that children who leave school early participate in significantly fewer extracurricular activities than children who do not 'drop out' of school

(Mahoney & Cairns, 1997). This research also revealed that children 'at risk' that is, living in poor socio-economic conditions, were more likely to dropout of school if they were not involved in extracurricular activities than children who were not 'at risk'. Involvement in one extracurricular activity was sufficient to counter this effect. Mahoney and Cairns (1997) argued that this may be because belonging to an extracurricular activity created a positive and voluntary connection to the school. Extra-curricular activities may, particularly for those 'at risk', help to encourage pupils to engage with school. Posner and Vandell (1999) similarly found that children who were 'emotionally adjusted' and who had better grades and work habits in Grade 3 (8 years) were more likely to be involved in extracurricular activities in Grade 5 (10 years). This suggests that perhaps children who are engaged with school are more likely than those who are not engaged to voluntarily participate in extracurricular activities. These two pieces of research suggest that pupils who have social difficulties may need to be encouraged to attend extracurricular activities.

2.6 Conclusion
This chapter has illustrated the meaning of personal and social development in practitioner and academic fields and has highlighted how aspects of this theory have affected educational thinking and practice. A new definition of personal and social development has been proposed in this chapter. This definition emphasises more strongly the important influence that the context of situations and involvement in activities has on development. This extends previous definitions which focus on individual influence on development rather than on a combination of experience, context and engagement in activities.

The initiatives discussed here highlight a number of methods that have been successfully used to promote personal and social development. These methods varied from peer led initiatives, adult led initiatives, class and whole school initiatives, and initiatives that focused on individuals with particular needs including facing problems relating to bullying, divorce and disengagement with school. One of the key features of these methods was engagement and interaction with others, often peers.

The next chapter explains how the research was approached using two frameworks, a processual approach and activity theory.

Chapter 3. Conceptual Approach

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the conceptual approach of the research. The two approaches used to structure the research were Dawson's (1994) processual approach and activity theory, which is based on Vygotsky's (1978) theory of social development. The chapter also explains that the quantitative aspect of the research fits into this conceptual framework, and does not reflect a distinct 'positivist' feature of the study.

3.2 Processual Approach

The processual approach (Dawson, 1994) employs a three stage temporal framework to understand change. Figure 2 shows the pathway of change: conception of the need to change, the transition of change and the operation of new arrangements, influenced by the substance of change, politics of change and context of change.

The first stage is 'the conception of a need to change'. Investigation at this stage produces understanding of the reasons for change. It may reveal whether change was proactive with the aim of meeting future needs, or reactive, in response to pressure for change. The key concern at this stage is to identify factors that influence the need to change.

The second stage is 'the transition of change'. Associated with this stage are the decisions, new tasks, procedures and goals that were made or put in place by individuals and groups within and outside of the organisation to implement the change. Decisions can be about the structure of change: how, where and when it is best implemented, and who should be responsible for the change.

Figure 2. A Processual Approach (Dawson, 1994, p44)
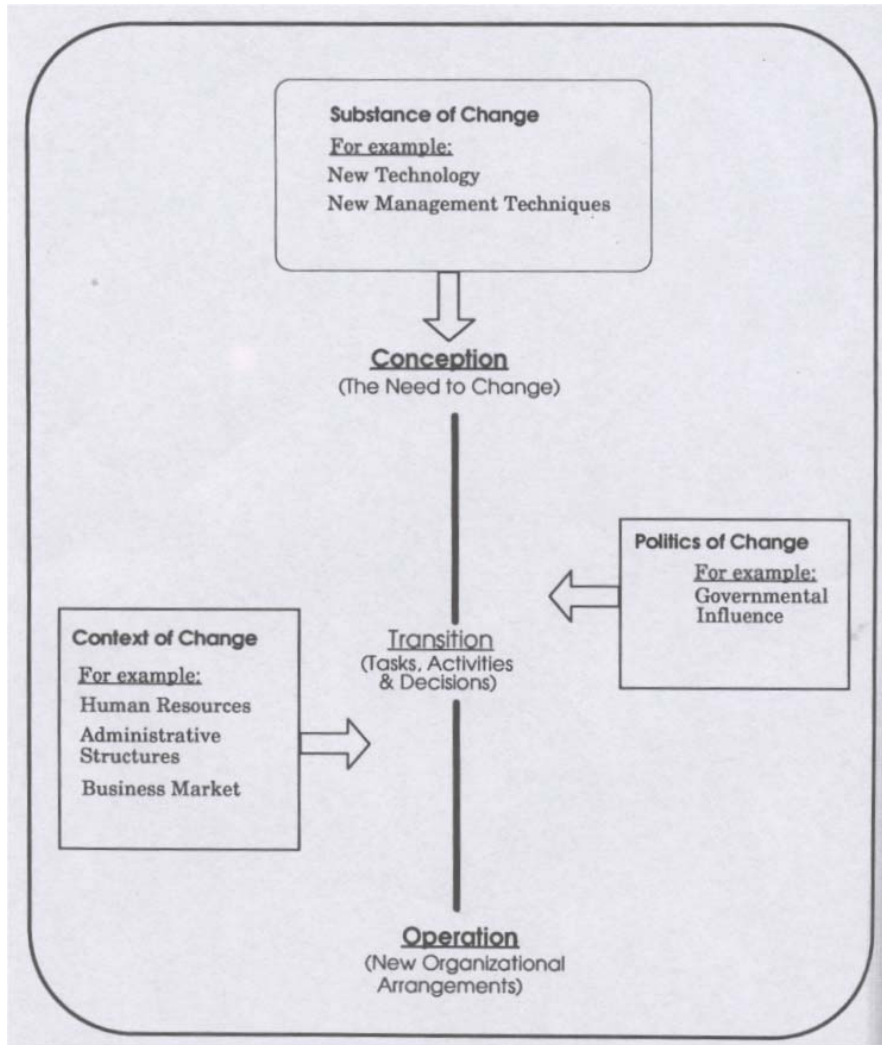
The final stage, 'the operation of the new change', is concerned with the identification of new emerging practices and procedures, in particular to address problems which may affect the success of the change. Problems may include uncertainty about roles, conflict or misunderstanding the new practice. At this time when new relationships and working practices become relatively stable and are no longer considered 'new' it

is possible to compare the outcomes of change with the previous operation of the organisation.

This temporal framework of change is viewed as a continual development process that is influenced by three factors: the substance of change, the politics of change and the context of change.

The 'substance of change' is the type and scale of change which can include new techniques and technology as well as the number of people that are affected by change. Understanding these components of change develops understanding of the process and outcomes of the change, and provides an understanding of how they constrain or enable the change programme. The 'politics of change' refer to internal political activity including consultation, negotiation, conflict and resistance and also to external politics such as government or competitor pressures. The 'context of change' is viewed as *past and present external and internal operating environments as well as the influence of future projections and expectations on current operating practice* (Dawson, 1994, p42). This would include, internally, strategies, human resources, work patterns and structures, technology, the product or service, and history and culture of the organisation. Externally it would include other organisations' strategies, social expectations, technological innovation, and changes in business activity.

In the current study three personal and social development initiatives were selected, one each from three primary schools. The initiatives were selected from a personal and social development survey (see Chapter Five for details of the survey) of primary schools in one local authority in Scotland. The processual framework's approach was used to describe and understand contextual influences on the introduction of personal and social development initiatives in primary schools. The context of change emphasised historical and current influences on personal and social development provision in the three schools and also in the national education system. These findings are presented in Chapters Four and Five in a brief analysis of the historical and political context of personal and social development provision in primary schools.

The processual approach was also used to describe the implementation of personal and social development initiatives in primary schools. Information was gathered to

understand each school's 'conception of a need to change', the 'transitional process' and the 'operation' of the new initiatives. That is, data was collected to understand each school's decisions to introduce a new form of personal and social development provision (conception), decisions about times, location, staff and pupils to be involved, resources, tasks and materials (transition) and the establishment of new practices (operation). The substance of change, politics of change and context of change influencing the process at this local level were also explored. In each school, initiatives represented a small-scale change that did not affect the general running of the school. Politics of change that affected the introduction of initiatives were, internally, school policy, school ethos and staff discussions about and attitudes towards the initiatives and, externally, Scottish Executive and local council policy. Future directions and intended outcomes of initiatives shaped the methods and activities that were introduced to 'best' achieve the initiative aims. These findings are presented in Chapter Seven.

The processual approach provides insight into the context, influencing factors and developments of the three schools that introduced initiatives but the purpose of the research was also to investigate the impact of change and to understand newly established practices. The processual approach, being as it is, intended for analysing the *management* of change rather than the impact of change does not offer a framework for understanding the impact of change nor a framework to understand relationships and issues relating to newly established practice.

The processual approach has also been criticised for failing to provide a framework for presenting multiple perspectives (Collins & Rainwater, 2005). Although the processual approach acknowledges that there may be multiple perspectives of a change process, the framework is presented in a manner which suggests that one perspective predominates. Presenting the viewpoints of different groups (pupils, staff and parents) involved with the personal and social development initiatives was a crucial feature of the current research. To build on the understanding developed using the processual approach an additional framework, activity theory, was used to develop an understanding of the impact of the initiatives and of the multiple perspectives associated with initiatives.

Activity theory provides a useful framework to understand the outcome, or impact, of an activity from the viewpoint of multiple perspectives (Engeström, 1999). Engeström (1999) stated that 'by definition', an activity system presupposes a multi-voiced system. Activity theory sits well with the processual approach because it acknowledges the importance of the historical and temporal nature of activity systems though it does not address these issues in the wider sense achieved by the processual approach.

3.3 Activity Theory

The aim of activity theory, not strictly a theory but a set of principles, is to reveal relationships between components of an activity system and between components of the activity system and the outcome of the activity.

> *An activity is undertaken by a human agent (subject) who is motivated toward the solution of a problem or purpose (object), and mediated by tools (artefacts) in collaboration with others (community). The structure of the activity is constrained by cultural factors including conventions (rules) and social strata (division of labour) within the context.* (Ryder, 2005, internet resource)

Activity theory rests on three main principles: 'the meaning of objects', 'tool mediation' and 'internalisation/externalisation'.

The first principle, 'the meaning of objects', emphasises that all 'objects' have meanings which are 'socially/culturally defined properties' (Bannon, 1997) and 'embodied' in the use and function of the objects (Daniels, 2004; Engeström, 1999; Tolman, 1999). For example, 'cow' may have a different meaning in different cultures. For some, 'cow' may mean a mass produced farm animal that is consumed, to others, 'cow' may mean a sacred animal not to be eaten. The meaning associated with an object determines how that object is used, for example, a cow is eaten or not eaten. For some activity theorists, behaviours (verbal and physical) and internal thinking activity are objects that have meaning (Davydov, 1999). Other activity theorists believe that interactions, behaviours (verbal and physical), thoughts and emotions are not separate objects that can be analysed as a unique category of their

own rather they are viewed as an interrelated aspect of another feature of the activity system such as objects and physical tools or artefacts (Davydov, 1999).

The current research takes the view that these concepts (behaviours, interactions, thinking and emotions) are 'abstract objects' towards which individuals hold meanings and upon which actions are based. This viewpoint mirrors the approach used currently in schools which regards concepts such as self-esteem as a personal and social 'object' that can be managed (SOED, 1993b). Other tangible objects were also used in the initiatives such as art and crafts materials and toys.

The second major principle of activity theory is 'tool mediation'. Tools, which are also known as mediating artefacts, can be physical tools, or symbol and sign (language/communication) systems (Bannon & Bødker, 2005). The distinction between artefacts and objects is that artefacts are man-made (Miettinen, 2005). An artefact is not, for example, a tree, but could be a branch that is used as a walking stick. Individuals learn, through activity systems, about the tasks and responses relating to a particular tool. Learning and development is a mediated process through which knowledge is transmitted through manipulation and use of tools rather than through face to face presentation of knowledge and skills (Daniels, 2004). The meanings and responses associated with the tool that have been transmitted during an activity determine the function of the activity (Tolman, 1999). Individuals create new tools which reflect contemporary ideas and meanings of the use and function of the artefact, and subsequently of the activity (Bannon & Bødker, 2005). For example, technological innovations combining music, photographic and telephone functions in a mobile phone reflect contemporary trends for multi-functioning accessories/technology.

> *Tools usually reflect the experiences of other people who have tried to solve similar problems, invented or modified the tool to make it more efficient. This experience is accumulated in the structural properties of tools (shape, material, etc.) as well as in the knowledge of how the tool should be used. Tools are created and transformed during the development of the activity itself and carry with them a particular culture - the historical remnants from that development. So, the use of tools is a means for the accumulation and transmission of social knowledge. It influences*

the nature, not only of external behavior, but also of the mental functioning of individuals. (Bannon, 1997, internet resource)

The main personal and social tools that were used in the three initiatives were interactions among pupils and staff. Initiatives were set up on the basis that interacting with others would enhance pupils' personal and social development. Other tools, such as games and craft making, were used to facilitate the interactions.

The concept of 'internalisation and externalisation' is the third key principle of activity theory.

An activity system begins with an almost exclusive emphasis on internalisation, on socialising and training the novices to become competent members of the activity as it is routinely carried out. (Engeström, 1999, p33)

Cultural norms, behaviour, language, theories and other artefacts are internalised through participation in social activities (Miettinen, 2005). These established norms, behaviours and ways of understanding particular activities are known as the 'practice' or 'praxis' of the activity (Bannon & Bødker, 2005). Shared 'practice' is not static but constantly changing as individuals develop new ways of using artefacts or carrying out the activity (Bannon & Bødker, 2005). Externalisation occurs when individuals begin to reflect on the internalised knowledge (or practice) of the activity and create new methods for carrying out the activity or for using a tool (Engeström, 1999). New methods are established and practice again becomes internalised, until at a later point, a new process of creativity occurs, and externalisation of the practice of the activity begins. These continuing cycles of internalisation-externalisation have been referred to by Engeström as 'expansive cycles'. Expansive cycles emphasise the historical nature of an activity's development. As individuals join an activity, they master the level of skill and thinking currently in use and, in turn, will alter it according to their own thoughts and use of tools (Tolman, 1999).

The introduction of initiatives in primary schools symbolised a process of externalisation in which the previous provision of personal and social development was expanded and developed in new creative ways. The practice within the initiatives, and the practice of the initiatives as part of the school system, became

established or internalised, but according to activity theory (and processual approach) would continue to change and at a stage in the future, another period of externalisation would occur when there would be further development of the initiatives or of the schools' provision for personal and social development.

Engeström (1999) suggests that activity systems have a subject (participant), object (purpose), mediating artefacts, rules, a community, division of labour, and an outcome. Activities are *driven by certain needs where people wish to achieve a certain purpose* (Bannon & Bødker, 2005).

Developing an understanding of these components of an activity system provides clearer understanding of the motives behind actions carried out in an activity, and allows the outcome of the activity to be considered in a meaningful social context (Engeström, 1999). For example, one outcome of writing a journal article could be 'to produce a paper' however in a wider context greater understanding of the motives behind production of the paper is achieved if the outcome of writing a journal article was stated as 'engaging with the academic community'. Activity theorists use the term 'actions' to describe the different tasks required or associated with an activity (Bannon, 1997). For example, the activity may be a school trip. Different actions associated with the school trip could be organising transport, meals, consent forms and being involved on the day. In subsequent chapters 'actions' of an activity system have been referred to as 'activities' or 'tasks' as this reflects common English language use.

According to activity theorists, the outcome of an activity should be a 'transformation' in the individual (Davydov, 1999; Lektorsky, 1999) and one of which the individual is aware.

> *Activity in the process of a genuine dialogue is not a simple transformation of a co-interlocutor in accordance with the aims and plans of another; it includes the self-realization of the participants at the same time.* (Lektorsky, 1999, p68)

To have a successful outcome the individual must be able to reflect on the activity:

Successful communicative activity presupposes taking into account the position and values of the other, an ability to look at oneself from this position and to perform an 'inner dialogue' (Lektorsky, 1999, p68)

This idea of self-realisation is somewhat problematic for the current research because the aim of activities, from teachers' perspectives, was to enhance the development of pupils' personal and social characteristics without children having knowledge of this purpose of the initiatives. Not knowing the purpose of the initiative would not necessarily preclude children's awareness of changes in their personal or social characteristics but it does suggest that initiatives were founded on the premise that change without awareness is possible.

This raises the issue of the meaning of self-realisation. Does 'self-realisation' mean meta-awareness, that is, being aware of the impact of the activity on, for example, self-esteem, or does it mean awareness of performing the new action or actions. Subsequently if transformation has to be conscious or self-realised, does it follow that those pupils who do develop and are not aware of it, according to either meaning, are not transformed? Although children under the age of 11 have successfully been encouraged, through school tasks, to develop metacognitive thinking skills such as self-monitoring and self-evaluation, research shows that children cannot necessarily reflect on their own development and relate it to personal and social concepts (Georghiades, 2000). Children may also be unaware of, or unable to articulate, their own perspectives or the perspectives of others (Flavell *et al*, 1993).

Research shows that often individuals are not aware of why they carry out behaviours, for example, Maier's (1931) classic 'swinging pendulum' experiment. In this experiment participants were taken into a room which had two strings hanging from the ceiling. They were asked to tie the two strings together but when participants held one string they found they were unable to reach the other string. Some participants were able to work out that if they tied an object, in this instance a pair of pliers, to one of the strings they were then able to swing the string like a pendulum catching hold of it while holding onto the other string. Therefore enabling them to tie the two strings together. Many participants were unable to work this out until Maier 'accidentally' brushed against one of the strings causing it to swing. Some participants recognised

that this accidental clue gave them the idea to create a 'swinging pendulum' but many more did not recognise that it was in response to the 'swinging string' that they were able to solve the problem of tying the two strings together. These participants were unaware of the effect that the immediate environment had on their behaviour. This raises the question: To whom must the transformation be observable?

An answer may be found in neurological studies which have shown that neurological pathways develop differently according to whether an individual recognises a behavioural change they have made or not (Stephan *et al*, 2002). New neural connections reflecting new behaviours (or learning) are formed in relevant parts of the brain regardless of whether the individual recognises that they have learned the new behaviour or not. If, in addition, the individual recognises that they have learnt a new behaviour new neural connections are also formed in the 'conscious' part of the brain (prefrontal cortex). This research suggests that 'transformation' does not have to be recognised by an individual.

The findings of Georghiades (2000), Flavell *et al* (1993), Maier (1931) and Stephan *et al* (2002) provide powerful evidence that development does occur without self-realisation. For the current research, it is assumed that children will have differing levels of ability to understand and articulate the behaviours they perform and the way they feel. It is assumed that 'transformation' does not have to be self-realised and that many children would be unable to provide this information in interviews. In addition to interviews therefore, a Likert-style questionnaire was developed to measure 'transformation' on a range of children's personal and social characteristics (see Chapter Eight).

Further to transformation, a central task for activity theorists is to develop an understanding of an individual's or group's consciousness (or awareness) of relationships between different aspects of the activity. Nardi (2005, internet resource) suggests that *the object of activity theory is to understand the unity of consciousness and activity. Understanding the interpenetration of the individual, other people and artifacts in everyday activity is the challenge activity theory has set for itself.* This concept of consciousness has similar problems to those associated with self-

realisation and transformation. Again these are related to definitions of consciousness.

For activity theorists, consciousness is thought to be inseparable from activity. It is not … *inside the head of the individual but in the interaction - realized through material activity - between the individual and the objective forms of culture created by the labour of mankind* (Miettinen, 2005, internet resource). Similarly, (Nardi, 2005, internet resource) suggests that *consciousness is not a set of discrete disembodied cognitive acts (decision making, classification, remembering...) and certainly it is not the brain; rather consciousness is located in everyday practice: you are what you do. And what you do is firmly and inextricably embedded in the social matrix of which every person is an organic part.* The social matrix being composed of people and artefacts (Miettinen, 2005; Nardi, 2005).

It seems that activity theorists define consciousness as 'doing something with a (social) purpose'. It is not clear however how aware individuals have to be of the actions and tasks that they carry out. That is, to what degree is meta-awareness a component of the concept of consciousness. To overcome this uncertainty, activity theory needs to make explicit what the concept of consciousness should add to the analysis of the activity and where its application is limited. If consciousness is the ability to observe manipulation of physical tools or physical objects, individuals are more likely to be aware of these actions than they are, for example, likely to be of non-verbal actions or behaviours.

Another difficulty with activity theory is that it does not account for consolidation of learning and how individuals might go about internalising the knowledge or practice of an activity. As such it does not suggest how individuals may learn these norms of a group, before going on to change them. Other disciplines suggest that this kind of knowledge would be useful for understanding how development of an activity occurs. In management, for example, it has been suggested that there is *a need for more research into the actual social processes of knowledge transfer and management learning, in order to examine how key social actors go about (re)structuring, (re)defining and sharing knowledge* (Geppert & Clark, 2003, p433).

Another criticism of activity theory, and activity theorists have noted this downfall, is that it does not adequately explain negative, destructive or abrupt activities. There is an assumption that development will be positive and everyone will wish to contribute and influence an activity. This criticism does not affect the current research as initiatives were not negative, destructive or abrupt, but for others this weakness has resulted in the refutation of activity theory (Ratner, 1997).

Despite these criticisms, and activity theorists offer their own critiques of other areas activity theory should address (Davydov, 1999), activity theory offers a useful framework for understanding the impact of personal and social development initiatives because it will help to reveal the interconnections of elements of the activity, for example, between the 'tools' of behaviour and language and the outcome of the activity, that is, whether pupils' personal and social skills were enhanced. The initiatives fit well with the framework of activity theory because leaders of each initiative actively considered 'tool mediation' and the importance of 'tools' (social interaction) as mediators to achieve the intended outcome (development of pupils' personal and social characteristics) of the initiatives. In addition, the personal and social development initiatives represent a clear period, during the internalisation-externalisation cycle, of an example of externalisation of the provision of personal and social development opportunities.

Activity theory is also useful because it is not associated with a particular methodology. Researchers have used a variety of methods to carry out research through an activity framework including observation, analysis of interactions, and historical analyses of artefacts (Ratner, 1997).

The processual approach and activity theory share three key elements which make the integration of research findings feasible. Consistency across the key concepts of each of these frameworks allows an in-depth understanding of the influence of the historical and current practice of an activity to be presented within a wider context. One shared element is the importance placed on current and historical contexts for understanding the activity (activity theory) or the process of change (processual approach). The processual approach is concerned with understanding the process of change through political, contextual and historical features of an organisation

(Dawson, 1994). Activity theory emphasises the importance of understanding historical artefacts and the practice of an activity to enhance understanding of the relation of these to the outcome of the activity (Bannon, 1997; Nardi, 2005). Activity theory places a strong emphasis on the evolution of activities and the importance of the development of existing artefacts and practice as the basis for new forms of activity (Bannon, 1997; Nardi, 2005; Ratner, 1997).

A second shared concept is the idea of 'tool mediation' (activity theory) or 'substance of change' (processual approach). Each framework regards tools, signs or artefacts as a key aspect influencing the activity or change process. In activity theory, the meanings and uses of artefacts are indicative of the purpose and the practice of the activity. For the processual approach, the substance of change is regarded as having a crucial role in influencing the methods that can be used to manage the process of change. For each approach the tools or substance of change have a defining role in the activity and how it is carried out.

The third key idea the two approaches share is the concept of continuous development and change. Processual approach states that periods of relative stability precede change and implementation of new processes. Similarly, activity theory incorporates the idea of 'expansive cycles', in which 'internal' periods are marked by stable, consistent responses and actions, and 'external' periods which occur when creative and new responses alter the activity.

Using these two frameworks together builds an understanding of a contextual, historical view of the change and an understanding of current practice and relationships within the activity.

3.4 Positivism

The purpose of this section is to show that the use of a quantitative questionnaire measure in the current research is consistent with a processual approach and activity theory analysis and is not indicative of a positivist epistemology. To complete the questionnaire children were asked to rate self-perceptions of statements relating to personal and social development on a scale of 1 to 4. For example, children were asked to rate whether 'I am confident at trying new things' was 'not at all like me',

'not a lot like me', 'a bit like me' or 'a lot like me'. Responses were scored from 1 to 4 and overall scores for children's perceptions of seven personal and social characteristics, including self-esteem, were calculated (See Chapter Eight). Quantitative assessment has traditionally been associated with positivism, and has been considered by some to be opposed to the epistemology underlying qualitative research (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Hammersley, 1995; O'Neill, 2003). Michell (2003) argues however that the tendency to link positivism with quantitative methods is relatively recent and that there is no conceptual link between positivism and quantitative methods.

Positivists believe that a scientific method should be adopted. Scientific method does not rule out the use of qualitative methods, for example, science describes properties of objects in qualitative terms, such as 'hot' or 'cold', 'gas' or 'liquid' (Michell, 2003).

Another misconception of positivism is that it has a reductionist view of the sciences. O'Neill (2003), appealing to Neurath (a positivist), suggests that positivist thinking does not have to be reductionist:

> *Would it not be preferable to treat all statements and all sciences*
> *as co-ordinated and to abandon for good the traditional hierarchy:*
> *physical sciences, biological sciences, social sciences and similar*
> *types of "scientific pyramidism"?* (Neurath, 1944, in O'Neill,
> 2003, p578)

It is also not the case that positivism is realist in the sense that there is only 'one correct solution'. Neurath's beliefs incorporate the possibility of multiple solutions:

> *If science enables us to make more than one sound prediction, how*
> *may we use science as a means of action? We can never avoid a*
> *'decision', because no account would be able to show us one*
> *action as 'the best', no computation would present us with any*
> *'optimum', whatever actions have to be discussed.* (Neurath, 1944,
> in O'Neill, 2003, p577)

This viewpoint is consistent with qualitative epistemology which also acknowledges that there are multiple perspectives and no one correct solution.

Perhaps most importantly for the current research, positivists do not believe that value judgements are knowledge (Kolakowski, 1993).

> *We are entitled to express value judgements on the human world, but we are not entitled to assume that our grounds for making them are scientific; in other words, the only grounds for making them are our own arbitrary choices.* (Kolakowski, 1993, p7)

Scientific method is the key component of positivism and, whether qualitative or quantitative, categorisation of 'observations' is the key feature of a scientific method. In a positivist epistemology values are not 'observable' and, therefore, cannot be measured scientifically.

The use in this study of a quantitative questionnaire to measure children's perceptions of their personal and social characteristics does not imply a positivist epistemology for two reasons. One, positivists do not view quantitative methods as the only scientific method. They also use qualitative methods to categorise scientific observations. Two, a positivist epistemology does not consider 'values' to be scientific and observable, no matter how measured. Children's ratings on the questionnaire are not scientific observations but value judgements of their behaviours and attitudes.

The questionnaire measure of personal and social development was used to gather information about the 'transformation' of children who attended the initiatives. Perceptions of personal and social development of children attending initiatives were compared to the perceptions of a group of children who did not attend initiatives. The purpose of the questionnaire, in an activity framework, was to relate information about the practice of the activity, to the desired and actual outcomes of the activity.

Some activity theorists may not agree that questionnaires measure transformations appropriately because it does not take in consideration consciousness of the outcomes as a consequence of the activity. For example, children were aware of responses to individual items in the questionnaire but they may not have been aware, overall, of the implication of responses on, for example, self-esteem or social anxiety. As described

in the previous section however awareness of behaviours or actions, while it may be desirable, does not always occur (Maier, 1931; Stephan *et al*, 2002).

3.5 Alternative Theories

There are a number of theories that emphasise the idea of learning through social interaction which was the key emphasis of each of the initiatives. These theories include social behaviourism (Mead, 1934), symbolic interaction (Blumer, 1969), self-presentation theory (Goffman, 1959), social interactionism (Berger & Luckmann, 1966), and social learning theory (Bandura, 1977). This chapter explores these theories and discusses why activity theory was chosen as a framework to understand personal and social initiatives.

The key reason for choosing activity theory is that its framework seeks to explore social settings and understand how an activity operates and develops. The social theories mentioned above focus on the individual and how the individual may have developed as a consequence of his or her interactions with others in society. An important aspect of the current research was to understand not only whether individuals did change but how the particular activity may have contributed to that change. As was described in section 3.3, activity theory focuses on a range of components of an activity which would allow consideration of the contribution each aspect had on children's development.

3.5.1 Social behaviourism

Mead (1934) maintained that individuals develop through social situations and by reflecting on others' perceptions, real or imagined, of the self. The main purpose of the theory is to help explore the relation between what 'goes on' in the physical world and what 'goes on' in the individual. Mead emphasised that individuals can only be understood in relation to their social experience. Individual actions can only be understood in relation to the actions of the social group. Mead's view concurs with activity theory on these levels but activity theory is more useful for the current research because it draws on the idea of one activity (for example, a personal and social development initiative) and focuses on the nature and impact of that activity

rather than offering general statements about an individual's relation to wider society and multiple activities.

Mead offers a useful definition of consciousness that may help to open discussion around what is meant by consciousness in activity theory. Mead viewed consciousness in two ways. One form of consciousness he viewed as sensory stimulation and awareness of sight, sound, touch, taste and smell. Individuals can be conscious or not of sensory information, during sleep, for example, individuals are not conscious. When conscious, individuals have volition to act upon these sensory experiences (activity theorists also allude to this idea of consciousness relating to purposeful action and choice). The second view of consciousness Mead described, and most importantly for his ideas, was the experience of the individual:

> *When we use "consciousness", … with reference to those conditions which are variable with the experience of the individual … [this] is in application to the experience of the individual that is different from the experience of anybody else, and not only different in that way but different from his own experience at different times.* (Mead, 1934, p30-31)

This experiential consciousness is viewed as *functional, not substantive* because it is not 'located in the brain' but in the interaction (Mead, 1934, p112). This view is similar to activity theorists' view of consciousness as something that is 'in the interaction' but it conveys further meaning than activity theory's definition because it incorporates the notion of recognising differences within a situation or within the individual. This definition may be a useful starting point for activity theorists to consider their definition of consciousness and clarify how understanding of consciousness should contribute to the investigation of an activity system.

3.5.2 Symbolic interaction

Blumer's (1969) theory rests on three main premises. The first premise is that individuals' actions towards something or someone are conducted on the basis of meanings that have been attributed to it by that individual. The second premise is that these meanings are created through interaction with others. And finally, individuals

use an interpretive process (rather than applying standard definitions) to establish meaning for each interaction, event or object that is encountered.

For Blumer, interactions are of primary importance in the formation of behaviour, and of the meanings underlying the behaviour. He suggests that the actions of others are constantly considered while individuals make decisions, and therefore it is these interactions, real or imagined, with others that are the first and most important determinant of the behaviour of the individual. Blumer was chiefly concerned with meaning formation. Actions were secondary and reactive to meaning formation. The idea of meaning is key within the initiatives but so is the idea of 'doing'. Individuals carry out actions in order to achieve goals and to meet needs. For this reason, symbolic interaction cannot account as well as activity theory for the variety of processes, not only meaning formation, that may have shaped the personal and social characteristics of children involved in the initiatives.

3.5.3 Self-presentation theory

Goffman's (1959) theory of self-presentation proposes that for people to interact, they must accept one another's 'self-presentation'. Tacit agreements are made between individuals in an interaction about who each individual is and what role they will play. This understanding frames subsequent interactions that takes place. Goffman's theory is fairly static and does not provide a framework for understanding changes to self-presentation and does not consider development. The theory is in opposition to the role model approach that schools in the current study adopted to facilitate change. It can be viewed as the null hypothesis, if no personal and social change occurs then perhaps Goffman's theory may explain the findings of the research. It is possibly a generally less helpful theory for children as they are continually developing and changing.

3.5.4 Social interactionism

Social interactionism (Berger & Luckmann, 1966) proposes that individuals are influenced by the social situations in which they find themselves. This theory includes the notion of activity and internalisation but these are more limited than in activity theory. Activity, in social interactionism, refers to an individual's capacity to

be involved in a wide range of activities. Internalisation, in social interactionist terms, refers to socialisation and an individual's 'fit' with society, that is, the extent to which individuals internalise the culture of their society. Internalised knowledge is viewed as something that individuals strive to protect and refrain from altering. If change does occur it is extreme and through a process of re-socialisation and individuals are thought to 'disaffiliate' themselves from their previous identities.

Social interactionism, while it acknowledges the idea of learning through situations, does not accommodate the idea of creative development but concentrates on the idea of immersion in a largely pre-determined society. It provides an account of how people have already developed, rather than how they are developing. One aspect it does address usefully for the current research is the idea that not everything can be conscious. Much of our interaction is 'sedimented' and becomes part of moral tradition or social knowledge that not everyone will experience consciously.

3.5.5 Social learning theory

Social learning theory emphasises the notion that there is a *continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and environmental determinants* (Bandura, 1977, pvii). Reciprocal interaction is dependent on the use of symbols to *represent events, to analyze … conscious experience, to communicate with others at any distance in time and space, to plan, to create, to imagine, and to engage in foresightful action* (Bandura, 1977, p*vii*).

Bandura (1977) suggested that children cannot learn language or behaviours without modelling the behaviour of others through hearing how words are joined together or seeing how actions are performed. Modelling is the performance of behaviour by one individual and the observation of the behaviour and its consequences by another. According to social learning theory modelling is more effective when a child's attention is drawn to it, though Bandura acknowledged that there were sometimes ethical reasons when it may not be facilitative to guide children's attention to the modelled behaviour. A key aspect of social learning theory is the ability to self-regulate (to choose, organise or transform) objects in the environment rather than just react to them.

These ideas of observing consequences and self-regulated action highlight the idea of awareness or consciousness, which Bandura suggests facilitate learning. Being aware of the consequences or meanings of behaviour facilitates understanding of that situation and of appropriate action within that situation. Although Bandura's hypothesis suggests that initiatives may have less impact because children's attention is not being drawn to the model behaviour, as Bandura also acknowledged that it is sometimes unethical. Highlighting to children attending initiatives that the purpose of the initiative was to help pupils improve their personal and social skills may have been counterproductive and not facilitated learning but made children feel inadequate.

Social learning theory may account for some development but focusing on one issue (modelling) alone does not incorporate the influence that other factors may have.

3.6 Conclusion

All of these theories share with activity theory the idea of symbolism (object meaning), consciousness and the importance of the social setting. The problem with these alternative theories for the current research is that they focus on the individual in the interaction and are less concerned with exploring the contribution of components of the environment, and how they interact, to individuals' behaviours. In addition, the theories do not address the concept of continuous change and development. They view individuals as developing in a fairly stable manner and emphasise stability rather than change.

Activity theory and the processual approach address the concept of continual change: that individuals can *think beyond the limits of their immediate everyday experiences and ... work collaboratively with others to build new knowledge* (Edwards & Daniels, 2004, p108), which provides an understanding of the development of activities. In addition, activity theory emphasises that individual differences and experiences are brought to activities and these influence future developments of the activity. Activity theorists also highlight the importance of multiple perspectives found in any activity system and emphasise the importance of representing this range of views.

The combined framework offered by the processual approach and activity theory can provide an in depth knowledge of the influence of the internal and external historical,

political and contextual components of an activity system. This knowledge can provide understanding about the nature and development of the activity and how the activity and its structure has had an effect on individuals.

Chapter 4. Personal and Social Provision in Scottish Primary Education 400AD - 2006

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to set a historical and political context for understanding the current place of personal and social development in education. This reflects the contextual factors described in the processual approach which have influenced the development of current initiatives. There was no information about historical developments of personal and social development in education in Scotland in recent literature therefore a review of Scottish education literature was undertaken.

The results of the brief review are presented here in a sketch of five periods reflecting significant political changes for the education system. These give an overview of personal and social aims and practice throughout the history of the Scottish education system. The chapter will show that the aims of education in Scotland have always been to improve the individual or society but that practice and understanding of how these aims should be met changed gradually over the centuries.

The first period of education in Scotland dates before the fifth century, at the time of the Druids. The first section in this chapter outlines the druidic system of education and the introduction of a more widespread Christian education system in Scotland in the 14th and 15th centuries. The second section describes the period of education up till 1872 when education was almost entirely provided by the Church. In 1872, the State became responsible for educational provision and the third section focuses on aims and practice in education from 1872 until the Second World War. After the Second World War, the three tier system of education in use today was introduced. The fourth section describes educational aims and practice from the Second World

War until the 1980s. The fifth section focuses on the National Curriculum Guidelines which were introduced in the 1990s and are still used in primary schools in 2007.

The first three sections are dealt with briefly and rely on secondary historical resources to provide an overview of aims and practice relating to personal and social issues. Primary resources have been consulted from 1944 because of their more recent influence on developments in education in Scotland.

4.2 The Introduction of a Scottish Education System 400AD to 1400s

Before Christian education began until approximately the fifth century, where education was provided it was done so by druid teachers. Young men would gather in caves, forest clearings or secluded valleys (Ellis, 1994; Piggott, 1994) where they would be taught by druid teachers and commit to memory poems and epics about a wide range of subjects including astronomy, geography, healing, law and architecture (Ellis, 1994; Piggott, 1994; Stewart & Williamson, 1996). The purpose of education in this period was to teach a philosophy and way of life to those living in the community.

Druid or Bardic schools continued in Scotland in some measure until the early 18th century (Ellis, 1994; Piggott, 1994) but the emphasis changed at the beginning of the fifth century, during the time of St Ninian, when Christian monks started to replace druid teachers and Christian education began. The first and foremost aim of Christian education was to teach people a system of values to which they would adhere in their daily lives, namely those of the Christian religion (Morgan, 1929).

Monasteries were used as educational settings where children could receive general education as well as training for the order of monks. The curriculum of the Christian schools, focusing largely on the written language, was much narrower than that of the druid schools. Through this education system however Columba introduced written language to Scotland, and owing to the widespread nature of the monasteries, this helped to establish a common language that aided the creation of the Scottish nation and laid the foundation of a national system of education within that nation (Edgar, 1893; Morgan, 1929). Few children attended schools at this time but it was thought that *for centuries every child in Scotland who got any education at all received it from a Scottish monk* (Morgan, 1929, p14).

Both Druid and Christian education was intended to teach a way of life and a system of values to the individuals who attended.

4.3 The Period 1500s –1872

During the Renaissance and Reformation periods, roughly the 15th to the 17th centuries, ideas about education and society were influenced by humanism and Protestantism, but the teaching of religion and religious values remained a priority in education. Educational provision remained church, rather than State, responsibility (Anderson, 1997). Attendance at school was still poor and many children remained at home to work in family industries or to look after younger children in the family.

4.3.1 Aims of education 1500s - 1872

The general perspective of this era was that education should help to shape the values and behaviours of society. John Knox proposed that the system of discipline (law) should be supplemented by a national system of education, *for while discipline serves merely to correct the adult after the offence, education by touching the soul of the child may altogether avoid the sin* (Smout, 1972, p68), and bearing this task in mind, *your Honours be most careful about the virtuous education and godly upbringing of men* (Morgan, 1929, p50).

Educational thinkers during the Reformation era, including Buchanan, Knox and Melville, suggested that the aim of education should be to develop the *moral and spiritual culture of the child* (Scotland, 1969a, p48). John Locke also influenced thinking in Scottish education, and promoted the viewpoint that education should be tailored to the temperament of the child and to individual stages of development (Locke, 1968).

Later in the 17th century, a statement made in 1643 by the Presbytery of St Andrews claimed that *the woeful ignorance, rudeness, stubbornness, incapacity seen among the common people proceed from want of schools … and not putting bairns to school where they are* (Scotland, 1969a, p50).

In other cases, the aims of education were described in purely religious terms. In 1638 the Glasgow Assembly of the Church of Scotland, recommended that new schools should be built because the lack of schools *greatly prejudice[d] the growth of the gospel and procure[d] the decay of religion* (Scotland, 1969a, p50) or, in the 18th century as one pastor suggested, for the purpose of *guarding the youth from the errors of Popery* (Scotland, 1969a, p57).

There were those that viewed education in this period as a form of social control by the church. Kerr (1913) was convinced that the *aim of the clergy was not education itself, with its power of sweetening life, promoting culture, and strengthening the commonwealth, but education as a means of adding to the power and ensuring the stability of the Church* (Kerr, 1913, p17). And indeed, education provided by the church was viewed as *an instrument of moralization and social control*, by laymen and the church (Anderson, 1997, p23).

In line with this, the Church of Scotland was concerned that reading would allow people to read the 'wrong' kind of book, that is, not a bible, which would have negative consequences for behaviour and society (Anderson, 1995). Alarmed that educational progress may be damaged, the moral element of education was emphasised by proponents of the education system.

> *The good behaviour of the lower ranks in Scotland … contrasted with the immoralities, crimes, and annual executions, of many of the same class, in the sister kingdom, can be ascribed to nothing so much as to the superior advantages, the former enjoy, of early education, and proper instruction, in the first principles of moral and religious duty. Deprive them of these and they will soon become as great savages, as the most ignorant rabble of London, Paris or Birmingham.* (Comment by a schoolmaster, Anderson, 1995, p29)

In the late 18th century some hospitals or poor houses provided education and clothing for the poor of Glasgow and the Highlands. The aim of these schools was to teach religion to the poor but an underlying reason was to *save children from a life of crime* and *to prepare orphans for the business of life and the purposes of eternity* (Scotland, 1969a, p95). The same preventative measures were the aim of the reformatory industrial schools of towns when it was claimed almost a century later, in 1846, that

the schools were *intended to attract from the streets vagrant youths, who are there trained to criminal pursuits, or accustomed to begging and vagrancy* (Scotland, 1969a, p272). Ragged schools, which were set up as an offshoot to industrial schools focused less on reform and *attracted pupils by the provision of meals for poor children who had resorted to begging* (Scotland, 1969a, p274).

Others in the 19th century believed that education was *the surest and most powerful instrument for the protection of society* (Smith, 1983, p28), to prevent young people entering a lifestyle that was expected could *lead to misery, destitution and early death* (Smith, 1983, p34). It was hoped by some that *mentality, morals and manners [would] simultaneously be improved by the same educational process* (Smith, 1983, p45), that the working classes would become *rational human beings,* that is, to think in line with middle class ideas (Smith, 1983, p45).

Robert Owen and David Stow were key educational thinkers during the nineteenth century. Owen emphasised the importance of developing character through positive relationships with teachers, and pupils' involvement in exercise and outdoor activities. For example:

> *No regular in-door hours for school; but the teachers to discover when the minds of the taught, or their own minds, commenced to be fatigued by the in-door lesson, and then to change it for out-of-door physical exercise in good weather; or in bad weather for physical exercise under cover, or exercises in music.* (Owen, 1971, p232)

Stow claimed that moral education should have greater importance than intellectual education and contended that it should be a key focus of teacher training (Stow, 1841).

It was thought by evangelical leader, Thomas Chalmers (in 1820) that encouraging the rich to send their children to be taught with the poor would promote *'ties of kindliness'* and *'good will', instead of rude encroachment on the one side, and the pride of a distant and disdainful jealousy on the other* (Anderson, 1983, p12).

These social and moral aims of education were not necessarily met. Anderson (1983) stated that it was a myth that Scottish education brought the social classes together. This only happened in rural schools. Social class divisions were well established in towns. Lack of finance during this period meant that educational provision for the poor during the seventeenth century was *weak and mean* (Smout, 1972, p87). There was also dissent in some places against church authority. In one instance in a Perth school during the sixteenth century, pupils *commenced hissing so vigorously that the friar was frightened and ran out of the church* (Kerr, 1913, p16).

There was a clear idea during this period that the aim of education should be about changing behaviour, teaching moral values through religion, and preventing crime and anti-social behaviour by removing children from the streets. To a lesser degree there was concern that education should provide children with meals and the opportunity to improve their lives. There were disputes about educational provision, for example, church concerns that education allowed access to the 'wrong kind of knowledge', and objections to religious lectures in other areas.

4.3.2 School life 1500s - 1872

A typical day, especially at the beginning of this era, did not provide much opportunity by today's standards for personal and social development. In most cases, until the 18th century, the school day was long, beginning at 7am or earlier and ending at 6pm or later with little time for recreation (e.g. Bain, 1977; Kerr, 1913; Scotland, 1969a; Withrington, 1997). For example, in Glasgow in 1610, pupils were not allowed to play games or participate in sports activities (Scotland, 1969a). At a Dundonald school, pupils were allowed one hour, two in the summer, of recreation, three days per week (Withrington, 1997). During a visit, some French educationists noted that there was a *tendency in Scottish schools to neglect recreation and social education in favour of study* (Scotland, 1969a, p216). By the 18th and 19th centuries most schools reduced their hours to five or six per day, though some stuck by the eight or ten hours of previous centuries (Kerr, 1913).

During this period, schoolmasters worked long and hard hours. Even on Sundays at church teachers were responsible for the conduct of their pupils to *see that they*

neither play, cry, nor dispute during the preaching, under pain of being punished with all rigour (Kerr, 1913, p27-28).

Discipline during this era could be strict, sudden and severe. When appointed, schoolmasters were often presented with a rod with which they were expected to publicly beat any mischievous pupil (Kerr, 1913). At Aberdeen Grammar in 1553, pupils brought their own rods for punishment. Pupils could be punished for *disobedience, lateness, ignorance of the prescribed task, talking during a lecture, moving or running about during lessons, and speaking in the common tongue* (that is, Gaelic) (Scotland, 1969a, p21). Other punishments included flogging, the 'tawse' (the belt) and wearing a dunce's cap. These practices were common in all types of schools, including burgh, parish, sessional and private schools. Bain (1977) suggested this form of discipline reflected the Calvinistic belief that errors should be eliminated from pupils. In at least one school however the rod was to be used as a last resort, only when threats were not successful (Kerr, 1913).

Pupils could also be harsh. When the new Protestant religion was introduced, as a stance against Catholicism, many areas abolished the observance of religious holidays, in particular Christmas. Pupils were angered by this and in a few Scottish cities *violent rebellions were of frequent occurrence* (Kerr, 1913, p89). For example, in Aberdeen in 1604, school boys held the school by armed force with *swords, guns, pistols and other weapons, spoiling and taking poor folks gear, - geese, fowls, and other [items]* (Kerr, 1913, p89). On occasion schoolmasters were attacked in the street or barricaded from the school (Kerr, 1913).

Schoolmasters lived with the knowledge that they may be dismissed for even the slightest slip from what was considered to be decent, moral behaviour (Bain, 1977). Teachers were dismissed for 'incompetence and truancy' such as taking penny fines from latecomers and not accompanying children on activities (Scotland, 1969a). Where there was more than one teacher in a school, teachers were sometimes dismissed for quarrelling with one another (Kerr, 1913). More serious charges included drunkenness, fornication and assault, on some occasions resulting in the death of a pupil (Kerr, 1913; Scotland, 1969b).

School wasn't always a bad experience and positive examples of teaching practice did occur in some schools, for example, where school prizes were awarded at the end of the year of 'useful' books such as the bible or account books or moral tales were told. This wasn't common in schools till the late 18th century, though it was practiced in a few schools in the 16th century (Kerr, 1913; Scotland, 1969b).

In the late 16th century plays were occasionally produced, for example, in Haddington and Edinburgh, that were intended to *promote character, morality and confidence* in the school boys (Kerr, 1913; Scotland, 1969a, p84). Again, this was more commonly practised in the late 18th century and early 19th century.

By the 19th century, the aims of education were being met in more positive ways, though this was by no means universal. Child friendly methods of learning were evident such as those of James Buchanan who, in the early 19th century, used singing and apparatus to interest the children in their learning. In 1849, another teacher was known to have abolished the practice of flogging in his school in 1849, and instead *rule[d] his pupils by the law of kindness and the force of motive alone* (Scotland, 1969a, p290).

Robert Owen, in 1816 opened his well-known school, the Institution for the Formation of Character, for the children of workers at the cotton-mill at New Lanark. At New Lanark, *the children learnt by activity and amusement, spending much of their time in the open air, especially on nature walks, from which they brought back specimens for investigation* (Scotland, 1969a, p271). Anderson (1997) commented that Owen's liberal ideas represented a phase of radical, secular thinking.

At the same time David Stow suggested that children learnt as much in the playground as they did in the classroom and proposed that children spend half their seven-hour school day playing (Scotland, 1969a). It was David Stow who introduced a system of teacher training to Scotland to allow schools to *have teachers who were more or less fully acquainted with the nature of the child, with good methods, and with the principles on which these methods were based* (Kerr, 1913, p208).

4.3.3 Curriculum 1500s - 1872

The curriculum at this time was not wide and largely involved rote learning. Some teaching of Latin was usually found in schools but in the late 17th century the curriculum in some schools broadened to include book-keeping, navigation, surveying and modern languages (Anderson, 1997). Generally however *instruction in most parishes for children was in accordance with the Churches aims: reading, writing, counting and the Bible and Catechism* (Bain, 1977, p65). Moral and religious teaching was a large part of parish schoolwork (Smout, 1972) and this involved learning by heart large parts of the bible with little attention paid to comprehension of the passages (Scotland, 1969a). Religious education was taught each day by teachers who, having been appointed on the basis of their piety, felt that the bible was the core of morality (Anderson, 1995). Gaelic was banned, or only allowed as an aid to learning English, and this caused communication barriers between schools and pupils' families (Anderson, 1997; Withrington, 1997).

Despite the fact that *games did not occupy a prominent place ... [and] were practised ... without definite system or rules* (Kerr, 1913, p88), Kerr thought that *the need for physical recreative exercise as an element of school life was recognised and reasonably attended to* (Kerr, 1913, p88). Music received less attention in schools after the Reformation, partly because it was of lesser importance to the Protestant than the Catholic religion (Kerr, 1913). In the late 19th century, a small number of schools taught art and elements of physical and natural science (Kerr, 1913; Smout, 1972) and sometimes history and geography (Smout, 1972).

4.3.4 School accommodation 1500s - 1872

The conditions that pupils were taught in were often very poor. Some buildings were *poor dirty hutts* or, as one school was described, *badly lighted, and in every respect a most ill-aired, wretched hovel, [that was] by far too small* (Scotland, 1969a, p63). A school that was considered to offer excellent accommodation had *a slate roof and a teaching room thirty-six feet long, sixteen wide and ten high* (Scotland, 1969a, p64).

> *Many were damp and had no fireplaces. In some cases there were no desks, the pupils being obliged to "write on the floor lying on their bellies."* (Kerr, 1913, p176)

Often more than 70 pupils were taught by one teacher in these school rooms. Most schools however managed to provide stools and paper for their pupils (Withrington, 1997).

In the mid 19th century schools were designed to accommodate two different teaching methods, the monitorial system, whereby a large room was required for the schoolmaster and pupil monitors to teach approximately one hundred pupils, and the gallery system *which required galleried classrooms with windows behind the children* to enable children to see what the teacher was doing (Adams & Adams, 2000, p128).

4.3.5 Conclusion 1500s - 1872

At the beginning of this era the focus was on transmitting the 'correct' values via religious education and through strict discipline. There were many examples which would be considered now to be in opposition to personal and social development such as the practice of not allowing Gaelic to be spoken at school, punishing children for being unable to understand lessons and learning by rote parts of the bible, without attention to the content, as a method of instilling good values.

Towards the middle of the era however the curriculum began to broaden and later, in the 19th century, more positive examples of teaching practice were encouraged in schools and in teacher training. This included designing schools according to particular methods that were thought to facilitate children's learning, even if now those methods of teaching would not be used.

4.4 The Period 1872 – 1930s

A significant change took place in 1872 when educational provision became State responsibility and it was decreed that all Scottish children should attend school. For the first few years after the Act of 1872 many new schools were built but problems of overcrowding persisted (Anderson, 1997; Paterson, 2003; Scotland, 1969b). Other outcomes of the 1872 Act included greater access to education, for males and females, through a wider curriculum and better transport services (Kerr, 1913), a 'payment by results' system based on pupils' test scores (Finn, 1983) and a reduction in the use of

harsh disciplinary methods (Wright, 1898). By 1890, elementary education (teaching in reading, writing and arithmetic) was provided free to all children. Although schools moved away from church authority, religious education remained part of the curriculum.

Key priorities at this time were to establish a national system of education in Scotland (rather than using Westminster or parish systems) and to ensure attendance at schools (Scotland, 1969b). Mandatory teacher training was also introduced, and most closely related to personal and social development, teachers were trained in religious education and discipline (Paterson, 2003; Scotland, 1969b).

4.4.1 Aims of education 1872 – 1930s

The establishment of a national elementary education system was intended to relieve poverty, remove unemployed young people from the streets and encourage loyal citizenship and a morally responsible society (Anderson, 1995; Paterson, 2003). Education was felt to have a role in *regulating and disciplining an industrial society* and promoting *peaceful integration of the new urban masses created by industrialization* (Anderson, 1995, p193-194). Anderson (1995) suggested that there was greater emphasis on citizenship than in earlier periods but it has also been noted that education at this time was still reformatory, that child-centeredness was not a popular concept in Scottish education (Northcroft, 2003; Paterson, 2003).

During this time, *interest in the general welfare of children became increasingly positive all over Britain* (Scotland, 1969b, p6). Schools were used as centres for the provision of medical, health and physical services to all children (Anderson, 1995; Scotland, 1969b). This increase in welfare services in schooling in part reflected concern about the number of people who could not join military services during the First World War on the grounds of poor health (Paterson, 2003; Scotland, 1969b).

Alexander Wright (1898) thought that education should emphasise *the development of thought power. … The principle aim of educating a child should be mental development … and if we were sufficiently advanced in enlightenment we would see to it that as his intellectual powers were being developed his physical powers were also*

called forth (Wright, 1898, p3). *A sound body should be deemed as important as a sound mind in the training of a child* (Wright, 1898, p8).

Wright criticised the 'payment by results' system because it did not *determine in any way the educational advancement of the child* (Wright, 1898, p2). Instead it forced children to learn facts in order to pass tests:

> *The child by such a system may be instructed – educated it is not, for to instruct and to educate the mind are two different things altogether. The present system of Education … loses sight of the one grand end that all education should contemplate, the nourishment and cultivation of the mental faculties, and concerns itself only with cramming the child with information.* (Wright, 1898, p2-3)

While some key figures, such as, Wright and A.S. Neill, advocated kinder and constructivist methods, there was still strong support in the belief that it was wrong to *soften the Scottish character [through] the removal of fees; free books; taboos on hard tasks and home lessons; the forbidding of the tawse; the devising of new modes of learning; the showering of just and unjust without an examination* (Professor Ramsay, 1908 in Scotland, 1969b, p11).

The aims of schooling during this era were to improve health and create social cohesion enabling Scotland to become a powerful nation. Education was used to control large sections of society to improve lives and reduce crime. Although there were proponents of developmental methods concerned with experiential learning and understanding, they represented the minority view.

4.4.2 School life 1872 – 1930s
One of the main problems of this era was attendance. Poor attendance was often related to the needs of industries such as fishing and farming. Children often stayed at home to help in the fields or with fishing boats. At other times of year, bad weather prevented children walking many miles to school. In towns, alcohol related problems, poverty and similar problems affected attendance. For example, parents with alcohol problems were less likely to send their children to school and children whose families

could not afford shoes (to walk to school in) or fees did not attend school (Scotland, 1969b, p17-18). The abolition of fees in 1891 helped to improve attendance (Paterson, 2003).

Extra support for teachers (and children) came in the form of Child Guidance Clinics. Children who were aggressive or whose behaviour was deemed unmanageable were referred to these clinics (Paterson, 2003). In 1939, the Educational Institute of Scotland encouraged primary schools to provide pupils with a stimulating environment in which their 'natural tendencies' would develop under adult guidance into useful abilities, desirable interests and acceptable attitudes (Paterson, 2003).

For those who did attend school however *the atmosphere in Scottish classrooms undoubtedly fostered authoritarianism. The main emphasis was on the teacher; lessons were accepted as occasions involving children in self-control rather than self-expression* (Scotland, 1969b, p131).

4.4.3 Curriculum 1872 – 1930s

Since religion was not the main focus of the State education curriculum, *the moral aims of education had to be more formally and subtly defined … the purpose of popular education had to avoid explicit religious statements* (Anderson, 1995, p197). Methods such as military drill and physical education were used as a means to improve *moral discipline*, especially of children who were *disorderly and barbarous by habit and instinct* (HMI Inspector, 1875, in Anderson, 1995, p200). There was some opposition to the use of military drill for these purposes because of fears that it may instil 'militaristic notions' and war like attitudes in young people (Anderson, 1995).

Additional subjects were introduced in many schools including dancing, singing and needlework and, in some schools, domestic science and gardening (Anderson, 1995; Paterson, 2003). Swimming and football competitions, and gym activities became increasingly popular, partly as a move to improve the physique of the nation (Anderson, 1995; Scotland, 1969b). In the 1930s, more geography, history, drawing and handwork was taught and there was some use of technology, such as radios and projectors, as teaching aids (Paterson, 2003).

Changes to the curriculum were not always welcomed.

> *All who are interested in the subject of Education feel convinced that the variety and amount of the subjects professed to be taught at all the schools of the day are altogether excessive, and that the very attempt to impart such a variety of branches confuses and bewilders the mind of our youth, and results in overcrowding of the mental faculties with a mass of information, and in no way helps to nourish and cultivate them, and thus truly educate.* (Wright, 1898, p7-8)

4.4.4 School accommodation 1872 – 1930s

The design of school buildings was influenced by the industrial era. Schools were *arranged … to enable the greatest quantity of children to be processed with the maximum dispatch and uniformity of outcome*, akin to factory line assemblies (Northcroft, 2003, p118).

> *Pupils were to be encased within a specifically constructed environment of rectangular regularity and vigilant control … the very architecture of the school plant and the configuration of its classrooms, with their tiers of iron-bolted desks, combined into a total expression of mechanistic regularity.* (Northcroft, 2003, p118)

Scotland (1969b) commented that schools quickly became dated, the colours were dull and the use of any new methods of teaching would have been limited by the layout of furniture.

> *In the mid-twentieth century, when many of the buildings available were nearly 80 years old, solid and durable but antiquated in design; an extensive programme of renewal was required. Classrooms were cubes too high to be economical, draby painted in green or brown, with rows of desks clamped to the floor, preventing experiment in anything but class teaching.* (Scotland, 1969b, p16)

4.4.5 Conclusion 1872 – 1930s

Teaching methods still included rote learning and severe punishment but also extended to participation in sports and a wider curriculum that allowed all children to access schooling. The schools remit widened to include health and welfare, with medical and health services and school meals being provided. School buildings, military drill and other teaching methods however reflected the uniform, rigid approach to teaching.

4.5 The Period 1939 – 1980s

After the Second World War, education changed considerably and the current three tier system of education (primary, secondary and higher education) was introduced. Free school lunches and milk became available, and the school leaving age was raised from 14 to 16 years. Across schools there was less differentiation in the curriculum and school practice than there had been in previous centuries (Paterson, 2003).

Guidance, which focused on personal and social issues, became increasingly regarded as school responsibility and *raised the need for pedagogical strategies that cut across the subject barriers. ... The curriculum came to be seen ideally not as a list of separate subjects but as a programme of learning experiences* (Gatherer, 1989, p78).

4.5.1 Aims of education 1939 - 1980s

Before the Second World War one train of thought was that *democracy required critical, thoughtful and self-reliant citizens and that schools should help to achieve these ends* (Paterson, 2003, p109). After the War the two ideas of school communities and citizenship training were incorporated into the aims of education. In 1946 the aim of education was to help children learn the *discipline of living with others* and *to produce good individuals and citizens* (SED, 1946, p5/p81).

New theories of child development, such as those of Piaget in the 1930s, had a significant bearing on the aims of education with the importance of the whole personality being emphasised. The advisory council of 1946 observed that, in primary schools, education was now beginning to focus on the *development of the whole personality, with a new emphasis on physical and emotional training* (SED, 1946, p3). The 1950 Memorandum committee reported that they were in *full accord*

with the aims of education stated in the 1946 report, that *'the education of the whole child' is the true purpose of the school* (SED, 1950, p5). In the 1980s, COPE (Committee on Primary Education) reported that a good education should produce *healthy, balanced, happy children* who have a *proper respect and concern for others as well as themselves, able to make rational choices, and able to act as part of a group, but also with confident independence when that is appropriate* (COPE, 1983, p33).

The 1946 and 1965 reports encouraged awareness of children's development and learning. The 1946 report emphasised that the teacher should be aware of the capacity and temperament of pupils and that education should be considered from the 'age, aptitude and ability' of each child (SED, 1946).

The 1965 Memorandum focused on personal and social characteristics such as controlling emotions, understanding rules, taking responsibility, co-operating, leadership and the need for security, guidance, freedom and understanding (SED, 1965).

It is less clear what the 1965 committee believed in relation to personal and social development issues. The 1960s was a decade of wide social change. Society was open to new ideas and in schools this meant many new teaching methods were being introduced. The 1965 Memorandum stated that *the school, besides being a place in which the child finds security and the means of developing intellectually and emotionally, must concern itself with fostering in him the qualities, skills and attitudes which will make him useful to society and adaptable to the kind of environment in which he will live as an adult* (SED, 1965, p17).

Some of the qualities and skills that schools should 'train' pupils in were:

> *… habits of personal hygiene and cleanliness, of correct speech and good manners; to cultivate the qualities of truthfulness, honesty, self-control and consideration for man and beast; to foster a love of beauty; to encourage industry, self-reliance and forethought; and to develop a sense of responsibility to the community and an attitude of good-will towards other peoples.*
> (SED, 1965, p36)

The purpose of personal development was to provide the child with *the right attitude to learning,* and *the resource and will to continue and further their own education* (SED, 1965, p38). Despite these aims, the 1965 committee did not accept that personal and social development was a school responsibility. They regarded personal and social development as the responsibility of voluntary organisations and local authorities who provided social and physical opportunities for children through school swimming lessons, camps, holiday classes, play centres, and games (Scotland, 1969b).

The 1950 committee also felt that schools had limited responsibility for personal and social development. They suggested that the school was mainly responsible for intellectual development and *for moral education the responsibility lies partly with the school, but principally with his parents* (SED, 1950, p96) because children spent more time with their parents than in school.

The 1950 committee was quite committed to the 'limited' contribution that schools could make to pupils personal and social development. They suggested schools should be concerned with not only *preparing children for adult life, but must also make [a] contribution to their well-being and happiness as children ... School work should not, therefore, be merely a matter of mechanical drudgery [it should give pupils] thrill of sense of exploration and discovery* (SED, 1950, p7). School activities could contribute to 'education in character and conduct'.

There was also evidence of society becoming more inclusive at this time. The 1946 report indicated that the needs of 'handicapped' children (socially, physically and mentally) were beginning to be recognised and appropriate techniques and environments for their education developed.

In these decades citizenship and developing good individuals was an aim for all of the advisory boards. The 1946 and 1983 reports considered it part of a school's responsibility to promote personal and social development. The 1946 committee however reported that schools were only beginning to focus on the 'development of the whole personality'. For example, the aims of education began to include specific attributes and skills that should be imparted to children, such as developing a sense of

responsibility, honesty and good will. The 1950 and 1965 reports however stated explicitly that personal and social development was not a key responsibility of the school. Following the COPE committee's advice (COPE, 1983) personal and social development became a school responsibility and National Guidelines for Personal and Social Education (SOED, 1993b) were developed alongside guidelines for other areas of the curriculum.

4.5.2 Curriculum and teaching methods 1939-1980s

During this period the curriculum did offer more opportunities for personal and social development through the increased use of experiential learning, for example, school visits. Religious education, traditionally regarded as the main subject through which children's moral development was guided, was taught less as many teachers were not interested in religion or felt it was not as important as other examined subjects (Scotland, 1969b).

There were key differences in the vision each advisory council had of the curriculum. The 1946 committee felt that schools were too academic and unconnected to the real world. They maintained that children should be encouraged to participate in their learning instead of passively memorising facts (SED, 1946).

The 1946 committee proposed that traditional core subjects of reading, writing and arithmetic, should be replaced with physical education, handwork and speech.

> *The time spent in physical education has a value far beyond the merely physical benefit to the individuals. Every well managed lesson also gives training in law and order, co-operation, ready obedience for an understood common purpose and responsible leadership. Perhaps more than any other it emphasises the social rather than the individual virtues. It also gives the children precision in timing and a sense of rhythm, which are a foundation for the later development of aesthetic pleasures.* (SED, 1946, p31)

They suggested handwork would give children the *chance of understanding their* [tools, machines and materials'] *uses and qualities, and their advancement or destruction of civilised life* (SED, 1946, p33).

They recommended speech should become a core subject because it was *the foundation of all human communication* (SED, 1946, p30).

Each curricular subject was designed, in part, to promote personal and social development (though this terminology was not introduced until later). In English, the topic 'Expressing Personality' was intended to encourage awareness of others.

> *The pupil should first think of the person to whom the letter is to be written, and then make for reference a list of incidents or pieces of information which that person might like to hear about.* (SED, 1946, p69)

In history pupils were to be encouraged to *realise the patience and genius of our early ancestors in making those inventions and discoveries upon which the later developments of civilised life are based* (SED, 1946, p51).

The 1946 committee viewed religious and moral education as a key subject in which pupils could learn about society's values, ultimately, *to give these little people a good way of thinking about life and to train them in a good way of living in it* (SED, 1946, p15-16).

The 1950 Memorandum focused on teaching methods and the curriculum. It emphasised that *the curriculum should be thought of in terms of activity and experience*, that children should not be passive in their education (SED, 1950, p5). They discounted the 1946 report's suggestion that handwork, communication and physical education should become the core subjects.

> *Despite the importance rightly attached to physical education, music, art, and handwork, the basic skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic can never cease to be fundamental in the primary school.* (SED, 1950, p7)

The 1950 committee proposed that the curriculum should be *child-centred and not curriculum centred ... that it should be concerned with teaching children rather than with teaching subjects* (SED, 1950, p7).

Class, group and individual teaching methods were recommended by the 1950 committee. Individual methods offered children the ability to *develop independence and self-reliance* (SED, 1950, p12). Group methods allowed *some of the stimulus of emulation and of co-operative effort* (SED, 1950, p13). The 1950 report was less positive about class methods noting that they *fail to recognize adequately the differences between pupils, the pace being too slow for some, too fast for others; it encourages habits of semi-attention, and it often provides a refuge for the lazy. Worst of all, it hinders the development of initiative and of independent activity* (SED, 1950, p13). The benefits of class methods (co-operation and discussion) they suggested, could be achieved through group methods.

The value of project work was noted. The chief benefits were thought to be that children *tend to develop a friendly, co-operative attitude among pupils of different types of ability, and between the teacher and the individual pupil; they can be used as an approach to new work, or as a means of revising past work from a new point of view* (SED, 1950, p27).

New teaching methods in spoken English, aimed at encouraging interest and listening, involved children learning different poems, as opposed to each child learning the same poem. The local community was to be used as a teaching ground for history, geography and nature study. Art was introduced to *quicken ... observation of ... everyday surroundings* (SED, 1950, p86). The aim of handwork was *to afford scope for the child's impulse to express himself through the shaping of concrete material and at the same time to discipline that impulse* (SED, 1950, p90). To assist children's learning the 1950 report recommended the use of Gaelic. The 1950 advisory council advocated the use of new audio-visual technologies, such as radio and projectors, as well as pictures around the classroom. A small amount of time was allowed for 'enjoyable' activities, such as listening to music or reading.

> *Games, with their opportunities for fair play and for team work, teach lessons of self-control and of co-operation with others. A notable contribution comes from literature and secular history; through tales of noble lives and noble deeds children can be brought to recognize and to admire such virtues as devotion to duty, courage, self-sacrifice, mercy, and loving kindness, and to abhor cowardice, treachery, and other vices. Music, poetry, art*

and nature study all play their part in enriching the emotional side
of character and in developing a love of beauty. Finally, religious
instruction and corporate acts of worship may arouse feelings and
thoughts which will profoundly influence personality and conduct.
(SED, 1950, p97)

Some comments in the report suggest that these methods which aimed to allow children greater participation in their learning were strictly managed. For example, in handwriting, *the freedom of posture recommended … should gradually be curtailed. The forearm should rest on the desk, the left giving some support to the body* (SED, 1950, p53).

During the 1950s HM Inspectors encouraged schools to use group methods for teaching and were optimistic that progressive approaches were being adopted in primary schools (Gatherer, 1989). Inspectors however had to encourage schools to view oral and imaginative work as part of the curriculum and not a 'challenge' to it (Paterson, 2003).

Experimentation with new teaching methods continued in the 1960s, a time of continual change to teaching practice. There was no longer a fixed pattern of classrooms, subjects or methods. More use was made of group work and school projects as methods of learning. Pupils were involved in collecting information outside the classroom, they conducted surveys, drew, took photographs, used tape-recorders, and radio and television programmes for schools made an appearance. Shops and post-offices appeared in the younger classes (Scotland, 1969b). Local authorities, taking a greater role in developing the school curriculum (Gatherer, 1989), arranged sex education and careers guidance in schools (Scotland, 1969b).

Much of the emphasis during the 1950s and 1960s was on written work and testing (Paterson, 2003). There was *a little more noise and a little less regimentation in 1962 than in 1902* but schools were still not exciting places for children (Scotland, 1969b, p201). The 1960s was a confusing decade for new teachers and a difficult time for old teachers. The new methods were to some extent, an *act of faith* (Scotland, 1969b, p202). Her Majesty's Inspectors of Education, rather than policy alone, were

instrumental in introducing changes to schools, such as new subjects or methods (Scotland, 1969b).

Although the 1965 advisory council commented that 'personal and social relations' could not be dissociated from the curriculum and that children should be given a choice in what they studied (an improvement on children being 'willing collaborators' in the 1950 Memorandum), there was far less emphasis on personal and social development in the curriculum than in the 1946 or 1950 reports.

It was recommended in the school code of 1956 (SED, 1956) that moral education, taught through Christian values, was included in the curriculum but no provision for moral education, through religion was suggested in the 1965 Memorandum. Only in maths was specific reference made to methods of teaching involving personal and social development. The aim of this was not to enhance personal and social development but to encourage pupils to think mathematically.

> *If pupils are to be attracted to a mathematical mode of thinking, they must find their mathematics in as wide a range of meaningful experiences as possible. They must be given the opportunity to experience the joy and excitement of exploration and the thrill of discovery [through, for example, toys and money].* (SED, 1965, p146)

The only other areas of the curriculum that were associated with any measure of personal and social development were Spoken English and drama. Of Spoken English, *if the teacher shows that she understands and accepts her pupils' speech, an immediate bond of contact exists, which, particularly at the early stages, helps the growth of the self-confidence needed for language development* (SED, 1965, p100). In addition, it was thought that *repeated and pointed correction ... will simply make a child self-conscious and curb his spontaneity* (SED, 1965, p101). Through drama pupils were *provided with opportunities for self-expression, [and] the child is given an outlet for his feelings and helped gain some control over his emotions* (SED, 1965, p101).

The 1965 Memorandum included a clause that stated *assessment ... must regularly turn its attention also to the character, attitudes, conduct, health, and emotional and*

social development of its pupils. Some of these are not easy to assess in any precise way, but a great deal of educational value can emerge if careful records are kept (SED, 1965, p50). The value that could emerge was not described.

Paterson believed that the 1965 and 1950 reports were trying to *reconcile the ideas of child-centredness with the very Scottish belief in the value of structured learning* (Paterson, 2003, p116). It is this that gave the reports the sense of either including but not really understanding personal and social issues (in the case of the 1965 report) or including personal and social development with only the aim of advancing curricular learning (1950 report).

The COPE paper suggested that social, moral and religious education should provide pupils with a deeper understanding of the rules governing society and religion, and that it could be delivered as a coherent and not necessarily separate area of the curriculum (COPE, 1983).

By the 1980s emotional development had come to be considered part of the curriculum for which schools had responsibility (COPE, 1983). Environmental studies was thought to provide opportunities to explore roles in society, to discuss behaviour, relationships and health habits. Expressive arts, including drama, P.E., art and music were thought to provide opportunities for individual expression (COPE, 1983). The COPE committee thought that pupils' education was 'diminished' if these subjects were not part of the curriculum (COPE, 1983).

The COPE committee also raised some issues it felt were not addressed in the 1965 Memorandum. For example, the COPE committee recognised that encouraging pupils to become independent and responsible learners may mean that teachers would have to deal with topics outside of the teachers' preferred options. They emphasised, where they felt the Memorandum did not, that educational practice should be guided by the needs and interests of the child, that education, as in the 1946 report, should be appropriate to the 'age, aptitude and ability' of the individual. The COPE committee, similarly to the 1950 advisory council, felt that some freedom should be given to the child for creating opportunities for learning but commented that this was not a feature of the 1965 memorandum. COPE (1983) noted that the 1965 Memorandum avoided difficulties concerning social and moral education and they felt this mirrored practice

in education at this time where there was no 'conscious and coherent' development of personal and social education. The COPE committee recommended further developmental work should be carried out in the area of personal and social development.

This era saw the advent of an understanding of individual characteristics and relationships. Assessment of personal and social characteristics was largely avoided and although it was mentioned in the 1965 Memorandum there was no clear idea of what the purpose of assessment would be or how assessment should proceed. By the end of this era, in the 1980s, personal and social development was firmly viewed as part of primary school responsibility though how it should be developed in the curriculum was still to come.

4.5.3 Staff 1939-1980s

There was some evidence of encouragement for staff to contribute to pupils' personal and social development. The 1946 committee regarded it as *the professional duty of the primary teacher not merely to give lessons, but to start from the basis of a personal interest in each pupil* (SED, 1946, p10). It was declared that head teachers should be interested in the *child's welfare according to need not ability* (SED, 1946, p83). The report stated that teachers should have *self-respect and psychological freedom* in order to allow pupils to develop in a positive atmosphere (SED, 1946, p81).

The importance of a positive atmosphere was also highlighted in the 1950 report. Teachers were encouraged to create an 'atmosphere of learning' and *keep alive this spirit of eager inquiry* (SED, 1950, p16). The teacher was to *serve as a model of good behaviour – in kindliness, good humour, tolerance, and justice no less than in speech, writing, orderly ways and good manners* (SED, 1950, p97). Positive encouragement rather than negative statements were encouraged.

> *The best teachers – those who influence most beneficially the general outlook of their pupils – respect the rights of the child as an individual. They maintain order not by establishing a dictatorship, but by encouraging the development of self-respect*

and self-discipline. ... A very different effect is produced by a nagging, hectoring manner or by displays of ill-temper. Under these conditions, the pupils may appear to be well-behaved, but they are not being taught a self-control which will be of value when they are outside the classroom. (SED, 1950, p98)

Teachers were encouraged to trust pupils in order to promote honesty and provide opportunities for *encouraging independence, self-reliance, and personal initiative* (SED, 1950, p98). Rules were thought to be essential but *should be few and simple, appearing in the form of school habits and customs rather than of laws, a breach which involves pains and penalties* (SED, 1950, p100). Pupils were not to be punished for lacking ability.

The 1950 report suggested that good relationships were necessary to help pupils learn.

> *The relation of the teacher and the class to each other should be marked by friendliness and a spirit of industry and sustained by a steady discipline; without these, education cannot prosper.* (SED, 1950, p14)

Throughout the 1965 Memorandum references were made to characteristics that good teachers should have. For example, a good teacher was described as optimistic, cheerful, sympathetic, patient, enjoyed learning and did not show favouritism among pupils (SED, 1965). It was thought that a teacher should consider what was appropriate for the child but also allow children choice to help their development. The teacher's encouragement was thought to contribute to the personal and social development of pupils.

Each report had a slightly different focus on staff contributions to personal and social development. The 1946 report was the only one that implied teacher-pupil relationships and an interest in the child were useful for children's welfare rather than learning. The advisory council of 1950 provided most detail about the benefits of positive pupil-teacher interaction and also pointed out the negative consequences of more authoritarian methods, which the 1946 and 1965 reports did not. In the 1950 report however the benefits of developing a positive atmosphere and positive pupil-teacher relationships were regarded as a means to improve educational standards rather than to promote personal and social development. The 1965 Memorandum

listed characteristics that good teachers, suggesting that this may be useful for children's development, although it did not specify in what way.

4.5.4 School environment 1939-1980s

In 1946, 1950 and 1965 the effect of school surroundings, in particular colour schemes, was taken into consideration. For example, the 1946 committee suggested that *as children are notoriously fond of bright colours, it seems reasonable that the colour schemes of classrooms should be designed so as to give them pleasure* (SED, 1946, p8).

In addition, the 1950 committee commented that rooms should *always be provided with facilities for displaying pictures, photographs, cuttings from newspapers and magazines of historical, geographical, and topical interest [because they] stimulate ... both mind and body* (SED, 1950, p37). The 1950 Memorandum also specified that *rooms should be adequately lit, warmed, cleaned, and ventilated; furniture should be appropriate to the size of the child and should be kept in good condition* (SED, 1950, p37).

New buildings were more suitable for school purposes than those of the previous era because they were built with gyms, assembly halls, and had 'appropriate' furniture for children (Scotland, 1969b).

4.5.5 School ethos 1939-1980s

In each of the reports what is now called school ethos was considered an important factor in developing children's character. In the 1946 report it is claimed that schools should encourage pride, integrity of thought and character, including reliability and honesty, generosity and kindliness, as well as adventurousness and freedom from class-consciousness and that *these qualities cannot be directly taught but must be "in the air" of the school* (SED, 1946, p74).

In 1950, *principles of conduct* were thought to be best learnt through everyday occurrences and in morning assembly, and that pupils should be given the opportunity to practice acceptable behaviours *to develop the qualities of trustworthiness and honesty, and to have a regard for the rights of others* (SED, 1950, p97).

In the 1965 Memorandum, it was reported that *if the atmosphere is such that the child's emotional needs are satisfied, almost everything he does is favourably affected* (SED, 1965, p22). It was thought that an atmosphere of security and emotional stability should be present and that this should provide opportunities for *self-reliance, responsibility, honesty and perseverance, the extent to which [the teacher] encourages co-operation and tolerance ... all contribute to the emotional and social development of her charges* (SED, 1965, p22-23). In addition, pupils' attitudes and behaviour was influenced by *the school routine, the organisation of the classroom, the teachers' methods, the content of the programme of work, the conduct of school meals and other social occasions, and particularly the outlook and example of the head teacher and the teachers* (SED, 1965, p90).

In 1983, COPE suggested that a 'hidden curriculum', largely determined by the relationships between staff, pupils and parents, had a strong influence on pupils.

4.5.6 Special educational needs 1939 – 1980s

During this era children with special educational needs were generally educated in special schools (Scotland, 1969b).

The 1946 report noted that some children may be *socially handicapped, having suffered some disadvantage of upbringing, environment or character* and would require *special care or treatment to help them benefit from education and become useful citizens* (SED, 1946, p110). The report recommended that the Child Guidance Service, adjustment classes and an "active" curriculum were more suited to the needs of pupils who were 'socially handicapped'. The 1946 report hoped that the number of children sent to special schools would decline.

The 1950 Memorandum commented that there had *been for too long an attitude of indifference towards the failure of children of this type, a feeling that nothing can or need be done about them* (SED, 1950, p118). The report advocated a special curriculum, segregation to a specialist tutorial class (that should not be stigmatised) or any method the teacher thought suitable. Pupils who were 'backwards' were to be

encouraged to participate in projects to help them feel they were making a 'real' contribution to the class.

> *In order to foster his self-respect, full advantage should be taken of any special ability he may possess by seizing or creating opportunities for him to distinguish himself.* (SED, 1950, p121)

In the section about 'backward pupils', the 1965 Memorandum, for social and emotional reasons, claimed that a permanent 'backward' class was not justifiable, that it was better for 'backward' pupils to be in a classroom environment with peers in the same age group (SED, 1965).

'Backwards' pupils were described as those who were capable of limited academic achievement, who were beyond help, though not helpless, and should be educated according to their age, ability and aptitude. The Child Guidance Service, with which many children were involved, carried out 'assessments of backwardness' and found places for children in special schools. It did not have a role in promoting the development of the child (SED, 1965).

4.5.7 Conclusion 1939-1980s
During this era there was vast improvement, compared to the previous era, in knowledge and understanding of the different areas of school life that could contribute to pupils' personal and social or intellectual development. Each of the reports pointed out the contribution that theories of child development, school ethos, school environment and pupil-teacher relationships could have on pupils' development. Issues relating to the education of children with special educational needs, even if they were rather negative views of children's capabilities, had begun to be included in mainstream documents and some consideration was given to the types of provision that should be available for children with special needs.

During the Second World War, when the 1946 review was conducted, the advisory council noted that society had a *higher social conscience and a stronger sense of common responsibility* than before the war (SED, 1946, p3). It is possible that it is for this reason that the 1946 report, compared to the 1950 and 1965 reports, integrated

personal and social aspects of education with intellectual development. It was not until the 1980s that there again seemed to be an understanding that personal and social development could not be separated from the curriculum, and that further work needed to be carried out to develop understanding of the enhancement of personal and social development through primary education.

4.6 The Period 1990s – 2007
During the late 1980s and early 1990s, under conservative government, plans for a national curriculum spanning the primary school and the first two years of the secondary school were made (Paterson, 2003). The proposed curriculum was based on methods and practice that were widely used in teaching but the plans were contested by teachers who wished to retain autonomy in teaching. In their place, National Curriculum Guidelines for advisory purposes were produced (Pickard & Dobbie, 2003). Instead of one document, as had been common in the past, a series of guidelines for different areas of the curriculum, for example, Maths, English and Expressive Arts, were introduced and, for the first time, this included guidelines for Personal and Social Development.

Guidance was produced in a format that gave personal and social development status as a distinct topic of the curriculum, though it was still considered to be part of the religious and moral education curriculum. The committee set up to produce *guidelines for the learning and teaching of religious, social and moral education* indicated in a working paper for personal and social development guidelines that *it became obvious that a single report which attempted to present the distinctive features of religious and moral education, and personal and social development together, was not practical* (SOED, 1992b, p1).

When the Labour/Liberal Democrat coalition government took office in 1997 the National Guidelines were retained and a number were revised and updated in 2000, although not the personal and social development guidelines. Proposals for a general curriculum are presented in the 1993 and revised 2000 document, *Structure and Balance of the Curriculum: National Curriculum Guidelines* (LTS, 2000b; SOED, 1993c) although there are now plans for a National Curriculum 3-18, *A Curriculum for Excellence*, that will impact on the early and later years of schooling (LTS, 2004).

4.6.1 Aims of education 1990s - 2007

The aims of education outlined in the 1993 and revised 2000 *Structure and Balance of the Curriculum* were that children should acquire and develop:

> *understanding and appreciation of themselves and other people and of the world about them;*
>
> *the capacity to make creative and practical use of a variety of media to express feelings and ideas;*
> *the capacity for independent thought through enquiry, problem solving, information handling and reasoning;*
>
> *appreciation of the benefits of healthy living and physical fitness* (SOED, 1993c, p3)*; or the capacity to take responsibility for their health and safe living;* (LTS, 2000b, p4)
>
> *positive attitudes to learning and personal fulfilment through the achievement of personal objectives.*
>
> (SOED, 1993c, p3)

All of these aims include an aspect of developing personally or socially, for example, 'taking responsibility', 'understanding', and 'independent thought'.

The revised guidelines extended the 1993 guidelines by suggesting that the curriculum should help pupils develop five dispositions (or values as they had been referred to in a previous paper (CCC, 1991)) which would help them to make decisions, take actions, and be the basis for *a personally rewarding life and [making] an effective contribution to society* (LTS, 2000b, p5). The five dispositions are: a commitment to learning; respect and care for self; respect and care for others; a sense of social responsibility, and a sense of belonging.

The revised guidelines pointed out the equal importance of ensuring that pupils should achieve 'learning' in literacy, communication, numeracy, maths, ICT and religion. In both versions of the *Structure and Balance of the Curriculum* the whole curriculum was intended to foster personal and social characteristics, including responsibility and understanding others:

> *The whole school curriculum should contribute to the personal and social development of pupils. They will learn to identify, review*

and appraise the values which they and society hold and to recognise that these affect thoughts and actions. They will take increasing responsibility for their own lives, will develop a positive regard for others and their needs and will be able to participate effectively in society. The achievement of these aims requires pupils to increase their knowledge and understanding about themselves, others, their immediate environment and the wider world. They will also need to develop the skills which enable them to care for their personal needs; to assess their own capabilities; to work independently and with others; and to make decisions.

(excepting the first sentence, LTS, 2000b, p27; SOED, 1993c, p10)

The idea of education as a method for improving society is as important in this era as it was in previous eras. The government stated that *education is central to the Government's fundamental objective of promoting social inclusion* (Scottish Office, 1999b, p1). Education is viewed by the government as one means of achieving social inclusion, and preventing or reducing poverty and deprivation.

The wider aims of education reflect the idea that pupils should develop as a 'whole' person. Education should attend to personal and social as well intellectual development. This is not distinctly different from other eras but what is different is the amount of detail that is provided about what pupils are expected to achieve. In this era, educational guidelines offer explicit information about the outcomes that schools are expected to achieve in relation to pupil development.

4.6.2 Curriculum 1990s - 2007
The Structure and Balance of the Curriculum states that *a well designed curriculum will … encourage the pupil to develop socially and personally* (SOED, 1993c, p6), and in particular that the personal and social development curriculum would help pupils, through independent and cooperative learning: understand the difference between rules, rights and responsibilities; develop an appreciation of good behaviour, courtesy and respect for others; and develop an understanding of the world and their place in it.

Religious and Moral Education (RME) and Personal and Social Development (PSD) were allocated 10% of curriculum time in 1993 and 15% in 2000 when Health Education was added to the RME/PSD grouping. Time could also be found to address personal and social development within the 20% flexible time allotted in the curriculum (LTS, 2000b; SOED, 1993c).

The aims outlined in the *Personal and Social Development 5–14 National Curriculum Guidelines* (SOED, 1993b), as in the general guidelines, were explicit and focused on helping pupils to understand themselves and others, and on being responsible for leading their own lives. These guidelines highlighted that pupils should:

> *have an appropriately positive regard for the self, and for others and their needs;*
>
> *develop life skills to enable them to participate effectively and safely in society;*
>
> *identify, review and evaluate the values they and society hold and recognise that these affect thoughts and actions;*
>
> *take increasing responsibility for their own lives*
>
> (SOED, 1993b, p1)

The guidelines were split into two sections, 'personal development' and 'social development'. Self-awareness and self-esteem were identified as the key components of personal development. Interpersonal relationships, and independence and inter-dependence were the key components of social development. The guidelines envisaged each of these areas being associated with a particular outcome. Increased self-awareness was intended to help children make informed choices and decisions. Self-esteem would contribute to a positive self-image which would allow pupils to *benefit fully from the variety of experiences offered throughout the curriculum* (SOED, 1992b, p10).

Interpersonal relationships were 'an end in themselves' and thought to contribute to personal satisfaction. Focusing on independence and interdependence would encourage children to accept responsibility for their actions and choices, and to recognise the role of individuals and groups in society.

The PSD guidelines suggested general methods that could be used to enhance personal and social development. This included working independently and cooperatively in groups, being able to make decisions and being able to *assess ... abilities and capabilities* (SOED, 1993b, p1).

> *Many group activities ... have an important role to play in developing qualities of cooperation, responsibility for self and others, loyalty, leadership and enterprise.* (SOED, 1993b, p8)

Opportunities for personal and social development were to be provided through whole school, cross-curricular and 'special focus' approaches.

Unlike other areas of the curriculum, personal and social development was not to be assessed using attainment targets. The guidelines offered suggestions of personal and social characteristics that children may exhibit at a certain age but cautioned that these may change at any time because personal and social development may advance or regress according to pupils' circumstances (SOED, 1993b).

As in the previous era however no detailed advice was provided, only that there should be *flexible, imaginative approaches to assessment ..., for example through discussion and observation of behaviour* (SOED, 1993b, p23) which could involve pupils, parents and other agencies.

The cross-curricular element of personal and social development was evident to varying degrees in the guidelines for other curriculum areas. Religious and Moral Education most closely follows the personal and social development curriculum, covering self-awareness, relationships with others, and the beliefs, values and practices which contribute to a religious outlook on life. Teaching methods focus on allowing pupils to express their own views and feelings; listen with respect to the views and feelings of others, and develop responsible attitudes towards others (SOED, 1992c).

Expressive arts (art and design, drama, music and PE) were intended to *place a special emphasis on developing creativity, imagination and personal response in individual pupils* (SOED, 1992a, pix) and to help pupils express feelings, ideas and thoughts. ICT was considered a natural focus for talk, participation, listening and

reflecting (LTS, 2000d). ICT was also thought to develop independent learning, collaboration with others, communication skills and, in using computer technology, allowed pupils to play a full part in society (LTS, 2000e).

In health education, group work, 'active' approaches and giving pupils time for reflection were key for promoting intellectual, and personal and social development (LTS, 2000b, 2000c). The English language guidelines suggest that communication and examination of personal and other's experiences, feelings and ideas can contribute to personal and social development. Teachers are encouraged to give pupils a sense of purpose to encourage their input, co-operation and sharing. Using a variety of forms of media (for example, written, oral or video) is encouraged as a method to develop language skills and social competence (SOED, 1991).

The guidelines for modern language provide a very good example of the use that can be made of teaching methods to enhance personal and social development, for example, role play, listening, speaking, group activities and the creation of good classroom conditions. To a lesser extent course content reflected personal and social elements, personal and social elements being covered substantially in the 'relationships' topic (LTS, 2000f, 2000g). Similarly in environmental studies, the main methods of personal and social development are through teaching methods such as using technology to carry out presentations, co-operating in groups and studying topics of personal interest. The topic, People in Society, mirrors some of the issues included in the personal and social development guidelines (LTS, 2000a; SOED, 1993a).

HMIE reports indicated that personal and social development was a *strength in almost all schools* (HMIE, 1999; 2001b, p7).

> *Personal and social development was very good in 60% of schools*
> *and good in 40%. Overall, teachers were sensitive to the needs of*
> *their pupils and promoted good relationships and positive*
> *behaviour.* (HMIE, 2001b, p13)

In another report which focused on personal and social development in schools, HMIE Inspectors reported that in 96% of schools inspected, personal and social development provision was good or very good. In the remaining 6%, provision was fair (HMIE, 2001a). Elements of good personal and social development provision were associated with teachers who:

- *knew their pupils as individuals*
- *were sensitive to pupils' needs*
- *emphasised the need for good personal and social skills*
- *promoted good relationships and positive behaviour*
- *developed good procedures to ensure pupils' health and safety*

(HMIE, 2001a, p13)

Schools with very good provision offered activities such as buddy systems, pupil councils, fund-raising for charity, residential visits, and a good choice of extra-curricular activities, and often had clear, shared policies about care, child protection, bullying and behaviour (HMIE, 2001a).

In some schools with very good personal and social development provision, teachers identified pupils 'at risk' and initiatives for these individuals were introduced, for example, pupils 'at risk' were given responsibility by welcoming new pupils to school or being the class librarian. Teachers also tried to create a supportive atmosphere where pupils felt they could seek advice. Where pupils were 'at risk' schools worked in collaboration with other agencies such as social work, psychological services, health, speech and language therapists or the police (HMIE, 2001b).

In one report, opportunities for developing inter-personal relationships, independence, self-awareness and self-esteem were praised by inspectors though it was reported that planning and assessment, and cross-curricular links to provide personal and social development opportunities could be improved (HMIE, 2001a). In another report, inspectors commented that inter-personal relationships were not covered as well as they could have been (HMIE, 2001b).

HMIE claimed that good provision for personal and social development in schools indicated that the National Guidelines for Personal and Social Development 5-14 had

formed a sound base for development of this area of the curriculum (HMIE, 2001a). It is likely that the guidelines did highlight the importance of personal and social development and affirmed its place in the school curriculum, but, as has been shown, the importance of addressing personal and social development was becoming increasingly important over the recent decades. It is also likely that 'good provision' was influenced by increased knowledge about factors contributing to personal and social development (for example, Schaffer, 1996) and by the increasing availability of resources for personal and social development such as Circle Time (Mosley, 1996) and Promoting Positive Behaviour (MacLean, 1992) that give more detailed guidance and activities to promote personal and social development.

4.6.3 Ethos 1990s-2007

An ethos of achievement based on relationships between staff, pupils and parents was encouraged in the guidelines (LTS, 2000h). HMI inspectors felt that, on the whole, teachers created an atmosphere of support for their pupils (HMIE, 1999, 2001a, 2001b), and associated with a positive ethos were:

- *High expectations of pupils' attainment, behaviour and attendance*
- *Positive staff-pupil relationships*
- *Effective use of praise to encourage pupils to achieve their best*
- *Opportunities for pupils to take responsibility, support charities and express their views through pupil councils*
- *The use of assemblies to encourage pupils to take a pride in their school and celebrate success.*

(HMIE, 2001b, p14)

To encourage responsibility, many pupils in schools where a positive ethos was evident were involved in supporting younger pupils either at break times or in activities such as paired reading. Pupils were often involved in activities beyond the formal curriculum, such as pupil councils, influencing school policies; fundraising for charities, and other extra-curricular activities (HMIE, 2001a).

4.6.4 School Environment 1990s-2007

As with other aspects of schooling, the school environment has become a distinct area for which a number of guidelines have been developed. These guidelines consider not

only the effect of colour schemes on pupil development but also the layout and function of schoolrooms now and in the future. Buildings are designed to be welcoming, to 'inspire' learning and to meet a number of school, extra-curricular and community needs (Scottish Executive, 2003).

4.6.5 Assessment 1990s-2007

Assessment issues are raised in the 5-14 Personal and Social Guidelines though, similarly to the 1965 Memorandum, little advice is provided. Practitioner texts however provide guidance on the assessment of personal and social development. Although a variety of forms of assessment are recommended, self-assessment is viewed as crucial and it is thought that pupils and teachers should learn self-evaluation skills (Inman & Buck, 1998; Pooley, 1998). In addition, assessment should be often and can be informal, formal, peer, group, teacher or self-evaluation (Inman & Buck, 1998; Pooley, 1998). It can take the form of observation, discussions, specific assessments, tasks and activities, photography, video/audio recording, and can take place at any point or place during the school day (Lyseight-jones, 1998).

It is recognised that some areas of development are easier to assess than others. For example, assessing the ability to think critically and the development of cooperation is easier than assessing values and attitudes because of the difficulty in agreeing which values and attitudes are 'correct' (Pooley, 1998).

Advice relating to assessment suggests that pupils and teachers need to be clear about the purpose of the assessment (Inman & Buck, 1998; Pooley, 1998) and the assessment must reflect skills, attitudes and activities that all pupils have been able to practice (Mortimer, 1998).

4.6.6 Conclusion 1990s-2007

In this period, understanding of the different effects of school ethos, the school environment, the curriculum and teaching methods, and relationships on personal and social development has built considerably on understanding of previous eras. The general understanding being that a positive, supportive school ethos; positive

relationships in schools and opportunities for children to participate in activities and take responsibility allows children to develop personally and socially as well as intellectually.

For the first time, a set of guidelines for personal and social development outlining desirable outcomes of personal and social development was developed. Inspection reports suggest that personal and social development was a strength of most, if not all, primary schools.

There are however some problems associated with the advent of this knowledge and the assessment of personal and social development provision. The personal and social development guidelines are quite prescriptive. The focus of the guidelines is on respecting others and the self, becoming self-aware and interacting positively. There is no recognition, for example, of managing conflict, or being able to work with others when you do not get along with them. There is a danger that these areas will become a key focus to the exclusion of other areas of personal and social development, particularly if (as will be shown in the next chapter) head teachers accept that the personal and social development guidelines covered all relevant areas.

In addition, although the guidelines focus on 'desirable' outcomes, there are no suggestions for help or further information for schools that are not currently meeting, or wish to improve, standards. For example, if schools do not have a good ethos there is no guidance on how to use, or where to get information about using, praise or establishing positive pupil-teacher relationships.

With regard to the assessment of 'good provision' of personal and social development by HM inspectors, it seems that 'good provision' is based on the number and range of personal and social opportunities available rather than the outcomes of the provision on personal and social development. This has implications for how schools assess personal and social development to provide information to HMIE (as well as for pupil development) and/or it has implications for HMIE assessment of provision for personal and social development.

4.7 Family versus State Responsibility for Personal and Social Development

Underlying these historical developments is the notion of State responsibility for personal and social development. Since its introduction, education has been concerned with the teaching of moral and value codes to individuals with the aim of improving society. For example, in the 1870s, it was thought unsafe to trust urban, working class parents with the education of their children, hence compulsory education was introduced. The debate was not only about *what should be taught and how, but also of how children should be socialized and regulated* (Muncie & Sapford, 1995, p33). The extent however to which teaching of moral and value codes was applied to practical activities, such as teaching methods and treatment of pupils, was limited.

In the current era it is generally agreed that the State has a responsibility to provide opportunities for personal and social development. Wilkinson (2003) suggests that such school provision is crucial, particularly in the early years, to help children deal with new situations, new demands and new relationships but also to provide a sense of security *especially when, in modern times, many children are affected by upheaval in family circumstances* (p31). Lamb (2001) argues, similarly, that children are not 'autonomous agents' and should be 'protected' but should also learn, through the education system, to become autonomous and to feel empowered.

Practice and policy in the primary school is increasingly directed towards school and home collaboration to enhance children's personal and social as well as cognitive development. Research has shown that parents and the general public are concerned with the school's role in addressing social problems as well as educational issues (Brint *et al*, 2001; Holden, 2004).

> *Within home and school we ... look at how social experiences and learning are organised and presented to young children so that parents and teachers may work better together for each child's personal and social development in the social as well as cognitive domains.* (Tattum & Tattum, 1992, p1)

Wardekker (2001) points out that while teachers and parents may be generally in agreement that schools should be responsible for transmitting morals, norms and values, that there is some confusion about which are the most useful for living in

society today. Research has provided some evidence to support this. Holden (2004), for example, found that teachers were concerned about teaching or discussing issues that may bring them into conflict with parents. Teachers felt that parents had different moral codes including condoning bad language and encouraging children to resolve conflict with physical violence.

Hargreaves *et al* (1988) caution that increasing government responsibility for personal and social development may result in considerable debate about what personal and social development is and how it is best developed.

> *The more that education tries to live up to its broad promise of being an agent of personal development and social change rather than merely a process of practical training or intellectual mastery, the more controversial and contestable it becomes. For what is at stake is not just practical or intellectual competence but the developing attitudes, values and social commitments of young people – the shape of society in the future.* (Hargreaves *et al*, 1988, p7)

These authors are also concerned that government commitment on paper to the broad principle of personal and social development may not be reflected in practice, for example, in the time given to personal and social development in the curriculum or teacher training in personal and social education (Hargreaves *et al*, 1988).

4.8 General Conclusion
This outline of the history of elementary/primary education has shown that the aims of education from the outset have always been viewed as a method through which to instil values and allow individuals to develop a philosophy of life and acceptable behaviours. In later centuries, for the working classes and during the industrial revolution, education was thought to aid the prevention of crime and the establishment of an ordered society. Before the Second World War, the aim of education was to teach a way of life and to create an orderly society although there weren't many instances of positive teaching practice towards this development. More recently, post Second World War, approaches to education changed. Knowledge from theories of child development was used to inform teaching, and experimentation with teaching methods allowed pupils greater participation in learning within a

curriculum that was more child-centred than in previous eras. These aims of education to improve moral values and behaviour do not necessarily reflect personal and social development, particularly as the methods used to promote morality were regulatory and strict.

Post Second World War there was much more evidence of positive teaching practice designed to engage pupils but this practice was intended to enhance intellectual abilities rather than personal and social development alone. It is only comparatively recently, in the late 1980s, that personal and social development became an area that schools became explicitly concerned to enhance. For example, in attempts to improve the school environment for children's comfort and pleasure, as well as ease of learning.

Excluding the aims of education and taking only teaching practice into consideration, whether consciously aimed at children's personal and social development or not, advances in personal and social development seem more positive. Over the centuries, teaching practice became gradually less severe, the use of positive methods increased, and activities to involve pupils increased, where currently, this reflects the involvement of pupils, in some schools, in school decision making. The use of praise, group activities (such as end of year plays) and school trips significantly increases opportunities, for example, to raise self-esteem, gain independence, and build interaction skills.

Shifts in the practice of primary education over the centuries show the increasing focus on the child as a contributor to their own learning, and hence, the provision of increased opportunities for personal and social development. Thinking in this area was slower to develop than in other areas of the curriculum and it was not until the late 1980s that a focus for personal and social development in government policy and schools was obtained.

Throughout history however there have always been proponents of moral education and character development as the key aim of education. There has always been awareness of the advantages of child-centred education but these did not become mainstream until relatively recently.

Progress in the provision for personal and social development is such that it is now regarded as having been 'successfully implemented' in primary schools (HMIE, 1999, 2001a, 2001b), with the exception of meeting *the needs of some vulnerable pupils* (HMIE, 2001a, paragraph 2.4). This is an area of need recognised in the personal and social development guidelines but very limited advice is offered in relation to 'Catering for the Needs of Individual Pupils'.

> *All pupils should be given opportunities to realise their full potential, using the materials and resources at the school's disposal. … Promoting understanding and developing skills through practical activities, which help pupils to cope with life and engage them in experiences of helping and being helped by others, are most important.* (SOED, 1993b, p23)

> *Teacher's should be particularly aware that children who are vulnerable or at risk frequently have low self-esteem* (SOED, 1993b, p10).

There have been developments in the last two eras of personal and social provision to meet individual needs, for example, the introduction of Child Guidance Clinics and the inclusion of pupils with special educational needs in mainstream policy and practice. Provision in this area, according to the HMIE reports, suggests that provision in this area could be improved (HMIE, 2001a).

Having identified this new 'gap', in terms of provision and advice, the current research explores the provision of personal and social development opportunities for pupils with individual needs. The next chapter (Chapter Five) describes the results of a survey investigating primary schools' use of the 5-14 Personal and Social Development Guidelines and their provision of initiatives for pupils identified as having personal and social development needs.

Chapter 5. The Context of Change
Personal and Social Development Survey (Primary Schools)

5.1 Introduction

This chapter continues to develop the contextual understanding of current practice for meeting individual personal and social needs in line with the processual approach. In this chapter the findings of a preliminary survey of primary schools in one local authority in Scotland are described. The aim of the survey was to provide information about the context within which primary schools practised personal and social development education and of the prevalence of personal and social development opportunities in primary schools.

This data extends the historical and national findings of the previous chapter by providing an indication of the local political climate within which a school might find itself operating.

The survey was developed to discover uses and perceptions of the Personal and Social Development 5-14 National Guidelines (SOED, 1993b), and to obtain information about personal and social development initiatives, particularly those which schools had introduced to 'meet the needs of individuals'. A number of the initiatives designed to meet the needs of individuals became the focus of the next stage of the research, that is, the analysis of the initiatives through processual and activity theory approaches (See Chapter Seven for the results of the initiative analysis).

The response rate to the survey was low, 39%. Data therefore provides only a guide to understanding the uses of the PSD guidelines, and of the range of personal and social development opportunities provided by primary schools within the local authority.

5.2 Survey Method, Design and Analysis

The personal and social development survey was designed to explore:

- the ways in which Personal and Social Development Guidelines were implemented and augmented
- whether primary schools felt supported and encouraged to provide opportunities for personal and social development
- the range of personal and social development initiatives that schools offered

Background data about the number of pupils, the number of pupils with a record of needs and the socio-economic location of schools was also obtained. The survey questionnaire was reviewed by academic, primary school and local authority staff and is attached in Appendix A. Permission was granted by the local authority education department to carry out the research.

The questionnaire was posted to all primary school head teachers in one local authority in Scotland. A second request to complete the questionnaire was sent, after ten weeks, to those schools that had not returned completed questionnaires. Thirteen head teachers returned completed surveys in response to the first request and eight responded to the second request. Twenty-two head teachers (39%), in total, returned completed surveys.

Data obtained from the survey was categorised according to type and frequency of responses.

5.3 Results

5.3.1 School background details

Head teachers were asked to describe the socio-economic location of their schools. Results showed that schools were located in a range of socio-economic locations. Nine schools were located in areas of deprivation and nine were located in affluent areas. Four schools were situated in socially mixed areas (see Table 1). For example, one school located in an area of severe deprivation was described by the head teacher as a school which was located in an 'inner city area of recognised social deprivation.

Some children however do go on with full bursaries to fee-paying secondary. Wide range of abilities'.

Table 1. Socio-economic Location of School

	Number of Schools (N=22)
Severe Social Deprivation	7
Moderate Deprivation	2
Social Mix	4
Moderate Affluence	6
Affluent	3

The number of pupils attending schools varied from 98 to 610 with the majority of schools (13) having a roll between 200 and 399 pupils (See Table 2).

Table 2. Range of pupil numbers attending schools

Number of pupils	Number of Schools (N=22)
Less than 200	5
200 – 399	13
400 – 599	2
600 +	1

Approximately half of the schools (12) did not have any pupils with a record of needs. Seven schools had between one and six pupils with a record of needs. Two schools located in areas of social deprivation each had ten and 13 pupils with a record of needs. One school located in an affluent area had 20 pupils with a record of needs. This school had a unit for children with special educational needs[1] (SEN) and the majority of children with a record of needs were those who were taught in the SEN unit.

5.3.2 Personal and Social Development 5-14 (National Guidelines)

Twenty-one of the 22 schools used the Personal and Social Development 5-14 National Guidelines (SOED, 1993b) to inform different aspects of personal and social development practice or policy. One school did not use the personal and social

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[1] Although it is recognised that 'Additional Support Needs' is the term used in Scotland, the school in question used the term 'Special Educational Needs' and this term was adopted throughout the thesis.

development guidelines because they had developed their own personal and social development programme that was integrated with other school policy.

Head teachers were asked to indicate how the guidelines were implemented and augmented in their school. Responses to the two questions relating to 'implementation' and 'augmentation' were broadly similar and data was merged. Results are presented in Table 3. Most schools used a number of policy and planning strategies and activities to implement or augment the guidelines. Policy and planning strategies included using the guidelines to develop school policy for personal and social development (7 schools), supplementing the guidelines with additional school policy such as behaviour policies or statements of school ethos (6 schools), and using the guidelines to assist planning, development and assessment of the personal and social education curriculum (5 schools).

The guidelines were used to augment or implement a range of activities including class teaching activities (17 schools), for example, Circle Time or specific lessons about personal and social development issues. Just over half of the schools (12) implemented or augmented the guidelines by introducing activities that would influence whole school ethos, for example, themed weeks that promoted positive behaviour. Two schools indicated that the guidelines were implemented/augmented through pupil councils set up to increase children's responsibility and participation in the school community. One school identified the use of community agencies as a feature of their personal and social development programme.

Table 3. Implementation/Augmentation of 5-14 PSD National Guidelines

	No. of Schools (N=20)	Examples of use
Policy and Planning:		
Developing School Policy	7	*Recently devised our own school policy which will come into effect from August 2001*
Additional School Policy	6	*Other related documents exist including Health and Safety Policy, Whole School Behaviour Policy, RME Statement*
Planning, Development and Assessment	5	*We have specific PSD lessons throughout the school, planning and evaluation are done for them*
Activities:		
Curricular and Teaching Resources	17	*Use of 'Police Box' & CD's* *P.S.D is implemented in a cross-curricular approach and is integrated with Environmental Studies; Health and Safety & Religious and Moral Education*
Whole School	12	*Celebrating Achievement.* *No formal 'teaching' as such; PSD is integral to all aspects of school life*
Citizenship/Democratic Participation	2	*School Council meets every term and the pupils - through their representatives, raise and discuss issues of concern*
Community Resources	1	*Use of outside agencies eg police, carers, OAP involvement, charity work.*

Ten head teachers (of 14 who responded to this question) thought that the guidelines covered all relevant aspects of personal and social development. Four head teachers indicated that the guidelines should also cover issues relating to:

- parental imprisonment, crime within the family, and drug taking
- dealing with difficult individuals
- health, drugs and sex education
- providing a structured approach to personal and social development

One school, a new community school, did not use the Personal and Social Development 5-14 National Guidelines. This school had its own 'well-developed programme' for personal and social development which was considered integral to the Health Policy and Promoting Positive Behaviour Policy used by the school. This school implemented and augmented their own guidelines in similar ways to other schools. A cross-curricular approach to personal and social development was adopted with activities carried out in Environmental Studies, Health Behaviour and Religious Education. The school also used outside agencies, such as drama groups. The head teacher identified that their policy could be enhanced by including guidance to help parents promote their children's personal and social development. Steps had been taken to address this by setting up a parenting skills class.

5.3.3 External support for personal and social development initiatives

To discover whether there was an 'ethos' of encouragement for personal and social development within the local authority, schools' perceptions of the support and encouragement they received in relation to personal and social development issues from external organisations (including the local authority education department) were investigated. Twenty schools felt they were supported by external agencies such as the local authority education department and community organisations in relation to introducing initiatives for personal and social development. One school felt it was supported on paper rather than practically and another felt it was not supported because there was a *general shortage of specialist help – not enough teachers, speech therapists, trained ancillary staff etc. so not enough support all around*. All 22 head teachers felt encouraged by external organisations to set up personal and social development initiatives.

Responses to questions about 'support' and 'encouragement' overlapped and were combined. Results are presented in Table 4. Schools felt they were supported in the following areas: policy and planning related issues (6 schools), resources, for example, finance, personnel and materials (9 schools), engagement with (visits to or from) community organisations (10 schools). One school felt that staff from community organisations contributed *to the ethos of the school and the well-being of the pupils receiving support*. Twelve schools were supported through training and

consultation, in particular in-service training provided by the education department (9 schools). Three schools received support and encouragement from the Personal and Social Development Network that had been formed by the education department to allow primary schools to share information and develop practice and ideas for personal and social development.

Table 4. External Agency Support and Encouragement for PSD Initiatives

	No. of Schools (N=19)	Examples of support and encouragement
Policy and Planning:		
Policy and Guidance	4	*City council currently updating and revising guidance/pastoral care and PSE for nursery, primary and secondary.*
Evaluation, Assessment and Planning	2	*School self-evaluation procedures and use of performance indicators.*
Resources:		
Finance	1	*We are fortunate to receive funding to support a range of activities in the area of PSD, social inclusion and early intervention.*
Human Resources	1	*Behaviour support staff employed. Staff supplied for visual and learning impairment.*
Curricular and Teaching Resources	7	*Production of advice, resources and materials.*
Engagement:		
Partnership with Community Organisations	10	*Police; drama groups; local churches; local community through fund raising; initiatives to OAP houses.*

Table 4 continued

	No. of Schools (N=19)	Examples of support and encouragement
Training/Consultation: In-service Training	9	*[Education department] are good at running in-set days – behaviour management, counselling etc.*
Personal and Social Development Network for Primary Schools	3	*Council has PSD network group*

These results provide information about the main approaches used to provide pupils with opportunities for personal and social development. The results however do not reflect the range of activities that may have contributed to personal and social development within each school. For example, many schools were likely to offer 'environmental studies' though only one school suggested that they used this to promote personal and social development.

5.3.4 Personal and Social Development Initiatives

Schools were asked to provide information about initiatives they offered which aimed to enhance pupils' personal and social development. Fifteen of the 22 schools indicated that they had introduced initiatives for personal and social development. The majority of schools (11 schools) provided one or two initiatives for personal and social development and a few (4 schools) offered three or more initiatives (see Table 5). The schools offering initiatives were spread over a variety of socio-economic locations.

Table 5. Number of Initiatives provided by Schools

Number of Initiatives	Number of Schools
1	6
2	5
3	1
6	1
8	1
9	1

A total of 43 initiatives were offered by 15 schools. Schools used a number of methods and targeted a variety of personal and social issues to enhance pupils' personal and social development. Initiatives were based on nine kinds of activity:

- Group activities (9 initiatives)
- Curricular activities (9 initiatives)
- Whole school activities (7 initiatives)
- Interaction (7 initiatives)
- Adult support for children (4 initiatives)
- Citizenship (3 initiatives)
- Secondary school links (2 initiatives)
- Covert peer observation (1 initiative)
- Parenting skills (1 initiative)

Some of the activities might easily fit into more than one category but have been included in what was perceived to be the main method of enhancing personal and social development. Table 6 provides examples of initiatives that were introduced by primary schools. More detailed examples can be found in Appendix B.

Most of the nine group activities were physical or games activities (5 initiatives) that involved groups of children, most often, in playground games. These were intended to encourage turn-taking and co-operation. Small group activities (3 initiatives) catered for the needs of individuals. Small groups of children with personal and social needs were encouraged to participate in activities, for example, IT or craft activities, that it was hoped would encourage better behaviour, social skills and self-esteem. One school highlighted the personal and social benefits of residential group trips.

Curricular initiatives mostly related to the use of Circle Time (7 initiatives) where children, during class, discussed issues that were important to them and listened to what others in the group had to say. Two other curricular initiatives were 'themed weeks', for example, where the focus of lessons was on a range of issues including bullying and drugs.

Six of the seven interaction based activities focused on encouraging interaction between pupils to help children feel part of the school community. Four of these were buddy systems and a further three were paired reading or maths activities. The other interaction initiative was an informal adult-child interaction activity where children visited pensioners in a nursing home.

Activities based on adult support for children were those in which a professional adult was responsible for engaging with children to enhance development. These initiatives were school counsellors (2 initiatives), an intensive group to increase children's awareness of social behaviour (1 initiative) and another intensive group based on a system of rewards to encourage positive behaviour within and out with the school (1 initiative).

Activities with a citizenship basis (3 initiatives) involved pupils participating in school boards, councils or committees. These initiatives aimed to encourage responsibility and participation in the running of the school or raising funds for charity. Secondary school link initiatives (2 initiatives) were intended to familiarise Primary 7 pupils with their new secondary school surroundings and address pupils' concerns before they entered first year. One further school ran a series of parenting workshops, run by the head teacher, in order to help parents meet the personal and social needs of their children.

One initiative used a method of 'covert and anonymous peer observation'. The head teacher arranged, with permission of a child who was experiencing problems in the playground, for a Primary 7 pupil to observe the child in the playground and watch what was happening. The child who was being observed did not know the identity of the Primary 7 observer. The Primary 7 observer would report information about the problem situation to the head teacher, who would then be able to address the problem with greater knowledge. This initiative was introduced because the head teacher found it difficult to gain information about problems children had in the playground. She found that inappropriate behaviour ceased when teachers or staff members were in the playground and therefore they could not receive reliable information about pupil problems.

The personal and social development initiatives reflected a range of children's personal and social needs. Many initiatives targeted all pupils in the school, or large cross sections of pupils, for example in Health Week or playground games. Those that were specifically designed to meet the needs of individuals were usually small group activities (such as the IT group) or one-to-one activities, such as professional adult support. Seven of the 43 initiatives (16%) offered were designed to meet the needs of individuals.

Table 6. Initiatives for Personal and Social Development

	N=43	Example of Initiative	Purpose of Initiative
Group Activities	9	**Tigers**	*To moderate behaviour and improve interpersonal relationships between groups of boys.*
Curricular Initiatives	9	**Health Week**	*3 Health week focus to include first aid training for P6 and P7 from external provider/drug awareness and issues associated with bullying from Police Liaison Officer/visit to supermarket/I am Ace workshops etc.*
Whole School	7	**Doing the right thing**	*Promotion of positive behaviour and self-esteem. To improve behaviour throughout the school.*
Interaction	7	**Pensioners Lunch Club**	*Children visit pensioners once per week.*
Adult Support	4	**Social Contract**	*To aid children near to exclusion and their parents with support from Community Police – both in school targets; - after school targets; - boys then rewarded.*
Citizenship	3	**Pupil Charity Committee**	*Pupil request. Gives pupils real responsibility and new roles. Creates a caring ethos. Provides enjoyment.*
School Links	2	**P7-S1 Link**	*To help the P7 children cope with the move to secondary school. To discuss worries and concerns of the children. To provide them with information which would make their early days at school easier.*
Playground Observation	1	**Guardian Angels**	*Provide pupil: pupil support. Provide management with information, difficult to get. As a measure to counteract bullying and anti-social behaviour.*

Table 6. continued

	N=43	Example of Initiative	Purpose of Initiative
Support for Parents	1	**Parenting Workshops**	*The aim of the course is to raise awareness of issues, strategies and approaches that parents might reflect upon and adopt to support their children. A practical move for school and home to work together on general PSD issues, giving a consistent approach to the development of children's social, emotional and personal development.*

5.3.4.1 PSD initiatives: Meeting the needs of individuals

One of the aims of the survey was to identify whether schools 'met the needs of individuals'. The initiatives of interest were those designed for children whom schools felt had personal and social needs and might benefit from engaging in additional personal and social development opportunities. Pupils involved in the projects may or may not have received additional support from school or community resources, such as behaviour support or support from an educational psychologist.

Initiatives were informal in the sense that they had been set up in response to a personal and social need identified by the school and did not include widely available resources for personal and social development, such as Circle Time, unless they had been adapted to meet the needs of individuals. For example, the Enterprise Group used the resources of the Enterprise in Education (for example, LTS, 2002) but had been adapted for a small group of 12 pupils rather than a whole class group and also used a variety of methods aimed at providing an increased number of opportunities for personal and social development.

It was envisaged that initiatives could be carried out within any of the three recommended approaches in the Personal and Social Development Guidelines: whole school, cross-curricular and special focus. Whole school initiatives could be, as in one school that did not participate in the study, pupils helping the janitor at lunch and break times. If pupils with poor self-esteem wished to help the janitor he spent time trying to improve their confidence, or addressing the personal and social difficulty that they faced. It was anticipated that most initiatives would be special focus groups where a small number of pupils were helped together.

All of the initiatives involved in the study were school based and school resourced projects that involved no liaison with external sources. This had not been a prerequisite of the study. Although their need had to be identified at school level, initiatives did not have to be tied solely to the school or school resources, inter-school or interagency projects making use of external support, including parents or others in the community, would also have been included in the research.

Seven of the 43 initiatives (16%) were introduced specifically to meet the needs of individuals, rather than generic needs all pupils have for personal and social development. Five schools offered these seven initiatives. Three schools provided one initiative and two schools provided two initiatives each. Details of the initiatives are presented in Table 7.

The initiatives addressed a range of personal and social issues ranging from helping pupils with special educational needs to establish friendships (Buddy System), encouraging children to develop positive relationships (Craft Club) to more intense initiatives that addressed the needs of children with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties.

The two schools offering two initiatives to meet the needs of individuals were located in areas of deprivation. The other three schools providing one initiative each were located in affluent areas. While it is not possible to detect patterns with such a small sample it is interesting to note that the two schools located in areas of deprivation offered a range of short duration initiatives throughout the year and the schools located in affluent areas provided the same initiative from year to year. It is possible that this reflects different needs of schools in different areas but this would require further investigation.

All five schools were approached and each agreed to participate in an exploratory study of one of the initiatives offered. In one school, the initiative was postponed and did not run throughout the duration of the research. In another school the head teacher, who had sole responsibility for the initiative, moved to another country and the initiative was not continued at least in the few months following her departure. A short period of time was spent at this school testing interview schedules and data collection for pilot purposes. Subsequently, three schools participated in the study of initiatives.

Table 7. Initiatives meeting the needs of individuals

Initiative	Purpose	Need	Activities
Craft Club	*To encourage and develop positive social skills and good relationships.*	*To support a small number of pupils with problems.*	*Children make various craft items for charity*
I.T. Group	*To provide intensive PSD skills development for a group of 8-10 pupils in P5 - P7. Group runs with the DHT and worker from Social Work IT Centre.*	*Staff identified a group of children within the school who struggled, both in classroom activities and in the playground when working with peers. These children at risk of developing personal and/or social problems - alienated from peer group, possible victims in terms of bullying, low self-esteem and confidence.*	*A structured mix of activities including team-building games and exercises, role-play, small group discussion.*
Associated Schools P7 group 'Matrix Group'	*To facilitate transfer of P7 children with SEBD (social, emotional and behavioural difficulties) to secondary school – run by social service worker and IT behaviour worker*	*To try preventative measures of working with SEBD children from three feeder Primary Schools on themes such as friendship, co-operation etc before they meet at secondary*	*8 sessions covering emotions, bullying, communication, listening etc. etc.*
'Buddy' Systems	*P7 pupils help to play with S.E.N children at breaks.*	-	-
Guardian Angels	*To provide pupil: pupil support, management with information, and opportunities for pupil growth*	*As a measure to counteract bullying and anti-social behaviour.*	*Observation and reporting. Making informed judgements. Offering solutions and alternatives.*

Table 7. continued

Initiative	Purpose	Need	Activities
PSD/Behaviour Support - targeting those at risk	*The aim of this initiative is to target, within the classroom setting, a further tier of pupils identified as being at risk of escalating personal problems. The aim is to provide 1:1 and small group positive support and to foster inter-personal skills through on-going class work and structured activities such as group discussion, co-operation, turn-taking, language/maths games and activities.*	*A small supply of behaviour support days has been made available. The initiative has been introduced to help an identified group in P3 and P6 who are at risk of exclusion.*	*The small budget allows us to employ an additional teacher to work with pupils in P3 and P6. This additional teacher, working closely with the classroom teacher, will provide small group support to identified individuals as they undertake a mix of on-going class tasks and tasks intended specifically to develop skills of co-operation, turn-taking, working with others, listening to others, expressing opinions and developing independence.*
Social Contract	*To aid children near to exclusion and their parents with support from Community Police – both in school targets; - after school targets; - boys then rewarded*	*To avoid school exclusion*	*If boys met targets of eg coming into school on time, home at stated time at nights, work completed, then they were rewarded with their choice of activity eg helping in nursery: painting mural: swimming*

5.4 Discussion

The results of the survey provide some information about the wider context of personal and social development in primary schools in one local authority in Scotland. Of schools in the local authority 39% responded to the survey. The guidelines had been considered and used by all, bar one, of the twenty-two schools that responded. Most schools used a variety of methods to implement and augment the personal and social guidelines and generally felt supported/encouraged in their personal and social endeavours. Schools implemented and augmented the guidelines using policy and planning strategies and curricular, whole school and community activities. Schools also felt supported with policy and planning needs, resources and through in-service training offered by the local council in relation to personal and social development issues.

Fifteen of the 22 schools identified a wide range of initiatives, most of these targeted generic development needs of all children, or cross-sections of school pupils, addressing issues such as responsibility (citizenship), interaction skills (physical activities, interacting with peers and adults, adult support), behaviour (whole school and group activities), and in one case parents were targeted and assisted to use methods to enhance children's personal and social development. Only a small number of these initiatives (7) targeted the needs of individual pupils (small group activities, buddy system, covert pupil observer, adult support). This is in line with findings of HMIE reports which suggest that schools offer good or very good opportunities for personal and social development but that personal and social development provision is poorer in relation to meeting the needs of individual pupils (HMIE, 2001a).

The findings of the survey are limited for two reasons. The first reason is that the 39% response rate was not representative of all schools in the local authority. The second is that there was some overlap in responses to schools' perceptions of 'implementing', 'augmenting', being 'supported', being 'encouraged' and the initiatives offered. For example, some schools suggested they implemented the guidelines using Circle Time, other schools suggested they augmented the guidelines using Circle Time and other schools identified the use of Circle Time as an initiative the school offered. Similarly, where schools identified some of their activities as

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personal and social development others schools may not have done so. For example, a large number of schools were involved in a 'Kids in Condition' initiative for physical exercise but only one mentioned this as a personal and social development initiative. The exception to this is probably the initiatives that were designed to meet the needs of individuals. This number is likely to be accurate because initiatives were specifically developed for individuals with problems whereas other initiatives tended to serve a number of purposes.

These results also highlight that head teachers have different perceptions about the extent to which a school's activities contribute to personal and social development.

Schools in the sample had positive attitudes towards personal and social development within the primary school. Schools considered many areas of their school work to contribute to personal and social development. This suggests that schools believed that personal and social development could be achieved through a variety of school based activities.

Encouragement and support came from community organisations such as police departments, churches and health organisations. Many schools considered citizenship, health and drugs to be an important aspect of personal and social development. If this is the case it is possible that time that could be used to address individual personal and social needs is being spent on these other areas of the curriculum.

An indicator that schools may view personal and social development as a general school concern rather than a concern for individuals with personal and social needs is that only one school identified behaviour support staff (which all schools have at least some access to) as supporting the personal and social development guidelines. Schools similarly may view children receiving this kind of support as beyond the remit of the personal and social development curriculum and in need of additional support.

It should also be noted that the local authority education department did have an exercise at the time, the Personal and Social Development Network mentioned by

three schools which was a forum that allowed schools to discuss teaching practice and issues in relation to personal and social development (see Table 4). The website available for this network showed that a number of schools that did not respond to the survey belonged to this network so it is likely that more than 39% of schools had a specific interest in personal and social development.

5.5 Conclusion

Together Chapters Four and Five have shown that personal and social development within the primary school has become increasingly important, relatively speaking perhaps and not in relation to other areas of the curriculum such as maths or English. Conditions of schools improved significantly in the 20th century, child-centred methods of learning were introduced in the 1960s and the debate about a separate curriculum for personal and social development emerged about the same time. From the 1980s many books and resources for personal and social development appeared. In the 1990s curriculum time was allocated to personal and social development.

While the needs of individual children have traditionally been met by educational psychologists, behaviour support teachers, social workers and other professionals, the role the school can play in meeting these needs is now being recognised, and is encouraged in the National Guidelines for Personal and Social Development (SOED, 1993b), Section 4. The current chapter has shown that schools used the personal and social development guidelines and did so through a variety of methods including classroom, playground and extra-curricular activities, and activities designed to influence the school ethos. This provides further evidence that primary schools generally provide good opportunities for personal and social development. In line with HMIE findings, this survey showed that there were fewer opportunities for the personal and social development of pupils with individual needs. It is unclear whether the small number of schools (5) that offered personal and social development initiatives for individuals represents a small but consistent proportion of schools addressing individual needs or whether it represents the beginning of a movement towards schools addressing the needs of individuals. It is also the case that schools may have regarded behaviour support and similar support services as providers of support for individual needs and therefore would not have considered the role of the school in providing further opportunities for pupils with individual needs. Future

research about personal and social development opportunities would highlight developments in these areas.

Chapter 6. Qualitative Methods

6.1 Introduction

Qualitative methods are a traditional feature of educational research, having been used in the field for more than a century to generate themes and hypotheses about research topics (Powney & Watts, 1987; Tierney & Dilley, 2002). Qualitative methods remain a popular choice in modern educational research because they facilitate understanding of a range of experiences of any given topic. Their use today reflects beliefs about the existence of multiple truths and solutions to situations and problems.

There is a wide range of qualitative methods and techniques, methods of analysis, and a range of criteria for evaluating data. The merits and limitations of each should be evaluated according to the aims of each research project (Johnson, 2002). This chapter describes the qualitative methods used to investigate the structure and outcomes of personal and social development initiatives.

To understand the limits and merits of different methodologies in producing information about a research topic, Johnson (2002) recommends establishing clearly defined research aims. To recap, the empirical research question being explored is:

- How have personal and social development initiatives operated within schools and how have they contributed to pupils' personal and social development?

The qualitative methods considered to address this research question were observation, interviewing and focus groups. Additional methods for pupils were also considered including role play, discussions about pictures or photographs or vignette scenarios depicting personal and social issues.

The role play, photographic discussions and vignette scenarios were not thought to be suitable for the current study. In a pilot study, photographs of children expressing different emotions in different situations were presented to children to help them think about their own feelings in relation to the initiatives (Powney & Watts, 1987). This method did not facilitate children's responses to interview questions and the method was not used in the main study. Role play, and discussions of the meaning of pictures

or vignette scenarios were not used because it would only have been possible to focus on a small number of personal and social issues which would not have reflected the range of aims associated with each initiative. In addition, it would have been necessary to carry out these techniques at two points in time in order to collect data relating to the development of pupils. The time associated with carrying out these techniques at two points in time with a large group of pupils is considerable and would have resulted in frequently interrupted lessons.

The qualitative methods chosen for the study were semi-structured interviews supplemented by informal observation and focus groups. This procedure was used at each of the three schools involved in the study. Likert-style questionnaires were used with children to further explore the impact of initiatives. The questionnaire was designed to assess children's perceptions of their personal and social development over time. It could be administered to large numbers of children quickly and covered a wider range of issues than would have been possible with role play, photograph or vignette scenarios (see Chapter Eight for a discussion of the quantitative methodology).

6.2 Method

6.2.1 Informal participant observation and familiarisation

Meetings were set up with the head teacher at each of the three schools that agreed to participate. It was agreed that the researcher would spend time at the initiatives prior to carrying out interviews. A number of months were spent participating in weekly initiative sessions at each school, interacting with pupils and staff.

The researcher became a participant at each initiative and attended group activities and weekly sessions before, during and after interviews were carried out. This method was chosen because literature suggests that a period of informal observation and familiarisation allows researchers to gain an understanding of a group's culture (Eder & Fingerson, 2002), to become familiar with the setting (Eder & Fingerson, 2002), to collect data from their experience as a participant of the group (Glassner & Loughlin, 1987; Johnson, 2002; Wilkinson, 2000). It also allows researchers and participants the opportunity to become acquainted with each other

(Oppenheim, 1992) and for the researcher to establish rapport with participants (Eder & Fingerson, 2002; Glassner & Loughlin, 1987).

A range of benefits are associated with rapport building and these include establishing a positive relationship and an open and friendly atmosphere that encourages honesty, confidence and trust in the researcher (Eder & Fingerson, 2002; Glassner & Loughlin, 1987; Oppenheim, 1992). Rapport establishment is thought to help eliminate any anxieties, embarrassment, reluctance or initial negative responses to the researcher that participants may have had (Breakwell, 1990; Ginsburg, 1997; Powney & Watts, 1987). It is ultimately thought that establishing positive relationships allows participants to be confident that information they provide is confidential, therefore increasing the likelihood that participants will provide honest, informative, good quality interview responses (Eder & Fingerson, 2002; Oppenheim, 1992; Powney & Watts, 1987).

Another outcome of informal observation is that researchers become familiar with the discourse of initiatives and develop an understanding of issues of importance to the group (Breakwell, 1990; Fontana, 2002; Garbarino & Stott, 1992; Wilkinson, 2000). Through observation and participation it is possible to identify the range of people who can provide information about the initiatives (Breakwell, 1990).

In the current study positive relationships were developed with staff and pupils at each of the initiatives and the researcher gained insight into relevant issues which were used to create interview schedules. A range of groups and individuals were identified as good informants of issues relating to initiatives. These were initiative leaders, children attending initiatives, school staff closely involved with initiatives or who taught children attending the initiatives, and parents of children attending initiatives.

6.2.2 The interview schedule
Interview schedules were developed after a period of informal participation and observation was spent at each initiative. General interview themes relating to processual approach and activity theory frameworks were identified, including

initiative aims, activities and methods, and organisational issues. These themes were fairly broad and easy to memorise, which helped the interviews to progress smoothly (Heiman, 1995; Powney & Watts, 1987).

Specific issues relating to initiatives were guided by information discovered through informal observation (Breakwell, 1990; Wilkinson, 2000). Pilot interviews were carried out to test the structure of the questionnaire and participants' understanding of the questions (Heiman, 1995; Powney & Watts, 1987). Following information gained from pilot interviews a few questions were added or rephrased and some were removed (Warren, 2002).

Topics included in interview schedules were:

- conception of the need for change (staff only)
- contextual and political issues (staff experience, internal and external influences) (staff only)
- aims of the initiatives
- organisational issues (who was involved, activities, resources, time)
- community issues (knowledge of the initiative, how initiatives were perceived in the immediate school community, parents' feelings about their child's involvement)
- outcomes (effectiveness, valued aspects, problems, impact on personal and social development)

The interview schedule was flexible to accommodate the discussion of issues as they arose during the interviews. The first few questions were fairly simple and factual as it was hoped this gave participants time to start thinking about the initiatives and to adjust to answering interview questions (Johnson, 2002; Oppenheim, 1992). These questions were followed by in-depth questions designed to explore deeper perceptions and knowledge of the initiatives (Johnson, 2002).

Some general interview techniques were used to structure the interview schedules. These included phrasing questions simply to restrict the possibility of multiple

meaning (Oppenheim, 1992; Powney & Watts, 1987). Where misunderstanding did occur the researcher provided alternate questions which guided participants to the intended meaning (Breakwell, 1990) but retained the exploratory nature of the question (Oppenheim, 1992; Powney & Watts, 1987). Open questions were used to allow participants to express their own perceptions of initiatives. Closed questions were used to obtain factual information (Heiman, 1995) about, for example, when initiatives had been set up. 'Probes' were used to clarify and request further information and 'follow-up questions' were used to develop an understanding of the implications (Warren, 2002).

Double-barrelled questions were avoided because they can suggest a particular emphasis in answering a question (Heiman, 1995; Powney & Watts, 1987). For example, 'How did you feel about starting the initiative? Were you nervous?' may have suggested interest only in negative experiences. Multiple questions were also avoided as the participant may have answered only one part of the question (Heiman, 1995; Powney & Watts, 1987). For example, 'What experience have you had with similar initiatives and how has it influenced your input for this particular initiative?' was posed as two separate questions.

Varied question styles, such as, 'what did you think about [x]' or 'can you tell me about [y]', were used to add interest and prevent particular patterns of responding (Heiman, 1995; Oppenheim, 1992; Powney & Watts, 1987). To prevent awkward silences, the interviewer asked for the elaboration of a previous point (Oppenheim, 1992; Powney & Watts, 1987).

Filter questions were also used to ascertain whether participants had experience of a certain topic, for example, of financial issues (Heiman, 1995). This helped to prevent participants feeling they lacked or should have had knowledge about a certain issue (Baker, 2002).

6.2.3 Interviewing

The purpose of qualitative interviewing in the current study was to obtain descriptions and explanations to understand, interpret and establish common themes and patterns

relating to participants' experiences of initiatives (Eder & Fingerson, 2002; Ginsburg, 1997; Johnson, 2002; Kvale, 1996; Powney & Watts, 1987; Warren, 2002). Interview data also allowed the researcher to clarify understanding of the initiatives (Johnson, 2002). Qualitative data was not used to develop further methods, quantitative or otherwise, to evaluate the initiatives.

Individual interviews were chosen as it was felt that this would maximise the range of issues that participants felt they could raise during discussions. There was a limited range of people in each of the stakeholder groups, for example, initiative leaders, class teachers, role model pupils or pupils with personal and social difficulties. As different individuals had varying experiences and involvement with the initiatives it was felt that personal issues could more comfortably be discussed in a one to one situation (Krueger, 1994). For example, class teachers may have thought the initiatives were poorly managed but may not have wanted to say this in front of initiative leaders. Children identified as having personal and social problems may not have spoken about sensitive issues in front of other pupils.

Semi-structured interviewing was chosen for the current study in order to explore general categories, such as aims and organisational issues, but also to incorporate other issues raised by participants (Brenner *et al*, 1985; Johnson, 2002). Following a strict set of questions (structured interviewing) was thought to be too prescriptive for the study's exploratory aims, and unstructured interviewing may not have raised issues that would have allowed common themes to be compared across initiatives.

A number of techniques were used to enhance the quality of the interviews. A clear function and purpose for gathering the information was explained to participants. Adults were informed that interviews were intended to help understand the initiative and to understand its impact on pupils. It was explained to pupils that it was important to find out what they thought of the initiative and the activities that they were involved in. It has been shown that individuals are more likely to be forthcoming if they believe the information they provide will contribute to improvements in education, either in general, or in their particular organisation (Powney & Watts, 1987).

A relaxed and informal approach was used across all interviews. Adults and children were placed in the role of expert and made to feel at ease in a comfortable and non-controlling setting (Garbarino & Stott, 1992; Ginsburg, 1997; Powney & Watts, 1987). 'Active listening', that is, attending to non-verbal and situational cues, was used to help gather information about participants' perceptions (Powney & Watts, 1987). Participants were given sufficient time to answer questions (Ginsburg, 1997).

In addition the researcher was aware during interviewing that:

- the researcher's verbal and non-verbal behaviour would have an impact on participants
- participants may use strategies (resisting or diverting questions) to hide lack of knowledge, socially undesirable beliefs or inconsistent beliefs to maintain their self-esteem
- participants may not answer the question fully if they believe the interviewer already knows the answer, especially in smaller projects, such as those involved in the current study
- generally, people react positively to others taking an interest in their points of view

(Powney & Watts, 1987)

Attributes such as race, gender and socio-cultural background affect the interview and relationship between interviewer and participant (Warren, 2002) and the topic of discussion has an impact on levels of disclosure. For example, men may feel uncomfortable talking to women about certain topics, and vice versa (Warren, 2002). The interviewer or participant's feelings at the time of the interview also have an impact on the interview process, for example, whether participants are bored, tired or happy can have a bearing on the information they provide (Ginsburg, 1997).

Tape-recording may be interpreted differently by demographic variables such as class, age and culture which may affect conversation and the information participants will provide (Warren, 2002). During interviews some participants preferred to make

comments 'off the record' or opted for the interview not to be tape-recorded. Most interviews however were tape recorded which helped to preserve the information gathered which enhanced understanding of participants' perceptions (Johnson, 2002).

6.2.3.1 Interviewing children

Interviewing children is associated with a number of issues over and above those related to general interviewing.

All children were interviewed in the school and in most instances in an area close to the setting of the initiative. Using a familiar setting near the site of the informal initiative was intended to provide children with concrete cues to help them answer questions (Eder & Fingerson, 2002; Garbarino & Stott, 1992). An informal manner and simple language mirroring terms used by children attending initiatives was used to aid children's understanding of interview questions (Garbarino & Stott, 1992; Ginsburg, 1997). The use of time related questions was minimised as children have difficulty answering these kinds of question (Garbarino & Stott, 1992; Ginsburg, 1997). In general, the researcher was familiar with general stages of children's development and of what may be typical for a child at any given age (Garbarino & Stott, 1992; Ginsburg, 1997). The researcher did not comment on the correctness or otherwise of a response (Eder & Fingerson, 2002; Garbarino & Stott, 1992; Ginsburg, 1997), in part, because children and adults see the world in different ways, for example, children may regard an otherwise straight pencil as crooked if it has a 'bump' (for example, a decoration or rubber) at the end (Garbarino & Stott, 1992; Ginsburg, 1997).

The interviewer was aware that children who are psychologically 'healthy' are more likely to provide accurate responses about their feelings and behaviour than children who have low self-esteem, who are more likely to avoid talking about their social reality and personal experiences (Garbarino & Stott, 1992).

Children called the researcher by her first name and the researcher avoided using controlling or formal behaviour with children to prevent being associated with

teachers or authority figures (Eder & Fingerson, 2002; Ginsburg, 1997; Powney & Watts, 1987).

Researchers have found that children react positively to others taking an interest in their views (Powney & Watts, 1987) and this was the experience of the researcher in the current study.

6.2.4 Focus groups

Focus groups were conducted with a second set of children attending two of the initiatives (the Craft Club and the Buddy System) that continued each school year. Focus groups were conducted to provide a comparison and validation of the impact, development and/or stability of initiatives from year to year. Pupils were asked to discuss their perceptions of key themes. Differences and similarities from year to year were noted (Krueger, 1994).

Follow up focus groups were not conducted with staff or parents. When new members of staff became involved in initiatives they were also interviewed.

6.3 Procedure

Head teachers were happy to allow pupils to be involved in the research and letters informing parents about the research were sent home with children who were involved in initiatives. Letters requesting parents' participation in the research were also sent home with pupils. All staff and pupils involved with the initiatives consented to individual interviews and interviews were carried out with all parents who indicated that they were willing to participate in the research project.

6.3.1 Craft Club

Eight children were involved in the Craft Club each year. In the first year, all eight children were interviewed individually, three females and five males. Ages ranged from nine to 11 years. Individual interviews were held with children during the Craft Club session. One child and the interviewer went to a nearby room to talk about the Craft Club. In two instances children took their craft work with them. Children were interested in being involved in the interviews and each week asked when it would be their turn to participate. Interviews lasted between 10 and 20 minutes.

In the following year two focus groups were held with children, one with males and one with females. Each focus group included four children. Focus groups were held during class time in a new room that had been allocated to the Craft Club. Each focus group lasted approximately 30 minutes.

One female child attended the Craft Club in both years and was involved in the individual interviews and focus groups.

Seven members of staff (6 female, 1 male) were interviewed, six of these during the first year. Interviews were held with the two initiative leaders, head teacher and two members of staff who assisted during the Craft Club. One of these staff members was a P7 teacher, some of whose pupils attended the Craft Club. A P5 teacher was interviewed because two of her pupils attended the Craft Club. In the second year, a P7 teacher was interviewed as all the children attending the Craft Club were in her class.

Interviews with staff were held in the staff room or other private premises during school hours and lasted about 20 minutes, with one exception of 40 minutes.

Three parents were involved in interviews. During the first year, two parents indicated that they were willing to be interviewed. During the second year one further parent agreed to participate. Interviews with parents took place at their home and lasted for about 20 minutes. In each instance, the parent interviewed was the child's mother.

6.3.2 Buddy System
In the first year, 28 P7 pupils aged 11 or 12 (25 female, 3 male) indicated that they were involved in the buddy system. Each pupil was interviewed individually. Interviews were held during school hours in a relatively secluded area of the open plan layout. Interviews lasted between 10 and 25 minutes. Four children (3 female, 1 male) from the special educational needs (SEN) base were involved in short interviews lasting five minutes that were carried out in the SEN base area. Pupils with SEN were aged nine (2 pupils), ten and 11.

During the second year, 14 P7 (8 female, 6 male) pupils were involved in focus groups. Focus groups were held in a relatively secluded area of the open plan layout or in a large cloakroom area located next to the classroom. Focus groups lasted between 20 and 25 minutes.

Eleven parents, all mothers, were interviewed about the Buddy System. Four were parents of children who had SEN and seven were parents of buddies. Of these seven, three parents were also auxiliaries who worked in the SEN unit. A further four staff who worked in the SEN unit were involved in interviews. Two of these were auxiliaries, one was a teacher in the SEN unit and the other was the initiative leader and head teacher of the SEN unit. Three P7 teachers at the school were interviewed because some of their pupils were buddies. Staff and two parents were interviewed in a variety of locations in the school, including the library, offices and staff room. All other parents were interviewed in their homes. All staff and parents were female. Interviews lasted approximately 20 minutes, with the exception of the initiative leader, whose interview lasted approximately 50 minutes.

6.3.3 Enterprise Group

The Enterprise Group took place over one school year. All 12 children (7 males, 5 females) attending the Enterprise Group were involved in interviews. Six of the pupils were in P6 (aged 10-11) and six were in P7 (aged 11-12). Ten of these interviews were individual interviews. One was a group interview with two of the children. The group interview occurred unintentionally as two boys stood up and proceeded to follow the interviewer out of the classroom. The interviewer decided to carry out the interview with the two boys as they were friends and had both been identified as children with personal and social problems who would benefit from being involved in the Enterprise Group. Sending one of the boys back to the class may have caused disappointment or upset and made one or both of the boys less likely to answer questions during the interview. Interviews with children took place in a general purpose room or in the school library. Each interview was approximately 15 to 20 minutes, and the group interview lasted 30 minutes.

Seven members of staff were involved in interviews. The two initiative staff were interviewed, the key leader for 40 minutes and the other for 15 minutes. The head teacher and four class teachers whose pupils attended the Enterprise Group were also interviewed. The interview with the head teacher lasted 20 minutes and two individual interviews with staff lasted approximately 10 minutes. Two members of staff chose to be involved in a group interview and this lasted approximately 30 minutes. Interviews with staff were held in offices, staff rooms or empty classrooms.

Although letters were sent out twice to parents to request their involvement in an interview, no parents wished to be involved.

6.4 Analysis

Interview data was analysed in accordance with the framework offered by the processual approach and activity theory. This framework is described in Chapter Two and the results are presented in Chapter Seven. The main features associated with the processual approach are understanding the need for introducing initiatives, the transition of introducing initiatives and the implementation of new procedures. Activity theory was used to understand the purpose of the initiatives, organisational features, the viewpoints of different groups of individuals, the main methods that were used to effect change and the outcomes of the initiatives.

Davydov (1999) recommends four stages of analysis when using activity theory. The first stage is to identify the object (purpose) of the activity, that is, the needs, motives, tasks and goals of the activity. The research should aim to produce findings that are grounded in actions associated with the activity, making clear the object, purpose and wider context of the actions (Ratner, 1997). Popova and Daniels (2004) suggest that understanding the object is key to understanding the activity system because it leads to an understanding of the whole purpose of the activity.

The second stage suggested is to define components of the activity, including the object (purpose) and structure of the activity, the interrelations of components, and the individual activity. These types of definition are intended to provide an idea of the general group activity and individual behaviours within that activity.

The third stage of research is to develop an understanding (as opposed to the identification of the first stage) of the 'ideal plane' of the activity system (the needs, goals and motives). This stage relates to Dawson's (1994) idea that analyses of organisational change should include consideration of the ideal outcomes that tasks and activities are designed to meet.

The final stage of analysis involves studying 'significant aspects' of the activity. The aim of investigating significant aspects of the activity is to develop an understanding of the relationship between the desirable outcomes of the activity, what actually happens in the activity (or the conscious aspects of activity) and the structure of the activity.

A number of techniques were used to ensure rigour during the analysis. One technique was to understand and represent the 'actual' experience of participants (Johnson, 2002; Silverman, 1997) and this including not overstating unique or interesting views or understating key, but perhaps less interesting, issues (Silverman, 1994). The second step was to understand contextual influences on responses including, for example, the effect of others present, the researcher or tape-recording. (Altheide & Johnson, 1998; Silverman, 1994). This step included deciding whether to accept or discount data (Popper, 1959). Many of the contextual analysis issues could be addressed by the information gathered from the periods of involvement with initiatives. The information gathered during these periods could be compared to people's beliefs about their actions. This was particularly important as what people say they do can often be very different from what they actually do (Atkinson & Coffey, 2002).

Garbarino and Stott (1992) recommend being aware that children's data may contribute causality where none exists (for example, someone goes outside because a door is open) or may confuse cause with effect (for example, it gets dark so I can go to bed). They also caution that children may lie to protect themselves or others.

Some criteria used to assess the rigour of qualitative data have been called validity, credibility, transferability and confirmability. Ginsburg (1997) suggests that if data is consistent across individuals then research findings are reliable and that if tasks and

questions are reasonable then data will be valid. Denzin (1998) suggests that data must be credible, transferable, dependable and confirmable. That is, data must be believable in accordance with data that has been provided, applicable in some form to other situations, understandable to those who participated, and it should be replicable. Credibility was a key issue and it was important, as noted above, to accurately reflect participants' responses.

The three other techniques were considered but were not used as the main assessment of rigour in the current study because it was felt that: individuals can have different responses that are valid, that transferability is to some degree inevitable (research by definition extends knowledge and understanding of a topic) and in that sense it is unnecessary to state this. Confirmability similarly is not necessarily an aspect of the rigour of the data or analysis. Approximations of confirmability or being able to replicate the research process are usually possible with other similar populations. With a number of these techniques the key is to provide sufficient details of methodology in order that readers of the research understand how information was collected and conclusions reached.

6.5 Dissemination

A report was written about each of the initiatives and given to initiative leaders on completion of the study. Schools were keen to find out how their initiatives had been viewed and wished to use the information to develop initiatives in the future. Providing schools with a report also provided the researcher with a means of checking ideas and understandings of the initiatives (Emerson & Pollner, 1992; Johnson, 2002). Rochford (1992) and Johnson (2002) warn that all interpretations are subject to conflict and dispute about what can be accepted as a true explanation because of the consequences of publication. Only one school wished to discuss the report and it was assumed that the other two schools were happy with the findings of the report.

The next Chapter describes the results of the qualitative analyses.

Chapter 7.

The Craft Club, The Enterprise Group and The Buddy System

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the two approaches (processual approach and activity theory) described in detail in Chapter Three form the framework for analysis of the Craft Club, Enterprise Group and Buddy System initiatives.

The processual framework was used to understand the background and process of change. It considers each school's conception of the need to introduce an initiative, the key aspects of the change (transition of change) and the new practices and procedures that were implemented (operation of the new change). According to the processual approach, the substance or type of change, the politics of change and the context of change are important factors influencing this process of change. In Chapters Four and Five the wider historical, social and political context of change were considered. In this chapter the politics and context of each school are considered.

Activity theory was used to develop a framework for understanding the new practices and procedures (operation of change) of each initiative and how these have contributed to the outcomes of the initiative. Activity theorists highlighted a number of key areas to inform the understanding of the initiatives and their outcomes. These were understanding the object or purpose of the initiative, the mediating artefacts through which learning occurs and the multiple perspectives of those involved. Engeström (1999) suggested that it was important to consider the contextual factors of an activity and extended this framework to include understanding rules, division of labour and the community associated with the activity. His model of activity theory incorporated seven factors: mediating artefacts, object/purpose, rules, division of labour, community, subject (participant group), and outcomes. Engeström's model was adopted for the current research, although having been developed for use in working environments some adaptation was required for analysing the school environment.

Four of Engeström's factors were retained: mediating artefacts, object/purpose, subject (participant group), and outcomes. Rules, division of labour and community were altered to fit the needs of the current study. Currently in primary schools ethos is a very important factor that schools aim to manage to promote personal and social development. This notion of school ethos was incorporated into the 'community' category to become 'school community and ethos'.

'Rules' and 'division of labour' are crucial issues in work environments but were less important for the current investigation where initiatives were small scale activities and operated on minimal rules and small numbers. The separation of rules and division of labour as separate factors was unnecessary and these two components were merged into one factor 'organisational features'.

An additional factor 'relationships' was added to the current model. This factor was added because pupils' engagement and interaction with others was a key method used in initiatives to enhance pupils' personal and social development. Focusing on perspectives of relationships helped to reveal the contribution of interactions to development.

The seven activity theory components developed for the current study were:

- object/purpose
- subject group
- mediating artefacts
- organisational features
- school community and ethos
- relationships
- outcomes

Multiple perspectives of the different participant groups were investigated under each factor. The factor 'subject group' focuses on identifying perspectives of the pupils who were involved in the initiatives. The purpose of this is to understand the type of

problems that pupils were facing and/or the qualities that they brought to the initiatives.

The results of the personal and social development questionnaire presented in the next chapter also formed part of the evaluation of the outcomes of the initiatives on children's personal and social development.

7.2 Processual Approach

The results presented in this section provide information about the process of change and influences on the development of each initiative. Information was gathered from field notes, meetings and interviews with staff at each of the schools.

7.2.1 Craft Club

Context and Politics of Change

The Craft Club Primary School was a newly built school in a middle class area. It had quickly become popular and successful in the local area. A number of families in the area had opted to move their children from the local school to the new one. It had been open for two years at the time of the study. The head teacher was open to new ideas and encouraged a school ethos which promoted personal and social development, an area in which the school had won a prestigious award.

Staff at the school welcomed the Craft Club and the effort of the leaders of the club. The school's policy for personal and social development was redrafted, after completion of the study, to include the Craft Club as part of the school's methods for promoting personal and social development.

Conception of the Need to Change

When the school opened, the school administrator, who was experienced in and enjoyed craft activities, suggested setting up an art and craft club for pupils. She felt strongly that the social setting of the club could be used to help pupils who 'didn't get on very well with others'. The support for learning teacher also had experience with and enjoyed craft activities and was interested in setting up an art and craft club for pupils. Following discussions the school administrator, support for learning teacher

and head teacher agreed that the club could be used to facilitate the social skills of two different groups of pupils. The club was set up with the aim of helping pupils with social or behavioural difficulties and Primary 7 pupils who were shy.

Substance of Change

The Craft Club represented a small change in the school. It was a lunchtime, extracurricular club that involved a group of approximately eight pupils, two initiative leaders (the school administrator and the support for learning teacher) plus two or three adult helpers, including the researcher. At the time of the study, one of the helpers was a Primary 7 teacher some of whose pupils attended the club and the other helper was the behaviour support teacher who worked with some of the pupils attending the club. The Craft Club school was open plan and the Craft Club was held in a small pod area shared by two of the classes. Its position meant that other pupils could look in the windows, or on rainy days when pupils were inside, there were frequent visitors to the club by other pupils who wished to know what was going on. Initially the Craft Club relied on the school to provide resources, which were later paid back from money raised at school fairs. Each of the leaders and the helpers, when they were involved, gave up their lunchtime once per week.

Transition and Operation of Change

Pupils who it was thought would benefit from the Craft Club were identified by the head teacher and support for learning teacher. Initially parents of pupils considered to have social difficulties were approached to seek permission for their child's attendance. A variety of activities were planned and art and craft materials for the club were provided in the first instance by the school. A pupil role model system, of which the pupils were unaware, was established. It was hoped that the good social behaviour of the P7 role models would serve as an example for those with social difficulties. Initiative leaders chose two different types of pupil to become role models. Some of the pupils were shy, well-behaved pupils who the Craft Club was designed to help become more confident to help the move to secondary school. Other role models were chosen because they were confident and popular pupils. It was thought that the opportunity to interact with 'popular' role model pupils in the club would boost the self-esteem of the other pupils who attended. Pupils who had social difficulties ranged from Primary 4 to Primary 7. Children younger than Primary 4

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were not invited to the club as it was felt that some of the art and craft activities would be too difficult.

A charitable component to the Craft Club was introduced whereby each year towards Christmas pupils and staff would make items to sell at the school fair. Pupils would choose which charity the profits of the sale would go to. It was hoped that making products for charity would boost the self-esteem of pupils.

The Craft Club ran once a week at lunchtimes during the winter and spring terms. It had been discovered that during the summer months pupils were reluctant to come inside and the leaders felt that if they were interacting well with their peers and preferred to be outside then this was just as beneficial to pupils as attending the Craft Club.

After completion of the study the Craft Club developed in two ways. One, the Craft Club developed into an Enterprise activity with a more structured approach to producing crafts to sell. Two, further classrooms were built within the school grounds and the Craft Club was held in one of these classrooms where they had more room to move, more storage and privacy from other pupils.

7.2.2 Enterprise Group

Context of Change

The Enterprise Primary School served an area with social problems and high levels of poverty. The head teacher was proud of the school and tried to instil this in the school morale. To combat problems associated with social exclusion the head teacher felt it was beneficial to introduce a number of initiatives, for example, visiting the elderly, creating a school garden and other environmental awareness projects. The aim of these projects was to provide pupils with an opportunity for personal development and citizenship. The head teacher valued varied and flexible approaches to enhancing pupils' development and a variety of initiatives were available at any one time. The Enterprise Group was one of these initiatives and focused on the personal and social development of a group of disaffected Primary 7 boys.

Conception of the Need to Change

The head teacher of the Enterprise school was aware of a group of boys in Primary 7 who were disaffected and caused trouble in the classroom. She felt that they would benefit from an activity or series of activities that would stretch their abilities and capture their attention. She hoped that this would help them engage with school.

Politics of Change

The Enterprise school, though not at the time of the study, had recently been a new community school (see Scottish Office, 1998 for information about new community schools). The school and the new community staff jointly offered some initiatives to pupils at the school. The Enterprise Group was created within this climate which encouraged provision of opportunities for pupil and community development. The head teacher was also keen to address social issues and deprivation, and this was part of her motivation to introduce initiatives where she felt there was a need.

Substance of change

The change which took place was small scale and formed part of the formal curriculum scheduled to run for one term only. The Enterprise Group involved 12 pupils and two members of staff. The leader of the Enterprise Group was the school's behaviour support teacher and the initiative assistant was the school-community liaison officer. Decisions were made by the head teacher and initiative leader about which classes should participate in the initiative. It was decided that three children from each of four classes (two Primary 7 and two Primary 6) would be involved in the Enterprise. Pupils were chosen by class teachers and the time of the Enterprise Group was negotiated between the class teachers and initiative leader. Class teachers found it difficult to find a suitable time for children to attend. They eventually agreed on a Friday afternoon slot during Golden Time, a time when pupils were allowed to choose a recreational activity from a range such as baking, arts and crafts or sports. The majority of the Enterprise Group sessions were held in the two classrooms allocated to the behaviour support teacher.

Transition and Operation of Change

The head teacher approached the behaviour support teacher to discuss what activity might be suitable for the Primary 7 boys who were disaffected. The behaviour support teacher had recently attended a training course about running an Enterprise group and felt that this would be a good resource as it required the children to take responsibility for all aspects of co-ordinating and carrying out the work and it would provide a variety of experiences to challenge the group of boys. The behaviour support teacher was motivated and enthusiastic about using the new knowledge she had gained from the training course.

Three of the pupils, from one Primary 7 class, were the Primary 7 boys who were disaffected and who were the main focus of the Enterprise. Three teachers were asked to choose pupils who would act as role models for the three Primary 7 boys. Teachers chose pupils who were able to complete and catch up any missed work to attend the Enterprise Group rather than pupils who were well behaved but may struggle to keep up with missed class work.

Activities that pupils were involved in during the Enterprise Group were discussion and brainstorming sessions, making products to sell, sales activities and deciding how the proceeds of the sale should be used.

Initially, the Enterprise activity was intended to run for one term only but ended up running on a weekly basis for most of the school year. The main reason for this was that the leaders had not envisaged the Enterprise taking so long.

7.2.3 Buddy System

Context and Politics of Change

The Buddy System was part of a gradual process at this school of including pupils with SEN in mainstream schooling. The head teacher at the school had campaigned for and achieved the establishment of an SEN unit in the school. He suggested to the head of the SEN unit that a Buddy System might help pupils with SEN and mainstream pupils be further integrated.

The process of establishing an SEN unit in the school had been difficult. There had been opposition from some parents and teachers who had petitioned against it. When it was established, in addition to spending time in the SEN unit, pupils with SEN also spent part of the day with a mainstream class to which they belonged. Some pupils with SEN were moved classes two or three times before they were accepted as part of a class, due to opposition from parents and teachers.

Conception of the Need to Change

The head of the SEN unit and the head teacher of the school felt that it was necessary to integrate the children in the SEN unit and the children in mainstream classes. They believed that pupils in the SEN unit needed to feel part of the school and interact with their peers, and that children in the mainstream part of the school could be helped to interact with and learn about pupils with special educational needs.

Substance of Change

The Buddy System was an informal system which involved a number of pupils in Primary 7 buddying children in the SEN unit at lunch and break times. The head of the SEN unit assumed most responsibility for the Buddy System, providing information to buddies when they started buddying and arranging which children were buddied by whom. Auxiliaries in the SEN unit were involved in the Buddy System when the Primary 7 pupils were buddying a child for whom they were responsible. Primary 7 teachers were responsible for collecting consent forms and occasionally making buddying timetables.

Some factors that influenced the Buddy System were the interest of Primary 7 pupils and pupils with SEN in the Buddy System, the time that buddies had available, and the personality of the child with SEN.

The Buddy System would work well if many Primary 7 pupils volunteered to buddy and regularly interacted with the pupils with SEN. Primary 7 pupils could be involved in a variety of activities at break and lunch times which reduced the amount of time they could spend buddying. If a larger number of pupils were involved it meant that pupils in the SEN unit would have a buddy more frequently than if there were fewer buddies who also had prefect duties and attended these other activities.

The personality of the child with SEN also had an impact on the Buddy System. Some children were more popular than others, for a variety of reasons, and were taken out more frequently.

Transition and Operation of Change

The head of the SEN unit gave class talks to Primary 7 pupils telling them about the Buddy System she planned to set up. She told pupils that the purpose of the Buddy System was for the buddies to help pupils with SEN integrate with peers in their class. Consent letters were sent home with those children who expressed an interest in becoming buddies. After consent forms had been collected Primary 7 children spent an afternoon in the SEN unit meeting pupils and auxiliaries. Some buddies were given information about pupils with SEN that they were buddying, others weren't. This, in part, depended on the need of the child being buddied and the auxiliary.

Primary 7 pupils volunteered to buddy at break and lunchtimes when they would talk to and play with pupils with SEN and, in theory but not always in practice, help to integrate pupils with SEN with their class peers. Buddies and pupils with SEN would play playground games such as 'What's the Time Mr Wolf?' and other games such as skittles. Others would run around the playground together or walk and talk with the pupils whilst pushing them in their wheelchairs. Sometimes buddies would read books to or with the pupils with SEN.

The Buddy System continued in this way for the first couple of years, Primary 7 pupils being recruited at the beginning of the new school year in August and buddying at break and lunch times. The head of the SEN unit found that recruiting buddies at the beginning of the school year would leave the pupils in the SEN unit with no-one to play with while the consent forms were being collected and the system was being organised. Towards the end of the study, in order to establish continuity and ensure that the pupils in the SEN unit would have buddies at the beginning of the new year, the head of the SEN unit had made plans to involve Primary 6 pupils as buddies before the summer holiday period.

7.2.4 Conclusion

Each of the initiatives was a small scale change that did not involve significant changes to the day to day running of the school. The Craft Club was established in a newly opened school which had quickly developed a well-established ethos for positive personal and social development. The Enterprise Group was introduced in a school where the head teacher encouraged short-term initiatives to promote the development of pupils. The Buddy System was part of a process where senior management was trying to establish a positive and inclusive environment for pupils with SEN. Each initiative was supported by the head teacher.

For the Craft Club, the conception of a need to change was the vision of using an ordinary school club to help pupils. The club was established first according to the skills of the staff who would be running the initiative and the idea of helping pupils with personal and social difficulties was secondary. The conception of the need to introduce the Enterprise and Buddy System arose with the notion that an activity should be introduced to meet the needs of a specific group of pupils and the precise nature of the activity was later established.

The researcher participated in initiatives as a participant observer. It is not possible to say what influence this weekly attendance had. It may have increased the amount of time that leaders spent thinking about the initiatives, and therefore may have had an impact on the activities that were introduced. At the Craft Club, the researcher was treated as a helper as other teacher and staff helpers were, and viewed as such by the pupils, though pupils were aware that the researcher was not 'a teacher'. At the Enterprise Group, the researcher had more of an observational role though sat with and talked to the children during small group activities. At the Buddy System school, time was spent in the SEN unit and in the playground sometimes observing, sometimes playing alongside the buddies and pupils with SEN, at other times talking to auxiliaries while buddies and pupils with SEN played. Sometimes the researcher was a buddy for pupils with SEN.

7.3 Activity Theory and the Initiatives

In the next section of this chapter, participants' perceptions of the seven factors (object/purpose, subject, mediating artefacts and tools, relationships, school community and ethos, organisational features and outcomes) were used to understand how the initiatives functioned and to understand the perspectives of each subject group: pupils, staff and parents. Details of the participants involved in each group can be found in Chapter Six but to recap, pupils involved across initiatives were role models, buddies, pupils with SEN and pupils with social difficulties. Staff involved were initiative staff, class teachers of children involved and the head teacher/head of the SEN unit. A few parents across the range of pupils involved in the Craft Club and Buddy System participated in the study. No parents of pupils attending the Enterprise were involved.

7.3.1 Purpose of initiatives (Factor 1)

The Craft Club and Enterprise Group were set up as 'covert' personal and social development (PSD) initiatives, that is, pupils were never told the underlying reason for the initiatives. In the Craft Club and Enterprise initiatives, children who were role models were not aware of the PSD aims of the initiative but most pupils who had social difficulties or were disaffected suspected that they may be attending the group for social or behavioural reasons.

Eight pupils participated in the Craft Club. They suggested that they were chosen to attend the Craft Club to help make crafts for the Christmas Fair (1 pupil), because they were good at arts and crafts (1 pupil), to improve their art and craft skills (3 pupils), or they didn't know (3 pupils).

In addition, two of the four pupils with social difficulties alluded to the purpose of the Craft Club as a behaviour group. One pupil who suggested that he had been asked to attend the Craft Club to improve his arts and crafts skills gave a later response that indicated he may have felt there was a social behaviour dimension to the Craft Club. (Below, R is a pupil with social difficulties who attended the Craft Club.)

> *I'm trying desperately not to give them [classmates] my life story*
> *about how I got there. R was trying to be rude to me once and she*
> *said it's for people who are behaviourally challenged. That could*
> *be the whole reason she's there. I don't know really.* (Pupil with
> social difficulties, Craft Club)

The pupil, R, was open about her attendance at the Craft Club for what she saw as social reasons:

> *It can help me get on with people better in the classroom and I can*
> *get on with my family better. Sometimes at home we [R and her*
> *parents] used to fight a lot and now we don't really fight.* (Pupil
> with social difficulties, Craft Club)

All staff (7) and two of three parents were aware that the Craft Club aimed to help pupils who had problems interacting with their peers to develop social skills, and to help quiet Primary 7 pupils become more confident. Staff members described some of the personal and social skills, such as co-operation, turn-taking in conversation and listening skills, it was hoped pupil role models would promote.

> *It's more to enhance social skills. … Where we've got ones further*
> *down the school, and we haven't got too many at the moment.*
> *They're our ones that have specific problems that … need to come*
> *in and try and learn and be part of a group.* (Craft Club leader)

> *We're all aware of what we're looking for in terms of children*
> *being polite to each other, sharing with each other, of raising their*
> *self-esteem because, for many of these children, that is the*
> *problem. They have a low self-esteem therefore they behave*
> *inappropriately.* (Head teacher, Craft Club)

Similarly to pupils attending the Craft Club, pupils attending the Enterprise Group thought that the purpose of the group was to make things (6), sell things (1), or make money (1).   One child commented that it was *just like a job for kids*.

In contrast, the three disaffected pupils attending the Enterprise Group felt that they were part of the group for behaviour purposes. These pupils maintained that their class teacher had told them that they could not quit the Enterprise Group though other pupils could if they wished. This had led two of them to believe that they were attending the group for behaviour purposes.

> *I think it's just we're going there because they don't like us and then we're just going there for a behaviour group probably.* (Key pupil, Enterprise)

The other disaffected pupil felt that it was a punishment because he could not go to Golden Time activities scheduled at the same time.

> *I was looking for something that would challenge and occupy and divert a group of boys in Primary 7 who I would really say are disaffected.* (Head teacher, Enterprise)

It was hoped that a challenging activity would help the key pupils to understand that 'life was not a great party' that *there are structures, not only for school but for other things as well* (P7 teacher, Enterprise).

> *I hoped that it would maybe give the boys some kind of responsibility, some sort of notion that there was more to life than just causing havoc and maybe just switch them back on to education because one or two of them, by the time they reach Primary 7, they're kind of switched off primary school and they're needing something more challenging. So I just hoped it would give them a little bit more direction.* (Head teacher, Enterprise)

The class teacher of the key pupils hoped that being involved in the Enterprise would help the pupils become more co-operative.

> *I hoped that they would work more co-operatively in the group and obviously transfer that kind of skill, if they had acquired them, back into the classroom situation.* (P7 teacher, Enterprise)

One of the teachers with role models didn't have *any real expectations because this was specifically for other children.*

Two class teachers were not clear about the purpose of the group. One stated: *I didn't know anything about it because nobody discussed it with me* (Primary 6 teacher). The other teacher had been on a leave of absence when the Enterprise Group started but

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stated that she recognised some children with behavioural problems attended the group.

The Buddy System differed from the other two initiatives because its aims were not covert. The head of the SEN unit attempted to explain to buddies that the chief task of the buddies was to help pupils in the SEN unit build friendships with their class peers. Nine (of the 28) buddies understood this.

> *[Buddies] look after children in the base who need help. You help*
> *them to join in with their friends.* (Buddy)

Sixteen buddies felt that their role was to play with or be friends with the pupils with SEN, for example, so that they weren't lonely (2 pupils) or so they had something to do at break times (2 pupils). One buddy suggested that they played with the pupils with SEN to allow buddies 'get to know what they're like' (1 pupil). Another buddy said that the Buddy System also made sure that pupils with SEN didn't *go out of school or do bad stuff to people*. Other buddies suggested more generally that the Buddy System aimed to help pupils with SEN.

All but one of the adults (16 of 17) understood that the aim of the Buddy System was to help integrate the pupils in the SEN unit and the pupils in mainstream. Only three members of staff specifically mentioned that buddies were to help pupils with SEN integrate with their class peers. As with the buddies, some staff, including SEN auxiliaries, and parents felt it was the role of buddies to play with and help the pupils with SEN.

> *[A buddy is] meant to be a playground friend, with a helping hand,*
> *to give them entertainment, give them time and give them talking.*
> (Auxiliary, Buddy System)

Eleven staff and parents indicated that the buddy system also aimed to increase buddies' understanding of special needs.

> *I thought it sounded like a good idea because it's good to integrate*
> *the children from the special educational needs base with the other*

> *children and I thought it might help them understand a bit more*
> *about special needs.* (Parent of buddy)

There was some confusion about the role of the Buddy System. One parent of a pupil with SEN was concerned that it *may be a danger* if her son was to play with the buddies all the time because *he does need to relate more to his age peers.* Another parent of a buddy did not realise that the buddy system was aimed at pupils in the SEN unit.

> *I just presume the buddying system will offer the children who*
> *really have severe disabilities and not just the ones that are in the*
> *class that have slight learning problems, [such as] ADHD.* (Parent
> of buddy)

7.3.2 Subject group: Perceptions of pupils involved in initiatives (Factor 2)

This section gives an indication of the characteristics of pupils supported by initiatives and role models who attended initiatives. Pupils with social difficulties who were supported by the Craft Club were mainly perceived to have peer relationship difficulties (1 parent, 5 staff).

> *P doesn't have really severe behaviour problems as such. He's not*
> *difficult [or] aggressive. It's only in his peer relationships that he*
> *finds difficulty. He tries very hard with peer relationships and*
> *sometimes too hard which irritates his peers. And I think that the*
> *Craft Club is definitely a good thing for him to build on these*
> *skills.* (Behaviour Support Teacher, Craft Club)

In particular, some of the behaviours that staff were concerned about included poor sharing and negotiation skills, outbursts and excessive talking.

> *You can see that some of the children who are there for a reason*
> *tend to be quite volatile and just have outbursts if they're placed*
> *too near another child who has the same tendency, then you can*
> *see there's an immediate reaction.* (Craft Club leader)

One parent commented that her daughter, who had social difficulties, although she did draw attention to herself, did not like to be the centre of attention. She preferred to be in control of a situation.

> *She doesn't like being centre of attention. She doesn't like that at*
> *all. She doesn't always like a lot of praise but if she knows what*
> *she's doing, likes, teaching things. She likes to be in control.*
> (Parent of child with social difficulties, Craft Club)

In addition the 'core' pupils attending the Craft Club were perceived by two teachers to *crave adult attention* (P7 teacher/Craft Club helper).

It was believed that some of the role models attending the Craft Club, though very well behaved, were quiet and shy or lacking confidence (2 parents, 4 staff). Other role models were considered more popular and confident (3 staff).

> *A lot of the role models are chosen because they are exceptionally*
> *well mannered, very respectful of peers and adults but they're also*
> *perhaps very quiet children and they need that little bit more*
> *responsibility as it were, or to feel that they're valued, to build up*
> *their confidence.* (Craft Club leader)

One parent commented that if her child was asked to participate in an activity he would be pleased to join in but that he was unlikely to initiate involvement in the activity.

> *I think when you haven't confidence, he does tend to keep himself*
> *back. A lot of the time I think if he was asked to do things he'd be*
> *quite happy to do it but he'd never go, 'oh I'll do this, right away'.*
> (Parent of shy child/role model)

At the Enterprise Group, the three key pupils were chosen because they did not engage in class activities in a manner acceptable to staff. One pupil rushed through work, one didn't listen in class and the third only did things if and when he felt like doing so:

> *If it is the kind of thing that he has to think a little bit harder, he's*
> *not keen on that. If it's easy peasy, he can rush through it. He*
> *wants everything to be so that he can rush through so he can clown*
> *about because that's what he likes to do best.*
>
> *My other one, he doesn't listen to instructions anyway so half the*
> *time he wasn't listening to what was going on so he was always the*
> *cow's tail so to speak.*

> *And the other one is just very much on his own terms when he*
> *wants to do things. He can be so helpful. He's actually got quite a*
> *lot of knowledge but it's very much on his terms.*

<div align="right">(P7 teacher, Enterprise)</div>

The teacher of these three pupils chose them from eight pupils in her class who had behavioural difficulties because she thought they would be able to work together.

Role models involved in the Enterprise Group were chosen because they would be willing to contribute to the group and would be able to catch up with any class work they missed.

> *I was looking for sensible, well-behaved children but also children*
> *who would be willing to contribute to discussion because I have*
> *children in the class who would be very well-behaved, sensible*
> *children but would not have many ideas. They wouldn't*
> *necessarily have the ability to manage to do that sort of thing.* (P7
> teacher, Enterprise)

In addition however one teacher chose a role model from her class who did have behaviour issues. She felt the Enterprise Group might offer him a challenge.

> *One of mine who does have behaviour issues, it's usually because*
> *he's bored. He's quite a bright kid and this I thought would be*
> *great for him. That's why I picked him because it would stretch*
> *him. Give him a bit of a challenge.* (P6 teacher, Enterprise)

Children who were buddied, pupils with SEN, had different characteristics. Some pupils were generally *sociable* and *affectionate* (1 parent, 4 staff). Other pupils could at times be *very strong-minded, very wilful and very stubborn* and not *able to cope quite so well socially with their own age group* (Parents of pupils with SEN). One or two of the pupils with SEN were described as shy. Another was thought, at times, to be quite rude if she didn't get her own way. One pupil was able to *form very strong friendships, [was] very loyal, never lacked problems talking with older people [though he did] lack confidence with his own age group a bit.* This little boy related *particularly well to the girls who want to mother him. He's not averse to being mothered* (Parent of pupil with SEN). An auxiliary commented that regardless of

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their characteristics the children in the SEN unit were *responsive to the other children [buddies] that came in*.

Staff (5) and parents (6) commented that children who volunteered to become buddies were caring individuals who liked younger children and liked the idea of being helpful and thinking about others: *she likes to mother, naturally sympathetic*. Female buddies were often, but not always, described as mothering, for example, *she's a bit of a mother hen* (Parent of buddy). Some SEN staff felt quite strongly that this was a negative characteristic (*it's not necessarily the best quality*) while others saw it as a positive characteristic.

> *It was mainly girls last year and there was a lot of the mothering instinct in them and they were lovely girls. Very happy. Very caring. I think as a group they liked to work together to help the buddies [pupils with SEN] and there was a lot of confident children in that group and children who could take charge and take control and enthuse others.* (Head of SEN unit)

Buddies differed in all other respects. Some buddies were thought to be mature and responsible. Others were thought to be less mature. One or two were described as having social problems of their own or lacking in confidence. Some buddies were described as 'the quiet ones'. One Primary 7 teacher noted that, in her class, it was *by and large the quieter children who put forward their names that they would be happy to do the job*. Others were thought to be 'confident, sociable pupils'. Particularly in previous years buddies had been *louder and noisier and more enthusiastic and came in such a lot* (Head of SEN unit). Sometimes leaders emerged among the buddies and other times there were *no real leaders taking charge of [the Buddy System]* (Head of SEN unit).

7.3.3 Mediating artefacts and tools (Factor 3)

A mediating artefact or tool is used during 'tool mediation' and is a social phenomena (though this is debated by some activity theorists) or physical object that is used by individuals and which determines the function of the activity. For example, language is a tool for conversation. (For a definition of mediating artefacts and tool mediation

see Chapter 3, p33-34.) In this thesis mediating artefacts are also referred to as 'strategies' as this reflects more common language use.

At each of the initiatives interaction with other pupils was the main mediating artefact intended to enhance pupils' personal and social development. Various levels of deep and surface interaction exist and these were utilised to different degrees by initiative leaders. At the Craft Club, interaction among pupils was intended to provide guidance to pupils with social problems about good behaviour. Deeper relationships were not were not a key concern. At the Enterprise Group the initiative leader wished to encourage team interaction and group cohesion. She wished to develop a strong group identity. Initiative leaders at the Buddy System were clear that the interaction they wished to develop was 'deep, meaningful' friendship relationships among pupils with SEN and their class peers. A range of strategies were used by initiative leaders to try to manipulate the desired interactions. These strategies were varied and included pupil characteristics, teaching style, group size and the atmosphere of the group.

At the Craft Club leaders aimed to facilitate peer interaction by creating a social balance of children involved in the group, that is, a balance of socially competent pupils and pupils with social difficulties. The head teacher, class teacher and initiative leaders discussed who would benefit from attending the group and who would bring strengths to the group *in terms of mainly personality but some children do have a lot of artistic skills as well* (P7 teacher, Craft Club). It also included maintaining a gender balance to prevent boys being teased.

> *The problem we have is getting boys to want to take part in it.*
> *They want to go out and play football. They don't see the point of*
> *this sitting knitting and sewing in a circle. What you do in the first*
> *term is you get the ones with the street cred to be role models and*
> *[the other boys say] 'I quite fancy going.'* (Craft Club leader)

At the Craft Club it was hoped that positive role model behaviour would encourage pupils supported by the initiatives to behave in a similar fashion.

> *The [role models'] social skills are usually very good and*
> *hopefully they take the lead in the way that the Craft Club runs. So*

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> *there's no heated arguments about anything. They're very calm*
> *and they'll say please and thank you as they pass things round the*
> *table, as the staff do. It's all social skills training.*
> (Helper/Behaviour Support Teacher, Craft Club)

In addition, the two Craft Club leaders referred to the ability of confident role models to boost the self-esteem of quiet pupils and pupils with social difficulties.

> *[Role model] was very, very confident and J wasn't but there was*
> *one thing that J was able to do and I think it boosted J's confidence*
> *that [role model] was actually looking at what she was doing.*
> (Craft Club leader)

The Craft Club leaders also thought that interacting with others could raise role models' awareness of the importance of involving others.

> *It makes [role model] realise, hang on a minute, other folk need to*
> *have a say here too. So she was modelling the good behaviour, but*
> *at the same time it can work in the reverse.* (Craft Club leader)

The two leaders of the Craft Club thought that art and craft activities provided a useful means for promoting interaction and conversation.

> *I've always thought that craft is a good medium to start off some*
> *kind of conversation. A lot of children are very shy and they won't*
> *open out, eye to eye. They just won't give you that eye contact.*
> *But if they've got their hands busy and they're creating something*
> *then their mind just lets their voice ramble on.* (Craft Club leader)

Parents commented that the activities offered at the Craft Club affected their child's enthusiasm for and willingness to attend the Craft Club. One initiative leader had informed a parent that her daughter had been *first there today, all ready to go* and the parent thought this was *because they were doing paper making and it obviously really got her attention so she really enjoyed it* (Parent of child with social difficulties).

Adult interaction, small group size and an informal environment were thought to help pupils with social difficulties and pupils who were shy to relax and engage in conversation.

*Quite often, with P especially, it's to just sit him down and chat in
a normal manner because he just goes off at all different tangents.
And just to realise that this is quite relaxed, there's no competition
and you don't have to do anything perfectly ... none of us are
experts. We are trying to work on their social skills which is why
we're trying not to make it too 'teachery'.* (Craft Club leader)

Three of the pupils with social difficulties recognised that the informal atmosphere at
the Craft Club allowed people to interact and meet new people.

*Most of the time we're not allowed to talk in the classroom. And
most of the time, even if you are allowed to talk, you have to
whisper about the work. Craft Club helps people mix with other
people, get to know them and have friendly chats.* (Pupil with
social difficulties)

The charitable nature of the Craft Club was used to help promote self-esteem and
thinking of others. Staff (4), pupils (6) and parents (3) thought that making and
selling items to raise money for charity was a valuable experience for the pupils,
especially when they were able to meet someone from the charity. The children were
involved in choosing a charity to receive the donation and they 'particularly liked'
giving money to charity (6 pupils).

*I think they love to think they're helping others. And it's not just
sending money away and getting a wee letter back. When the lady
came in with the guide dog, she was so good with them and they
loved that attention. They really felt they'd helped. It was in the
paper. That was a real boost.* (Craft Club helper/Behaviour
Support teacher)

Some pupils were also involved in the sale of arts and crafts at the school fair. One
member of staff thought that being involved in the business side of the Craft Club
gave pupils a sense of responsibility and *a sense of ownership of their own work* (P7
teacher/Craft Club helper). One of the leaders commented that it made the pupils feel
good that other people wanted to buy the things that they had made.

Two pupils however did not have a clear understanding of all aspects of the charity
work. One child did not understand that money raised by the Craft Club sale was
donated to charity.

> *I think Craft Club's a good idea. To raise money for the school.*
> (Role model, shy pupil)

Another pupil was not clear why the group was visited by a lady from the Guide Dogs for the Blind Association, the charity to which money was donated one year. He felt there was no link between the lady and arts and crafts activities.

> *I: So why did the lady with the guide dog come in?*
> *C:* I don't know. I'm not sure.
>
> *I: Is it not about, to do with charity?*
> C: Yeah. I think. It was to do with charity. She came in for
> charity and we gave her a lot of money but I'm not sure if she was,
> well, she couldn't obviously make things because she was blind
> and it's a shame but I don't think, I don't really know why she came
> in. I can't remember Mrs M saying she was arty or anything like
> that, that we do at the Craft Club.
> (Role model, shy pupil)

Other strategies that were used at the Craft Club included praise, showing the items made at Craft Club to other classes or peers, and manipulation of seating arrangements. On occasion leaders would observe role models manipulating seating arrangements too.

> *The older and more mature ones will try and quieten the situation*
> *down a bit and will maybe try to reason with the child or intervene*
> *in that they'll go across and ask the child to help.*
>
> *In the seating arrangements, if you watch, very subtly the seating*
> *arrangements alter because the older ones feel that they've got to*
> *get involved and try and settle this dispute or quieten things down.*
> (Craft Club leader)

At times however the leaders felt they had to decide whether it was better to encourage pupils to attend the Craft Club or whether it would be better to leave pupils playing outside.

> *The trouble with R is sometimes it's better for her to be outside*
> *because if she's in a group playing that's actually just as good for*
> *her.*

> *If she hasn't been behaving well in class, if she's really just been*
> *disturbing in class, we would try and get her in that week because*
> *we would want her to sit down and try and do this. You find if*
> *she's having a bad time in class, she doesn't want to come to craft*
> *group.* (Craft Club leader)

At the Enterprise Group a number of similar methods were used to promote personal and social development. The main methods included offering a range of teamwork and group interaction activities that were designed to help develop personal, social and thinking skills. Initially teamwork activities focused on building positive relationships within the group, particularly between the disaffected pupils and role models. It was hoped that the range of activities would be interesting and challenging for the disaffected pupils and encourage them to engage with the group rather than misbehave or not participate. During small group activities the three key pupils were *split between the three groups so that they weren't working together* (Enterprise Leader).

> *She [initiative leader] did a lot of team work at the beginning to let*
> *them see that they could all work together without the [key pupils]*
> *seeing the others as goody goodies.* (Enterprise assistant)

Pupils were involved in six of eight activities. The eight activities were applying for a job, brainstorming and group discussions, using computers to make logos, choosing and ordering materials, making products, advertising, selling products and entering an Enterprise competition.

Two pupils, one a key pupil, understood that the activities were put in place to encourage pupils to work together.

> *[The Enterprise leader] put us into a team to test if we could do*
> *good teamwork. We had to make a flowerbox with three people in*
> *each team and see if we made it good by working together.* (Role*
> *model, Enterprise)

The Enterprise leaders felt that a considerable proportion of their time was *taken up with children learning to listen to one another [because they] don't normally mix out with this group* (Enterprise Assistant).

Other methods included creating an informal environment and the use of role models. These were carried out slightly differently in the Enterprise Group than in the Craft Club. To create an informal environment the two leaders used a humorous teaching style.

> *They were getting to know that I do use humour a lot but that there is a line that they can't step over, and that I'm quite clear about where the line is that you can't step over.* (Enterprise Leader)

In the groups the leaders tried to make it a bit different than class by allowing increased noise levels.

> *I think because it was a behaviour group it was probably at a noisier level than I would have accepted from a class, being a teacher in my class.* (Enterprise leader)

The role model idea was also used slightly differently in the Enterprise Group than in the Craft Club. The Enterprise leader told all pupils, including the three key pupils, that they were role models, that they had been chosen because they were able pupils and could be relied upon to work hard.

> *I think the role model idea is fantastic because you're giving them confidence by saying to them we think enough of you to choose you as a role model. We are expecting big things from you because we know you're capable.* (Enterprise Leader)

A final strategy used by the Enterprise Group leaders was to ignore, and encourage other pupils to ignore, pupils who were being disruptive.

> *[Key pupil] was rolling about on the floor, so we just did the ignoring bit and eventually he came round to sitting in the chair.* (Enterprise Leader)

One pupil commented that ignoring other pupils had limited success. This child was not one of the three disaffected pupils but had been identified by his teacher as engaging in poor behaviour at times. He sometimes became involved in the undesirable behaviour.

> *People tried to ignore them but they were going on too much.*
> (Pupil, Enterprise)

The Enterprise leader had found it difficult to balance the personal and social requirements of the group with a successful Enterprise project. Two class teachers thought an Enterprise selling things was not an ideal situation for a behaviour group. One of the teachers suggested a community based Enterprise such as cleaning up would have been better.

As with the Craft Club and Enterprise Group, the Buddy System aimed to promote personal and social development by encouraging pupils to interact. The main method advocated by the head of the SEN unit was for the buddies to help pupils with SEN play with their class peers. Eight of the buddies and three parents commented that buddies managed to make sure that pupils with SEN had friends to play with, or if not, buddies played with the pupils themselves. Buddies would 'go off and find' classmates of pupils with SEN if the pupils were not already playing with their peers.

> *We try to help them get in with other friends and try and play with*
> *them to get used to other people. We normally play with other*
> *people but sometimes we don't.* (Buddy)

One buddy saw his role as checking how the pupil he buddied was getting on.

> *He'll usually be playing football with his friends, so I'll go and see*
> *him to see how he's getting on and if anything's happening I'll stay*
> *but then I'll just go because all his friends can help because*
> *they're older than the others so that's quite fun because I can just*
> *speak to them.* (Buddy)

Many buddies (18) and parents (8) spoke about playing games and talking to pupils with SEN, rather than helping pupils interact with their peers . They played football, skittles, What's the time Mr Wolf?, hide and seek and similar games, and spoke about common interests. Buddies also thought it was helpful to walk around the playground with pupils (2), help out with snacks (3), and sit with pupils at lunch (2). One buddy helped the pupil he buddied with class work.

> *I can help him with some of his work. I can help him draw*
> *pictures, read a book, some of his numbers. Things like that.*
> (Buddy)

With the exception of one parent, who thought that it was possibly too much for a Primary 7 to have responsibility for her daughter, parents thought their children enjoyed these activities and that pupils learnt about one another.

> *His favourite buddies, he's a great reader and I think he swaps*
> *suggestions for books and what the buddies have enjoyed or what*
> *he would enjoy. He'll say 'so and so's read this'. So I think that's*
> *the kind of things he discusses with them, or films or things they*
> *like doing.* (Parent of pupil with SEN)

A few staff members (3) and two pupils felt that the Buddy System was a role model system through which buddies could provide examples of good behaviour, or as one auxiliary commented; *guidance by peers.*

An additional strategy that one auxiliary used to encourage relationships to build between buddies and pupils with SEN was to *back off so that you're not in the way, as it were, of the friendship that will develop.*

7.3.4 Relationships (Factor 4)
The key relationships of interest to initiative leaders were pupils' relationships with each other and to a lesser extent pupils' relationships with initiative leaders. Most pupils were reluctant to talk in much detail about relationships, particularly relationships with initiative leaders.

At the Craft Club six pupils, including all of the pupils with social difficulties, thought that relationships among pupils were fairly good.

> *I think people in the Craft Club get on really well.* (Pupil with
> social difficulties)

The three pupils with social difficulties mentioned that there were occasions when they didn't get on with others.

> *Some people you don't really get on with and they shout at you.*
> (Pupil with social difficulties)

One pupil thought the leaders were very helpful, which is likely to indicate positive relationships.

> *The [leaders] like it and they enjoy it and they're very helpful. If you're stuck with something they'll help.* (Role model, confident)

Parents of children attending the Craft Club school felt they could not comment on their children's relationships with others in the Craft Club.

At the Enterprise Group eight pupils felt that the group got along well. Six of these pupils commented that everyone got on well with each other except the key pupils, and occasionally other pupils, when they disrupted the group.

> *Some people were capering but eventually they got on with each other all the time but sometimes they were just having a laugh.*
> (Pupil, Enterprise)

One key pupil didn't like being teased by some of the other pupils in the Enterprise Group which may indicate that he had poorer relationships with them.
Pupils often mentioned that they got on with each other better at the end of the Enterprise than at the beginning (5 pupils).

> *They all know each other [now] and they're not embarrassed to speak in front of each other.* (Key pupil, Enterprise)

The Enterprise leaders and the head teacher also thought that the children had developed good relationships with each other, worked well together and had *got on a lot better towards the end* with each other and with Enterprise staff (Enterprise assistant).

The Enterprise leader was pleased that the children had got on so well but thought that the key pupils may have found it difficult at first.

> *They were in teams for that and they seemed to actually get on
> extremely well. There wasn't any bickering and arguing but I
> think they were just finding their way within the group. And I think
> the three target boys found it quite difficult to begin with because
> they were trying to find their place in the group because that's the
> type of characters they are, they need to know their place within
> the group.* (Enterprise leader)

The three key pupils spoke of their relationship with the leaders of the Enterprise.
Two thought that they sometimes did and sometimes didn't get on with the leaders:
we had our good times we did. And we had our bad. They felt the leaders moaned at
them and were moody. The relationship was affected because the key pupils felt they
were unfairly blamed for things that they never did.

> *Like getting the blame for something you never done. Like good
> people had done something bad for a change, we got the blame.*
> (Key pupil, Enterprise)

A comment by one of the other pupils indicated they may have had better
relationships with the leaders.

> *I liked doing it because I was with [the Enterprise leader].* (Pupil,
> Enterprise)

Overall the Enterprise leader was positive about the relationships that she had
developed with the children.

> *I just have a huge positive feeling about the whole experience with
> the children. Got a lot closer to them, got an insight into what
> their thoughts are on school, Enterprises, on everything and built
> up good relationships with them.* (Enterprise Leader)

Most of the buddies (25 of 28) and the four pupils with SEN spoke of positive
relationships.

> *I get on quite well with him. He often says hello to me in the
> corridors. He's quite a cheery person really and he always is
> laughing when he's on his bike. So I quite enjoy being with him
> because he's fun.* (Buddy)

One pupil with SEN stated that she got on well with her buddies and with one buddy in particular. She liked having different buddies, enjoying it when they swap around. She commented that if she didn't have buddies she would *go outside with the auxiliaries but they don't play, they chat and walk around and it's more interesting with the buddies.*

Most staff and parents (12) commented on positive relationships between the buddies and children from the SEN unit: *he does form very strong friendships with the buddies* (Parent of pupil with SEN).

> *He likes it. He likes having buddies. And he's such a sociable, affectionate child that I think the buddies really like having him as buddies. … I think he just likes having another friend. I think he's still young enough and naïve … he just sees it as another friend.*
> (Parent of child with SEN)

Three pupils reported that they had reasonable relationships with the pupils they buddied.

> *I do get along with her. She can overreact a bit and she can be a bit naughty. … She can have her happy moods and bad moods. Sometimes K says, 'I don't want you to be my buddy. I don't like you anymore', and sometimes she says 'I love you, I love you', and gives me a hug. When she says I don't want to be your buddy anymore I know she doesn't really mean it. She's just probably having a bad day and I know she doesn't really love me. She's just very happy.* (Buddy)

As one parent and one member of staff commented that the strength of the relationship between pupils sometimes differed.

> *She was saying it'd taken a bit more time with W. He's fantastic but she doesn't feel she's got as much interaction as she has with the other boy [that she buddies] but she still feels a kinship to him as well. But, she says, you've just got to be a wee bit more patient because he'll come around in his own time.* (Parent of buddy)

Seven of the buddies thought that even though they had developed good relationships the pupils they buddied could be difficult at times and they found it hard to buddy at these times.

> *Sometimes when my buddy screams and shouts then it gets a bit*
> *annoying.*
>
> (Buddy)

On occasion relationships could be poor (3 staff, 1 pupil). One pupil, who got on well with the child she was buddying at the time of the study, had previously buddied a pupil with whom she did not get along.

> *Sometimes I find it difficult to work with J. I don't really get to do*
> *her because I don't really get along with her. She gets along with*
> *some of the other people but she's quite difficult to work with.*
> (Buddy)

One pupil with autism wasn't thought to gain much from being involved in the Buddy System.

> I: *What do you think W gets out of the buddy relationship?*
> A: *Not a lot but he doesn't resent her. With some of the others,*
> *you know, he'll walk away.* (Auxiliary)

One buddy tried not to build too close a relationship with pupils with SEN in order that they didn't get upset when she could no longer a buddy.

> *I get on well with her. She says hello and gives me hugs but I*
> *think, I'm not being mean, but I don't always want her to do that*
> *because then she'll get upset when we move up [to high school]*
> *and I'm not there to buddy her. I think it's better to get her to mix*
> *with her own class than me coming up to her all the time.* (Buddy)

There were some examples that occasionally a buddying relationship could affect a buddy's relationship with other friends.

> *She loves him. And I think there was a time when her friends were*
> *saying that she liked R more than them and they were getting*
> *really upset that she spent so much time at the base.* (Parent of
> buddy)

Relationships between buddies and auxiliaries varied. Some auxiliaries felt that they had developed good relationships with buddies and buddies were able to ask the auxiliary questions about the children's needs.

*They've asked what's wrong, what's happened to him and they
often ask what he likes but they ask him as well but they just sit and
yap sometimes and it's just fine to sit and listen to them. They're
quite chatty little girls. They're quite open.* (Auxiliary)

Two auxiliaries were concerned that buddies did not interact *as much as they should* with auxiliaries, but on the other hand, felt they didn't *have any time to pass on information*. One of these auxiliaries thought that sometimes the buddies did not know who the auxiliaries of the children they buddied were:

*I sometimes think that the [buddies] are not very sure who the
auxiliary is for the child. Sometimes I think they take the child out
and I would say to them, 'you mustn't be outside with him on your
own. You need to make sure that the auxiliary is there, knows
where you are and is outside with you'. I have been asked who's
the auxiliary for such and such. I think they should be introduced:
this is the auxiliary for E, this is the auxiliary for whoever.*
(Auxiliary)

7.3.5 Organisational features (Factor 5)

A number of organisational features influenced the operation of initiatives: pupil attendance, number of pupils, timing of initiative, pupil input, training/guidance and communication. These organisational features are features of initiatives and not necessarily of the wider school environment.

Attendance

At the Craft Club and the Enterprise Group initiatives children were chosen by staff to attend the initiatives. Children attending the Enterprise Group remained the same for the duration of the project. At the Craft Club leaders would change the role models at Easter or Christmas time because many Primary 7 pupils showed an interest in joining the club. Pupils with social difficulties remained at the Craft Club throughout the year.

*It's just trying to keep the dynamic of the group right and if you're
half way through a term and you've got another six that are asking
to join, we might say right we'll swap over next week.* (Craft Club
leader)

Two pupils with social difficulties attending the Craft Club indicated that they were unhappy to attend the Craft Club each week and had once or twice tried to 'quit' the Craft Club. One pupil felt she had come to a compromise with the leaders and only attended if she was needed by the leaders to help.

> *I used to go all the time. I could still go all the time but sometimes it's just if [the leader] needs me.* (Pupil with social difficulties)

Another pupil with social difficulties did not feel pressured to stay at the Craft Club and had not tried to quit.

Initiative leaders encouraged the children with social difficulties to attend regularly but would not have encouraged the role model pupils to the same extent if they hadn't wanted to go (which they hadn't known to happen).

> *For the role model ones, if they didn't want to do it, fine. It's fine, if they've really got a problem coming in to do it. … I would say the ones who we are trying to help we do try to make them come but at the same time we don't want it to seem like a punishment.*
> (Craft Club leader)

One parent and a class teacher appreciated the informal strategy used to encourage pupils with social difficulties to attend the Craft Club. They felt pupils would gain little if they were forced to attend.

> *I think it's a really good idea. I believe it is quite informal and I don't think they are pressurised to attend. She's not forced to go as such, which wouldn't have a very good effect on her.* (Parent of child with social difficulties)

At the Craft Club it was sometimes difficult to get the children to come in at lunchtime. The teachers had to walk around the playground encouraging them to come in and sometimes they didn't want to.

Similarly at the Enterprise Group only disaffected pupils spoke about quitting. The three pupils explained that their teacher had told them they were not allowed to quit though any of the other pupils could if they wished.

C: We're not allowed to quit but other people were.

I: *How do you know that?*
C: Because we asked and the teacher said if we, D, K and I, quit then we'll all be put out of our class.

I: *Are you sure the other people were [allowed to quit]?*
C: Yeah, because they're more mature. Our teacher said.

<div align="right">(Key Pupil)</div>

This led the boys to believe that they were attending a behaviour group. Other pupils in the group did not mention that they would like to stop going to the Enterprise but there had been a period of a few weeks when most children did not attend the group. One initiative leader attributed this to the teachers not allowing them to attend. The other thought it was because they had started going to Golden Time activities instead.

> *It happened really because they were having the option of whether they could go baking and to fun art things with making masks. They'd missed Golden Time for a whole term and there was us running into a second term that they were going to miss Golden Time. It wasn't fair for them because they behave themselves all week and they should get to go and do something fun. So I think that's why they kind of drifted for a wee bit.*

<div align="right">(Enterprise leader)</div>

Pupils were later encouraged back to the group on the promise of more exciting activities.

'Attendance' or involvement in the Buddy System was different than at the other two initiatives. Primary 7 children volunteered to become buddies and although they indicated times when they were able to buddy, Primary 7 pupils were not obliged to come along at those times. This meant that the number of buddies available varied considerably from day to day.

Pupils with SEN became involved in the Buddy System following an informal assessment by the head of the SEN unit including observations and discussions with pupils. Pupils with SEN indicated either verbally or through their behaviour how they felt about the Buddy System or their buddies.

> *She was allocated a buddy like everybody else. Buddy was quite*
> *[good] but she just didn't like having somebody tagged on. It*
> *wasn't of her choice and she just spit at her and was horrible to*
> *her. Although [the buddy] didn't fluster too much J doesn't have a*
> *buddy now.* (Auxiliary)

A number of staff and parents spoke of the haphazard nature of buddying (4 parents, 4 staff). Informal observations were in accord with this, that buddying could be quite haphazard.

> *I've seen a few in the past but I haven't seen anybody for ages*
> *now.* (Auxiliary)

By contrast, one parent of a pupil with SEN seemed to think buddying occurred more frequently: *everyday I think*. This did however vary from year to year. During the previous year many buddies had turned up each break time and lunch time.

A problem thought to contribute to infrequent buddying was commitment to additional activities. The buddies being in Primary 7 also *[had] prefect duty, they have Kids in Condition and they also help with the Buddy System. So quite often they have no actual break for themselves* (SEN staff). Pupils with SEN would have speech therapy or physiotherapy sessions during break or lunchtimes and buddies, not being aware, would wait around for pupils in the SEN unit.

> *I think if the buddy was more aware that sometimes the children*
> *have things on at lunchtime or knew exactly if the child was going*
> *out or if the child was here. Sometimes the buddy will hang about*
> *wasting their lunchtime and they say well, he's not going out today*
> *or he's at the doctor.*   (SEN staff)

Staff (3), parents (1) and pupils (1) thought that involving more pupils may address this issue.

> *Maybe even involving P6 and P7, because they don't have buddies*
> *all the time, so maybe if we had more children doing it then you*
> *could have a buddy every lunchtime or every break time.* (Parent
> auxiliary)

Group Size

A fixed number of children were involved in the Craft Club and Enterprise Group. Eight pupils were involved in the Craft Club and 12 in the Enterprise Group. Two members of staff thought the size of the group at the Craft Club was ideal because it gave the opportunity for *plenty of interaction for social skills* (Primary 5 teacher, Craft Club) and it felt like a *small select group*, where in a bigger group there wouldn't be *the chance to praise every single child's piece of work* (Craft Club leader).

Few comments were made about the numbers involved in the Enterprise Group. One key pupil thought that there were a few too many people involved which made it confusing. One teacher thought that more children should have been involved in the Enterprise in order that more pupils could benefit from learning new skills.

The number of buddies per pupil with SEN at any one time was limited (though not strictly) to one or two. Buddies (8) found that with two people it was easier to deal with the child if there were problems. Some buddies (4) found that buddying individually helped them to develop a closer relationship with the child they were buddying.

> *I think being buddies in pairs helps you feel more secure in case*
> *they do anything wrong though it's as much fun being a buddy on*
> *your own because you can get closer to the children in a way that*
> *you can build up a friendship.*   (Buddy)

Time of Initiative

The Craft Club was held during the lunch hour and this was thought by most pupils (7) to be quite inconvenient as it interrupted their play. One pupil said that despite the interruption he did like to go to the Craft Club.

> C: Sometimes if I'm playing a game or something it's annoying
> when I have to come in.
> I: *And if you don't want to come to the Craft Club can you sort of*
> *not come?*
> C: Yeah you can, but I do like to come. (Role model, shy)

Two pupils thought it was good that it gave them something to do at lunchtimes when they were bored. Staff (2) and one pupil recognised the appeal of being inside when other pupils were outside in inclement weather.

> *I think on a cold kind of a day maybe there's an incentive of being*
> *in while others are out.* (P7 teacher/Craft Club helper)

The head teacher thought that the Craft Club was a 'good model' because it didn't *eat into teaching* time. She felt that teachers could sometimes be sceptical about interruptions caused by groups like the Craft Club. In contrast, two members of staff thought it might be good to hold the Craft Club during teaching time because it was rushed at lunchtime, although they commented that it would be difficult to fit more into the curriculum. Parents (2) and staff (4) thought it was very good of the Craft Club leaders to give up their free time.

> *It's the actual fact that someone, in their own time, was going to*
> *do that at a lunchtime. It's the teachers' time and they give it up.*
> (Parent of shy child, Craft Club)

At the Enterprise Group four pupils stated that they would have preferred the Enterprise Group to be held at a different time, not during Golden Time. Three other pupils were annoyed at first about missing Golden Time but later weren't bothered when they *started making things* and the Enterprise became more interesting. Teachers (4) felt it was unfortunate that pupils had to miss Golden Time to attend the Enterprise.

Very few comments were made about the time of the Buddy System, though four buddies sometimes found the Buddy System difficult if they wished to play with their friends but were scheduled to buddy that day.

Pupil Participation

The initiatives and activities were largely organised by initiative leaders. At the Craft Club, initiative leaders decided which arts and crafts pupils would carry out. Pupils would occasionally be able to choose one of two tasks and they were involved in

decision making about the charity to which money should be donated. Only one direct comment was made about this by a parent who suggested that pupils may benefit from being allowed greater choice and involvement in the activities carried out.

Three members of staff suggested that the Craft Club would provide a good opportunity for an Enterprise activity, perhaps indicating that they thought children would benefit from increased participation and being responsible for the running and organisation of the project. One of the leaders of the Craft Club was concerned that in so doing the group may be *blown out of proportion, that maybe there's a place for an Enterprise group as well for another reason within the school.* (Craft Club leader)

The following year, following completion of the study, the Craft Club was given an Enterprise element. One Primary 7 teacher commented that it was *helping really how it's perceived because children do see that it's something quite exciting. It's viewed in a very positive way by the children and certainly by the staff* (P6/7 teacher).

At the Enterprise school one class teacher who had experience of running Enterprises, commented that the children were supposed to make all the decisions themselves but thought that this hadn't happened in the Enterprise Group because this was the first time the initiative leaders had used the resource. One of the leaders also commented that if they had had more time in the week, not just one hour at a time, the pupils *would have had a lot more opportunity to make decisions themselves.* Two pupils, one a key pupil, thought that the adults made too many of the decisions when the pupils could have made them.

> C: The people were kind of running it and the kids were meant to
> be doing it.
> I: *What would you like to have done?*
> C*:* Just the kids do a bit more because the adults were doing most
> of the stuff.   (Pupil, Enterprise)

For the Enterprise Group pupils' participation in activities, if not in decision making, was crucial to its success. Pupils started *taking it serious*, when they began to participate in practical activities rather than discussions alone.

The key pupils felt that they hadn't been allowed to participate in many of the Enterprise activities. Two commented that it wasn't fair that only one of the key pupils was allowed to sell the products and neither he nor the other key pupil had been allowed to do this. They said this despite only two of the 12 pupils in the group being chosen to sell the products around the school.

> *I: You sold the eggs didn't you?*
> C: No. It was D because he always gets to do everything. Because when D said sorry and D got picked everyday, me and K just had to finish our work.
> *I: Maybe it was because you two had done some other stuff.*
> C: No we didn't. We only made two eggs each and two key rings and D got to make the most and he got to go away after a break to help them. And we just got to stay in our class.
>
> <div align="right">(Key pupil, Enterprise)</div>

This belief that they hadn't participated in activities continued in relation to working on the computers …

> C1: I didn't get to do that.
> C2: I never got to do one.
> *I: You were in the computer room because I was helping you do the computers.*
> C1: I wasn't.
> C2: I know. I never got to do one because nobody was giving me any help.
>
> <div align="right">(Key pupils, Enterprise)</div>

… and testing the products …

> *I wasn't allowed and the teacher said that I'd done something and I didn't.* (Key pupil, Enterprise)

… and activities in general:

> I: *What kind of things did you do for the Enterprise?*
> C: Don't know.
> I: *Did you make any of the key rings?*
> C: No.
> I: *Did you make any of the eggs?*

C: No.
I: *Did you do any phone calls?*
C: No.
I: *Did you do any talking?*
C: Yeah.
I: *What did you talk about?*
C: Can't remember.

(Key pupil, Enterprise)

They didn't like to talk about what they had done. Though it could be teased, somewhat unwillingly, out of them.

I: *So what was your job? You were an accountant?*
C: Yeah. Something.
I: *What did you have to do for that?*
C: Don't know.
I: *You were on the phone, weren't you?*
C: Yeah. Once.
I: *Who did you phone?*
C: Mr Clock or something. I don't know what his name is.
I: *What were you phoning him for?*
C: Bank account.
I: *Right and did you get it?*
C: Yeah.

(Key pupil, Enterprise)

Sometimes the key pupils had participated in the activities and downplayed their involvement in the activities. Other times they were accurate and had not been allowed to participate in activities.

In the Buddy System, apart from the initial organising of buddying timetables which class teachers helped with, buddies were largely responsible for their involvement in the Buddy System. Buddies chose whether to buddy or not. They and the pupils with SEN chose games and activities that they played during break and lunch times.

Pupils with SEN were less actively involved as they depended on buddies to turn up. It was also thought by two auxiliaries that children with SEN did not have any say about their involvement in the Buddy System or who their buddies were.

I don't think they're asked if they want a buddy. I'm assuming they would all say yes but maybe we should ask them, would they like a

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> *boy, would they like a girl. Maybe there should be more*
> *consideration just to make them feel more involved in it.* (Parent
> auxiliary)

Staff Participation

In the Craft Club and Enterprise Group, initiative leaders were the main staff involved. Staff who helped out at the Craft Club did not run any sessions or choose any craft activities. No other staff members participated in the Enterprise Group. In the Buddy System auxiliaries who looked after pupils with SEN stated that they had two main roles in relation to the Buddy System. One role was to provide guidance to the buddies and the other role was to encourage buddies to interact and play with pupils from the SEN unit.

Two forms of guidance were provided. Auxiliaries provided buddies with information regarding the aims of the buddy system and about the needs of pupils with SEN. They also provided functional information about activities the buddies may need to carry out, for example, helping to open snacks or put on jackets; or suggesting games that buddies and pupils with SEN could play together.

The second role that auxiliaries carried out was to *encourage the buddies to go with the child and play*. Some auxiliaries felt they were taking on additional responsibility because they were *supervising the buddy and the child as well* (SEN staff).

Auxiliaries were only involved when the buddies were present and felt that they had *no influence* on the buddy system. They did not play a role, for example, in dealing with a buddy who had stopped turning up.

> *You sometimes hear an auxiliary saying that such and such has*
> *lost their buddy. I'm not aware of anything being done about it.*
> (Auxiliary)

Sometimes auxiliaries were not aware of who the buddies were.

> *I have found before that I'm sitting in the dining room with one of the children and suddenly a Primary 7 comes and sits down and it takes me as long as getting up to the [SEN] unit and they're still there and I think ah, are you the buddy today.* (SEN staff)

It was also commented that there was limited time to discuss issues about the Buddy System.

> *We very rarely have time to sit down and discuss anything, the work that we should be discussing, let alone how the Buddy System works.* (Auxiliary)

Communication

All parents, with the exception of parents who worked as auxiliaries at the Buddy System school, indicated that they would have liked more information about the initiative their child was involved in. Two parents at the Craft Club who had not been informed that their child attended the club would have liked to have known the reasons for their child's involvement because they suspected, from their knowledge of children who attended, that the club was more than an ordinary extra-curricular activity. Parents of buddies wished to know more about the Buddy System and parents of children with SEN wished to know more about the buddying relationship. One parent thought that it would be useful for information about the Buddy System to be included in the school newsletter in order that *all parents would become aware of the Buddy System.*

At the Enterprise school class teachers felt there could have been better communication. They felt they didn't know what was going on and weren't always clear why pupils were being taken from class outside of the allotted Friday afternoon hours. Teachers thought that it had been quite disruptive taking the children out of the classes each week. One Enterprise leader also noted this lack of communication, and that it had caused some problems:

> I: *There seemed to be a few weeks where people weren't turning up.*
> EA: *Or weren't being allowed to go. That's the thing it's also that teachers' perceptions of what it's all about, which we didn't*

actually tell them so that'd be our fault, but they didn't see it as that we needed them there. They saw it as the right whereas if they misbehaved they didn't get to go when the whole idea was for them to be there. (Enterprise assistant)

Training and Guidance

The issue of training and guidance was specifically an issue relating to the Buddy System. Two parents, one of a buddy and one of a child with SEN, raised the issue of initial guidance or training and wondered how well buddies had been informed of their role and the limits of their role.

I don't know how well the children are prepared for doing it. To know when to stand back if the child they're buddying is happily integrating with friends that they've made themselves, that they don't need to trek about after them. But that might be fine.
(Parent of buddy)

Some auxiliaries (2) thought that the buddies were not clear about their role as a buddy and that this had led some of them to stop buddying.

I think sometimes the children that are doing buddying feel at a bit of a loss and that's where we're losing some of them because they don't get enough information. They don't exactly know what they're doing sometimes. Sometimes I don't think they realise they're trying to integrate the children into their class. (SEN staff)

Some of the buddies (7) identified that they would have liked to have known a bit more about certain aspects of the buddy system, though generally thought that what they knew was 'OK'. Three buddies would have liked to have some information about how to deal with the children when they were being difficult: *To be able to develop a routine you could go into or something like that to try and calm them down.* Some pupils (3) would have liked more information about the child and general information about buddying. One pupil thought this would be helpful for new buddies to decide whether they wanted to become a buddy and one pupil said, *maybe if I knew more about it I wouldn't be so shy.* One pupil would have liked information about *what not to do.* Thirteen buddies noted that auxiliaries could help if they had any questions or any problems.

Some buddies (4) indicated that they didn't need any extra help or information. Three buddies described the methods they used to deal with the children in the SEN unit if they became 'difficult'. One buddy listened to the child, one used a distraction technique and a third buddy found that a combination of these was useful.

> *I experimented and found this helpful. Don't argue back, just listen and then kind of, you almost ignore what they just said to you and you say, 'right do you want to go and play something else then?'* (Buddy)

7.3.6 School community and ethos (Factor 6)

Staff and parents spoke very highly of the Craft Club and Buddy System schools and the ethos they promoted. At both schools, parents were very pleased that the school made an effort with their children. The Craft Club school was regarded as a place that promoted achievement, good behaviour, tried to get the best out of every child and was willing to help children and treat them as individuals. The school used positive methods, rather than punishment, to work with good and bad behaviour.

The Craft Club had become well-established in the school.

> *I think it has been very successful. I think it's something that takes time to be successful and I hope it will be continued ... , because it's now established as part of [Craft Club] Primary. People are aware of it. It's been in the newspaper, the stall, the fair and a lot of people are wanting to get involved in it.*
> (Helper/Behaviour support teacher)

The head teacher hoped that the ethos of achievement which was promoted in the school was also reflected in the Craft Club: *that one of the best things that comes out of [the Craft Club] is that the children produce something that they are pleased with and that somebody else admires something that they feel good about*.

Other members of staff (5) thought that the Craft Club worked well with the school ethos *to get the best out of every child* (Head Teacher and Craft Club leader). The Craft Club tried to promote good behaviour, *brushing up everyone's social skills* (P5 teacher), though leaders remained firm with the children so they didn't go beyond a *definite set of parameters* (Head Teacher). One parent commented that she felt

positively about the school being able to identify her child's needs and subsequently offer him support to develop his skills.

> *I was quite taken aback really. It was the fact that they obviously know your child that makes you feel quite good. They've said, we see that he's shy, we see that, and [then] taking him and trying to make him more confident at mixing [with others].* (Parent of shy child)

The range of different staff involved in the Craft Club, including the school administrator, was thought by staff (4) and parents (3) to be evidence of a good school community and ethos.

Pupils' comments also indicated that the Craft Club was viewed as a positive part of the school community. Two pupils commented that, at the start of the year, their peers viewed the Craft Club neither negatively nor positively, but when the pupils began to bring back the items they had made at the club their estimation of the club went up. Two pupils said their peers were keen to join the club.

> *They didn't really think much of it until they see when I come back into class and I've got these Hama beads ironed and they like it. More people want to go now than they used to.* (Role model, shy)

Other pupils viewed the Craft Club less positively. Two pupils said their peers, though some of them thought it looked good, didn't want to join the Craft Club because they didn't like the idea of it interrupting lunchtime.
The two leaders of the club found that pupils frequently asked them if they could join the club. They felt that this was indicative of the club being viewed positively by pupils in the school.

Sometimes the activities that were carried out in the Craft Club would have an influence on the whole school and many children would start to make the items in their own time.

> *It's actually beginning to spread. Especially this friendship bracelet thing is beginning to spread through the school. There*

are other children now who don't come to the club starting to make them. (Head teacher, Craft Club)

Perceptions of the Buddy System and the school community were intertwined with perceptions of the SEN unit which had been newly introduced to the school. The head of the SEN unit felt the school had an ideal community for a special needs unit because the pupils were caring and supportive. To facilitate the inclusion of the SEN unit within the community the head of the SEN unit joined the Parent Teacher Association to say *we're here and we're interested and we're part of the community.* She felt this had had a positive impact because parents started fundraising for the SEN unit. The head of the SEN unit had set up a parents' group for parents of children attending the SEN unit. She worked with class teachers too, providing support and information about children with SEN. She found that most teachers were positive about the SEN unit though commented that a few teachers held the view that pupils shouldn't be volunteering to buddy because it was too much responsibility.

A number of parents (5) of the Buddy System spoke of a changing, more inclusive society that was positively reflected in the school's community and ethos.

> *I think it's just an extension to the principle of everybody being incorporated within one school and not segregating each other. When I was growing up I would very rarely see anybody with special needs so I think it's all just part of the integration which is a good thing.* (Parent of buddy)

Three parents spoke about the length of time it had taken to build an inclusive setting in the school.

> *T joined the school in the second year of the SEN base and I think there was quite a lot of opposition from parents feeling standards would go down for their kids. But I only really hear positive comments about the presence of the disabled kids and the other kids in the base now.* (Parent of pupil with SEN)

It was thought that the Buddy System had helped to create a more inclusive community within the school because of the increased interaction between buddies, their friends and pupils from the SEN unit (2 SEN staff, 1 P7 teacher).

> *A buddy will go out with a child and then the buddy's friends will come and they all join in. So the child will not just have one child to play with they'll have the buddy's friends as well. And you regularly find that they're playing with four or five children so it's good. It attracts others.* (Auxiliary)

One auxiliary thought that the Buddy System contributed to the school's ethos of providing support and guidance to pupils with SEN but *in play this time, rather than on pieces of paper, or learning.* One parent hoped that eventually all the children would play together and a Buddy System wouldn't be necessary *but initially something like this is probably helpful. It just means that there is another child who will have a kind of looking out for that child* (Parent of a buddy).

Most buddies felt that they received support from the school community in relation to their involvement in the Buddy System. Twenty-five of the buddies perceived that their parents were positive about their involvement in the Buddy System. They suggested their parents were pleased because they were helping others (5 buddies); interacting with pupils with disabilities (4 buddies); learning from the experience (1 buddy); and being involved in a new activity (1 buddy).

The majority of buddies (20) thought that their teachers, or teachers in general, liked the Buddy System. Four pupils thought teachers liked it because it helped the pupils with SEN. Three pupils mentioned however that some staff members were annoyed because the buddy system interrupted their class/schedule.

> *The dinner lady gets annoyed because we're allowed in early.*
> (Buddy)

Amongst their peers buddies thought the Buddy System was popular. Some buddies (5) thought that pupils liked the buddy system, particularly girls, because many of them buddied.

> *I think they think it's quite good because there's loads and loads of people actually being a buddy and there wouldn't be loads and loads of people if they don't like it.* (Buddy)

Other buddies (7) thought that their peers who weren't involved liked the Buddy System, or the pupils with SEN, because they joined in games.

> *I think that they think it's a good idea as well and other children sometimes from the class help. They think it's somebody else to play with.* (Buddy)

Four buddies thought that it depended on the person.

> *Some people like doing it and some people prefer to just go out and play with their friends. It depends who you are.* (Buddy)

One buddy and one parent thought that generally people didn't understand the importance of the Buddy System.

> *I don't think people take much notice of the Buddy System. I don't think they really understand how important it could be for, for children like that. Because if I was disabled and nobody wanted to speak to me I would feel so isolated.* (Buddy)

The Enterprise Group was developed as part of the head teacher's general approach of setting up activities to promote personal and social development and positive behaviour. Although the head teacher and Enterprise leader were keen to start up activities their positive attitude may not have been shared by all the teachers in the school.

> *I think the Enterprise has maybe suffered here a wee bit from the point of view that there are a lot of different things that are shoved at the children to do. There's a lot of these things going on all the time and it just becomes another activity, rather than something special.* (Primary 7 teacher)

In the school community the Enterprise Group initially was not so well known as the Buddy System and Craft Club were in their respective schools as it was a short-term curricular activity. As pupils and teachers in the school began to hear of the products being made, the Enterprise Group became more well-known throughout the school. Putting up posters and carrying out an assembly were viewed as key links to the rest of the school. The Enterprise leader was pleased when the pupils and teachers could finally see what had been made by the Enterprise Group. It gave them an opportunity

to *justify what they had done [and] probably made it easier to do one in the future in terms of being offered more support and help.*

There were some negative perceptions about the Enterprise Group within the school community.

> *They obviously hadn't made enough so we were one of the last classrooms and they didn't have any left and they'd [pupils in class] brought in their money [to buy the products]. My lot were disappointed.* (P7 teacher, Enterprise)

One key pupil who sold the products and one of the leaders also thought that it was good that the products had all sold but a bit unfair that some classes never had a chance to buy any.

> *It was good because we sold them all. But in a way it wasn't fair on other people because we should have picked the class numbers out a hat to see who got an order first and second.* (Key pupil, Enterprise)

7.3.7 Personal and social outcomes (Factor 7)

Parents, staff and pupils were asked to describe what pupils had gained from the initiatives and what developments they had observed in pupils who had been involved in the initiatives.

Enjoyment

Overall the children at each of the initiatives derived a lot of enjoyment from their involvement. All pupils enjoyed the Craft Club. They enjoyed interacting with the teachers (4 pupils), making things (4 pupils, 4 teachers), meeting other people (3 pupils, 4 teachers), giving money to charity (2 pupils, 4 teachers) and selling products at the school fair (2 pupils). Two pupils enjoyed the Craft Club because the leaders thought it was fun.

> *I like making things. Like these hama bead things. And really I just like making a lot of things.* (Role model, shy)

All of the staff enjoyed the Craft Club. One leader enjoyed the club when a child found a craft that they were good at making.

> *I mean you enjoy when you see somebody who has found*
> *something that they're able to do really well.* (Craft Club leader)

Ten of the 12 pupils enjoyed the Enterprise Group. The two pupils who said they didn't enjoy anything were key pupils. The pupils enjoyed making items (8 pupils), working as a team (6), doing different activities (4), making new friends (1), going with a friend (1), helping others (1), selling things (1), getting off work (1) and getting a job title (1). The least popular activity was 'all the talking'.

The Enterprise leader recognised that the group discussions had been difficult, especially for the key children.

> *We had one hour a week and we had a lot to put into that one hour*
> *a week, and that was very difficult because we had them sitting,*
> *discussing for a whole hour, which, for some of them, was not*
> *good. Their attention span couldn't cope, especially the three boys*
> *found it difficult.* (Enterprise leader)

She too had enjoyed the Enterprise more when the practical activities started.

Pupils enjoyed buddying for a variety of different reasons. They enjoyed helping pupils with SEN (11), playing with or talking to pupils with SEN (9), *learning about other people* (3), when the children responded to them: *It's nice when J gives you hugs and kisses* (1). Others enjoyed it because they liked the children (4) and getting to know the them (1). They thought it was good that the children weren't so lonely (1) and they liked helping the pupils with SEN make friends (1).

> *It's good because you can buddy people with your friends and it's*
> *just quite fun because you know that [the pupils with SEN] enjoy*
> *having buddies as well.*
>
> (Buddy)

> *I like that if someone asks you if you're a buddy, you can say yes.*
> *You're kind of proud of yourself because you know you've made*

someone happy playing with them and I just like that feeling. It's a
good one.

<div align="right">(Buddy)</div>

Buddies thought that being involved with the Buddy System had helped the children to feel happy that they had someone to play with. They thought the pupils with SEN enjoyed having buddies because they were always laughing, giggling and smiling (5), because they had someone to play with (3) and because one pupil with SEN ran to get his jacket when he saw the buddies coming (1). Two buddies commented that pupils with SEN liked to play with their own friends too.

> *I think he seems quite happy as well as me. He always smiles*
> *when you come through.* (Buddy)

Other buddies thought that sometimes pupils with SEN didn't like the Buddy System (3) and that this could depend on the mood they were in (2) or whether they liked their buddies (1). One buddy wasn't sure if the pupil he buddied understood what the Buddy System entailed.

> *Sometimes she doesn't like it and we leave her and she goes to play*
> *with her friends and the next day she's OK with you.* (Buddy)

Auxiliaries (3) thought that pupils with SEN looked forward to the buddies coming to play with them. Three pupils with SEN commented that they enjoyed playing with the Buddies. One commented that he liked it when his buddies turned up.

<div align="center">

Self-esteem and Confidence

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Several members of staff (3) at the Craft Club felt there was evidence of an improvement in children's self-esteem. Pupils were pleased when they could help others with a craft activity, or when they saw people buy the items they had made.

> *When you see it making a person feel a bit better that they can do*
> *it and 'I can teach you how to do it' and 'I can teach the teacher*
> *how to do it'. That really does help their self-esteem and I think*
> *that's the whole point.* (Craft Club leader)

One child spoke of how she liked to see the display at the entrance of the school for the Craft Club and the money they gave to charity. Another pupil was delighted to receive 'good turns' at Cubs because he gave money to charity at the Craft Club.

Two pupils with social difficulties talked about the leaders needing them to help at the Craft Club, indicating that their help was valuable to the teachers.

> *There's quite a workload I guess. It would be a great strain on [the leader] if there was no help available.* (Pupil with social difficulties)

One parent thought her son had more confidence in trying new things.

> *I think he was quite pleased with some of the things he came home with because I think he didn't realise he could do it because he lacks confidence in maybe trying new things. So he'd come home and say 'look'. I'd say, 'that's excellent'. So, yes, I would say it's boosted his confidence a bit.* (Parent of shy child)

There was also some indication that the self-esteem of pupils attending the Enterprise Group may have improved. Two children were pleased when they found they were able to contribute to activities.

> *I just thought I wouldn't have any ideas and then when I heard other peoples', I started to get ideas of how to do it, of what to say.* (Pupil, Enterprise)

Two pupils felt they had gained more confidence to talk to people.

> *I've got more confidence of answering in the classroom because I was in a group and I wasn't scared to answer in case I was wrong.* (Pupil, Enterprise)

The Enterprise leaders thought that some of the pupils had gained confidence, including one of the key pupils.

> *M has come out of himself. He was very quiet initially but now he does sort of [talk to others].* (Enterprise leader)

One key pupil however was disappointed that the company logo he had designed had not been chosen.

> I: *What did you think about the final logo that was made?*
> C: Rubbish.
> I: *What didn't you like about it?*
> C: I didn't like the name of it.
> I: *What name would you have preferred?*
> C: Packet People. [The name he came up with]
> I: *That was a good idea too. There were lots of good ideas,*
> *weren't there?*
> C: Why wasn't any of mine chose?
>
> <div align="right">(Key pupil, Enterprise)</div>

He thought that the whole experience was boring and rubbish because he wasn't able to quit.

The head teacher commented that sometimes it was hard to get the three key pupils to understand their ideas were valuable.

> *Usually the boys had difficulty realising that they had anything*
> *worthwhile to contribute and [Enterprise leader] had a lot of*
> *difficulty getting them to realise that their ideas were really good*
> *but that not every time they said something would it be accepted.*
> *It had to be a group discussion.* (Head teacher, Enterprise)

One of the Primary 6 teachers had helped out with the Enterprise Group a couple of times as they prepared for the competition. She noticed that one of the key children was showing an interest in the Enterprise.

> *I don't come into contact with [him] a lot but there was one day I*
> *really noticed him. What a difference. That child doesn't show an*
> *interest in anything that I have ever seen but he really seemed to*
> *get a lot out of it. So although it hasn't altered his behaviour.* (P6
> teacher, Enterprise school)

The Enterprise leader and assistant made similar comments about this child: *He turned up every time and put so much into it. So I really do think it was good for him.* When the Enterprise Group won the competition they were delighted.

> *[The head teacher] came out and she said, 'how did it go?' They just jumped with joy and we got the others down from the class and they all got their photographs taken with the trophy. That made it all worthwhile because when you saw the joy in their face that they'd actually achieved something.* (Enterprise leader)

The Buddy System was thought to help buddies and pupils with SEN feel valued (3 parents, 4 auxiliaries, 2 staff).

> *The children feel valued that someone has come to see them and play with them.* (Auxiliary)

> *She gets the satisfaction of doing something she thinks is important.* (P7 teacher)

Parents of children with SEN felt their children had benefited from being involved with the Buddy System. One parent spoke of how her son was more confident in speaking to a whole class.

> *He's got a talk on the 19th and before I would have thought D would have [been] too shy to do that. But he's going to stand up and do his bit. He's turned quite bossy.* (Parent of child with SEN)

Buddies (6) also thought pupils with SEN were less shy, more outgoing and secure after being involved in the Buddy System: *He was very shy and quiet and now he's noisy and loud.* One pupil who had been buddied had become much more confident and no longer needed a buddy: *He doesn't need a buddy anymore. It made him more confident* (3 buddies).

Since becoming a buddy, one Primary 7 pupil had decided that she would like to work with children who have special educational needs.

> *She was struggling with self-confidence a little bit because she [was thinking] what was she good at. Well, she's found out I think. Now she's really thinking seriously what she'd like to do. It's made quite a big impact.* (Parent of buddy)

One buddy felt that she was more confident in talking to other people: *I think I find it easier to talk now as well.*

Two pupils with SEN commented however that it was very upsetting when nobody came, even on a Tuesday when one pupil knew that her buddy had orchestra practice. She said it wasn't often that they didn't come but that it did upset her. Another pupil with SEN felt quite hurt that his buddies stopped turning up to play with him but turned up to play with other pupils in the SEN unit.

Two auxiliaries thought that some buddies may have had very little reward from being a buddy.

> *She's supposed to come once or twice a week and she doesn't*
> *come that often because he's very difficult to get any sort of*
> *response from. But when she does come, she's good but she gets*
> *very little reward out of it I think.* (Auxiliary)

Social Skills and Behaviour

The Craft Club leaders and head teacher thought attending the club had helped pupils build on their social skills. Pupils had learnt to co-operate and share equipment and resources with one another. It helped children to be tolerant of others, wait their turn and not to take over conversations. Making crafts also encouraged pupils to think of others, for example, family members or friends that they would make crafts for.

The behaviour support teacher who helped at the Craft Club commented that as the year progressed pupils became calmer when they were in the Craft Club. One of the class teachers and a leader of the club commented that if pupils with social difficulties had been well-behaved during Craft Club, then afterwards they tended to be well behaved in class.

> *They [pupils with social difficulties] go through good spells and*
> *bad spells and I think the teachers know that when we've hit*
> *something good at the Craft Club, they're seeing a good spell of*
> *work as well in class.* (Craft Club leader)

Other benefits that the club had were to help one pupil with appropriate language.

> *The way she spoke to [people] at the beginning of the year was not*
> *appropriate in my opinion. So I would say the Craft Club's helped*
> *with that.* (P5 teacher, Craft Club)

The role models were thought to have a positive effect on other pupils' behaviour because they set a quiet, hard working tone for the club.

> *When things got difficult she sometimes gave up, however, when*
> *she saw other children keeping at it, keeping calm and not letting it*
> *phase them. I felt that she took on some of those characteristics*
> *and stayed with it. It didn't always work out that way but yes I did*
> *see an improvement there.* (P6/7 teacher, Craft Club)

Another parent felt that since attending the Craft Club, her son been able to initiate interactions with other children.

> *I'd say go and phone someone or ask someone back after school.*
> *He wasn't interested really in that. After school he did tend to just*
> *sit and do nothing. You'd [ask] him, 'What you doing?' He'd go,*
> *'Nothing'. Laterally he has been able to go and say, 'You coming*
> *to mine after school?' and he has been going out and he has been*
> *making new friends so it did work out.*
> (Parent of shy child)

Six pupils spoke of making new friends and enjoying the opportunity to meet new people.

> C: It gives us more friendship wise because we get to know people
> better and we get to help each other if we're having a problem.
> I: *How did you get that idea?*
> C: If someone gets stuck and doesn't know what to do then
> somebody will help them through it and then they'll get more
> friendly. (Pupil with social difficulties)

One of the pupils with social difficulties thought it helped improve his social skills. Another of the target pupils thought it helped her control her temper at home, in the Craft Club and with her friends.

Three members of staff recognised that the impact of the Craft Club could be limited.

> *It does help but just because we've got D who sits nice and quiet*
> *doesn't mean to say that you're going to get P to sit in a chair the*
> *whole half hour.* (Craft Club leader)

A parent of a child with social difficulties did not think the Craft Club had had much of an impact on the personal and social development of her child.

> *I'm not saying it hasn't helped her. She still has problems*
> *socialising with other children. I don't know what the school*
> *thinks she's getting from it. … It's just the kind child R is. I don't*
> *know if she'll get anything from it. Even though maybe it hasn't*
> *helped R I'm not sorry she went. I'm not saying it hasn't helped*
> *her. We'll never know. But there's been no marked improvement.*
> (Parent of child with social difficulties)

One of the strong features of the Enterprise Group was the teamwork that pupils were involved in. A number of pupils (7), including two key pupils, felt they had learned about the benefit of co-operating and working as part of a group or in a team.

> *If you work in groups it's better because you get stuff done.*
> *Because we were talking so much about what we were going to do*
> *I didn't think we were going to get it done.* (Pupil, Enterprise)

Enterprise leaders spoke of pupils coming *to understand their role [and] feeling more part of a team. They actually started listening to one another and they realised they had to listen to one another in order for things to progress.*

Two of the key pupils also felt that they had co-operated with some of the other pupils. One felt that they had to *or you would get a ten pound fine, or whatever amount of pocket money*, that is, punished. One of the key pupils felt he had learnt to co-operate with others a bit better. The third key pupil commented that he had not got anything from attending the Enterprise.

One key pupil thought that the group might have got on better if there had been less people in it.

> *There was a couple too much people in it. [It would have been*
> *better if there had been] two people from each class because I*
> *think you get on better if there's a bit smaller group. Lots of*
> *people can be in the way.* (Key pupil, Enterprise)

There was some indication that some pupils didn't understand how the small groups functioned as part of a whole. As one pupil said:

> *You know the advertising group? I don't think they did very much*
> *apart from put up posters.* (Pupil, Enterprise)

The head teacher, Enterprise leaders and two class teachers thought that the Enterprise hadn't changed the behaviour of the three key pupils.

> *There's the three that we set it up for. Some of them I don't think*
> *have got anything out of it. In particular, not saying they haven't*
> *got anything out of it, I'm saying it hasn't altered their behaviour.*
> (Enterprise leader)

One teacher understood that a key pupil in her class had been *exceedingly polite on the phone* but was disappointed that he hadn't transferred this behaviour back to the classroom. This teacher thought that the key pupils had disrupted many of the Enterprise sessions.

> *I think that, between them, the three of them managed to disrupt*
> *most of the sessions.* (P7 teacher, Enterprise)

In the group however the Enterprise leader saw some good work from two of the key pupils.

> *He really did enjoy it and he got down to some really good work*
> *with them [his team]. And he saw them working around him and*
> *how they pulled together as a team so I think that was quite good.*
> (Enterprise Leader)

The more relaxed atmosphere allowed one of the key boys to use his sense of humour and relax because they weren't pushing for targets, unlike in the classroom where his teacher was very strict.

> *They've got so many targets to reach in Primary 7, he was finding*
> *it really difficult, I think that was where his behaviour problems*
> *were coming from. But with us he was able to relax a wee bit more*
> *because we weren't pushing for targets and he was able to use his*
> *sense of humour and so I think that maybe brought another side of*
> *him out.* (Enterprise leader)

The Enterprise leaders weren't sure what one of the key pupils gained from the Enterprise.

> *That's really, really difficult because I don't see any changes in him at all but then he's been to different things and they haven't made a change in him either. It's really difficult to think of a way that would have helped him because he pushes boundaries all the time. You'd need to know where his boundaries lie.* (Enterprise leader)

Sometimes the key pupils would have bad days. On a number of occasions they were sent back up to class, as were a couple of the other pupils.

> *One or two of the boys started to copy the bad behaviour a little bit and they had to be spoken about that. But they pulled back into line because they don't like getting into trouble whereas the ones that are pushing it all the time don't care. Attention's attention.* (Enterprise leader)

The Enterprise wasn't thought by class teachers to have a big impact on the other pupils because they were not pupils with problems. They enjoyed the Enterprise *without showing off* (P6 teacher). One teacher thought the Enterprise didn't have a huge effect because only three pupils from her class were involved. She thought there would have been a greater impact if a whole class had been involved. Another teacher wasn't sure what her pupils had gained from participating because she hadn't seen any difference in the classroom.

> *I don't really know to be honest, although I've spoken to them about it. But I see no difference in the classroom, you see.* (P7 teacher, Enterprise)

The Buddy System was thought to encourage children to interact with one another and help friendships to develop (5 parents, 3 staff).

> *He's usually quite shy but he has come out of himself. At home as well. He used to just play about himself. Now he mixes in there.*
> (Parent of child with SEN)

The head of the SEN unit felt that introducing a buddy to one of the pupils had helped to resolve some behaviour problems that she had been having.

> *I did go to the buddies and I asked them who was supporting A and nobody was. A quiet wee girl said she would, as did this other boy, he's got his own needs as well, but things settled down in the playground again and I haven't heard so much that she's been hurting other children.* (Head of SEN unit)

A number of buddies (5) also thought that the behaviour of pupils they buddied had improved. For example, one pupil with SEN returned to the classroom at the end of the lunch break instead of running off when the bell rang. A pupil with SEN said that she didn't like it at playtime when she was screaming her head off because it might mean that she loses her friends and buddies and wouldn't be able to play with them anymore.

Two buddies spoke of the language development of one of the boys with SEN.

> *I think it's helped them communicate a wee bit better with other people. When we first started to go with J we used to say like a lot of words because he couldn't say a lot of words and he's started to say a lot more.* (Buddy)

Five buddies thought that they had helped pupils with SEN to make friends or play with their classmates. Three buddies felt that some of the pupils with SEN didn't need buddies as often because they could find their friends by themselves.

> *She didn't play with her friends much before so now she just goes and plays with her friends and she doesn't feel she always needs to have somebody around her.* (Buddy)

One buddy who had been a friend of the child she buddied for a couple of years said: *I haven't noticed too big a difference in her. She's still got friends and she's just got more now.* Similarly, four parents of buddies said they hadn't noticed any difference in their children because it was part of their personality to be helpful and caring.

Thinking of and understanding others

The Buddy System more than the other two initiatives was perceived to help pupils think of other people and to have a better awareness of special needs (6 parents, 4 staff, 11 buddies).

> *I understand them more and I don't think that they're really that different and I know they can talk lots and they're just the same. I used to not really be sure about disabled people but I like them now and I'm not unsure about any of them.*
>
> <div align="right">(Buddy)</div>

Two members of staff commented that when buddies talked to their friends about the pupils with SEN it meant *they're learning a bit about the children as well*. At the Craft Club all staff, two parents and four pupils spoke the charitable aspect of the club giving pupils a sense of purpose of helping others. Making crafts for charity enthused pupils because it was for a good cause.

<div align="center">

Inclusion

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The Buddy System had helped pupils with SEN to be included in the school. One parent thought that the close relationships her son had developed with the buddies had helped him settle into the school. He had had difficulty relating to peers and having buddies helped him with *social skills, settling in, feeling comfortable, feeling cared about* (Parent of child with SEN).

> *For T it's been a very positive thing. He had a bit of difficulty relating to his peers. He can't obviously go and play football with his peers. He can't do the things that other little boys are doing at eight years old. I think it's quite a significant impact because I say he's got ... really quite close to some of the kids and it's certainly helped him to settle into school more because that took a long time to get him to settle and to enjoy school.* (Parent of child with SEN)

Teachers (1), auxiliaries (3) and parents (2) felt that the Buddy System helped to make the school accessible for pupils with SEN and helped them to feel part of the environment. Two pupils with SEN commented that having buddies meant that they could go outside with other pupils rather than stay inside the building alone. The Buddy System also helped to include two or three of the buddies in the school, particularly boys who were not interested in playing football. The Buddy System gave these buddies who did not belong to any peer groups an identity through having a child to look after (3 staff).

Buddies (8) explained that pupils with SEN did not feel lonely because they were able to play with someone. One buddy thought that being involved in the Buddy System would help the pupil he buddied understand that he could be included in society in the future.

> *When he gets older he'll know what it's like to have someone that's not disabled and know what they're like and he knows that he can be friends with them. It's not that hard to be friends.* (Buddy)

One pupil with SEN had mixed experiences of the Buddy System. He liked his buddies during the previous year because they played games like Ice Cream and Red Letter. He liked it one time when his buddies pretended that he was dead. At the time of the study however this pupil thought his buddies were *totally crap because all they do is come for one of the other children in the unit*. They took the other children out who liked to play football. He didn't like football and his wheelchair couldn't go on grass. He was pleased when another child's buddies were talking to him one day and he told them that his buddies didn't turn up so they said they would buddy him too, which they did, once a week.

This pupil thought that the Buddy System was a good idea and that it would work if the buddies would mix with all the children more often. He said the buddies came along a couple of times at first but they thought he didn't need a buddy.

> *They thought I didn't need a buddy but I do. They don't realise I'd like a buddy. They don't realise that everybody in the base needs a buddy. It's very lonely if there's no-one to play with.*
>
> (Pupil with SEN)

Multiple factors

A number of individuals thought that pupils' development could be attributed to a combination of factors and not only the initiative that they had been involved in. At the Craft Club, staff (2) and parents (2) commented that activities such as the school trip and Primary 7-Secondary 1 links had contributed to their children's development too.

He was also at another thing that they had, meeting with kids that were going to the academy. He did that as well, so all that combined led him [to say], 'well I have to speak to people, I have to make the effort before I'll have a friend.' I wouldn't say he entirely changed overnight but between that club and doing the other things, ... getting them ready to go to the academy and making him see that he has to be more confident. (Parent of shy child, Craft Club)

At the Buddy System school a parent of a pupil with SEN thought that the school setting in general had helped her son develop.

7.4 Summary of Results

Each of the initiatives focused on pupils with different needs. The Craft Club aimed to promote the social skills and self-esteem of a group of pupils who had poor peer relationships, and the self-esteem and confidence of a group of shy pupils. The Enterprise Group aimed to promote the personal and social development of a group of boys who were disaffected and not engaging with school. The Buddy System focused on integrating pupils with SEN with other pupils in the school.

The Craft Club and Buddy System were well received within their schools. Parents and staff were pleased that the school identified pupils' needs and devised methods of promoting development for pupils. The Enterprise Group was not so well known or received in its school for a number of reasons. Unlike the Buddy System and Craft Club it was a one off, short-term initiative. It was perceived that pupils were sometimes unnecessarily taken from class to participate in the initiative. Pupils and staff in the school were also disappointed that the group had not made enough products to meet the demand.

In the Craft Club and Enterprise Group the purpose of the initiatives was hidden from pupils. Despite these attempts to conceal the purpose of the initiatives, pupils with social difficulties, who had peer problems or who were disaffected, suspected that they may be attending the initiatives for social reasons. In the Craft Club it is possible that pupils suspected this because they were the only pupils who had remained at the Craft Club for two or more years whereas role model pupils changed more frequently. It is also possible that these pupils (those who were disaffected or had poor peer

relationships) were used to participating in activities, including behaviour support, for 'social reasons' and naturally assumed that this was the purpose of the current activity.

The purpose of the Buddy System was explained to Primary 7 buddies and, to a lesser extent, pupils with SEN. Less than half of the buddies understood that they were supposed to promote the integration of pupils with SEN with their classmates by encouraging pupils with SEN to play with their classmates. Most buddies thought that the purpose of the Buddy System was that they should play with pupils with SEN.

The main method used to promote the personal and social development of pupils in each initiative was to provide pupils with opportunities for mainly peer interaction but also some adult interaction. A number of different methods were used by initiative leaders to manipulate pupil interaction. At the Craft Club a balance of pupils who were socially competent and those with social difficulties were involved. Arts and crafts were used as a medium to facilitate conversation; an informal atmosphere where adults and children interacted and spoke to one another comfortably; and a small group size was maintained because it was felt that this helped pupils to interact with one another.

At the Enterprise group a range of small team work activities and group decision making exercises were used to promote interaction. The leaders established an informal atmosphere using humour which they hoped would allow pupils to relax and engage with each other. Another key method used was to encourage pupils to ignore any disruptive behaviour being displayed.

The main method promoted by the Buddy System leader was for the buddies to act as mediators encouraging pupils with SEN to play with their peers by actively seeking out and approaching classmates of the pupils with SEN. Buddies were also encouraged to play with and talk to pupils with SEN.

At each of the initiatives it was thought that on the whole positive relationships were developed between pupils. At the Craft Club pupils with social difficulties mentioned

that sometimes they did not get on with other pupils. At the Enterprise Group all pupils reported that the disruptive behaviour of the key pupils had at times caused problems. Buddies generally established positive relationships with pupils with SEN but this varied occasionally according to personality clashes or because of the child's special educational needs. It was felt that children with autism did not develop such strong bonds with buddies as other pupils with SEN.

The timing of initiatives was not ideal for any of the groups. At the Craft Club, pupils found it inconvenient to come in during lunch time when they were playing with friends. Pupils attending the Enterprise Group missed out on Golden Time activities that other pupils in the school were involved in. Buddies, and sometimes pupils with SEN, were involved in a variety of activities which prevented them from buddying frequently. The voluntary nature of buddying also seemed to lend itself to haphazard buddying.

There was little pupil or staff participation in decision making in the initiatives. Pupils made few decisions and had little input in the running of the initiatives and staff who helped out had very little active involvement in decision making. Initiative leaders were responsible for organising activities and making decisions.

The personal and social outcomes of the initiatives fell into five main categories. Enjoyment was associated with all of the initiatives. Staff and pupils overall derived much enjoyment from participating in initiatives and interacting with new people. Across initiatives there was also some evidence that pupils' self-esteem and confidence and social skills and behaviour had improved. Some pupils felt, or were observed to be, more confident in approaching new activities or interacting with other adults or children. Many pupils felt valued because they participated in the initiatives. New friendships had developed, some problem behaviours had reduced and language skills of some pupils with SEN had developed. There was however some evidence that the initiatives had not always been successful in promoting self-esteem or improving social behaviour. This was particularly relevant to the disaffected pupils attending the Enterprise. These pupils at times did not feel valued and the positive behaviour that they did sometimes engage in had not been transferred back to the

classroom. At the Buddy System pupils with SEN did not like it when their buddies did not turn up.

Thinking of others was another personal and social factor that it was thought that the Craft Club and Buddy System helped develop. The Craft Club encouraged pupils to think of others when they made items for parents and friends and when they sold items at the school fair to raise money for charity. The Buddy System encouraged children to develop an awareness of pupils with SEN and an understanding of how everyone may be included in the school community.

Inclusion was the final personal and social factor developed by only one of the initiatives, the Buddy System. The Buddy System encouraged pupils with SEN to relate to their peers and helped pupils to be included in their mainstream classes. The Buddy System however could also make pupils with SEN feel excluded when buddies did not turn up or when they played with other pupils with SEN.

This chapter has highlighted some of the key areas that have influenced the initiatives and the outcomes of the initiatives. In the next chapter further information about the outcomes of the initiatives was gathered using a Likert-style questionnaire. Results of the interviews and questionnaires will be considered together in Chapters Eight and Nine (the Discussion and Conclusions) to develop an understanding of the impact of the various aspects of the initiatives on the outcomes of the initiative.

Chapter 8. Outcomes of Change: Personal and Social Development Questionnaire

8.1 Introduction

The purpose of the personal and social development questionnaire was to determine, over a 6-month period, whether school initiatives had had a positive impact on children's personal and social development, and whether initiatives had a differential impact on children attending initiatives for support compared to children attending initiatives as role models. The questionnaire helps to develop the understanding of outcomes of initiatives within the activity theory framework.

The questionnaire was developed to be consistent with the main aims of the three personal and social development initiatives (to improve behaviour, self-esteem and the ability to interact with others) and the four areas of the Personal and Social Development National Curriculum Guidelines 5-14 (SOED, 1993b) (self-awareness, self-esteem, interpersonal relationships and, independence and interdependence). A discussion of the PSD guidelines can be found in Chapter 4 (Section 4.6.2).

8.2 Scale Selection

A number of scales were selected and adapted into a suitable format for use with primary school children aged nine to 11 years. Five criteria were used to select scales. Each scale, as far as possible:

- reflected either an aim of the initiatives or an aspect of the PSD National Curriculum Guidelines
- contained concepts that children aged nine to 11 years could understand.
- was fairly brief
- contained a balance of negatively and positively phrased items (to reduce response bias) (Oppenheim, 1992)
- had an internal reliability or test-retest reliability alpha of at least 0.7 (Kline, 2000) and item loadings of at least 0.4 (Nunally & Bernstein, 1994)

8.2.1 Self-esteem scale

Enhancing self-esteem was a key aim for two of the three initiatives and is an important feature of the Personal and Social Development Curriculum Guidelines (SOED, 1993b). Scales measuring self-esteem were widely available but many were excluded because they were domain specific focusing, for example, on self-esteem of those in poor health (for example, Wray & Sensky, 1998) or they contained upwards of 30 items, for example, the Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale or the Canadian Self-Esteem Scale (Burns, 1979).

Of four self-esteem scales considered, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE) (Rosenberg, 1979) was included in the personal and social development questionnaire because it is brief, with 10 items; has been used successfully in recent years (Smoll *et al*, 1993) and has sound psychometric properties, with an internal reliability of 0.73 and test-retest reliability of 0.93 (Burns, 1979).

The other three scales were excluded for a number of reasons. The Washington Self-Description Questionnaire (Smoll *et al*, 1993) was a more recent version of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale adapted for children. This scale was longer than the RSE and some of the items were written in a colloquial American style that may not have been understood by a British sample.

Harter's (1982) General Self-Worth Sub-Scale was not included because items did not have a clear frame of reference, for example, *I am happy the way I am* (Harter, 1982) (p91), whereas, many items in the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale were contextualised, for example, ***On the whole****, I am satisfied with myself* (Rosenberg, 1979, p291). Contextualised wording of this kind helps to increase confidence that individuals respond to items using the same reference point, such as, *I am happy the way I am* 'at this precise moment' or 'on the whole' (Oppenheim, 1992).

The General Self-Efficacy Sub-Scale (Sherer & Maddux, 1982) was not included in the questionnaire because items reflected an adult's and perhaps not a child's style of thinking, for example, items referred to 'making plans', 'setting goals' and 'unexpected problems'.

8.2.2 Social self-esteem scale

Harter (1982) has shown that children can have different levels of self-esteem in different areas, such as self-esteem relating to sports, intelligence, and friendships. As the aim of initiatives was to improve social relations for some of the children a measure of development in social self-esteem was sought. Two scales were considered: the Social Self-Esteem Sub-Scale (Heatherton & Polivy, 1991) and the Social Self-Efficacy Sub-Scale (Sherer & Maddux, 1982). Both scales were brief, had fairly short items and measured perceptions of interacting with others. All items in Heatherton and Polivy's (1991) scale were worded negatively, which may have led to response acquiescence. Although the wording of the items in Sherer and Maddux's (1982) scale had to be simplified, this scale was included in the questionnaire because it offered a balance of positive and negative items. This scale had an internal reliability alpha of 0.71 and all six items had loadings above 0.4.

8.2.3 Interpersonal Relationships

'Interpersonal relationships' was one of the four PSD curriculum areas and a key focus for all three initiatives. Initiatives were intended to encourage socially appropriate behaviour and improve children's ability to get along with others. A number of statistically reliable scales were available for measuring perceptions of different aspects of interpersonal relationships. Three of those that reflected aims of the initiatives were included in the questionnaire.

The Texas Social Behaviour Inventory (Helmreich & Stapp, 1974) was included in the questionnaire despite it being fairly long, with 16 items, and there being little statistical information about its reliability. It was included in the questionnaire because items were short, covered a wide range of social behaviours and simple vocabulary was used.

Staff involved with initiatives highlighted a specific need for some children to improve their ability to approach others and make new friends, or in being able to deal with others calmly instead of resorting to shouting and arguing. Two of the five sub-scales of the Interpersonal Competence Questionnaire (Buhrmester *et al*, 1988) were included in the questionnaire: the Initiation Sub-scale that measured ability to initiate

relationships and conversations, and the Conflict Management Sub-scale which measured ability to deal with disagreements. The scales had test-retest reliabilities of 0.89 and 0.69 respectively and all eight items in each scale loaded above 0.5. Items in each of the scales were quite lengthy and had to be shortened for ease of understanding and reading.

Another scale that is intended to measure children's social abilities is Harter's (1982) Social Competence Sub-scale. It included 7 items relating to 'having friends' or 'being liked'. These items would not provide information about children's perceptions of their interactions and it was not included in the questionnaire. It has been argued that these items provide a measure of popularity rather than a measure of social competence (Schaffer, 1996).

8.2.4 Self-awareness of behaviour scale

Self-awareness of a wide range of factors, including self-monitoring, self-control, and dealing with emotions, is encouraged in the 5-14 National Curriculum Guidelines for Personal and Social Development (SOED, 1993b), though it was not a feature mentioned in connection with the aims of the initiatives. Most relevant to the aims of the initiatives would be to include a measure of self-awareness of behaviour.

Of the four statistically sound scales available, the Ability to Modify Self-Presentation Sub-Scale (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984) was included in the questionnaire. Items in this scale tapped perceptions of the ability to change and regulate behaviour in social situations. The scale had an internal reliability alpha of 0.77 and item loadings above 0.4 for six of the seven items. The items in this scale were quite complex and required some simplification before they were included in the questionnaire. The scale was used despite its complexity because it was the most relevant to the aims of the initiatives.

One scale which was not included was Snyder's (1974) Self-Monitoring of Expressive Behaviour Scale which measured five factors, two of which were considered for the questionnaire: 'concern with social appropriateness' and 'the ability to control and modify self-presentation and expressive behaviour'. These sub-scales were not

included in the questionnaire because they have been shown to be a more accurate measure of acting ability, extraversion, and 'other-directedness' (Briggs *et al*, 1980; Lennox & Wolfe, 1984).

The Self-Consciousness Scale (Fenigstein *et al*, 1975) and the Situational Self-Awareness Scale (Govern & Marsch, 2001) were not included in the questionnaire because they assessed judgements of personal feelings and concern about others' judgements, rather than self-awareness of behaviour.

8.2.5 Social anxiety scale

Although the topic of social anxiety was not raised in the initiatives or the PSD Guidelines, a measure of social anxiety, as the antithesis of social confidence, was used to determine whether children felt less socially anxious after attending the initiatives. Including a scale of social anxiety in the questionnaire offered a balance to the positive characteristics such as self-esteem and social self-esteem assessed by other scales.

Fenigstein *et al*'s (1975) Social Anxiety Sub-Scale measured levels of anxiety in the presence of others and was included in the questionnaire. The scale was short, with 6 items, and the items were brief and easy to understand. The scale had good psychometric properties with a test-retest reliability of 0.73 and item loadings above 0.4 for all items.

8.2.6 Independence and Interdependence scales

'Independence and interdependence' was the fourth curriculum area of the Personal and Social Development Guidelines. Initiatives did not aim to increase children's independence or their awareness of the interdependence of individuals in society. A measure of interdependence was not included in the questionnaire as this was not relevant to the aims of initiatives.

A measure of independence was included in the questionnaire because some aspects of the initiatives, such as being given responsibility for task completion, may have increased children's perceptions of independence.

Scales measuring perceptions of independence were not available and a scale measuring locus of control was selected as a similar alternative. Locus of control is similar to independence because it refers to the extent that a person believes he or she has control over his or her actions. An internal locus of control refers to the belief that it is possible to exert control over actions and choices. An external locus of control refers to the belief that external factors such as luck or fate determine their behaviours and actions. It is likely that a person with an internal locus of control is independent and that a person with an external locus of control is less independent (Allen, 1997).

The Revised Bialer Scale for Children (Gozali & Bialer, 1968) was chosen to provide a measure of locus of control. This scale had an internal reliability alpha of 0.68 and a test-retest reliability alpha of 0.66 (Bachrach & Peterson, 1976), which approached the 0.7 criterion. This scale was considerably shorter, with 23 items, than the Nowicki and Strickland Scale, which had 40 items (Nowicki & Strickland, 1973) and used simpler vocabulary than the Internal-External (I-E) Scale (Rotter, 1966). The Bialer Scale consistently measured perceptions of control or potential input to a situation, for example, *if another kid was going to hit you, could you do anything about it?* (Bialer, 1961; Lefcourt, 1982). In contrast, The Nowicki and Strickland Scale measured a range of factors including superstition (*have you ever had a good luck charm*), relationships with parents (*will your parents help if you ask them*) and self-esteem (*it doesn't pay to try hard because things never turn out right*) (Nowicki and Strickland, 1973, p150).

8.2.7 Social Desirability

In psychometric testing, items measuring social desirability are often included as a measure to test the validity of responses to other items in the scale. This line of reasoning considers social desirability to be a manner of responding that distorts responses to questionnaires (Nicholson & Hogan, 1990). Providing a high number of socially desirable responses to statements such as 'I never think horrible thoughts about others' is thought to be indicative of socially desirable responding rather than truthful responding because it is assumed that everyone must think horrible thoughts about others at some point. High positive correlations, that is similar patterns of

responding, between a scale of social desirability and other scales in a test battery are presumed to indicate that responses to other statements are socially desirable and, hence, not truthful. A low correlation between a scale of social desirability and another scale is interpreted as an indication of truthful responding.

Nicholson & Hogan (1990) suggest that, rather than an indication of social desirability, high positive correlations between social desirability scales and other scales indicate an overlap of content between scales. This is the norm for all other scales which show high levels of correlation. Exploring scales of social desirability and the scales included in the personal and social development questionnaire of the current study confirmed that there was a significant overlap in content and no scales of social desirability were included.

By way of example, the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964) contained a number of items that overlapped considerably with scales included in the personal and social development questionnaire. For example, one of the items, *On occasion I have had doubts about my ability to succeed in life* (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964, p23), overlapped with items in Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale, such as, *I certainly feel useless at times.* Another example is, *I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable* (Crowne and Marlowe, 1964, p24) which overlapped with items in the Texas Social Behavior Inventory, such as, *I feel I can confidently approach and deal with anyone I meet.*

As social desirability scales focus on statements relating to interpersonal interactions it could be argued that if they did not correlate with the other scales in the personal and social development questionnaire then participants would be responding in an inconsistent manner. The Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale and other scales of social desirability would not identify 'socially desirable' response sets in the current study.

8.3 Developing the Personal and Social Development Questionnaire

The eight scales included in the Personal and Social Development Questionnaire covered the four areas of the PSD National Curriculum Guidelines (self-esteem, self-awareness, interpersonal relationships, and independence and interdependence) and

the main aims of the initiatives (to improve behaviour, self-esteem and the ability to interact with others). The scales selected to measure these were the:

- Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1979)
- Social Self-Efficacy Sub-scale (Sherer & Maddux, 1982)
- Initiation Sub-Scale (Buhrmester *et al*, 1988)
- Conflict Management Sub-Scale (Buhrmester *et al,* 1988)
- Texas Social Behavior Inventory (Helmreich & Stapp, 1974)
- Ability to Modify Self-Presentation Sub-Scale (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984)
- Social Anxiety Sub-Scale (Fenigstein *et al*, 1975)
- Bialer Locus of Control Scale (in Lefcourt, 1982)

These scales can be found in their original form in Appendix C.

The original response format of each scale varied and a single 4-point Likert style format was created: 'a lot like me', 'a bit like me', 'not a lot like me' and 'not at all like me'. This response format was successfully used in previous research (Lerpiniere, 2000).

A number of changes were made to the language used in the scales. Some of the phrases in the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, Social Self-Efficacy Scale, Texas Social Behaviour Inventory were rephrased to make them more informal and simpler for children to understand.

Items in a number of scales required considerable rewording for ease of reading and understanding, and for some scales to create a balance of positive and negative items. This corresponded to one item in the Social Self-Efficacy Sub-scale, all items in the Initiation and Conflict Management Sub-scales (Buhrmester et al, 1988) and all items in the Ability to Modify Self-Presentation Sub-scale (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Original items in the Initiation and Conflict Management Sub-scales were worded positively and half of the items in each scale were worded in the reverse to balance positive and negative items. One item in the Ability to Modify Self-Presentation Sub-scale was reworded in the reverse to balance the number of positive and negative

items. The original questions of the Bialer Locus of Control Questionnaire were reworded as statements in order to match the 4-point Likert scale format to be used in the personal and social development questionnaire. Five of the items in the Bialer scale were reworded in the reverse to create a balance of positive and negative items.

A number of items were removed from the scales. Two of the 6 items from the Social Self-Efficacy Sub-scale (Sherer and Maddux, 1982) overlapped considerably and one was removed. The Texas Social Behaviour Inventory was composed of two parts, Form A and Form B. Form A was used as the main form for the questionnaire though a number of items were removed and replaced with items from Form B that were more relevant to the aims of the initiatives. Two items were removed each from the Initiative and Conflict Management Sub-scales because their meaning overlapped with other items when the wording was simplified.

Two items were excluded from the Ability to Modify Self-Presentation Sub-scale (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). One item was excluded because it did not meet the 0.4 criteria and another was excluded because the language was fairly complex and may not have been understood by primary school children. Simplification rendered the item very similar to another in the scale.

The item, *I have trouble working when someone is watching me*, was omitted from the Social Anxiety Sub-scale (Fenigstein *et al*, 1975) because children may have focused on the teacher, rather than peers, watching them while they were working. A second item, *I feel anxious when I speak in front of a group*, was omitted because it may have been work related rather than interaction related.

The Bialer Locus of Control Scale (Bialer, 1961) was shortened substantially from 23 to 15 items. A number of items were very similar in meaning and three were removed because they were more complex than similar alternatives. Four items were excluded because they involved an element of metacognition that not all children in upper years primary classes may be capable of understanding (see Chapter 3, Section 3.3). For example, *Is it hard for you to know why some people do certain things?*, involves children making abstract judgements of another's motivations.

It was recognised that these changes would have implications for scale reliability therefore internal and test-retest reliability analyses were carried out (see Section 8.7) to check that scales met the appropriate criteria. It was not possible to carry out a factor analysis as it has been shown that better approximations of the dataset are produced, particularly when there is a large number of variables, when the ratio of participants to variables is 10:1 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

The adapted scales used in the questionnaire are presented in Appendix D and the final Personal and Social Development Questionnaire (*Different Ways I Feel and Behave*), with 67 items, is presented in Appendix E.

8.4 Piloting the Questionnaire

The Personal and Social Development Questionnaire (PSDQ) was completed by a group of eight females (mean age 12 years, range 10 to 15 years) while they were attending a youth club session. The participants were instructed to carry out the task individually and to ask for help from the youth leaders if they did not understand any of the items. Two secondary school children, aged 14 and 15, finished the questionnaire easily and within 15 minutes. The younger children, who were at primary school, took between 20 and 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Some children needed help with some of the vocabulary, for example, reading the word 'awkward' or understanding the meaning of the term 'socially skilled'. The children commented that the questionnaire was easy to fill out and that they didn't have any problems understanding the task or items.

8.5 Sample

The questionnaire was administered to six classes in three primary schools. Each class included children attending the personal and social development initiatives. Classes were a P6/7 class from the Craft Club school, three P7 classes from the Buddy System school and one P6 and one P7 class from the Enterprise school. In the Enterprise school, children attending the initiative were from four classes. Children in two of these classes completed the questionnaire as part of a whole class activity and the children attending the initiative who were not in either of these classes were asked to complete the questionnaire at other times.

The pupils with SEN who took part in the Buddy System did not complete the questionnaire. A shortened version of the questionnaire was attempted with four of the pupils but they found it tiring and two of the four pupils did not understand the task.

In all three schools the PSDQ was conducted as a class exercise in personal and social development. The head teacher at one school requested information letters were sent out to parents and guardians of those children involved. Children completed the questionnaire on two occasions. At Time 1, 160 children completed the questionnaire, 67 females and 92 males. Information about the gender of one child was missing. The age range was 9 years 10 months to 12 years 7 months, mean age 11 years 1 month. Six months later, at Time 2, 165 children completed the questionnaire, 73 females and 92 males. The age range was 10 years 4 months to 13 years 1 month, mean age 11 years 8 months.

8.6 Procedure
Children were informed that they would receive a booklet about different ways they felt and behaved. They were told the booklet was being used to find out what girls and boys in primary schools thought about their feelings and behaviour. Each class was instructed by the researcher or class teacher to read each statement carefully and circle the most appropriate of the four answer options: 'a lot like me', 'a bit like me', 'not a lot like me', or, 'not at all like me'. It was emphasised that some of the statements would be 'like you' and that some 'won't be like you' and that everybody would have different answers.

Children completed two practice statements on the front page before proceeding with the questionnaire proper. They were informed that if they did not understand a sentence to put up their hand and the teacher or researcher would come to help.
No time restrictions were placed upon completion of the questionnaire. Completion of the questionnaire took between 20 and 30 minutes.

8.7 Scale Reliability

Cronbach alpha reliabilities were calculated for each of the seven scales used in the PSDQ. Tables 8 and 9 present internal reliability co-efficients at Time 1 and Time 2, respectively.

Table 8. Cronbach Alpha Internal Reliability (Time 1)

Scale	n	Alpha co-efficient
Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale	160	0.83
Ability to Modify Behaviour	154	0.65
Texas Social Skills Inventory	153	0.79
Initiation	156	0.46
Conflict Management	159	0.67
Bialer Locus of Control Scale for Children	150	0.48
SCS	158	0.63
Social Self-Efficacy Scale	157	0.43

Table 9. Cronbach Alpha Internal Reliability (Time 2)

Scale	n	Alpha co-efficent
Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale	161	0.89
Ability to Modify Behaviour	164	0.72
Texas Social Skills Inventory	161	0.82
Initiation	149	0.57
Conflict Management	164	0.73
SCS	164	0.63
Social Self-Efficacy Scale	161	0.54

While it is generally accepted that 0.7 is an acceptable alpha co-efficient for internal reliability (Kline, 2000), Bachrach and Peterson (1976) commented that an internal reliability alpha of 0.65 or above is acceptable for scales used with children. Four of the scales met this criteria and the internal reliability of the Social Anxiety Scale (0.63) approached 0.65. Although the Initiation and Social Self-Efficacy Scales had low internal reliability at Times 1 and 2, they were retained because of the small numbers of items in each scale, 6 and 5, respectively. It has been shown that a small numbers of items in a scale contributes to a lower internal reliability of that scale (Kline, 2000). The Bialer Locus of Control Scale for Children was excluded from all further analyses because, although it had 15 items, it had a low internal reliability. It was not included in the questionnaire at Time 2.

Test-retest reliabilities were calculated and results are presented in Table 10. Table 10 shows that two of the scales met and one approached the 0.7 criteria for good test-retest reliability. It was anticipated that there may be different patterns of responding at Time 1 and Time 2 and it is possible that this accounted for the fairly poor test-retest reliability of the scales. It is equally possible that pupils did not understand the task or some of the statements. Pupils may have had a different understanding of the task at Time 2 or they may not have been motivated to complete the task 'correctly'. Again, Bachrach and Peterson (1976) comment that reliability scores are generally poorer for children than adults.

Table 10. Test-retest reliabilities

Scale	Test retest reliability (Pearson's r)
Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale	0.75
Ability to Modify Behaviour	0.45
Texas Social Skills Inventory	0.74
Initiation	0.59
Conflict Management	0.47
SCS	0.63
Social Self-Efficacy Scale	0.53

8.8 Scoring and Analysis

Responses to the questionnaire were scored as follows: 'a lot like me' (4 points), 'a bit like me' (3 points), 'not a lot like me' (2 points), or 'not at all like me' (1 point). Negative statements were reverse coded. Mean scores were calculated for each of the seven scales in the questionnaire. Change scores (the mean difference) were calculated for each pupil by subtracting the mean score at Time 1 from the mean score at Time 2.

A number of analyses were carried out. Pearson's r correlations were used to determine the degree of correlation between scales and to reveal patterns of responding among the scales. Differences in mean scores from Time 1 to Time 2 were calculated using paired t-tests. Independent t-tests were carried out to determine the significance of differences in mean scores within groups at Time 1 and Time 2.

The following groups were compared:

- Children attending the Craft Club versus children not attending the Craft Club (Craft Club School only)
- Children attending the Enterprise Group versus children not attending the Enterprise Group (Enterprise School only)
- Children attending Buddies versus children not attending Buddies (Buddy System School only)
- Children attending an initiative versus children not attending an initiative (all three schools)
- Children supported by initiatives versus children acting as role models in initiatives (children attending initiatives only)

Other analyses conducted were exploratory and provided information about the total sample and school differences. For example, one-way Anovas were conducted to determine whether there were significant differences between any of the schools from Time 1 to Time 2. Post hoc comparisons were conducted using the Scheffe test, a test that is suitable for levels or groupings with unequal sample sizes within a given independent variable (Bryman & Cramer, 1999; Howell, 1997). Analyses were two-tailed since no predictions were made about the direction of change from Time 1 to Time 2. Predictions were not made about the direction of change, as, although initiatives aimed to improve personal and social development, methods used varied and it was unclear how successful these might be. The two-tailed test also offers more stringent criteria which decreases the likelihood of false positive results. To ensure results reflected the paired sample, repeated measure design, missing data cases were removed using listwise deletion (Howell, 1997).

8.9 Results

8.9.1 Pearson's r
Scale correlations are presented in Table 11 and Table 12 for Time 1 and Time 2, respectively.

Table 11. Pearson's r correlations among scales at Time 1 (n=142)

	RSE	*SSES*	*AMSP*	*SAS*	*TSBI*	*ICQCM*
SSES	0.307**					
AMSP	0.365**	0.277**				
SAS	-0.219**	-0.386**	-0.145			
TSBI	0.449**	0.600**	0.407**	-0.641**		
ICQCM	0.151	0.272**	0.370**	-0.022	0.145	
ICQI	0.165*	0.474**	0.266**	-0.339**	0.554**	0.242**

* correlation significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed)
** correlation significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 12. Pearson's r correlations among scales at Time 2 (n=139)

	RSE	*SSES*	*AMSP*	*SAS*	*TSBI*	*ICQCM*
SSES	0.435**					
AMSP	0.202*	0.358**				
SAS	-0.271**	-0.423**	-0.221**			
TSBI	0.547**	0.717**	0.367**	-0.638**		
ICQCM	-0.034	0.111	0.139	-0.110	0.081	
ICQI	0.148	0.508**	0.196*	-0.415**	0.597**	0.220**

* correlation significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed)
** correlation significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed)

With the exception at Time 2 of self-esteem (RSE) and initiation (ICQI), five of the scales correlated positively at Times 1 and 2, indicating that positive feelings on one scale were likely to be associated with positive feelings on the other scales. That is, positive feelings of self-esteem, social self-esteem (SSES), social behaviour (TSBI), the ability to modify behaviour (AMSP) and initiate interactions were likely to be found together.

The Social Anxiety Scale (SAS) was negatively correlated to other scales, except the Conflict Management Scale and, at Time 1, the Ability to Modify Behaviour Scale. This indicated that low social anxiety was related to positive perceptions of self-esteem, social self-esteem, ability to modify behaviour, initiating interactions and social behaviour.

The particularly strong relationship of the TSBI (social behaviour) to all scales except the Conflict Management Scale (ICQCM) may be indicative of the overlap in items between the TSBI and other items in the personal and social scales. For example, the TSBI item. *I would describe myself as confident*, is similar to the RSE (self-esteem)

item, *I think positively about myself.* The Social Anxiety Scale item, *I feel awkward at social occasions*, and the TSBI item, *I feel comfortable in social situations*, may be indicative of the strong negative association.

The Conflict Management Scale correlated weakly with other scales. It did not correlate significantly with self-esteem, social anxiety, or social behaviour and skills at Times 1 or 2, indicating that the ability to manage conflict was not related to feelings of self-worth or social anxiety.

The Conflict Management Scale correlated, at Time 1, with the Social Self-Efficacy Scale, Ability to Modify Self-Presentation Scale and the Initiation Scale, though at Time 2, only with the Initiation Scale. This suggests that conflict management may be related to other aspects of 'acting' or 'doing' in social situations such as initiating interactions and altering behaviour.

8.9.2 Means Scores, t-tests and One-way Anovas

Table 13 presents results for the total sample of children who completed the questionnaire at Time 1 (T1) and Time 2 (T2). These results can be used as a benchmark to offer an indication of the likely course of development without taking into consideration attendance or not at a particular initiative. Children reported more positive perceptions on all factors, except social anxiety, at T2 compared to T1. Social anxiety decreased from T1 to T2.

Table 13. Mean scores at Time 1 and Time 2: Total Sample

Scale	Total Sample Mean Scores (n=108)			
	Time 1		Time 2	
	Mean	*S.D.*	Mean	*S.D.*
Self-esteem	2.815	*0.58*	2.960	*0.59*
Social Self-esteem	2.835	*0.49*	2.952	*0.48*
Behaviour Modification	2.978	*0.56*	3.003	*0.56*
Social Anxiety	2.500	*0.72*	2.370	*0.62*
Social Behaviour	2.718	*0.46*	2.810	*0.42*
Conflict Management	2.801	*0.58*	2.850	*0.53*
Initiation	2.934	*0.53*	3.093	*0.46*

Paired t-tests were conducted to determine whether these differences were significant. Significant differences were found for self-esteem, $t(107)=3.590$, $p<0.01$; social self-esteem, $t(107)=2.617$, $p<0.01$; social anxiety, $t(107)=2.285$, $p<0.05$; social behaviour, $t(107)=2.981$, $p<0.01$; and initiating interactions, $t(107)=3.722$, $p<0.01$. These results indicate that, at T2, the total group of children reported significantly higher levels of self-esteem, social self-esteem, social behaviour skills, increased likelihood of initiating interactions and significantly lower levels of social anxiety. There was no significant change for conflict management or the ability to modify behaviour.

8.9.2.1 Craft Club

Table 14 presents means and standard deviations for children at School 1 who attended the Craft Club. Table 15 presents data for children who did not attend the Craft Club. For children who attended the Craft Club, self-esteem, social self-esteem, the ability to modify behaviour and initiate interactions increased and social anxiety decreased at T2 compared to T1. There was no difference in perceptions of social behaviour and conflict management from T1 to T2. None of the differences between T1 and T2 were significant.

Table 14. Mean scores at Time 1 and Time 2: Children attending Craft Club

	Children attending Craft Club Mean Scores (n=7)			
	Time 1		Time 2	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Scale				
Self-esteem	2.800	0.74	3.186	0.41
Social Self-esteem	2.857	0.40	3.143	0.36
Behaviour Modification	2.857	0.41	3.171	0.47
Social Anxiety	2.321	0.61	2.286	0.60
Social Behaviour	2.759	0.42	2.750	0.41
Conflict Management	2.905	0.58	2.905	0.45
Initiation	2.762	0.50	3.024	0.66

Table 15. Mean scores at Time 1 and Time 2: Children not attending Craft Club

	Children not attending Craft Club Mean Scores (n=8)			
	Time 1		Time 2	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Scale				
Self-esteem	2.925	0.76	3.425	0.46
Social Self-esteem	2.700	0.32	3.025	0.35
Behaviour Modification	3.075	0.37	3.050	0.37
Social Anxiety	2.406	0.38	2.469	0.53
Social Behaviour	2.726	0.21	2.906	0.25
Conflict Management	2.729	0.44	2.854	0.43
Initiation	2.812	0.72	3.125	0.28

Children who did not attend the Craft Club showed increases in scores at T2 for self-esteem, social self-esteem, social behaviour, conflict management and initiation. There was little change for the ability to modify behaviour and social anxiety from T1 to T2. Increases were significant for three of these scales. At T2 children who did not attend the Craft Club reported increased levels of self-esteem, $t(7)=3.118$, $p<0.05$; increased levels of social self-esteem, $t(7)=3.052$, $p<0.05$; and reported that they perceived their social behaviour more positively, $t(7)=2.804$, $p<0.05$.

Children attending the Craft Club had lower self-esteem but higher social self-esteem at T1 and T2 than children who did not attend the Craft Club. Children who attended the Craft Club reported more positive perceptions of their ability to modify behaviour at T2 where pupils who did not attend the Craft Club showed no change. Independent t-tests revealed however that there were no significant differences in

change scores or mean scores at T1 or T2 between children who attended the Craft Club and children who did not attend the Craft Club.

8.9.2.2 Enterprise Group

The mean scores and standard deviations of children who attended the Enterprise Group and children who did not attend the Enterprise Group are presented in Tables 16 and 17, respectively. Children attending the Enterprise Group reported an increase in perceptions of self-esteem, social behaviour, conflict management, initiating interactions and reduced social anxiety at T2 than at T1. At T2, for children attending the Enterprise Group, self-esteem was significantly higher, t(9)=2.957, p<0.05. The likelihood of initiating more interactions at T2 approached significance, t(9)=2.236, p=0.052. Results showed a non-significant decline in perceptions of social self-esteem at T2 and no change for the ability to modify behaviour.

Table 16. Mean scores at Time 1 and Time 2: Children attending the Enterprise Group

| | Children attending Enterprise Mean Scores (n=10) | | | |
| | Time 1 | | Time 2 | |
Scale	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Self-esteem	2.780	0.64	3.110	0.50
Social Self-esteem	2.820	0.53	2.760	0.49
Behaviour Modification	2.820	0.81	2.840	0.68
Social Anxiety	2.375	0.72	2.175	0.53
Social Behaviour	2.787	0.42	2.875	0.46
Conflict Management	2.467	0.67	2.633	0.32
Initiation	2.817	0.53	3.150	0.51

Table 17. Mean scores at Time 1 and Time 2: Children not attending Enterprise Group

| | Children not attending Enterprise Mean Scores (n=16) | | | |
| | Time 1 | | Time 2 | |
Scale	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Self-esteem	2.456	0.63	2.406	0.72
Social Self-esteem	2.662	0.44	2.850	0.45
Behaviour Modification	3.087	0.66	2.987	0.69
Social Anxiety	2.562	0.70	2.594	0.78
Social Behaviour	2.527	0.41	2.644	0.39
Conflict Management	2.833	0.57	2.917	0.44
Initiation	2.906	0.40	3.125	0.40

There was virtually no change in self-esteem or social anxiety from T1 to T2 for children who did not attend the Enterprise Group. The ability to modify behaviour was perceived less positively at T2 than at T1. For social self-esteem, social behaviour, conflict management and initiation scales there were modest increases at T2. Paired t-tests revealed that children who did not attend the initiative felt they were significantly more likely to initiate interactions at T2, $t(15)=2.476$, $p<0.05$.

Children who attended the Enterprise Group reported higher self-esteem at T1 and T2 than children who did not attend the Enterprise Group. Children who did not attend the Enterprise Group reported higher perceptions of conflict management at T1 and T2 than children who did attend the Enterprise Group. Perceptions of social behaviour were higher and social anxiety lower for children who attended the Enterprise Group. Independent t-tests revealed that, at T2, children attending the Enterprise Group had significantly higher self-esteem than children who did not attend the Enterprise Group, $t(24)=2.710$, $p<0.05$. The difference in change scores for self-esteem was also significant, $t(24)=2.099$, $p<0.05$. That is, the self-esteem of children attending the Enterprise Group increased significantly more than children who did not attend the Enterprise Group.

8.9.2.3 Buddy System

Means and standard deviations of children who volunteered to buddy are presented in Table 18, and in Table 19 for children who did not buddy. For children who volunteered to buddy there was an increase in self-esteem and initiating interactions at T2. The increase in self-esteem was significant, $t(13)=2.220$, $p<0.05$. There was a decrease in social anxiety and social self-esteem at T2. These differences were not significant. Perceptions of social behaviour, conflict management and the ability to modify behaviour were stable across T1 and T2.

Table 18. Mean scores at Time 1 and Time 2: Buddies

| | Buddies Mean Scores (n=14) | | | |
| | Time 1 | | Time 2 | |
Scale	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Self-esteem	2.536	0.57	2.764	0.55
Social Self-esteem	2.986	0.57	2.900	0.54
Behaviour Modification	2.827	0.56	2.871	0.65
Social Anxiety	2.589	0.78	2.304	0.55
Social Behaviour	2.750	0.44	2.799	0.33
Conflict Management	3.143	0.49	3.190	0.49
Initiation	3.131	0.45	3.357	0.21

Table 19. Mean scores at Time 1 and Time 2: Children not buddying

| | Children not buddying Mean Scores (n=53) | | | |
| | Time 1 | | Time 2 | |
Scale	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Self-esteem	2.989	0.45	3.051	0.51
Social Self-esteem	2.868	0.51	2.996	0.50
Behaviour Modification	3.015	0.52	3.045	0.51
Social Anxiety	2.519	0.77	2.354	0.62
Social Behaviour	2.748	0.51	2.844	0.46
Conflict Management	2.761	0.59	2.774	0.63
Initiation	2.953	0.55	3.006	0.54

Children who did not buddy showed increases in self-esteem, social self-esteem and social behaviour skills. Social self-esteem, $t(52)=2.064$, $p<0.05$, and perceptions of social behaviour, $t(52)=2.498$, $p<0.05$, increased significantly at T2. At T2 there was a significant decrease in social anxiety for children who did not buddy, $t(52)=2.307$, $p<0.05$. The ability to modify behaviour, manage conflict and initiate interactions was similar across T1 and T2.

Independent t-tests showed that at T1 there was a significant difference in self-esteem between children who buddied and children who did not, $t(65)=3.169$, $p<0.01$. Self-esteem was significantly lower for those who buddied. There was also a significant difference at T1 and T2 between children who buddied and children who did not buddy for perceptions of conflict management at T1, $t(65)= 2.217$, $p<0.05$,

and T2, t(65)=2.302, p<0.05. Children who buddied had significantly higher perceptions of their ability to manage conflict than children who did not buddy. Perceptions of the likelihood of initiating interactions were significantly different at T2 between the two groups, t(56.414)=3.817, p<0.01. Children who buddied reported that they were significantly more likely to initiate interactions than children who did not buddy. There were no significant differences for change scores.

8.9.2.4 Children attending initiatives versus children not attending initiatives

Table 20 displays mean scores and standard deviations for the combined total of children attending the Craft Club, Enterprise Group and Buddy System. Table 21 displays mean scores and standard deviations for children at all three schools not attending initiatives. For children attending initiatives there was an increase in mean score from T1 to T2 for all scales except social anxiety. There were significant increases in self-esteem, t(35)=4.638, p<0.01, and perceptions of initiating interactions, t(35)=2.999, p<0.01. Social anxiety showed a marked, but not significant, decrease at Time 2.

Table 20. Mean scores at Time 1 and Time 2: Children attending Craft Club, Enterprise and Buddies Initiatives

	Children attending initiatives *Mean Scores (n=36)*			
	Time 1		Time 2	
Scale	Mean	*S.D.*	Mean	*S.D.*
Self-esteem	2.731	*0.60*	3.025	*0.52*
Social Self-esteem	2.889	*0.49*	2.994	*0.52*
Behaviour Modification	2.822	*0.60*	2.944	*0.58*
Social Anxiety	2.375	*0.73*	2.187	*0.60*
Social Behaviour	2.830	*0.48*	2.876	*0.41*
Conflict Management	2.731	*0.63*	2.880	*0.43*
Initiation	2.972	*0.48*	3.227	*0.45*

Table 21. Mean scores at Time 1 and Time 2: Children not attending Initiatives

| Scale | Children not attending initiatives Mean Scores (n=72) | | | |
| | Time 1 | | Time 2 | |
	Mean	*S.D.*	Mean	*S.D.*
Self-esteem	2.857	*0.57*	2.928	*0.63*
Social Self-esteem	2.808	*0.49*	2.931	*0.46*
Behaviour Modification	3.056	*0.52*	3.033	*0.55*
Social Anxiety	2.562	*0.71*	2.462	*0.61*
Social Behaviour	2.662	*0.44*	2.777	*0.42*
Conflict Management	2.836	*0.56*	2.836	*0.58*
Initiation	2.914	*0.55*	3.025	*0.48*

A similar pattern of results was found for children who did not attend the initiatives. Mean scores for self-esteem, social self-esteem, social behaviour, conflict management and initiating interactions were higher at T2 than at T1. Social anxiety decreased at T2. Perceptions of the ability to modify behaviour remained constant across Times 1 and 2. Significant increases at T2 were found for social self-esteem, $t(71)=2.319$, $p<0.05$; social behaviour, $t(71)=3.784$, $p<0.01$; and initiating interactions, $t(71)=2.343$, $p<0.05$.

Social anxiety and perceptions of the ability to modify behaviour were higher at Times 1 and 2 for children who did not attend initiatives than for children who attended initiatives. Perceptions of social behaviour were higher at T1 and T2 for children who attended initiatives than children who did not attend initiatives. Self-esteem increased at a greater rate for children who attended initiatives than children who did not attend initiatives. At T1 independent t-tests revealed that there was a significant difference in perceptions of the ability to modify behaviour, $t(106)=2.075$, $p<0.05$. Children not attending initiatives reported they were better able to modify their behaviour than children who did attend initiatives. At T2 independent t-tests showed that children attending initiatives were significantly less socially anxious, $t(106)=2.205$, $p<0.05$, than children not attending initiatives. Children who attended initiatives reported significantly higher perceptions of initiating interactions at T2, $t(106)=2.081$, $p<0.05$. The change scores for self-esteem from T1 to T2 was significantly different, $t(106)=2.677$, $p<0.01$. The self-esteem of children attending initiatives increased significantly more than those who did not attend initiatives.

8.9.2.5 Children supported by initiatives versus role models

Analyses were conducted within the sample of children attending initiatives. Table 22 presents mean scores and standard deviations for children supported by the Craft Club and Enterprise Group (data was not available for children supported by the Buddy system). Tables 23 and 24 present data for children attending the initiatives, excluding and including buddies, respectively. Children supported by the initiatives showed marked increases on all scales at T2, except social anxiety which was similar at T2. The increase in self-esteem from T1 to T2 was significant, $t(6)=3.553$, $p<0.05$. The increase in likelihood of initiating interactions approached significance, $t(6)=2.430$, $p=0.051$.

Table 22. Mean scores at Time 1 and Time 2: Children attending Craft Club and Enterprise Group for support

	Children supported by Craft Club and Enterprise Mean Scores (n=7)			
	Time 1		Time 2	
	Mean	*S.D.*	Mean	*S.D.*
Scale				
Self-esteem	2.400	*0.75*	3.029	*0.54*
Social Self-esteem	2.914	*0.50*	3.086	*0.32*
Behaviour Modification	2.371	*0.80*	2.827	*0.78*
Social Anxiety	2.179	*0.67*	2.107	*0.66*
Social Behaviour	2.661	*0.54*	2.830	*0.61*
Conflict Management	2.427	*0.83*	2.714	*0.49*
Initiation	2.738	*0.63*	3.238	*0.44*

Table 23. Mean scores at Time 1 and Time 2: Children attending Craft Club and Enterprise Group as Role Models

	Craft Club and Enterprise Role Models Mean Scores (n=10)			
	Time 1		Time 2	
	Mean	*S.D.*	Mean	*S.D.*
Scale				
Self-esteem	3.060	*0.45*	3.220	*0.40*
Social Self-esteem	2.780	*0.46*	2.800	*0.53*
Behaviour Modification	3.160	*0.25*	3.080	*0.47*
Social Anxiety	2.475	*0.65*	2.300	*0.47*
Social Behaviour	2.856	*0.29*	2.819	*0.35*
Conflict Management	2.800	*0.50*	2.767	*0.34*
Initiation	2.833	*0.42*	3.000	*0.63*

Children attending the Craft Club and Enterprise Group as role models showed an increase in self-esteem and initiating interactions and a decrease in social anxiety and perceptions of the ability to modify behaviour and the ability to manage conflict at T2. None of the differences were significant. Perceptions of social behaviour remained constant across T1 and T2.

Role models had higher self-esteem at T1 and T2 than children supported by initiatives although the increase in self-esteem from T1 to T2 was much greater for children who were supported by the initiatives. Independent t-tests revealed that role models had significantly higher self-esteem at T1 than supported pupils, $t(15)=2.274$, $p<0.05$, but the change score was significantly greater for children who were supported by initiatives, $t(15)=2.632$, $p<0.05$.

Findings were similar for the ability to modify behaviour. Children supported by initiatives had lower perceptions of ability to modify behaviour at Times 1 and 2, though the increase from T1 to T2 was greater for children who were supported by initiatives than role models. Role models had significantly higher perceptions of their ability to modify behaviour at T1 than supported pupils, T1, $t(6.793)=2.515$, $p<0.05$, but perceptions of pupils who were supported increased significantly more than role models perceptions, $t(15)=2.156$, $p<0.05$. Children supported by initiatives had lower social anxiety and higher social self-esteem at Times 1 and 2 than role models but this difference was not significant.

Table 24. Mean scores at Time 1 and Time 2: Children attending Craft Club, Enterprise Group and Buddies as Role Models

| | Craft Club, Enterprise and Buddies Role Models Mean Scores (n=24) | | | |
| | Time 1 | | Time 2 | |
Scale	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Self-esteem	2.754	0.58	2.954	0.53
Social Self-esteem	2.900	0.52	2.858	0.53
Behaviour Modification	2.967	0.48	2.958	0.58
Social Anxiety	2.542	0.72	2.302	0.51
Social Behaviour	2.794	0.38	2.807	0.33
Conflict Management	3.000	0.51	3.014	0.46
Initiation	3.007	0.45	3.208	0.46

When buddies were included in the analysis results were largely similar. Role models showed a significant increase in self-esteem, $t(23)=2.194$, $p<0.01$, although the increase in self-esteem from T1 to T2 was significantly greater for pupils who were supported by the initiatives, $t(29)=2.716$, $p<0.05$. At T1 role models perceived they had a greater ability to modify behaviour than children supported by initiatives, $t(29)=2.470$, $p<0.05$. In addition to these findings, increased perceptions of the likelihood of initiating interactions from T1 to T2, $t(23)=2.028$, $p=0.054$, approached significance.

8.9.2.6 Schools

Tables 25, 26 and 27 present mean scores and standard deviations for children completing the questionnaire at each of the three schools. At the Craft Club School children reported higher levels of self-esteem, social self-esteem, perceptions of social behaviour and likelihood of initiating interactions at T2. Social anxiety, perceptions of the ability to modify behaviour and manage conflict remained virtually unchanged across T1 and T2. Of these changes from T1 to T2, those for self-esteem, $t(14)=3.609$, $p<0.01$, and social self-esteem, $t(14)=3.216$, $p<0.01$, were significant.

Table 25. Mean scores at Time 1 and Time 2: Craft Club School

	Craft Club School Mean Scores (n=15)			
	Time 1		Time 2	
Scale	Mean	*S.D.*	Mean	*S.D.*
Self-esteem	2.867	*0.73*	3.130	*0.44*
Social Self-esteem	2.773	*0.35*	3.080	*0.34*
Behaviour Modification	2.973	*0.39*	3.107	*0.41*
Social Anxiety	2.367	*0.48*	2.383	*0.55*
Social Behaviour	2.742	*0.31*	2.833	*0.36*
Conflict Management	2.811	*0.50*	2.878	*0.42*
Initiation	2.789	*0.60*	3.078	*0.47*

At the Enterprise Group School children showed increased self-esteem, social self-esteem, and increased perceptions of social behaviour, ability to modify behaviour, conflict management and initiating interactions at T2. Levels of social anxiety were similar at T1 and T2. Perceptions of initiating interactions were significantly higher at T2, $t(25)=3.370$, $p<0.01$.

Table 26. Mean scores at Time 1 and Time 2: Enterprise Group School

| | Enterprise Group School Mean Scores (n=26) | | | |
| | Time 1 | | Time 2 | |
Scale	Mean	*S.D.*	Mean	*S.D.*
Self-esteem	2.581	*0.64*	2.677	*0.72*
Social Self-esteem	2.723	*0.47*	2.815	*0.46*
Behaviour Modification	2.985	*0.72*	2.931	*0.67*
Social Anxiety	2.490	*0.70*	2.433	*0.71*
Social Behaviour	2.627	*0.43*	2.733	*0.43*
Conflict Management	2.692	*0.62*	2.808	*0.42*
Initiation	2.872	*0.45*	3.135	*0.43*

At the Buddy System School perceptions of self-esteem, $t(66)=2.223$, $p<0.05$, and social behaviour, $t(66)=2.509$, $p<0.05$, were significantly higher at T2. Social anxiety decreased significantly at T2, $t(66)=2.931$, $p<0.01$. Perceptions of the ability to modify behaviour, manage conflict and initiate interactions were similar across T1 and T2.

Table 27. Mean scores at Time 1 and Time 2: Buddy System School

| | Buddy System School Mean Scores (n=67) | | | |
| | Time 1 | | Time 2 | |
Scale	Mean	*S.D.*	Mean	*S.D.*
Self-esteem	2.894	*0.50*	2.991	*0.53*
Social Self-esteem	2.893	*0.52*	2.976	*0.51*
Behaviour Modification	2.976	*0.52*	3.009	*0.54*
Social Anxiety	2.534	*0.77*	2.343	*0.60*
Social Behaviour	2.748	*0.50*	2.835	*0.44*
Conflict Management	2.841	*0.59*	2.861	*0.62*
Initiation	2.990	*0.54*	3.080	*0.51*

Pupils at the Enterprise School had lower self-esteem at T1 and T2 than the Craft Club School or Buddy System School. Social anxiety was lower at T1 for the Craft Club School than the Enterprise or Buddy System Schools. A one-way Anova revealed a significant difference for self-esteem at T2 among the three schools, $F(2,105)=6.172$, $p<0.01$. Post hoc Scheffe tests revealed that this was between the Craft Club School and the Enterprise School, $p<0.01$. Pupils at the Craft Club School had significantly higher self-esteem than the Enterprise School at T2. The difference

in change scores among schools was also significant for self-esteem, F(2,105)=4.781, p<0.01. Post hoc Scheffe tests revealed that the self-esteem change score for the Craft Club School 1 was significantly greater than for the Enterprise School, p<0.05, and Buddy System School, p<0.05. The self-esteem of children attending the Craft Club School increased at a significantly greater rate than that of children attending the Enterprise or Buddy System Schools.

8.10 Discussion
Positive Pearson's correlations among the self-esteem, social self-esteem, ability to modify behaviour, initiating interactions and social behaviour scales indicate that where children had positive perceptions on one scale they tended to have positive perceptions on the other scales. The reverse being true for negative scores. The scales were negatively correlated with the social anxiety scale indicating that positive perceptions on these scales were associated with low social anxiety.

Conflict management correlated weakly with the ability to modify behaviour, initiate interactions and, at Time 1, social self-esteem. A possible reason for the relationship of conflict management with the ability to modify behaviour and initiate interactions is the common element of 'initiating action'. The ability to modify behaviour involves changing behaviour to meet the needs of a given situation. Initiating interactions requires a person to actively engage with another, and managing conflict involves active attempts to resolve a problem. The correlation between social self-esteem and conflict management may be that the experience of being able to resolve conflicts increases social self-esteem, or the reverse, that being unable to resolve conflict lowers social self-esteem.

That conflict management did not correlate with many of the scales suggests that there may be different personal and social 'constructs'. For example, based on the scales that correlated strongly with one another (self-esteem, social self-esteem, ability to modify behaviour, initiating interactions and social behaviour), one factor may be 'fitting in with/feeling comfortable with others'. Another factor may be 'dealing with others' which would include conflict management and perhaps other skills such as leadership or management skills. This of course would require further research.

For the total sample of children, t-tests revealed that there were significant increases in mean scores for self-esteem, social self-esteem, social behaviour and initiating interactions, and a significant decrease in social anxiety for the whole group. There was no significant change for conflict management or perceptions of the ability to modify self-presentation.

This indicates that, in general, children were more positive about themselves and their interaction skills at Time 2 than at Time 1. It is likely that a number of factors contributed to this finding. For example, when children completed the questionnaire at Time 2 it was shortly before the end of the summer term when children may have been excited because the summer holidays were near. Most of the children completing the questionnaire were in Primary 7 and were possibly looking forward to starting secondary school. It is also likely that experiences during the school year, such as school plays and residential trips, had had a positive effect on children's personal and social development.

Children who attended the Craft Club showed considerable increases in self-esteem, social self-esteem, the ability to modify behaviour and initiate interactions although none of these differences were significant. For children who did not attend the Craft Club there were significant increases at Time 2 in self-esteem, social self-esteem and perceptions of social behaviour.

The sample size of the Craft Club School was the smallest (n=15) and it is possible that with a larger sample further significant differences may have been found. Significant increases however in self-esteem, social self-esteem and perceptions of social behaviour (despite the small sample size, n=8) for children who did not attend the Craft Club suggest that the perceptions of pupils attending the Craft Club may not have increased to the same degree. There were two aspects of the Craft Club that could account for this. One was the resentment that children felt about the Craft Club being held during the lunch hour. All of the children attending the Craft Club felt quite strongly that it interrupted their time to play and would have preferred if the Craft Club had been held at a different time. The second reason is that activities carried out in the Craft Club were individual activities. Pupils worked beside each

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other rather than together on a group project or item therefore limiting the opportunities for peer interaction and co-operation.

While it is possible that the focus on individual work did not foster positive personal and social relations it does not explain why, when children were involved in the same class activities as their peers, their self-esteem did not increase at a similar rate. This finding may be explained by research which has shown that children who are more vulnerable tend to get more out of small group initiatives than children who already have positive self-esteem (Mahoney & Cairns, 1997; Smoll *et al*, 1993). It may follow that vulnerable children do not make the most of social opportunities in large group situations (such as classrooms) to the same extent as children who are not vulnerable. Children with low self-esteem have been shown to engage with class activities less and make less effort with activities (Bandura, 1994). If the Craft Club did not provide opportunities for group or team work then vulnerable pupils were not provided with additional opportunities to interact which may have resulted in the Craft Club having little effect on this aspect of children's development.

Pupils attending the Enterprise Group reported significantly higher self-esteem at Time 2 than at Time 1 and, at Time 2 had significantly higher self-esteem than children who did not attend the Enterprise Group. Self-esteem also increased significantly more for children attending the Enterprise Group than for children who did not attend the Enterprise Group.

A number of events during the Enterprise initiative are likely to have contributed to the increase in children's self-esteem. The Enterprise group made and sold a product that proved to be very popular within the school, selling out on the first day of their sale. The group's work was displayed at the school entrance for pupils, staff and visitors to see. The Enterprise group had also entered and won first prize in a prestigious competition involving many other schools in the region. The pupils won a sum of money for their school and their story and photographs were published in the local paper.

Even at Time 1, when children had been attending the Enterprise for a couple of months but before they had experienced these rewards, they had a higher, though not significantly higher, self-esteem than pupils who did not attend. It is possible, but less likely, that this could be because of the Enterprise because at Time 1 many of the pupils were bored of the Enterprise Group and had not been turning up to sessions regularly. It is possible that the selection strategies of the teachers contributed to the higher self-esteem score at this time. Each teacher chose children, except the teacher who chose children to be supported by the Enterprise, who would be able to catch up with the work and not necessarily the children who behaved well in class. It has been found that children who have good intellectual abilities usually have high self-esteem (Schaffer, 1996). It may be that in choosing children who were able to catch up with the work, teachers chose children who had high self-esteem. This may mean that, although the Enterprise Group increased the self-esteem of pupils, it may have given an exaggerated sense of high self-esteem if the role models who were involved in the initiative already had higher than average self-esteem.

The other finding from the Enterprise Group, that both groups of children had higher perceptions of initiating interactions at Time 2 than at Time 1, could be attributed to the weekly P7-S1 link scheme for local primary schools that allowed P7 pupils to meet up and develop good relationships prior to starting S1 together. This scheme may also have contributed to the decrease in social anxiety that the total sample from this school reported.

At the Buddy System school, at Time 1, children who buddied had significantly lower self-esteem than children who did not buddy. This finding is consistent with teachers' reports that some of the children who buddied were the quieter children who had difficulty making friends. Self-esteem significantly increased for buddies at Time 2 but was still lower, though not significantly, than children who did not buddy.

At Time 2, buddies felt they were significantly more likely to initiate an interaction than children who did not buddy. As buddies, children had to approach pupils with SEN who they were buddying, and other children with whom children with SEN wished to play. It is likely that an increased frequency of initiating interactions with new people contributed to buddies' increased perceptions of initiating interactions.

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At Times 1 and 2 buddies reported significantly higher conflict management skills than children who did not buddy. Occasionally, children with SEN shouted, pushed, ran away or were teased and it is possible that buddies felt they were better able to deal with conflict compared to those children who did not buddy. Completion of the questionnaire at Time 1 occurred after children had been involved with the buddy system for a couple of months. It is not possible to ascertain whether buddies perceptions of dealing with problems increased as a result of buddying experience or whether children who felt they were able to manage conflict were more likely to volunteer to be a buddy.

Children who did not buddy had significantly increased social self-esteem and perceptions of social behaviour, and significantly decreased levels of social anxiety at Time 2. At this school all Primary 7 children were involved in the production of a school play and it is possible that greater involvement and interaction with other children partly explains increases in perceptions of social self-esteem and social behaviour for pupils who did not buddy. Without overemphasising the point, it may be possible that buddies did not have significantly increased social self-esteem or perceptions of social behaviour because they were 'quieter' children and did not actively seek out interaction with peers, reducing their opportunities to develop socially. Little research has been carried out with 'quiet' children. Research focusing on children who are withdrawn however suggests that these children tend to have lower perceptions of themselves than other children (Rubin *et al*, 1993). It is possible that this is the same for some quiet children, although Schneider (1999) suggests that children who may display some 'inhibited' behaviour do form and maintain close friendships.

The total sample of children attending initiatives had significantly increased self-esteem and perceptions of initiating interactions at Time 2. Children who did not attend an initiative had significantly increased social self-esteem, perceptions of social behaviour and perceptions of initiating interactions.

At Time 1, pupils who were involved in the initiatives reported significantly lower perceptions of the ability to modify behaviour than pupils who were not involved.

Children who attended initiatives were significantly less socially anxious and had higher perceptions of initiating interactions at Time 2 than children who did not attend initiatives.

It is interesting that children's involvement with initiatives is associated with increased self-esteem but not increased social self-esteem. If it can be attributed to involvement in initiatives, children felt good about taking part but less so about engaging with others. As each initiative involved meeting new people, staff and pupils, the increased perceptions of initiating interactions was quite likely to be linked to the opportunities children had to meet others.

At Time 1 there was a significant difference between children's perceptions of the ability to change behaviour. But at Time 2 this difference was no longer significant. This suggests that children attending initiatives may have felt they were more able to change their social behaviour according to the needs of different situations. This may, in part, have been an outcome of attending new situations (that is, the initiative) and having to learn how to work in a new group setting.

Considering specifically children who were supported by the initiatives, results showed significantly increased self-esteem at Time 2 and an increase in perceptions of initiating interactions at Time 2 that approached significance. There were no significant increases from Time 1 to Time 2 for role models when buddies were excluded. At Time 1, role models reported significantly higher self-esteem and ability to modify behaviour than children supported by initiatives, although increases in perceptions of self-esteem and behaviour modification were significantly greater for children supported by initiatives than role models.

When buddies were included in the analyses as role models there was a significant increase from Time 1 to Time 2 in self-esteem and the increase in initiating interactions approached significance. The difference at Time 1 between supported children and role models remained significant for the ability to modify behaviour, higher for roles models, though there was no difference in initiating interactions. The increase in self-esteem was significantly greater for children supported by initiatives than roles models.

As teachers suggested, children who were supported may have enjoyed the opportunity to belong to a group which was admired by others and this may have boosted their self-esteem. Children who were role models may not have experienced the same increase in self-esteem, in part because they did not have a low self-esteem to begin with and possibly their need for acceptance, admiration and praise was not as high as children who were supported by the initiatives. Similarly to other findings, children's perceptions of initiating interactions may have increased because of the increased opportunities that initiatives provided to meet new staff and pupils. The children who were supported by the initiatives displayed significantly increased perceptions of the ability to modify behaviour compared to the role models which suggests that supported pupils felt they had learnt, whether from the role models or otherwise, how to alter their behaviour to fit the needs of a particular situation.

The analyses carried out with school data revealed few differences. At the Craft Club School there was a significant increase in self-esteem and social self-esteem. At the Enterprise School there was a significant increase in perceptions of initiating interactions and at the Buddy System School there was a significant increase in self-esteem and social behaviour, and a significant reduction in social anxiety.

At Time 2, children at the Craft Club School had significantly higher self-esteem than children at the Enterprise School. The increase in self-esteem at the Craft Club School was significantly greater than the increase in self-esteem at the Enterprise or Buddy System Schools. It is interesting that the school which did not have a significant increase in self-esteem for children attending initiatives displayed a significantly greater increase in self-esteem than either of the other two schools. It is possible that the focus on self-esteem and social self-esteem at the Craft Club School was related to the positive ethos that the school promoted, and won awards for. Pupils may have felt more valued at this school than at the others. At the Enterprise School the increase in initiating interactions may have been a result of the P7-S1 link scheme. At the Buddy System School involvement in the school play may have highlighted the importance of social behaviours and the opportunity to perform may have helped reduce social anxiety. It is likely that a number of factors contributed to these increases.

There are a number of limitations associated with the questionnaire analyses. With respect to the initiatives, sample sizes were very small and it possible that some effects of attending initiatives have been missed. Despite these small numbers, there were some significant differences between the different groups in the sample. Similarly, effects of attending initiatives may have been missed because a limited number of scales could be included in the questionnaire. Children attending initiatives may have had increased perceptions in areas that the questionnaire did not measure. Some of the reliability analyses for the scales were not strong and results should be treated as indicators rather than highly robust findings. It is also possible that given the large number of tests carried out that some of the results were 'false positives'. Future research on the factor structure and items of the questionnaire could be carried out to extend the validity of this questionnaire.

8.11 Conclusion

Although initiatives formed only one small part of children's development opportunities, it does seem that there were a number of areas where the initiatives had a positive impact. In light of the finding that children who were not involved in the Buddy System or Enterprise Group did not have significantly increased self-esteem, it seems reasonable to conclude that the Enterprise Group and the Buddy System contributed to the increased self-esteem of children who were involved in these initiatives. The finding that children who were involved in the Buddy System were significantly more likely to report positive conflict management skills than children who were not involved indicates that specific personal and social skills can be developed depending on the nature of the activity children are involved in.

Within the initiatives it was found that children who were supported by initiatives had significantly improved self-esteem and perceptions of initiating interactions than children who were role models. This is consistent with other findings that children who have lower perceptions of themselves and their abilities have increased their perceptions at a significantly greater rate than children who do not initially have low perceptions (Mahoney & Cairns, 1997; Smoll *et al*, 1993). This finding suggests that schools were able to identify accurately which pupils would benefit from participating in the initiatives.

It is not surprising that more differences were not apparent between children who attended initiatives and children who were not involved in initiatives. It is likely that many children were involved in other activities outside school which would enhance development too.

The exception to these findings is the Craft Club. It seems unfair, given the small numbers (7 pupils), to suggest that the Craft Club did not have an additional effect on pupils' personal and social development particularly as they did show increases on a number of measures, although these were not significant. It is possible that children developed in other ways not measured by the questionnaire or not associated with personal and social development. Even with small numbers (8 pupils) children who did not attend the Craft Club showed increased self-esteem, social-self esteem and perceptions of social behaviour. Perhaps the opportunity to play with friends each lunchtime uninterrupted contributed more towards pupils' development than participating in the Craft Club.

On the whole, it does seem that initiatives offered children opportunities for personal and social development and that the skills developed could reflect specific opportunities afforded by the initiatives, for example, conflict management in the Buddy System. Development however may be dependent on the organisation of the initiatives, including time of the initiative, and the opportunity for children to be involved in group, rather than individual, activities.

Chapter 9. Discussion and Conclusions

9.1 Introduction

This thesis set out to investigate the provision of informal personal and social development initiatives for primary pupils with personal and social needs. Personal and social development provision in primary schools has been identified by the Scottish Office, now Scottish Government, as a method through which to promote inclusion in society (Scottish Office, 1999a). The aims of the study were to develop an understanding of the organisation and impact of personal and social development initiatives in primary schools and to understand how historical and current provision for personal and social development may have influenced the development of these initiatives.

The study was conducted through a combination of two theoretical frameworks: the processual approach and activity theory. The combination of investigating a research topic through these two frameworks was a unique approach that helped to illuminate a wide range of historical and contemporary issues associated with the personal and social development initiatives.

The processual approach offers a framework for understanding how a new change, in this case, a personal and social development initiative, has developed. It emphasises the importance of understanding social and political factors within an organisation and the importance of understanding external organisations working within the same locality or sector. Another key area of the processual approach is the investigation of wider historical, social and political influences, for example, government policy. Developing this understanding contributed to understanding some of the influences on schools' decisions to introduce personal and social development initiatives and the methods used by initiative leaders.

Activity theory offers a framework of seven factors (see Chapter 3) that are considered key aspects that influence activities. This framework follows on succinctly from the last feature of processual approach which suggests that the 'operation' of the new initiative should be explored. The seven factors of activity theory were modified slightly to suit the requirements of the current study.

This combination of the approaches offers a significant contribution to developing understanding within the field of social research. Using the two approaches together promotes exploration of a wide range of external and internal, and historical and current issues which provide in-depth understanding about the initiative (or topic of investigation) and the links between the historical and social issues affecting the initiative and its outcomes. Researchers are encouraged to investigate and become knowledgeable about three main areas: contextual aspects of an initiative (or topic under investigation), the operation of the initiative and the outcomes of initiatives. Each approach has the flexibility to incorporate a range of qualitative and quantitative research techniques.

In the current investigation this approach was used to investigate three research questions:

Research Question 1

What has been the historical development of personal and social development provision in primary schools in Scotland, which has led to an identification of poor provision for those with individual personal and social needs?

Research Question 2

What is current thinking and practice in relation to personal and social development in primary schools in Scotland? What is the incidence of informal personal and social initiatives in schools?

Research Question 3

How have personal and social development initiatives operated within schools and how have they contributed to pupils' personal and social development?

9.2 Research Question 1: The Historical Context

The review of historical literature presented in Chapter Four revealed a path of development that is likely to have led to the current assessment of personal and social education as providing few opportunities for pupils with personal and social needs. The review showed that education has always aimed to mould society through manipulation of pupils' behaviour and thinking but that this has been managed in different ways throughout the centuries.

Initially in the 19th century, tasks focused around improving attendance at schools and building sufficient schools to accommodate pupils. Later concerns turned to improving school buildings and accommodation, and broadening the curriculum to include, for example, geography, history and swimming (Anderson, 1995). Teaching practice at this time largely focused on rote learning and strict, and often severe, methods of discipline (Bain, 1977; Kerr, 1913). Personal and social development of children did not exist *per se*, in that there were few examples of opportunities being provided for children to develop, for example, understanding of others, confidence or self-esteem. It was thought in these earlier eras that by virtue of being educated children would develop appropriate values and morals. Strict methods of teaching and discipline were thought to help prevent poor behaviour or values.

During the 1960s there was a move away from rote learning and strict discipline, and experimentation with child-centred teaching practice emerged. The use of child-centred teaching practice had been a component of educational thought in the last two centuries but this did not really gain prominence until the 1960s when experimentation with teaching methods emerged (SED, 1965). The idea of school responsibility for pupils' personal and social development however did not gain wide support until the 1980s when it began to appear in policy documents (COPE, 1983). At the same time, the end of the 1980s and early 1990s, this new interest in personal and social development was accompanied by the introduction of a number of practitioner guidance books about personal and social development (for example, Pring, 1988; Tattum & Tattum, 1992; White, 1989). A decade later, although no changes were made to the Personal and Social Development Curriculum, revisions were made to other guidelines such as modern languages (LTS, 2000f, 2000g) which revealed developments in teaching practice that incorporated personal and social activities for the dual purpose of developing personal and social skills and enhancing academic achievement.

In the National Curriculum Guidelines for all subject areas (for example, LTS, 2000h) guidance is general and intended to be used largely to plan lessons and activities for all pupils. There is little or no specific guidance for pupils with individual needs. This is also true of the personal and social development guidelines. General topics (such as focusing on self-esteem and self-awareness) are intended to guide class or

group activities with all pupils. Meeting the needs of individuals is identified as an area teachers should address, though no guidance about offering opportunities for this purpose is provided.

There are now developments for new curricular guidelines, *A Curriculum for Excellence* (LTS, 2006), spanning ages three to 18 years. These guidelines are intended to improve continuity of education throughout the school career of pupils (LTS, 2004, 2006). The aim for the new curriculum, to be implemented in August 2008, will be to produce 'responsible citizens', 'effective contributors', 'successful learners' and 'confident individuals'. There are some positive implications for personal and social development, for example, it is thought that various aspects of the curriculum which were considered 'add-ons' or extra-curricular activities such as enterprise, health and creativity activities can be built into the curriculum framework. This includes such activities as voluntary and charitable work, clubs and community work being included in curricular time in order that all children may have the opportunity to participate (LTS, 2006). This may help to increase the number of opportunities for personal and social development and/or time spent planning activities for personal and social development.

The language relating to personal and social development issues is also beginning to change and academic and personal and social skills are viewed as being more interrelated and contributing to the development of each of the four areas identified above. For example, to become a successful learner pupils must have determination, motivation and enthusiasm for learning as well as the skills and abilities to use knowledge (LTS, 2004). New personal and social skills that are considered appropriate for the current era include tolerance, considering judgements and ethical action, resilience, and enterprising attitudes. On a negative side, personal and social development will still be allotted a specific time and place within the curriculum (under 'Health and Well-Being') which may detract from the contribution that other areas of the curriculum can have on personal and social development. There is however a commitment to reducing boundaries among subjects which may encourage teachers to think about cross curricular provision for personal and social development (LTS, 2004, 2006). This can be achieved by creating a good environment for learning, using suitable teaching and learning approaches, organisation of learning,

and through day to day experiences (LTS, 2006). These new guidelines do not indicate to what extent the needs of individuals should be met. As with previous guidelines it too addresses general pupil development.

The historical review overall highlights the *general* nature and *general* purpose of education provision including personal and social development. For example, it was thought in the 18th and 19th centuries that removing *all* children and young people from the streets would reduce youth crime (Scotland, 1969a). Earlier still, in the 16th and 17th centuries, it was thought that the provision of elementary education would improve the moral standing of *society* (Anderson, 1997). Personal and social development when it was introduced as a curricular topic was no different. The general nature of the personal and social development guidelines follows this general structure of the national curriculum guidelines and of popular personal and social development activities such as Promoting Positive Behaviour (MacLean, 1992) and Circle Time (Mosley, 1996) which are designed to be used with whole class groups or the school as a whole rather than specific groups of pupils.

One change however in more recent decades is the increasing focus on the individual within that general structure. Between the 1940s and 1980s, the aims of education became increasingly individually oriented. The focus of education was to produce self-reliant 'citizens' rather than a moral 'society', and to help children learn to live with others (for example, SED, 1946). In the mid 20th century theories of child development influenced practice and schools began to educate the 'whole personality' and experiential learning opportunities were introduced (SED, 1965). By the 1990s the aims of education were that each individual child should be able to understand and appreciate themselves and others, develop creative abilities and independent thought, take responsibility for their health and safe living and develop positive attitudes to learning (LTS, 2000h). Involvement in learning rather than passive memorisation of facts was also introduced during the 1960s to encourage individual development.

When HMIE inspections were carried out reports (HMIE 1999, 2001a) concluded that personal and social development provision in primary schools was either good or very good. Having observed some evidence of provision for individuals with personal and social needs in schools with very good provision inspectors recommended that

personal and social development in schools could be enhanced in this way. And so the 'gap' in personal and social provision was identified. According to activity theory and the processual approach this represents an example of externalisation, that is, the beginning of a period of creativity and thinking about new developments for personal and social development provision in primary schools.

The historical review also highlighted two other ideas relating to personal and social development. The idea of assessing personal and social development was introduced in the 5-14 personal and social development guidelines. No clear advice was provided about how assessments should be carried out or what should be assessed (though some indicators of possible stages of development were provided in the guidelines) but the efficacy of assessing personal and social features was emphasised (SOED, 1993b).

The second idea is that certain curricular subjects have a greater influence on pupils' personal and social development than others. Over the last few decades successive Scottish Office/Executive education departments have assumed that expressive arts subjects, that is, music, drama, art and physical education, provide pupils with opportunities for self-expression and therefore personal and social development (SED, 1965; SOED, 1993c). This indicates a belief that by virtue of their provision, these areas of the curriculum will contribute substantially to children's personal and social development. These areas of the curriculum however are equally susceptible to methods of teaching and pupil interest as any other. If opportunities for personal and social development are not afforded in expressive arts, they are no more likely to contribute to personal and social development than any other area of the curriculum . Revisions to the personal and social development curriculum, if and when they are made, should recognise that opportunities for personal and social development must also be provided in these areas.

This historical investigation had an important impact on the interpretation of empirical findings. Empirical findings were considered in relation to previous events and practice in education and focused not only on how things could be improved but also how practice had progressed and developed. For example, it is possible that the small number of personal and social development initiatives within schools could

have been criticised if there had been a lack of understanding that it is only in the recent past that personal and social development became a part of the primary school curriculum. Similarly, understanding of historical teaching practice and theories helped to illuminate current ideas and practice used in schools and the initiatives, such as, teacher control, group work, and individual work.

9.3 Research Question 2: Current thinking and practice in primary schools
The findings of the local authority survey have borne out the general findings of the historical review, namely, that schools now provide a range of opportunities for personal and social development with some limited provision of initiatives for pupils with personal and social needs. The findings of the survey indicated that provision for personal and social development is actively managed in schools to a much greater extent than in previous eras. In earlier centuries, for example, it was presumed that receiving education or attending school would contribute to moral development and it was thought, up till the 1980s, that schools did not have a responsibility for personal and social development. In the current survey all head teachers indicated that a range of school activities contributed to personal and social development including Circle Time. In addition, 15 schools (68%) indicated that they had introduced between them 43 initiatives for personal and social development including pupil councils and buddy schemes.

The survey also supported HMIE findings that only a small number of initiatives catered to the needs of individuals (HMIE, 1999; 2001a). Five schools (23%) had introduced initiatives aimed at pupils with specific personal and social needs. Of the 43 initiatives introduced by the 15 schools 7 (16%) were aimed at pupils with specific personal and social needs. It is not possible from the data collected to ascertain what an appropriate level of provision for pupils with personal and social needs would be. The majority of initiatives introduced were small group activities. This is similar to other findings which have shown that small group activities are commonly used as a method of behaviour support in secondary schools in Scotland (Head *et al*, 2003).

Where head teachers had introduced personal and social development initiatives for pupils with personal and social needs, interviews revealed that this had not been in response to Section Four of the Personal and Social Development National

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Curriculum Guidelines which encourages schools to provide personal and social opportunities for pupils with individual needs. This suggests that the introduction of such initiatives is dependent on the motivation and willingness of a member (or members) of staff.

Results of the survey indicated that some schools worked with community organisations to provide personal and social development activities. This shows a significant development from the 1960s and earlier when it was thought that provision for personal and social development should mainly rest with community organisations. Just over half of the schools (53%) worked with organisations such as police departments, churches and retirement homes to help pupils develop personal and social skills. Schools (68%) also found the local education department supportive. This suggests that schools had established partnerships and supportive networks in line with current trends towards integration or interagency provision of services (Whyte, 1997).

One concern that arose from the survey related to the definition of personal and social development. Head teachers generally accepted that the guidelines covered relevant aspects of personal and social development. Only four (19%) felt the guidelines could be improved. Improvements that were suggested related to including other topics such as crime and drugs. Otherwise, head teachers accepted the definition or focus of personal and social development on self-esteem, self-awareness, interacting with others and, independence and interdependence. Implications of this narrow focus on positive aspects of personal and social development are that personal and social difficulties, such as conflict management, are overlooked and limited types of activities or initiatives are introduced by schools. Revisions to the Personal and Social Development Guidelines should incorporate balanced topics which will help pupils deal with negative situations or feelings as well as develop positive attributes such as self-awareness and self-esteem. Warden *et al* (2003) have also emphasised the efficacy of identifying negative and positive aspects of pupils' social behaviour in order to provide a balanced understanding of children's social behaviours and social perceptions.

9.4 Research Question 3: Personal and Social Initiatives

The investigation of three personal and social initiatives aimed to gain an understanding of the operation of informal initiatives within a school environment and to gauge the impact of initiatives on pupils' personal and social development.

In each of the three schools the idea for initiatives emerged from the interest of one or two individuals within the school rather than as a result of external pressure from the local authority or other body. This finding is not unexpected as there is very little guidance or emphasis on meeting the needs of individuals in the Personal and Social Development Guidelines. The needs of individuals are met when it is of concern to staff members who are prepared to spend time running this type of initiative.

9.4.1 Subject group (Pupils attending initiatives)

Selecting pupils to attend the Craft Club and Enterprise Group was a task carried out by teachers and initiative leaders. At the Craft Club teachers chose three types of pupil, those who had social difficulties, those who were shy but would be good behavioural role models and those who were confident, well-behaved role models. At the Enterprise Group three pupils who were disaffected and nine pupils who would make suitable role models were chosen. All pupils in the SEN unit were involved in the Buddy System unless it became apparent that it was not suitable for them. Primary 7 pupils volunteered to become buddies.

Results from the personal and social development questionnaire showed that pupils with personal and social needs had lower scores on some personal and social factors, such as self-esteem, than pupils who were considered to be good role models. This indicates that using teachers' knowledge of pupils can be a useful and suitable method of selection. The voluntary nature of the Buddy System produced a group of buddies with a range of personal and social skills, including those who had personal and social needs as well as pupils who were confident.

Although schools did identify children at risk (as reflected by their lower scores on the personal and social development questionnaire) it has also been shown that children's sociograms can be used to identify those who are likely to display personal and social problems. Cowen *et al* (1973) found that children who had exhibited

psychiatric problems as teenagers had been identified as having problems, though not of extreme severity, six or seven years prior to the problems surfacing in a serious form. These researchers found that the ratings of eight and nine year old peers (from a test battery of measures including school records, IQ, performance, teacher judgement, self-report and peer data) best predicted later psychiatric difficulty.

9.4.2 Purpose

According to activity theorists and Bandura (1977) knowledge of the purpose of an activity should enhance learning. This line of thinking has recently been applied to primary education where children are informed of a 'learning intention' that they are aiming to achieve in a particular lesson (LTS, 2005). It was also applied to the Buddy System. Buddies were informed that the aim of the Buddy System was to help pupils with SEN integrate with their class peers. This method met with only limited success as the majority of the buddies thought the purpose of the Buddy System was to play with pupils with SEN rather than help them make friends with classmates. This was related to organisational issues rather than failure of the 'learning intention' method.

This method of informing pupils about the purpose of the initiative was in contrast to the approach used in the Craft Club and Enterprise Group. The purpose of the Craft Club and Enterprise Group to improve personal and social skills was hidden from pupils to prevent any associated stigma. Despite this, pupils with social problems suggested that they attended the Craft Club for social reasons or the Enterprise Group because it was a behaviour group. This possibly indicates that pupils with social difficulties were aware of their problems or aware that others felt they had personal or social difficulties. They may have learnt from experience that when they attended an activity it was for 'social reasons'. This is consistent with other research which has shown that pupils who receive behaviour support view the support as a punishment even when it is helpful to them (Kane *et al*, 2004). Role model pupils did not suspect there was a personal and social element to the initiative they were attending.

The impact that this belief had on pupils with social difficulties varied. Pupils with social difficulties attending the Craft Club generally saw this as a positive aspect of the club where they could learn to get on with others or control their temper. The disaffected pupils attending the Enterprise Group viewed the group as a constraint.

As discussed in Chapter Three, it has been shown that learning without being aware of the purpose of learning does occur. Results of the personal and social development questionnaire were consistent with this finding as pupils' attending the initiatives improved their scores on a number of personal and social factors compared to those who did not attend. As pupils with social difficulties suspected the initiatives may have had a personal and social element it is not possible to state fully that development occurred without knowledge for this group of pupils.

9.4.3 Mediating artefacts

A number of mediating artefacts were used to promote personal and social skills. Most of these approaches were consistent with theoretical reasoning in the literature. The three initiatives were based on peer interaction. Theories of peer interaction suggest that peer interaction is a more powerful method of personal and social skill development than adult-peer interaction (Schaffer, 1996). It is thought that peer interaction provides children with greater opportunities for negotiation and collaboration because peer relationships are more equal than relationships between adults and children (Schaffer, 1996).

Pupil role models were also a strong element of each initiative which is in line with reasoning about modelling behaviour (Bandura, 1994). It was however recognised and expected that children with social problems would not necessarily adopt all the behaviours of role models though it was hoped in the Craft Club that positive role models would encourage an atmosphere of calmness and engagement with craft activities.

The activities of the initiatives were also thought to be an important feature affecting pupils' development. In the Craft Club it was thought that arts and crafts provided a good medium for encouraging conversation because children would be occupied and less self-conscious about talking in front of others. The Craft Club encouraged pupils to work individually alongside each other and perhaps this explains why it did not have such a significant impact on the personal and social factors measured in the personal and social development questionnaire. Tattum and Tattum (1992) also found that children who worked beside each other rather than working together on a task did not engage in effective collaborative working. Head (2003) defines effective

collaboration as *a group of people behaving in a way that not only produces individual benefits, but leads to a degree of success belonging to the group and can only be achieved by group members working together in this fashion* (p50).

In the Enterprise Group it was thought that the range of activities and small group work would help to engage pupils and encourage them to work together. That pupils often spoke of being able to achieve results by working together and of co-operation during interviews suggests that group work did promote teamwork. In the Buddy System helping pupils with SEN to engage with their class peers was intended to help improve integration. That some of the pupils with SEN no longer needed a buddy to integrate with their class indicates that this may have been a successful approach for some of the pupils.

At each of the initiatives leaders aimed to create an informal and relaxed environment for pupils in order to encourage social interaction and development. Praise and verbal reinforcement were also key elements of the initiatives. These have been shown to improve self-esteem and encourage involvement (Bandura, 1994).

9.4.4 Organisational issues
Some of the key organisational issues in relation to personal and social development were attendance, timing of the initiative, and pupils' and staff input and interaction. Findings are consistent with McBeath's (1986) principle that the organisation of an initiative is crucial to its success.

Often personal and social education is developed at a local level on a school's own initiative but the initiatives can lack co-ordination, support from head teachers and sometimes display mediocre practice from teachers working in isolation (Hargreaves *et al*, 1988). This may be in part related to the outcomes of the Craft Club in relation to its lack of encouraging children to interact and the difficulty associated with encouraging children to attend the club at lunchtimes.

The Buddy System lacked adequate support for the buddies. There was little teacher or auxiliary input or encouragement for the buddies and this resulted in irregular and

infrequent buddying, though this could depend on the year group and personality of the pupils who volunteered to buddy.

In order to encourage interaction, group sizes were kept small in the Enterprise Group and Craft Club and only a small number of pupils were allowed to buddy pupils with SEN at any one time. This produced the desired consequences in the Enterprise Group and Buddy System where, respectively, pupils developed good working relationships in small teams and positive relationships with the buddies. For the Craft Club the small group size had a limited effect because pupils worked beside each other, chatting if they wished, but not working together on a piece of work.

Teacher and pupil involvement in activities can have positive outcomes for pupil development (Chin & Brown, 2000) but this was only a key feature for staff at the Craft Club school. Teachers and staff, including the head teacher, across the Craft Club school were involved in the club at lunch time. Involvement ranged from occasional visits to regular weekly input. Pupils at this school thought that staff were very supportive of the Craft Club which helped to raise the status of the initiative. Additional benefits of staff participation were that teachers were able to talk to their pupils about the club and its activities which helped to reinforce the aims of the club to improve behaviour and self-esteem. Staff participation also allowed teachers to communicate with each other about pupils' development and to adopt an integrated approach within the school.

School staff had limited involvement in the Enterprise Group and Buddy System. Teachers whose pupils were involved in the Enterprise Group were not aware of the aims or the purpose of pupils leaving their class frequently and there was little communication with initiative staff. This caused negative views or indifference towards the Enterprise Group amongst some staff members. Auxiliaries in the SEN unit were not proactively involved in the Buddy System. They did not contribute to decision making about the Buddy System nor did they have a specific role in offering support to buddies. This meant that a potential support network which may have encouraged greater frequency of buddying was not utilised.

Each of the initiatives involved minimal amounts of pupil participation in key decisions, a finding consistent with other research that teachers often engage in teacher led rather than pupil led activities (Black *et al*, 1991). Although this did not have any negative consequences *per se* it did reduce the possible number of development opportunities available to pupils. Paterson (2003) has indicated that control and structure is still a key element of education in Scotland and as such child-centredness and participation are still relatively new and unused teaching methods.

The consequences of pupils missing a desirable activity, such as Golden Time activities or playing with friends at lunchtime, to attend the initiative may also have limited development. The timing of each of the initiatives involved pupils missing free time or a fun activity. Although children didn't like to miss out playing with their friends or missing 'Golden Time' activities they did appreciate the opportunity to participate in the initiatives. Initiative leaders addressed this balance by allowing pupils to miss some of the Craft Club sessions if it was thought pupils with social difficulties were interacting well in the playground, by allowing buddies only to come if they felt they had time or the inclination (though this resulted in infrequent buddying) and at the Enterprise Group, pupils were allowed to attend Golden Time activities for a few weeks.

Resourcing the initiatives did not emerge as a concern within any of the schools but comparisons across schools revealed that assigning an initiative 'curricular status' (as the Enterprise Group had) may increase the resources allocated to it. The Craft Club and Buddy System initiatives were extra-curricular. The Craft Club and Enterprise Group were not as well-resourced as the Enterprise Group in terms of staff time, materials and pupils being able to miss classes if extra work was required to complete an activity.

9.4.5 Relationships

Interviews revealed that when pupils worked or played together on the same task better relationships were established. Relationships amongst pupils were strongest within the Buddy System where pupils played together and formed friendships in the playground. At the Craft Club, where pupils worked alongside each other as opposed to together, pupils spoke about getting on with each other and liking each other

although not being likely to play outside the Craft Club unless they were already in established friendships.

A slightly different pattern emerged at the Enterprise Group. Similarly to the Buddy System, pupils spoke of the development of relationships and getting on better with each other as they spent more time together. In contrast however pupils who were disaffected, although they perceived improved relationships with other pupils in the group, still made the distinction between the 'good people,' who never got into trouble, and themselves. They also perceived that they were involved in fewer of the activities than the 'good' pupils even though this was not the case. This has implications for the selection process. Established peer perceptions should be taken into consideration when choosing pupils to be involved.

9.4.6 School community and ethos
The ethos and community of the school was an important influence in each of the schools. In the Craft Club and Buddy System schools, staff, parents and pupils viewed the initiatives and the school positively and regarded them as positive places that aimed to do the best for each child. In the Enterprise Group school staff felt that this type of initiative was 'shoved' at children frequently and therefore lost its meaning and potential impact. It is not possible to determine whether the slightly unfavourable attitude towards the Enterprise Group had a negative effect on the initiative. Winning the local council competition may have counteracted any negative outcomes associated with a less positive ethos. It is also possible that pupils perceive the school ethos differently than adults and that the negative attitudes of other teachers were not recognised by the pupils. At each school, initiatives had the support of the head teacher which has been shown by Hargreaves *et al* (1988) to ensure high status, adequate resourcing and continuance of activities. High status of an activity also contributes to the positive impact that activity (Hargreaves *et al*, 1988).

9.4.7 Personal and social outcomes
Pupils enjoyed being involved in the initiatives. They enjoyed the different activities and interacting with others pupils they would not normally interact with. In terms of personal and social development it was difficult for staff, parents and pupils to describe what pupils gained from participating in the initiatives. Some instances of

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increased self-esteem and confidence in pupils were described, for example, some pupils had greater confidence to try new activities or engage with other people. Often it was difficult for those interviewed to decide how much the initiatives had contributed to pupils' development compared to the contribution of other activities pupils were involved in. Most individuals did not doubt however that the initiative had contributed to development in some measure. In two instances parents were unsure what impact involvement in the initiative had achieved for their child. One parent felt that her daughter who participated in the Craft Club had not improved her social behaviour or skills. Another parent felt that her daughter who had special educational needs had given more to the school and buddies in terms of learning about SEN than they had given her through the Buddy System.

Teachers and initiative leaders thought they had observed some improvements in pupils with problems behaviours but that these improvements could be sporadic and varied. In one case leaders and teachers of the Enterprise Group could not see any change in one disaffected pupil.

This finding of the difficulty of observing changes in pupils relates to the idea of conscious development discussed in Chapter Three. Change may occur without being observed. It is also possible that, as commented by staff and parents, pupils may develop at some point in the future upon reflection of the activities.

One area where it was felt that there was clear improvement was 'thinking of and understanding others' that buddies developed following involvement in the Buddy System. Comments made by buddies and parents and staff indicated that buddies had learnt about some of the abilities, limitations, needs and feelings that pupils with SEN might have. Inclusion for pupils with SEN within the school was also thought to be a positive outcome of being involved in the Buddy System.

Whilst interview data largely revealed similarities in personal and social outcomes across initiatives, quantitative data revealed differences in personal and social outcomes. Results showed that children who were supported by initiatives were more likely than children who did not have problems to have increased self-esteem and the ability to modify behaviour. This was similar to the findings of Smoll *et al* (1993) who showed that providing children with social support resulted in an increase in self-

esteem for children who had low self-esteem but not for children who did not have low self-esteem. Along similar lines buddies (who were role models rather than supported pupils) had lower self-esteem at Time 1 than children who did not buddy. At Time 2 buddies still had a lower self-esteem but it was no longer significantly lower than pupils who did not buddy.

In addition, pupils attending the Enterprise Group showed a very high, significant increase in self-esteem. This is likely to be a consequence of winning a prestigious competition and is consistent with findings that external rewards promote self-esteem (Benninga *et al*, 1993).

These findings of an increase in self-esteem were also accompanied by a reduction in social anxiety for pupils who attended initiatives but not for pupils who did not attend initiatives. One explanation for this could be that children responded to the informal atmosphere of the initiatives or they felt less socially anxious because they felt a closer bond to the school and its teachers. For example, Mahoney and Cairns (1997) suggest that a voluntary connection to the school creates a closer bond with the school and in their study children who were involved in an extra curricular activity were less likely to drop out of school than pupils who were not involved in such an activity.

It is interesting that children's involvement with initiatives is associated with increased self-esteem but not increased social self-esteem. Opportunities to feel proud about involvement in the initiatives such as winning the competition (Enterprise Group) or the feeling of doing something worthwhile (Buddy System) may have been more prevalent to children than opportunities of social engagement.

At Time 1, pupils who were involved in initiatives reported lower perceptions of the ability to modify behaviour than pupils who were not involved in initiatives. At Time 2 this difference was no longer significant. This difference may be related to interacting with new individuals and becoming more aware of actions. It is also possible that aspects of behaviour were highlighted more frequently by initiative leaders which may have had an impact on pupils.

After being involved in the Buddy System buddies reported increased likelihood of being able to deal with others in negative situations and engaging with others in positive situations. Conflict management skills were higher among pupils who buddied compared to pupils who did not buddy. Questionnaire results revealed that at Time 1 and Time 2 buddies had higher perceptions of their ability to manage conflict. It is unclear whether children developed this skill because they were involved in the Buddy System or whether children who volunteered to buddy felt they were better able to manage conflict than other pupils. Results also showed that after a period of involvement in the Buddy System buddies felt significantly more likely to initiate an interaction than pupils who did not buddy. This is likely to be related to meeting new people and encouraging pupils with special educational needs to interact with others.

9.4.8 Conclusions

These results have shown that there are some clear links between personal and social skills that pupils have developed and the initiatives pupils have attended. Many of these results were corroborated by theoretical reasoning or other research findings in the literature. For example, pupils involved in the Buddy System felt they were better able to deal with conflict following a period of interaction with pupils with special educational needs and dealing with some difficult behaviour. It has been shown in other research that peer support projects have resulted in pupils learning strategies to deal with difficult social situations (Edwards, 2003). Another key finding was that pupils in the Enterprise Group experienced a significant increase in self-esteem following the success of their business within the school (selling all the products quickly) and wider community (winning a prestigious award). Benninga et al (1991) also found in school settings that external rewards resulted in increased self-esteem.

The data gathered however highlighted areas where the initiatives may have been less successful. For example, in the Enterprise Group pupils with personal and social needs believed that the group was intended for them, and not other pupils, to be a behaviour group. This had a negative effect on the pupils attending the Enterprise Group because they did not wish to attend the group. There was some evidence that other boys attending the Enterprise Group started to imitate the poor behaviour of the boys who had personal and social needs. This was not the intended direction of influence.

9.5 Implications for Practice

The results of the study have implications for primary school practice in personal and social development. Results revealed that schools can successfully identify pupils who have personal and social needs, as indicated by lower scores on some of the questionnaire measures compared to other pupils in the same class.

Results show that schools should consider a range of issues when they are establishing a personal and social development initiative. The results of the activity theory analysis provide a pedagogical framework for considering these issues. Many of these are applicable to all personal and social initiatives and programmes rather than just those specifically for pupils with personal and social needs. Indeed, as a result of their experience, teachers involved in the initiatives should now be aware that an approach based on activity theory facilitates co-operative learning and the development of autonomous learners. The issues are outlined under the relevant factor below.

- **Purpose of the Initiative**. Teachers should consider the aims of the initiatives and have a clear list of personal and social objectives. This will aid planning and choices concerning the suitability of other aspects of the initiatives in promoting the desired personal and social outcomes.

For example, the aim of the Enterprise Group had been to 'engage a group of disaffected boys'. While personal and social gains were made by children in the Enterprise Group these gains were not necessarily always those of increased engagement. Throughout the year there were a number of occasions when the boys were not engaged. They were occasionally removed from the group or prevented by their class teachers from attending. At the group however the initiative leaders felt the boys did engage with other pupils and participate when they were involved. The boys' class teacher did not see any difference in the classroom. It may have been useful at the start of the Enterprise Group for leaders to have a clearer idea of how they were going to improve pupil engagement and whether this increase in engagement was intended to be transferable to the classroom. These ideas should also have been communicated with class teachers who may then have not prevented the boys from attending.

- **Pupils' Qualities and Needs.** Consider the needs of the pupils who have been identified as having personal and social problems and the skills they are able to bring to the initiative. The personal and social needs and skills of other pupils and staff who are involved should also be considered, including social skills and (for staff) teaching style (for example, humorous versus strict)

For example, at the Craft Club leaders took personality characteristics of pupils into consideration. Pupils with social problems were selected because it was felt that they easily became embroiled in arguments and would benefit most from interacting with other pupils. Other role model pupils chosen were calm and well behaved. It was hoped that they would create a peaceful atmosphere in the club. Initiative leaders recognised that pupils with social problems may not learn the positive behaviours of role models all the time but more often than not they did react positively to the calm atmosphere by quietening down and engaging in quiet conversation. Another benefit of including well behaved role models was that some role model pupils were able to intervene if pupils with social problems engaged in poor behaviour. Class teachers frequently observed a calm attitude from pupils with social problems during afternoon lessons following the Craft Club. Initiative leaders were also keen to ensure that there were a few pupils who had good art and craft skills that were able to help other pupils with this aspect of the work, thereby encouraging further interaction.

- **Mediating Artefacts (Tools).** The manipulation of peer interaction opportunities, such as the use of role models, can be useful in promoting increased interaction. Physical artefacts are also an essential component of most initiatives and the outcomes of the use of these should be considered.

By way of example, buddies and pupils with SEN participating in the Buddy System were allowed to choose toys to play with or activities to participate in. The SEN unit had a range of toys such as skittles, bikes and books that children could play with though pupils could also play traditional playground games such as 'What's the Time Mr Wolf?' Pupils' joint decision making was considered to promote positive

interaction. They were often seen laughing together or having serious discussions about books, and films, that were enjoyed in common.

At the Enterprise Group there was evidence that two or three tasks promoted little interaction. In some cases the tasks inhibited interaction or even triggered poor behaviour. One of these tasks was the use of ovens to heat some of the items that the Enterprise Group were going to sell. The use of the oven was highly monitored by the initiative leader and only two pupils were involved at any one time. This left most pupils waiting for something to do. Children who were waiting started 'messing around' and were frequently reprimanded by the teacher. This resulted in one of the pupils with personal and social problems being sent out of the room. This highlights the need to consider the possible outcomes of each activity that pupils will be involved in and the suitability of that task for children's personal and social development.

- **Organisation of the Initiative.** The importance, for example, of regular and willing attendance, the timing of the initiative, group size, accommodation and other resources, support for pupil helpers (if applicable), opportunities for pupil and staff input, and communication are crucial to the success of the initiative. Organisational issues will vary according to the requirements of an initiative.

For example, at the Craft Club pupils were expected to join the group half way through lunchtime when they were playing with their friends. The system for getting pupils to attend the Craft Club was to call them in from the playground through one of the windows or class doors or by asking other pupils to find particular members of the group. Pupils attending the club often felt it was a chore to stop the game they had been enjoying in order to attend the Craft Club. They always enjoyed the Craft Club but there were sometimes initial feelings of resentment at having been torn away from friends. Being called in through windows, doors and via messengers was not the most effective way to get hold of the children as it could take up to 10 minutes before they were all gathered.

Teachers should consider the value of the activity pupils are missing to the pupils who will be involved. If it is an activity of high value to the pupils then the initiative must offer more to the pupils if it is to be successful and capture children's interest. The method of gathering pupils to the initiative should be one which can help add to the attractiveness of the initiative.

- **School Community and Ethos.** Does the initiative have support within the school and in the school community? Does the initiative fit with the school's ethos?

For example, the Buddy System and Craft Club generally had tremendous support from pupils, teachers and parents. Each year both initiatives had plenty of volunteers who wished to participate. At the Craft Club a few popular pupils were among those initially chosen to participate in the group. Leaders felt this gave credibility to the group and a positive image to other pupils. Leaders also encouraged teaching staff to come along to the group to help, including the head teacher. Craft items made by the pupils were shown to many of the classes by the initiative leaders. This meant that the school, staff and pupils, were always aware of the work of the Craft Club.

The Enterprise Group was less successful in this respect with many teachers, though not pupils, having negative views about the initiative or having little information about it. Teachers often felt it was an opportunity that a greater number of pupils could have enjoyed. The negative views of their class teacher had a detrimental effect on the pupils with personal and social needs. Following a discussion with their class teacher these pupils felt that the Enterprise Group was a chore they were obliged to undertake with the Behaviour Support teacher but which, at the same time, their teacher could prevent them from going to if they hadn't finished their work. This is likely to have conveyed confusing views to the pupils with personal and social needs.

Teachers should consider how best to promote the initiative within the school and in so doing gain the support of staff and pupils who will be involved. This includes ongoing communication with, at the very least, class teachers of pupils involved and can extend to other staff and pupils in the school. Often parents enjoy receiving information about activities that their children are involved in.

- **Relationships.** Positive relationships may develop more strongly amongst pupils who interact in a more informal setting, such as the playground. Consider how important the strength of relationships is to the personal and social skills being promoted in the initiative.

Pupils involved in the Buddy System, who interacted in a playground setting, often reported developing strong friendships and relationships. Those involved in the Craft Club and Enterprise Group felt they generally got on with each other but there was no evidence of strong, lasting relationships. Teachers should consider the purpose of the initiative and arrange provision for a suitable level of interaction. If, for example, the initiative is to promote integration then it may be best to allow children to choose their own activities with minimal adult involvement, apart perhaps from encouraging children to talk in the first place. Where a particular social skill is desired, such as turn taking, then it is more important to provide children with activities where they have to share materials, perhaps, scissors, glue and so on. Some adult intervention may be required to encourage appropriate turn taking to occur.

- **Personal and Social Outcomes.** Look for evidence of personal and social development. Consider whether the methods used to promote personal and social skills and the organisation of the initiative have achieved the desired outcomes. Have other personal and social skills developed in addition to or instead of those intended? The main methods to discover the outcomes would be observation of behaviour and attitudes, and discussions with pupils and other staff members (if appropriate).

There are some difficulties associated with measuring personal and social outcomes. Small incremental changes may be difficult to observe by pupils and staff. New skills may be evident in situations other than those in a school setting making them difficult to observe. It is also possible that personal and social development may occur at some point in the future following involvement in the initiative. In other cases it is likely that a number of factors have contributed to the development of pupils. Staff and pupils in all of the initiatives were able to identify some aspect of development that they felt was attributable to the initiative.

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The framework outlined above allows those considering setting up an initiative to consider a range of factors that affect personal and social development. This can also include initiatives or programmes that are set up for other purposes such as sports clubs and other extracurricular activities and with a little reworking classrooms too. This is particularly important, as shown in Chapter 2, as positive personal and social development contributes to attainment.

9.6 Other Issues

There are three other issues which are pertinent to the research. The first relates to the personal and social development questionnaire. Results showed that the conflict management scale was not related to other measures in the personal and social development questionnaire, including social self-esteem, self-esteem and social anxiety (see Chapter Eight, Section 8.9.1). This finding is somewhat reflected in the literature, for example, Cairns *et al* (1988) found that aggressive children, while not as popular, did have as many good friends as other children. This may suggest that children who are aggressive (who may be unable to manage conflict/negative feelings) can engage in positive social behaviours or display positive social values as well. As noted in Section 9.3, if this distinction between positive and negative factors is robust (for which further research would be necessary) this has implications for the personal and social development guidelines. It is not enough to focus on the development of positive issues only; children should also be helped to understand and deal with negative issues.

The other two issues relate to the definition of personal and social development. In Chapter Two (Section 2.2.3) a brief description of three positions of morality and personal and social development was provided: personal and social development and morality were one and the same; morality was an unnecessary concept because personal and social development subsumed morality; and morality as relevant to some, but not all, personal and social issues. (This latter position being adopted in the current thesis.) In the empirical research (the survey and interviews) however the issue of morality or ethics (the term used in *A Curriculum for Excellence* (LTS, 2004)) was not raised. This suggests that schools may also view morality/ethics as a distinct (though possibly related) aspect of personal and social development.

Digression from socially acceptable moral or ethical norms may not be viewed by schools as an individual need for which an initiative can or should be provided.

The third issue concerns the definition of personal and social development proposed in this thesis (see Chapter Two, Section 2.4). The proposed definition had three premises. The first premise was that personal and social development occurs through participation in activities and learning meanings of personal and social objects or actions in those activities. The current research has shown that participation in activities can have an impact on personal and social actions and meanings, for example, on conflict management and the ability to manage behaviour as discussed earlier in this chapter. The second premise was that environmental and contextual factors influence personal and social development. The current research has provided evidence to support this premise. For example, individual work within the context of a group at the Craft Club seemed to produce fewer opportunities for collaborative work than group work (which engaged pupils working on the same task) at the Enterprise Group.

The third premise, that development is non-linear, was neither refuted nor supported by the research. Others have shown however (for example, Arthur *et al*, 2000; Schaffer, 1996) that events over an individuals' lifetime can have positive and negative outcomes on development.

The definition offered in the current investigation was intended to emphasise, where it was felt that other definitions may not, the broad nature of personal and social development. That is, personal and social development can occur in any situation, it can be influenced by a wide range of environmental and contextual factors, and that it can be a positive or negative change. This was useful because it offered a broader more developmental description than other narrower definitions described in Chapter 2. These definitions generally offer a list of factors that are considered to be features of personal and social development, though academic definitions suggested a range of environmental and contextual factors.

Without reference to other narrower definitions of personal and social development however it may be difficult for individuals, from the proposed definition, to

understand what is meant by an aspect of personal and social development, for example, self-esteem or social skills.

The definition was useful mainly in the context of extending perceptions of personal and social development and maintaining a broad perspective of what could be considered personal and social development. The definition was useful during the identification of initiatives because it could took account of the wide range of schools' perspectives of personal and social development and did not limit it to a particular range of personal and social factors. During the analysis of personal and social outcomes the definition was useful for similar reasons, that data was analysed for positive and negative factors. Importantly, the definition also helped to maintain a focus on contextual as well as individual factors that may have had an impact on personal and social development.

Further consideration of a definition of personal and social development that includes the idea that personal and social development can occur at any time and in any situation as well as including reference to narrower concepts that provide clearer understanding of personal and social factors may be useful.

9.7 Limitations of the Research
The research was limited in a number of ways. Methodological limitations of the research related to the survey (Chapter Five), interviews (Chapters Six and Seven) and the personal and social development questionnaire (Chapter Eight).

In relation to the survey, head teachers who did not respond to the survey could have been followed up by phone call to increase the response rate. Also, similar responses to different questions in the survey (for example, implementation and enhancement of the guidelines) indicated that the questions did not sufficiently distinguish among current ideas about provision for personal and social development. A new survey reflecting more closely ideas relating to personal and social provision should be developed if further research was carried out. Finally, the survey only generated data from one local authority in Scotland and it cannot be assumed that each of the 32 local authority education departments will provide personal and social development

opportunities in a similar manner. Data is also limited to state rather than private school provision.

Results from interview questions relating to personal and social development outcomes were limited because it is hard for individuals to observe change over time and to attribute any change that does occur specifically to one initiative rather than a range of activities that pupils participated in.

The personal and social development questionnaire was limited in two ways. One, the factor structure could not be ascertained because insufficient numbers of pupils filled in the questionnaire. Therefore results of the questionnaire can only be considered as indicative rather than robust. Two, the questionnaire only explored a small number of personal and social factors. Pupils may have developed in ways not measured by the questionnaire. This latter point relates to some of the difficulties caused by the very broad meanings associated with personal and social development. It was only possible to measure a cross section of the long lists of personal and social development factors outlined in Chapter Two. Those chosen were intended to reflect the factors schools aimed to influence through initiatives and the 5-14 personal and social development guidelines.

The viewpoints and information gathered from pupils with special educational needs was limited. Pupils with special educational needs found it very difficult to complete the personal and social development questionnaire and few could answer the interview questions in any detail. In future research, different methods such as using picture/story boards or observation schedules could be used to generate data with pupils who had special educational needs.

Another limitation of the research concerned the historical review of provision for personal and social education (Chapter Four). This review relied often, and particularly in the earlier centuries, on secondary resources and presented only a sketch of what may have happened. Consulting a larger number of primary sources and examining in greater detail the differences across different types of schooling may have revealed more explicit patterns of the progression of provision for personal and social development.

9.8 Further Research

There are a number of directions in which research could develop. Further research to establish the factor structure of the personal and social development questionnaire should be carried out before it could be used more widely. It would also be interesting to further investigate the possible distinction between conflict management and similar personal and social skills compared to more 'positive' factors such as self-esteem and initiating interactions. This may reveal whether there are a number of 'types' of personal and social skills.

Further research could also focus on different groups such as males and females, schools in deprived areas and schools in affluent areas. A revised survey could also be expanded to include all local authorities to establish an idea of national provision for meeting the personal and social needs of individuals.

9.9 Conclusion

There are a number of key conclusions associated with this investigation. First, this thesis has shown that the combination of studying historical and contextual data alongside the impact of initiatives has led to understanding of the development of personal and social initiatives within the education system; the prevalence of such initiatives; and the organisation of and personal and social outcomes of a sample of personal and social initiatives.

Some of the key findings from the historical and survey research are that:

- Personal and social development as a subject worthy in its own right (as opposed to a means to academic achievement) only emerged in the 1980s
- Provision for pupils with individual needs is relatively scarce
- It is unclear from the data collected whether provision for individual pupils is likely to increase or remain the concern of a small number of schools which have a particular focus on this area of personal and social development

Personal and social development is an established part of primary school education in Scotland and an aspect of the curriculum that is very well delivered in the majority of schools (HMIE, 2001a). Personal and social development initiatives, where they

exist, are an extended part of the personal and social curriculum. While there is room to expand provision for pupils with personal and social needs, as recommended by HMIE, this is perhaps not reflected in the revised National Curriculum Guidelines (LTS, 2000h). Other curricular areas such as modern languages and environmental studies have integrated opportunities for personal and social development within their teaching and learning activities. There were however no revisions of the Personal and Social Development Guidelines and certainly no further emphasis on catering for the needs of individuals. This also seems to be the case with the new Curriculum for Excellence 3-18 (LTS, 2004, 2006) which will be officially launched in 2008. There does not seem to be any change in relation to viewing personal and social development as 'positive' development. To provide a more balanced approach, guidelines should acknowledge negative aspects of personal and social skills such as conflict management and coping with adverse life circumstances.

The initiatives investigated were introduced by enthusiastic, interested individuals. In all three schools personal and social development initiatives were supported by, and in two instances prompted by, the head teacher. On the whole, the Craft Club, Enterprise Group and Buddy System initiatives were well thought out and well organised. Initiative leaders, sometimes in conjunction with class teachers, effectively selected pupils with personal and social needs and balanced this with pupils who did not have additional personal and social needs. Methods for enhancing personal and social development were planned in advance and were at the core of each session, including activities, small groups and a relaxed environment. There were however a number of areas in which initiatives could have been improved. These included allowing pupils more control and participation in key decisions and running the initiatives, increased communication between initiative leaders and other members of staff (Enterprise Group), increased collaborative group work (Craft Club) and a support network for buddies. It is also very important to have adequate time and resources for the initiatives.

The contribution of these initiatives to the personal and social development of pupils with individual needs has been in some cases significant. Most notably there were increases in pupils' self-esteem and likelihood of initiating interactions. Primary school children in general are constantly developing and as such require a range of

opportunities within which to practice personal and social skills. For individuals who require additional personal and social support this research has shown that a range of activities can afford personal and social development opportunities if methods that allow children to practice or develop certain skills are utilised.

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Appendix A

**University of Glasgow
Department of Educational Studies**

Personal and Social Development Questionnaire

Before turning to the questionnaire proper, please provide your school's details along with the name of a person I may contact in regard to the personal and social development curriculum and this questionnaire.

All responses will be treated in strict confidence.

School Details

School Name _____

Contact within school _____

E-mail address _____

Position _____

Section 1. School Details

This section contains questions concerning pupil and staff numbers, school capacity and the area in which your school is located.

Please fill in the appropriate figures in the boxes provided.

Question 1
How many pupils are attending your school this session?

Question 2
What is your school's capacity?

Question 3
How many members of teaching staff are there? *Please include all full and part-time positions, classroom assistants, special education teachers and other staff members directly involved in teaching pupils.*

Question 4
How many pupils have a Record of Needs?

Question 5
How many pupils receive free school meals?

Question 6
How would you describe the area in which your school is located, including the socio-economic level? For example, is it mainly suburban and reasonably affluent, or inner city with inhabitants lacking basic necessities.

_____

_____

_____

_____

Section 2 (A). School Policy for Personal and Social Development

This section is concerned with **all** personal and social development policies your school has, regardless of their current use. They may be national curriculum guidelines, council or school policies.

Personal and social development includes any aspect of pupils' non-academic learning, including social, emotional and behavioural development. Please include any policies you are unsure about as they may be important. Additional space for answers is available on the reverse of this page.

Question 7
Has your school adopted the 5-14 National Curriculum Guidelines on Personal and Social Development? *Please tick the appropriate box.*

Yes,　　☐　　　　　　　　please go to <u>Question 8</u>.

No,　　☐　　　　　　　　please go to <u>Question 9</u>.

Question 8
a) How long have the 5-14 Personal and
Social Development Guidelines been
a part of your school curriculum?
Please give years and months.

b) How are these guidelines being implemented throughout your school? For example, which aspects of the guidelines used for teaching?

_____

_____

_____

c) Do you augment the national guidelines? If so, how? *Please include any additional policies your school has.*

_____

_____

_____

_____

P.T.O

d) Are there any aspects of personal, emotional and social development that you feel are not covered by national guidelines or other school policies?

_____

_____

_____

_____

The space below may be used for further answers to Question 8. Please go on to Section 2 (B) External Support for Personal and Social Development (Question 10), when you have completed this section.

Question 9

N.B. If you have answered Question 8 please do not answer this question, go on to Question 10, Section 2b.

a) Why did your school decide against adopting the national guidelines?

_____

_____

_____

b) Given that your school has not adopted the national guidelines, what policies, if any, does your school use to address the personal, social and emotional development of your pupils?

_____

_____

_____

c) How long have these policies been
part of your school curriculum?
Please give years and months.

d) How are these guidelines being implemented throughout your school? For example, in what ways do they guide teaching?

_____

_____

_____

e) Do you augment these policies? If so, how?

_____

_____

_____

P.T.O

f) Are there any aspects of personal, emotional and social development that you feel are not covered by school policies?

_____

_____

_____

_____

The space below may be used for further answers to Question 9. Please go on to Section 2 (B) External Support for Personal and Social Development (Question 10), when you have completed this section.

Section 2 (B). External Support for Personal and Social Development

This section contains questions relating to your opinion about external support from bodies such as HMI, City Council and, Teaching and Learning (Scotland) for personal and social development issues.

Question 10
Are external bodies supportive*, **in general,** of new initiatives to help pupils? *Please tick the appropriate box.*

Yes ☐   No ☐

Question 11
Are external bodies supportive of new initiatives to help pupils with their personal and social development specifically? *Please tick the appropriate box.*

Yes ☐   Please indicate in what ways you are supported

_____

_____

No ☐   Please indicate how you feel these bodies are not supportive

_____

_____

Question 12
Do external bodies actively ***encourage*** the development of personal and social development related initiatives? *Please tick the appropriate box.*

Yes ☐   Please indicate in what way you are encouraged

_____

_____

No ☐   Please indicate how you feel these bodies are not encouraging

_____

_____

Section 3. School Initiatives for Personal and Social Development

The aim of this section is to document the variety and extent of personal and social support available to pupils. Forms have been enclosed for personal and social development initiatives. Please fill in a separate form for each initiative. Please photocopy forms, or contact myself (j.lerpiniere@chek.com), if more are required.

Initiatives may target any aspect of pupils' schooling, for example, reading or social skills but the *main* aim should be to promote pupils' personal and social development (including emotional and behavioural aspects). Initiatives may, for example, target individuals or groups of pupils, they may be liaison initiatives between schools, including primary-secondary liaisons. Please do not include formal services available to pupils such as *formal* educational psychologist interventions.

Thinking about the following groups of pupils may be of some help. What support is offered to:

   all pupils, for example, guidance programmes with a process of self-referral.

   pupils **at risk** of developing personal or social problems.

   pupils **who have** personal or social problems.

Does your school run any personal and social development initiatives? *Please tick the appropriate box.*

Yes ☐   No ☐

If yes, please fill in Personal and Social Development Initiative forms (attached) for each initiative.

_____
End of questionnaire

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Your co-operation is greatly appreciated.

Section 3. Personal and Social Development Initiative Form

Initiative Name (if applicable)

_____

What is the aim of the initiative?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Why was the initiative introduced?

_____

_____

_____

_____

What activities are carried out during the initiative?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Appendix B

Table 5 (extended). Initiatives for Personal and Social Development

	N=42	Example of Initiative	Purpose of Initiative
Group Activities: Physical/ Games Activities	5	**Tigers**	*To moderate behaviour and improve interpersonal relationships between groups of boys.*
Small Group Activities	3	**IT Group**	*Staff identified a group of children within the school who struggled, both in classroom activities and in the playground when working with peers. These children at risk of developing personal and/or social problems - alienated from peer group, possible victims in terms of bullying, low self-esteem and confidence.*
Residential	1	**Residential trip for P7**	*[No purpose offered]*
Curricular Activities: Circle Time	7	**Circle Time**	*Discussion of problems in the class - an open debate, trying to see the other person's point of view, feelings etc./To promote discussion and open frank talk about key issues. To promote high self-esteem and confidence.*
Themed Weeks	1	**Health Week**	*3 Health week focus to include first aid training for P6 and P7 from external provider/drug awareness and issues associated with bullying from Police Liaison Officer/visit to supermarket/I am Ace workshops etc.*

	N=42	Example of Initiative	Purpose of Initiative
Curricular Activities (continued): Citizenship Curriculum	1	**European Partnership Project**	*Initiative introduced to develop an international context to the curriculum, to give further focus to PSD programme and to assist in the development of citizenship issues across the school.*
Whole School: Praising Achievement	4	**Recognition of Achievement**	*Praise children to promote their self-esteem and confidence.*
Promoting Positive Behaviour	2	**Doing the right thing**	*Promotion of positive behaviour and self-esteem. To improve behaviour throughout the school.*
Bullying Policy	1	**Anti-bullying and Discipline Policy**	*To make pupils aware of their responsibilities regarding discipline in the school and initiatives that can be employed to prevent bullying.*
Interaction:			
Peer Interaction	4	**Buddy System**	*Offering a friendly approach in the playground.*
Adult Interaction	1	**Pensioners Lunch Club**	*Children visit pensioners once per week.*
Curriculum Based Interaction	2	**Paired Reading and Thinking**	*To enhance skills of P7 and P3. Academic and social reasons*

	N=42	Example of Initiative	Purpose of Initiative
Adult Support: Engaging with Professionals	2	**Social Contract**	*To aid children near to exclusion and their parents with support from Community Police – both in school targets; - after school targets; - boys then rewarded.*
School Counsellor	2	**School Counsellor**	*Primary 7 pupils who have personal/social problems are informed that there is a student counsellor available at our local secondary school for self-referral, not referral by school staff.*
Citizenship:			
Pupil Committees	3	**Pupil Charity Committee**	*Pupil request. Gives pupils real responsibility and new roles. Creates a caring ethos. Provides enjoyment.*
School Links: P7-S1 Links	2	**P7-S1 Link**	*To help the P7 children cope with the move to secondary school. To discuss worries and concerns of the children. To provide them with information which would make their early days at school easier.*
Playground Observation Covert Pupil Observer	1	**Guardian Angels**	*Provide pupil: pupil support. Provide management with information, difficult to get. Provide opportunities for pupil growth. As a measure to counteract bullying and anti-social behaviour.*

	N=42	Example of Initiative	Purpose of Initiative
Support for Parents: Parenting Workshops	1	**Parenting Workshops**	*The aim of the course is to raise awareness of issues, strategies and approaches that parents might reflect upon and adopt to support their children. A practical move for school and home to work together on general PSD issues, giving a consistent approach to the development of children's social, emotional and personal development.*

Appendix C

Original Formats of Scales included in the Personal and Social Development Questionnaire

R **indicates items that should be reverse scored**

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1979)
On the whole I am satisfied with myself.
At times I think I am no good at all. **R**
I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
I am able to do things as well as most other people.
I feel I do not have much to be proud of. **R**
I certainly feel useless at times. **R**
I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
I wish I could have more respect for myself. **R**
All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure. **R**
I take a positive attitude toward myself.

Social Self-Efficacy Scale (Sherer & Maddux, 1982)
It is difficult for me to make new friends. **R**
If I see someone I would like to meet, I go to that person instead of waiting for him or her to come to me.
If I meet someone interesting who is hard to make friends with, I'll soon stop trying to make friends with that person. **R**
When I'm trying to become friends with someone who seems uninterested at first, I don't give up easily.
I do not handle myself well in social gatherings. **R**
I have acquired my friends through my personal abilities at making friends.

Ability to Monitor Self-Presentation (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984)
Once I know what the situation calls for, it's easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly.
I have found that I can adjust my behaviour to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in.
I have trouble changing my behaviour to suit different people and different situations. **R**
In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behaviour if I feel that something else is called for.
I have the ability to control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression I wish to give them.
When I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change to something that does.
Even when it might be to my advantage I have difficulty putting up a good front. **R**

Texas Social Behavior Inventory (Helmreich and Stapp, 1974)

I am not likely to speak to people until they speak to me. **R**
I would describe myself as self-confident.
I feel confident of my appearance.
I am a good mixer.
When in a group of people, I have trouble thinking of the right things to say. **R**
When in a group of people, I usually do what the others want rather than make suggestions. **R**
When I am in disagreement with other people, my opinion usually prevails.
I would describe myself as one who attempts to master situations.
Other people look up to me.
I enjoy social gatherings just to be with people.
I make a point of looking other people in the eye.
I cannot seem to get others to notice me. **R**
I would rather not have much responsibility for other people. **R**
I feel comfortable being approached by someone in a position of authority.
I would describe myself as indecisive. **R**
I have no doubts about my social competence.

Social Anxiety Sub-scale (Fenigstein, Scheier and Buss, 1975)

It takes me time to overcome my shyness in new situations.
I have trouble working when someone is watching me.
I get embarrassed very easily.
I don't find it hard to talk to strangers. **R**
I feel anxious when I speak in front of a group.
Large groups make me nervous.

Initiation Sub-scale (Buhrmester et al, 1988)

Asking or suggesting to someone new that you get together and do something e.g. go out together.
Finding and suggesting things to do with new people whom you find interesting and attractive.
Carrying on conversations with someone new whom you think you might like to get to know.
Being an interesting and enjoyable person to be with when first getting to know people.
Introducing yourself to someone you might like to get to know (or date).
Calling (on the phone) a new date/acquaintance to set up a time to get together and do something.
Presenting good first impressions to people you might like to become friends with (or date).
Going to parties or gatherings where you don't know people well in order to start up new relationships.

Conflict Management Sub-scale (Buhrmester et al, 1988)

Being able to admit that you might be wrong when a disagreement with a close companion begins to build into a serious fight.

Being able to put begrudging (resentful) feelings aside when having a fight with a close companion.

When having a conflict with a close companion, really listening to his or her complaints and not trying to "read" his/her mind.

Being able to take a companion's perspective in a fight and really understand his or her point of view.

Refraining from saying things that might cause a disagreement to build into a big fight.

Being able to work through a specific problem with a companion without resorting to global accusations ("you always do that").

When angry with a companion, being able to accept s/he has a valid point of view even if you don't agree with that view.

Not exploding at a close companion (even when it is justified) in order to avoid a damaging conflict.

Bialer Locus of [Internal] Control Questionnaire (Bialer, 1961; Lefcourt, 1982)

When somebody gets mad at you, do you usually feel there is nothing you can do about it? **R**

Do you really believe a kid can be whatever he wants to be?

When people are mean to you, could it be because you did something to make them be mean?

Do you usually make up your mind about something without asking someone first?

Can you do anything about what is going to happen tomorrow?

When people are good to you, is it usually because you did something to make them be good?

Can you ever make other people do things you want them to do?

Do you ever think that kids your age can change things that are happening in the world?

If another child was going to hit you, could you do anything about it?

Can a child your age ever have his own way?

Is it hard for you to know why some people do certain things? **R**

When someone is nice to you, is it because you did the right things?

Can you ever try to be friends with another kid even if he doesn't want to?

Does it ever help to think about what you will be when you grow up?

When someone gets mad at you, can you usually do something to make him your friend again?

Can kids your age ever have anything to say about where they are going to live?

When you get in an argument, is it sometimes your fault?

When nice things happen to you is it only good luck? **R**

Do you often feel you get punished when you don't deserve it? **R**

Will people usually do things for you if you ask them?

Do you believe a kid can usually be whatever he wants to be when he grows up?

When bad things happen to you, is it usually someone else's fault? **R**

Can you ever know for sure why some people do certain things?

Appendix D

Adapted Scales included in Personal and Social Development Questionnaire

R **indicates items that should be reverse scored**

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1979)
I am generally happy with myself.
Sometimes I think I am no good at all. **R**
I think there are a number of good things about myself.
I can do things as well as most other people.
I feel I don't have much to be proud of. **R**
I really feel useless at times. **R**
I think I am as important as other people are.
I wish I could respect myself more. **R**
Overall, I feel that I am a failure. **R**
I think positively about myself.

Social Self-Efficacy Scale (Sherer & Maddux, 1982)
It is difficult for me to make new friends. **R**
I would go up to someone I would like to meet, instead of waiting for him or her to come to me first.
I don't give up easily trying to make friends with someone.
I feel awkward at social occasions. **R**
I have friends because I am good at making friends.

Ability to Monitor Self-Presentation (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984)
In a group I can change my behaviour if I think I need to behave differently.
I can control the way I come across to people.
I find it difficult to change my behaviour for different situations. **R**
I can change my behaviour depending on the situation I am in.
Even if I know how to behave in a situation, I find it difficult to change my behaviour. **R**

Texas Social Behavior Inventory (Helmreich and Stapp, 1974)

I am not likely to speak to people until they speak to me. **R**
I would describe myself as confident.
I feel secure in social situations.
I am a good mixer.
In a group of people, I have trouble thinking of the right things to say. **R**
In a group of people, I usually do what the others want rather than make suggestions.
R
When I am arguing with other people, my point of view usually wins.
I feel I can confidently approach and deal with anyone I meet.
Other people look up to me.
I enjoy social occasions just to be with people.
It is hard for me to start a conversation with strangers. **R**
I can't seem to get others to notice me. **R**
I would rather not have very much responsibility for other people. **R**
I think I am not very socially skilled. **R**
I enjoy being around other people, and often look for activities to join in with.
I feel confident of my social behaviour.

Social Anxiety Sub-scale (Fenigstein, Scheier and Buss, 1975)

It takes me time to get over my shyness in new situations.
I get embarrassed very easily
I don't find it hard to talk to strangers. **R**
Large groups make me nervous.

Initiation Sub-scale (Buhrmester et al, 1988)

I would find it difficult to ask someone new to join in a game I was playing. **R**
It would be hard for me to start a conversation with someone new, even if I wanted to
be friends with him or her. **R**
I would introduce myself to someone I wanted to get to know.
I would phone a new friend to see if he or she wanted to do something together.
I would give a good first impression to someone who I wanted to be friends with.
I wouldn't really go to clubs and activities to make new friends. **R**

Conflict Management Sub-scale (Buhrmester et al, 1988)

I can admit being wrong if an argument with a friend starts to turn into a fight.
When I'm arguing with a close friend, I really try to listen to his or her complaints.
I am able to understand a friend's point of view during an argument.
I can't stop myself from saying things that would make an argument worse. **R**
When I am angry with a friend, I find it hard to accept his or her point of view if I
don't agree with it. **R**
I find it hard to stop myself shouting at a friend when he or she deserves it. **R**

Bialer Locus of [Internal] Control Questionnaire (Bialer, 1961; Lefcourt, 1982)

If someone is mad at me there is usually nothing I can do about it. **R**

I think children can be whatever they want to be

When people are mean to me, I don't do anything to make them mean. **R**

I usually make my mind up about things without asking someone else first.

There is nothing I can do about what is going to happen tomorrow. **R**

I can't make other people do things I want them to. **R**

If another child was going to hit me, I could do something to stop it.

I usually get my own way.

When someone is nice to me, it is usually because I did the right thing.

I can try to be friends with someone even if that person doesn't want to be friends.

When someone is mad at me, I can't usually do anything to be friends with him or her again. **R**

When I get into an argument it is sometimes my fault.

I am often punished when I don't deserve it. **R**

People usually do things for me if I ask them.

When bad things happen to me, it is usually someone else's fault. **R**

Personal and Social Development Questionnaire
(Time 1)

N.B. A slightly different version of the questionnaire minus the locus of control scale was distributed at Time 2.

Different Ways I Feel and Behave

The sentences you are going to read in this booklet are about the kind of things that you might feel and the ways you might behave.

For each sentence you will be asked to circle only one answer. Because everyone has different feelings and acts in different ways, the *best* answer you can give is the one that is most like you. There are no right or wrong answers.

Before you start, here are some questions for you to practice on. If you get confused or stuck please put up your hand for help.

Instructions

Read each sentence carefully and decide whether it is a lot like you, a bit like you, not a lot like you, or not at all like you. Then circle the answer that describes you the most. Remember to circle only one answer for each sentence.

I enjoy time by myself.

A lot like me   A bit like me   Not a lot like me   Not at all like me

I like looking after other people.

A lot like me   A bit like me   Not a lot like me   Not at all like me

Instructions

Read each sentence carefully and decide whether it is a lot like you, a bit like you, not a lot like you, or not at all like you. Then circle the answer that describes you the most. Remember to circle only one answer for each sentence. Please put your hand up if you get stuck or need help.

Remember to circle an answer for each sentence!

1. I am generally happy with myself.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

2. I would give a good first impression to someone who I wanted to be friends with.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

3. It is difficult for me to make new friends.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

4. I usually get my own way.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

5. I am not likely to speak to people until they speak to me.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

6. It takes me time to get over my shyness in new situations.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

7. Sometimes I think I am no good at all.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

8. I would go up to someone I would like to meet, instead of waiting for him or her
   to come to me first.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

9. I would describe myself as confident.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

10. If someone is mad at me there is usually nothing I can do about it.

A lot like me　　**A bit like me**　　**Not a lot like me**　　**Not at all like me**

11. It would be hard for me to start a conversation with someone new, even if I
    wanted to be friends with him or her.

A lot like me　　**A bit like me**　　**Not a lot like me**　　**Not at all like me**

12. In a group, I can change my behaviour if I think I need to behave differently.

A lot like me　　**A bit like me**　　**Not a lot like me**　　**Not at all like me**

13. I feel comfortable in social situations.

A lot like me　　**A bit like me**　　**Not a lot like me**　　**Not at all like me**

14. When people are mean to me, it isn't because I did something to make them mean.

A lot like me　　**A bit like me**　　**Not a lot like me**　　**Not at all like me**

15. I think there are a number of good things about myself.

A lot like me　　**A bit like me**　　**Not a lot like me**　　**Not at all like me**

16. I don't give up easily trying to make friends with someone.

A lot like me　　**A bit like me**　　**Not a lot like me**　　**Not at all like me**

17. It is hard for me to start a conversation with strangers.

A lot like me　　**A bit like me**　　**Not a lot like me**　　**Not at all like me**

18. I usually make my mind up about things without asking someone else first.

A lot like me　　**A bit like me**　　**Not a lot like me**　　**Not at all like me**

19. I think positively about myself.

A lot like me　　**A bit like me**　　**Not a lot like me**　　**Not at all like me**

Page 3

20. When I am angry with a friend, I hardly ever accept his or her point of view if I don't agree with it.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

21. I get embarrassed very easily.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

22. I can control the way I come across to people.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

23. I am good at mixing with other people.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

24. I can't do anything about what is going to happen tomorrow.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

25. I find it difficult to change my behaviour for different situations.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

26. I feel awkward at social occasions.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

27. When I get into an argument it is sometimes my fault.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

28. I feel I can confidently approach and deal with anyone I meet.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

29. I think I am as important as other people are.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

30. I often enjoy looking about to join in with other people's activities.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

31. When someone is nice to me, it is usually because I did the right thing.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

32. I feel I don't have much to be proud of.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

33. When I am arguing with other people, my point of view usually wins.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

34. I would find it difficult to ask someone new to join in a game I was playing.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

35. I can change my behaviour depending on the situation I am in.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

36. Other people look up to me.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

37. When bad things happen to me, it is usually someone else's fault.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

38. I don't find it hard to talk to strangers.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

39. I would rather not have very much responsibility for other people.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

40. I would phone a new friend to see if he or she wanted to do something with me.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

41. I can do things as well as most other people.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

42. I can't get other people to do things that I want them to.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

43. I am able to understand a friend's point of view during an argument.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

44. Large groups make me nervous.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

45. In a group of people, I usually do what the others want rather than make
    suggestions.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

46. If another child was going to hit me, I could do something to stop it.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

47. I can't stop myself from saying horrid things that would make an argument worse.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

48. I have friends because I am good at making friends.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

49. I really feel useless at times.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

50. When I'm arguing with a close friend, I really try to listen to his or her complaints.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

51. In a group of people, I have trouble thinking of the right things to say.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

52. I can try to be friends with someone even if that person doesn't want to be friends.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

53. I wish I could respect myself more.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

54. I can't seem to get others to notice me.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

55. I wouldn't really go to clubs and activities just to make new friends.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

56. I think children can be whatever they want to be.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

57. Overall, I feel that I am a failure.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

58. I feel confident of my social behaviour.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

59. I would introduce myself to someone I wanted to get to know.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

60. When someone is mad at me, there's not much I can do to be friends with him or her again.

A lot like me   **A bit like me**   **Not a lot like me**   **Not at all like me**

61. Even if I know how to behave in a situation, I find it difficult to change my behaviour.

A lot like me **A bit like me** **Not a lot like me** **Not at all like me**

62. I find it hard to stop myself shouting at a friend when he or she deserves it.

A lot like me **A bit like me** **Not a lot like me** **Not at all like me**

63. I am often punished when I don't deserve it.

A lot like me **A bit like me** **Not a lot like me** **Not at all like me**

64. I think I am not very socially skilled.

A lot like me **A bit like me** **Not a lot like me** **Not at all like me**

65. People usually do things for me if I ask them.

A lot like me **A bit like me** **Not a lot like me** **Not at all like me**

66. I enjoy social occasions just to be with people.

A lot like me **A bit like me** **Not a lot like me** **Not at all like me**

67. I can admit being wrong if an argument with a friend starts to get really bad.

A lot like me **A bit like me** **Not a lot like me** **Not at all like me**

Name _____

Date of Birth _____ **Age** _____

What school clubs or activities do you go to?

_____

_____

Thank you very much for filling in this questionnaire!