

***PASTORAL CARE
& PERSONAL-
SOCIAL
EDUCATION***

**A review of UK research undertaken for the
British Educational Research Association**

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NOTE

Further discussion of the rationale for the five-fold classification used in this review and its problems is given on page 38 in the light of the constructed map of research in the field.

FOREWORD

This review follows a **BERA National Event** on *Citizenship and PSHE* held at University of Surrey Roehampton on 25th November, 2000.

Those taking part were:

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Ron Best
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BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE

This review is concerned with an aspect of education which is widely acknowledged to be diffuse and multi-faceted. To delimit the field of review was therefore a challenge. Three questions had to be answered:

- How should the field of study be defined - i.e. what kinds of human activity were to be included in the concept of 'pastoral care and personal-social education (PSE)'?
- How was 'research' to be defined?
- What time period should the review encompass?

The first question was answered initially by adopting a model of five 'pastoral tasks' which has been developed over many years and which distinguishes between different aspects of the provision, made by schools and colleges, for the development and support of the student as a *person* and as a *social being*. The distinction here is with the transmission of knowledge as conventionally conceived in curriculum subjects, and with the idea of the initiation of the individual into a selection of concepts, facts, skills and attitudes which have to do with a world outside and separate from the learner. A recent summary of the five 'pastoral tasks' is as follows:

"Reactive pastoral casework undertaken on a one-to-one basis in response to the needs of children with problems of a social, emotional, physical, behavioural, moral or spiritual nature;
Proactive, preventive pastoral care, often in the form of presentations or activities undertaken in tutor or form periods and assemblies, which anticipate 'critical incidents' in children's lives (Hamblin, 1978) and are aimed at pre-empting the need for reactive casework;
Developmental pastoral curricula, aimed at promoting the personal, social, moral, spiritual and cultural development and well-being of children through distinctive programmes of PSE, tutorial work and cross-curricular activities;
The promotion and maintenance of an orderly and supportive environment by building a community within the school, through extra-curricular activities, the 'hidden curriculum' of supportive systems and positive relations between all members, and the promotion of a pervasive ethos of mutual care and concern;
The management and administration of pastoral care in the form of planning, motivating, resourcing, monitoring, supporting, evaluating, encouraging and otherwise facilitating all of the above". (Best, 1999, pp. 58-9)

This theoretical framework served its purpose in directing attention to the topics of research appropriate for review, but the delineation of the field is also an empirical matter: what constitutes the *content* of a field may be determined by what it is that researchers choose to research and report *under the heading of 'pastoral care and PSE'*. Thus, it is possible, at the end of a review, to provide a 'map' of the field which is an outcome of the interplay between the reviewer's initial and 'sketchy' chart and the (sometimes quite unexpected) features of the terrain s/he encounters on the way. One particular domain is conspicuous by its relative absence in what follows, and that is the realm of *moral education and the development of values*. This is because this was the subject of a recently published review (Halstead and Taylor, 2000), commissioned (but, curiously, not published) by OFSTED, which should be consulted alongside the present review.

As to what was to count as 'research', the reviewer began (and stayed) with a set of criteria which are considered to be those against which the quality of activity claiming this label may be judged. That is to say, something counts as research to the degree that it:

- seeks to establish the truth (or ‘truths’) about something;
- is undertaken in a systematic (not haphazard) way;
- is rigorous (i.e. attends to rules of procedure) and not casual;
- is undertaken by someone whose intention it is seek or establish truth(s) in a systematic and rigorous manner (i.e. someone who has adopted the perspective of a researcher);
- makes its findings open to public tests of truth; and
- makes its methodology transparent.

A decision was made that the review would be restricted to *empirical* research which satisfied each of these criteria to an acceptable extent, and that only *published* reports would be included.

I am aware that such a stipulative definition of research will not satisfy post-modern critics and other ‘relativists’ and that the assumptions underpinning such criteria are a matter of apparently un-ending debate. The work of a reviewer cannot, however, await the resolution of those issues. Even within the parameters set by these criteria, judgements about whether a particular piece of work merits inclusion were not easy to make, particularly in the grey area between intentional research and retrospective, autobiographical reporting of curriculum innovations and what might be thought of as ‘clinical’ work with individual children. I have tried to indicate throughout where the data- base or the methodology of a particular report is in this ‘grey area’, and where the satisfaction of the criteria is in some doubt.

As to the time period to be covered, it seemed sensible to begin where a previous review left off. This was a review of the growth of both theoretical and empirical research on pastoral care (Ribbins and Best, 1985) which appeared in a book entitled *New Directions in Pastoral Care* (Lang and Marland, 1985). However, the definitive journal in this field (*Pastoral Care in Education*) came into being two years earlier and it seemed desirable, for the sake of comprehensiveness, that all issues of that journal up to December 2001 should be included in the review. *Pastoral Care in Education* provides the core resource for this review which covers 19 years of the Journal. Computerized searches of other sources were restricted to the years from 1985 onwards.

There are no substantial research-based overviews of pastoral care that can serve as a bench-mark against which developments since 1985 can be compared. However, such a function can in part be performed by the HMI survey undertaken in 1987/8 (HMI, 1989). Care needs to be taken in interpreting the findings since data collected in the context of inspections may not satisfy the criteria for an activity to count as “research”, not least because the precise methods of data collection are not clear and the ‘mind-set’ of the inspector is rather different to that of the researcher. However, their survey of 27 comprehensive schools in 25 LEAs adopts a definition of the field (p. 3) which is comparable to that used in this review and therefore casts some light on each of ‘the pastoral tasks’. The findings may be thought of as a ‘snap-shot’ of provision at the time, with comments on: schools’ aims and objectives; pupil/teacher contact; guidance and counselling; corporate activities; rewards and sanctions; attendance; exclusions; pastoral systems; pastoral-academic links; records and record-keeping; staffing and training; accommodation and resources; and school-community links.

Nor are there many books which count as, or include, research reports. Two series of books have specifically addressed this field - Blackwells’ *Studies in Personal and Social Education and Pastoral Care* (edited by Ribbins and Lang and published in the late ’80s) and its successor since 1992, Cassell/Continuum’s *Studies in Pastoral Care and Personal and Social Education* (edited by Lang and Best). There is considerable variation in the degree to which these books are theoretical, cite research and advocate particular professional practice, and only two can be seen as primarily research reports (Leaman, 1995; Power, 1996). These, and a small number of research reports included in other books in the series, are reviewed at appropriate points below.

Mention ought also to be made of the symposium on guidance and counselling in education published in the *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling* (Vol 17, No1, 1999) with contributions from Robson, Cohen and McGuinness; McLaughlin; Lang; Law; Best and Watkins. As a statement of the *status quo* in respect of the main dimensions of pastoral care and PSE, this is a useful source, but, again, with the exception of my own paper (Best, 1999, reported below), and a short reference by McLaughlin (1999) to two pieces of research reported elsewhere, these can not be construed as research reports.

METHODOLOGY

My intention was that the review would, itself, satisfy to an acceptable level, each of the criteria for research set out above. This intention was, if anything, strengthened by the publication in the *British Educational Research Journal* of two articles discussing the purpose and criteria for an acceptable review of research (Evans and Benefield, 2001; Hammersley, 2001). Whether I have succeeded is, of course, for others to judge.

The University of Surrey Roehampton's on-line library catalogue was used to locate relevant books not already known to the reviewer. Searches were made using Educational Research Abstracts Online, ERIC and the British Education Index via BIDS and the Social Science Citation Index on Web of Science. Of the key words used, *pastoral care*, *pastoral curriculum* and *personal and social education* were felt likely to reveal sources most pertinent to this study. *Bullying*, *child abuse*, *counselling in education*, *career guidance*, *career education* and *citizenship education* were also used, but it was not feasible to pursue all these in the time and space available although in some cases the yield was considerable.

Further justification (were it needed) for the use of *Pastoral Care in Education* as the basic resource for this review, was provided by the fact that the vast majority of citations for the primary key words noted above referred to articles in that journal. Only a further 31 articles were accessed and précised, of which 20 were classified as empirical research or reviews of research reports sufficiently relevant to the field to warrant inclusion. Additional sources were noted when and as they were encountered (e.g. when marking a doctoral thesis or in reading for other purposes), a kind of 'opportunistic sampling' that may not satisfy the purists.

Articles in *Pastoral Care in Education* (for brevity, hereafter rendered as 'PC in E') were classified according to whether they qualified for the title "research" and if so, what kind of research. The analysis began with three basic categories - *theoretical*, *empirical* and *professional* - with subdivisions according to disciplines or approaches. The distinction between 'empirical' and 'professional' was a dubious but heuristic device to pick out studies employing social-scientific methods chiefly to establish truths from those more directly concerned with evaluating and developing professional practice and innovation. It was found necessary to introduce new subdivisions as the work progressed. In the end, eight categories of theoretical, six of empirical and ten of professional research were identified.

A note was made of the outcomes or findings presented in each paper (e.g. "a framework for considering the welfare network"), of the focus of the article (e.g. "a case study of one pupil"), and of any additional information likely to be of value (e.g. "Note that this was collaborative working between an academic and a teacher").

The remaining articles were categorized as "Other - non-research", but some attempt was also made to classify these according to their focus (e.g. professional development), their intention (e.g.

advocacy of a teaching approach or prescriptions for practice) or their status as a report, a published lecture, a response to a review etc. The entries in the “Other” category lie outside this review (because they do not satisfy the criteria for ‘research’), but it does not follow that they are not of professional relevance, nor that they could not inform policy in fruitful ways.

For the sake of brevity and clarity, references [in ‘square’ brackets] to papers from *PC in E* are to volume and issue number. References for all other sources are to author and date (in ‘round’ brackets).

The vast majority of papers in *PC in E* related to the UK context, although 31 papers were not, as follows: Australia (9), Israel (4), Hong Kong (4), Singapore (2), Canada (2), Netherlands (2) and one each on Turkey, Botswana, New Zealand, Brazil, Jordan, USA, China and Belgium. Although this review is largely restricted to the UK, readers interested in international comparisons with the pastoral work in the UK should note the articles by Lang [7(4), 1989] on Australia, Canada, Singapore and USA; Sexton [9(1), 1991] on USA; Hanko [12(2), 1994] on Germany; Summers [15(1), 1997] on Australia; Lang [16(3), 1998] on ‘Circle Time’ in USA and Italy; and Atici and Merry [19(2), 2001] on behaviour Turkish schools. A note on an Irish publication is included towards the end of the review.

The distribution of the papers is shown in Table 1.

The 198 articles categorized as “empirical” and “professional” were then grouped according to their content, beginning with pre-determined categories derived from the model of five ‘pastoral tasks’ outlined above. Some articles did not fit; new categories and sub-categories were added as appropriate. The boundaries between such categories are, to say the least, blurred so the allocation of individual articles to any category is, inevitably, a matter of emphasis and interpretation. Some articles were listed in more than one category. Clearly, other groupings are possible and the allocation made here is open to challenge. The next section summarises and comments upon these 198 papers and exemplifies the data by reference to specific papers. This discussion is augmented at appropriate points by reference to other published research on similar topics.

It is necessary to remember:

- that we are *not* dealing here with *theoretical* research, or, with rare exceptions, *historical* research, but with studies which employ empirical methods to investigate particular features of education as a field of enquiry and as the context for the improvement of professional practice.
- that the papers discussed below in each category and on any topic are not necessarily indicative of the total number of papers relating to that category and topic scrutinized for this review.

TABLE 1. Analysis of Articles published in *Pastoral Care in Education*

<i>Theoretical</i>	111
Philosophical	22
Conjectural/discussion	30
Exploratory	47
Reflective	2
Curriculum Theory	3
Policy analysis	2
Critique/response to critique	4
Literature review	1
 <i>Empirical</i>	 111
Sociological	43
Social survey	35
Social Psychological	21
Psychological	4
Historical	3
Comparative	5
 <i>Professional</i>	 87
Innovation, implementation and/or evaluation of project or intervention	32
Case study	20
Action Research	17
Review of research or drawing on (but not reporting) research	6
Other “investigations”	6
Multi-method	2
Analysis of documents	1
Curriculum analysis	1
Policy development	1
Analysis of statistics	1
 <i>Other Articles (non-research)</i>	 210
 TOTAL	 519

THE CLIENT VIEW

A not-insignificant proportion (15%) of the articles report the perspectives of pupils on numerous aspects of their school experience. This is interesting given the sometimes-heard complaint that the views of the 'clients' are too rarely considered in research in the 'caring professions' (see, for example, Lang [1(3), 1983]; Ellenby [3(2), 1985]; Lang 1988; Foskett, 2001). Where possible, reports of pupil perspectives are noted under the appropriate pastoral tasks in later sections (for example, see under *bullying* and *pastoral management*). Others are reported here.

Five reports focus on pupil perspectives on **transfer** between schools. From the perspective of a social ethnographer, Thorpe [1(1), 1983] interviewed (an undisclosed number of) children in their final weeks in the primary school and their early weeks in secondary school, to illuminate the experience of transfer as one of 'status passage' (p.44) and to raise awareness of its impact on children "as human beings". Gross and Burdett [14(3), 1996] used pre- and post-transfer questionnaires to elicit the views of 35 boys and 40 girls moving to a 1200-pupil comprehensive from three 'feeder' primary schools. The data confirm that transfer is potentially stressful for many pupils, but that the intensity of anxiety is less after transfer than in anticipation. They also reveal that pupils are better at adopting a range of coping strategies than they predict themselves to be. In the context of a cross-cultural study in UK and New Zealand, Wade and Moore [12(2), 1994] used a sentence-completion exercise to survey the expectations and anxieties about changing school of 161 7-16 year-olds with special educational needs. Peers, teachers and academic achievement were found to be the three factors that are of most concern to pupils. Quirke [13(1), 1995] adopted what he calls a "market-research approach" to evaluate a number of "products" or "services" provided at, and in the early months after, transfer from primary schools to one West Midlands secondary school. He suggests that adopting such a perspective can raise awareness of the importance of the 'customer' or the 'client', and suggests that other concepts in market-research - such as 'market-segmentation' - have further potential.

Friday [2(1), 1984] included the views of a small number of sixth formers in her argument that a pre-occupation with those who are less able or have learning difficulties may obscure the fact that "the academic child [also] most certainly needs pastoral care". Ball and Pumfrey [2(1), 1984] used a 50-item questionnaire to survey the attitudes of 450 sixth formers to the transition from 11-16 schools to a sixth form college. Data were collected in the January following transfer. Analyses of variance (two- and three-way ANOVAs) were undertaken to identify significant differences by gender, school background and academic ability with regard to causes of anxiety and opportunities to be welcomed in the new environment. The authors conclude that college guidance programmes could improve the experience of transfer in a number of ways, including closer school-college links, continual appraisal of the liaison programme and effective student-tutor relationships.

Support for students making the transition from compulsory to post-compulsory education was also the focus for research undertaken by Prout (1993). Interviews with students moving from secondary school to a tertiary college, showed that major concerns seem to be to do with personal relationships: losing old 'mates', fitting in with new peers and not looking 'stupid' by committing *faux pas* in unfamiliar settings and routines. Even anxieties over academic matters - volume of work and homework and discontinuity in the curriculum, for example - seemed to hinge on loss of face by not knowing what was required. The author concludes that colleges need to look carefully at their pastoral provision in order to address the need for support with the emotional effects of transition.

Pupil stress and **anxiety** more generally are the foci for a number of reports. Millar *et al* [11(1), 1993] developed an 86-item 'Things I Worry About' instrument which they used with 378 15-16 year-olds in Northern Ireland schools. Using factor analysis and a 'Scree test' on the responses,

augmented by comments in open-ended items, they identified fifteen significant categories of worry: at school/college; choosing a job; job finding; at home; starting work; opposite sex; myself; myself and others; social confidence; verbal communication; information seeking; powerlessness; money matters; school work; and change. In one of the largest surveys reported in *PC in E*, Gallagher and Millar [14(2), 1996] report how the instrument was later used to survey 3983 13-18 year-olds in Northern Ireland. Those planning support for adolescents are advised to pay heed particularly to students' self-reported worries about school success, careers, employment, powerlessness, money, change, career choice and employment prospects. (For a review of the literature from UK (notably Northern Ireland) and other countries including Ireland, Australia, USA, Canada and Germany informing this study, see Gallagher et al, 1996).

In a similar study by Kyriacou and Butcher [11(3), 1993], 78 Year 11 pupils were asked to tick which of 30 items caused them stress. Academic work was the main source of stress although other sources (including bullying, health, money and family disagreements) were also significant. Gender was a significant factor with a greater number of items reported as stressors by girls than by boys and with fewer boys opting for a stress-counselling course. When asked to complete a similar questionnaire about the sources of stress they thought these pupils experienced, a sample of 24 of their teachers expressed views which "differed markedly from the pupils' in a number of respects" (p. 21). Rennie [16(2), 1998] asked 35 teachers to rate the levels of stress they thought pupils would experience in 29 life events, from undertaking a new extra-curricular activity (with the lowest rating) to death of a parent (with the highest). The editors suggest that the real value of this study "would be as a basis for comparison with the perceptions of parents and pupils" (abstract, p. 32). Anything which provides a sounder basis for teachers' interpretations and responses to pupil experience is to be welcomed, but what is important is surely the subjective experience of the individual at the time of the event rather than abstracted general ratings of this kind.

Other aspects of schools' provision also come in for comment from pupils in some studies. Pupils' preferences for different aspects of **assemblies** are reported by Arrowsmith [1(2), 1983]. **Religious Education** is the concern of Sims-King [15(2), 1997] who reports the generally- but not overwhelmingly-held view of Year 9 pupils' that RE teachers should have some religious faith of their own; and in a small study (interesting because it is the only instance known to me of the use of e-mail to elicit the views of children), Passy [17(3), 1999] investigates the implications of match and mismatch between **family values** of six children and those of the school.

Children's perspectives on **spiritual and moral development** are more fully addressed in the extensive and on-going *Children and Worldviews Project* based at University College Chichester. In their book *The Education of the Whole Child* (Erricker et al, 1997), report some of the outcomes of the team's interviews and group discussions with primary school children. Although numbers of pupils involved are not always given, the methodology is clearly articulated as qualitative and the theorizing as 'grounded' (p. 33). The authors argue that, with something as complex and subtle as children's perceptions and conceptions of the world, the generation and testing of tight hypotheses is not possible. Rather, the questions are seen to emerge from the data as they are collected, reflected upon and interpreted. The approach is seen as child-centred and inductive. Researchers' personal logs are a significant source of data, often recording reflections on the proceedings of small group discussions and individual interviews based around pictures and stories. Amongst the themes and issues to emerge as of importance to children are "belonging and identity, violence and conflict, death, loss and family separation, God, heaven and hell, dens and special places, relationships with others, animals and the natural world" (p. 27). Chapters are devoted to children's experience of conflict and loss, religious and scientific thinking, the identity of 'Asian' children, parental loss and religious identity. In some cases, the conclusions go well beyond the evidence offered here, but whether this is because they draw on other evidence from what must be a fairly massive data-set or

because *teachers'* perspectives (as opposed to children's) play a larger part than is acknowledged is impossible to say. In any event, there is much here that is fascinating (and, in places, moving) which ought to be taken into account by schools seeking to sharpen both their casework and their curriculum in SMSC. (See also Erricker and Erricker, 1996 and references below to Ota *et al* [15(4), 1997] and Erricker, 2000. For comparable data on children's views of the spiritual, see McCreery, 1996).

Three reports in *PC in E* are of studies of **children's general perspectives on schooling** but which have pastoral significance. Smith [16(1), 1998] used a sample of 27 Year 8 pupils in a middle school to develop a process and an instrument for determining pupils' views on factors which promote 'a positive, effective atmosphere' in schools and their evaluations of their own schools against these criteria. The pupil responses are of some interest but the principal purpose of the paper was to offer a model which other schools might follow to assess their own success in creating a positive ethos. Tham [10(4), 1992] used an "open-ended student survey" to investigate the perspectives of 75 students in a sixth-form college. The 62 responses received showed that emotional-social aspects of the college experience were considered very important but that school was not the first port of call for most pupils when they encountered personal problems. Shorter [13(1), 1995] reports the views of a group of 30 Year 11 students in a racially mixed inner-city school. The significance of race, ethnicity and sub-culture for schools concerned to provide an inclusive education (in which pastoral arrangements would obviously have a place) are clearly established.

While the vast majority of the literature in this area has school children in mind, occasionally papers appear with other age-groups in focus. Hockey [6(1), 1988] reports perceptions of need amongst mature students in **higher education** and Field [7(3), 1989] reports differences in perceptions between mature and younger students with regard to the source of student problems. This point is picked up by Gardner and Pickering [9(1), 1991] who demonstrated that for a small group of students in one university, mature students tend to do better in their courses than younger students ($p < 0.02$ for chi-square) but not necessarily by the most efficient means, concluding that counselling might help both groups towards more balanced views of the demands of undergraduate study. Grant [10(2), 1992] reports the use of 'stress diaries' and tape-recorded group interviews to secure student evaluations of stress workshops provided for final year students on a primary teacher-training BEd programme. A comparable study by Brown and Ralph [17(3), 1999] reports the use of a 'Dismiss Your School Anxiety' (DYSA) training programme with just 10 first year students at Manchester University, all but one of whom evaluated the programme positively. (For a general coverage of supporting students in higher education, see Earwaker, 1992, especially the chapter on Pastoral Care and Counselling. While drawing heavily on the author's own experience, there are references to research - including that reported in the conference papers presented by the author - and some interesting 'cameos' of students and institutions are presented).

A number of more social-psychologically oriented studies are sprinkled through the pages of *PC in E*, with the related foci of **group dynamics, interaction** and **self-esteem** figuring prominently. In an early issue [1(3), 1983], Bazalgette draws on evidence from consultancy with the Grubb Institute to highlight the importance for schools' pastoral approach, of 'significant others' in the role-making and role-taking by pupils, and Sadler [1(3), 1983] illustrates the power of informal leadership in the dynamics of a tutor group. Groups are also the focus for Shorter's analysis of the attitudes of some sixty 16-19 year old college students in a northern industrial town [12(1), 1994]. He found group membership to be linked with ethnicity and gender, and to perform important supportive functions for members. Although the "culture of resistance" to the education system was not apparent, some resistance to home and ethnic culture was noted. He concludes that education for tolerance needs to take account of these phenomena.

Pearce [2(1), 1984] describes the evaluation of a “Learning about Learning” course designed to modify attitudes of troublesome boys measured by a number of attitude scales inspired by Rotter’s concept of the *locus of control*. Rotter’s model of internality and externality is also central to Bond and Feeney’s account of an intervention taken by a school to raise the self-esteem and achieve social integration of an isolated and frequently absent pupil [4(3), 1986]. The results show that an individual’s social adjustment and educational achievement can be “turned around” by an intervention that includes peers as well as teachers in making a child feel valued. There are obvious connections here with Peelo’s [12(1), 1994] use of an interview with an adult with criminal convictions to show the complex relationships between estrangement from the classroom, failure at an intellectual task and loss of self-esteem. Raynor [13(2), 1995] discovered that more able children in a Year 11 cohort in a Midlands comprehensive school tended to underestimate their expected grades while a significant number of children of ‘average’ and ‘below average’ ability are unrealistically optimistic in predicting their grades. There are important implications here for those guiding and counselling pupils, not least if a negative impact on self-esteem and disenchantment are not to result. However, Barnett [3(3), 1985] argues that insufficient attention is given to personality type in understanding disaffection. He draws on Eysenck’s typologies to investigate the relationship between personality type and teaching style, using a sample of 137 pupils in an 11-18 rural comprehensive school. Cluster analysis and chi-square tests were used to identify relationships between personality type and preferences for different teaching techniques. The message for schools is that some pupils will be more receptive to some techniques than others, and that the analysis of pupil behaviour needs to take this into account.

A review of the research findings of 48 studies concerned with enhancing self-esteem in children, mostly from the USA and UK in the ‘60s and ‘70s, drew several conclusions of value to schools (Gurney, 1987). These included: that extra teacher-attention (whether aimed at enhancing self-esteem or not) may be valuable in its own right; that the more teachers know (whether positive or negative about children) the more accepting they become and thus the more likely they are to promote self-esteem; that encouraging self-monitoring and self-reinforcing behaviour is important; and that involving parents is crucial.

Two articles are notable in what is a generally secondary-school oriented journal because they focus on social interaction in the primary school. Both stress the importance of **play**. Ashley [13(1), 1995] observed playground behaviour of 15 targeted children over two terms and related these to sociometric data. He concludes that there are differences between the patterns of play and the quality of relationships for different ability groups, and that these may help us understand why some children are better able to meet the expectations of schooling. In a paper explicitly linked to that of Ashley, Ota *et al* [15(4), 1997] report data from their long-running *Children and Worldviews Project* to argue that the importance for personal and spiritual development of the ‘safe’ and ‘secret’ places of both the playground (as a physical and social setting) and the ‘play ground’ of the children’s minds, need to be accepted seriously by teachers.

In an unusual piece from an ethological perspective, Neill [6(4), 1988] draws on video-taped interactions between teachers and children and questionnaire data (a note refers readers to a previous publication for details of methodology) to present a mainly theoretical analysis of **non-verbal communication** in classrooms. It is argued that the more effective interactions depend upon an awareness of the unconscious signals teachers give. Although cultural differences are acknowledged, the generalizations made about meanings conveyed by ‘body-language’ need to be viewed with caution.

PASTORAL CASEWORK

As noted earlier, by “casework” we mean the reactive work schools do when they respond, usually on a one-to-one basis, to the needs of a child who presents with a problem of a personal, social, emotional or behavioural nature. The variety and inter-relatedness of such problems was demonstrated by Carey [11(3), 1993], whose discussions with thirteen groups of teachers in primary, secondary and teacher education generated a list of 77 ‘potential pupil crises’ categorized as individual, family, peers, school, community and global. This diversity is reflected in the 18 papers in this category in *PC in E* whose topics include (*inter alia*) support for children experiencing bereavement, examinations stress, exclusion, parental illness, the development of in-school support systems including personal-tutor schemes and the involvement of teachers in counselling.

A questionnaire survey of LEAs led Hooper and Lang [6(2), 1988] to observe that although the number of counsellors employed in state schools had fallen dramatically since the early '70s, and were now concentrated in a handful of authorities, there was considerable interest in counselling skills training and most LEAs claimed to have been providing some such training to teachers and others involved in education. From an historical perspective, Robinson [14(3), 1996] investigated the introduction and fortunes of school counselling from 1965 to 1995. He confirms that the numbers declined from 1975 onwards and attributes this to fundamental flaws in the innovation, *viz*: that it was rarely conceived as an extension of, or something that needed to be embedded in, the primary purpose of the school; that it was largely uncoordinated; and that there was no national research programme to monitor and thus justify the role in schools. He concludes that, in contrast perhaps with higher and further education, counselling skills in teachers’ work within school pastoral systems may be the better solution.

The need for counselling skills to be provided by *someone* was re-stated by Moore et al [14(1), 1996] who analysed the responses of 15 secondary schools to information about counselling and educational therapy and to questions concerning pupil need. Teachers identified significant numbers of pupils whose learning was affected by emotional problems and for whom existing resources were inadequate, and saw counselling as the preferred response.

Whether all needs can be met within pastoral systems is a matter for debate, but there are examples of attempts to institutionalize counselling in novel ways. Sweetingham and Woods [10(3), 1992]; [12(1), 1994] report a NAPCE-funded case study and evaluation of a personal tutoring scheme in an Essex school. This scheme distinguished the role of personal tutor from that of form tutor and demonstrates the advantages of separating individual support (including counselling) from discipline. Though generally positively evaluated by tutors and pupils, the scheme did raise micro-political issues, including the tension between informal relationships and the structure of formal roles and institutional expectations.

Owens [11(4), 1993] reports a case study of a voluntary “open door” counselling service provided by a group of teachers in a VIth Form college in the Midlands. Although all those involved felt the scheme to be providing an important service, they, too, reported conflicts between and within roles. Issues of confidentiality and the handling of sensitive matters were magnified at the interface of their roles as full-time teacher and part-time counsellor. Clearly, it is not only the importing of a specialist (and un-integrated) counsellor into a school which challenges boundaries and roles: attempts at integrated support need also to be carefully negotiated. One model which may assist schools to do this is derived from Carey’s [11(3), 1993, p.17] research cited above. For a review of research on the use of **peer-support**, including peer counselling, mentoring and learning support, see Charlton and David [15(1), 1997].

Some research data are available on casework with specific problems such as a **parental illness** and **bereavement**. In an early issue of *PC in E* [4(3), 1986], Arch gives a brief but vivid account of her work with a Sikh girl who lost both parents in a short space of time, and in a much later edition, Le Count [18(2), 2000] uses case material to demonstrate the potential of art activity for assisting bereaved children to cope with loss and grief. Holland [18(4), 2000] reports the outcomes of structured interviews with senior teachers in 19 secondary schools in the north-east of England. Concerned about loss through parental bereavement and parental separation, he found that although some form of 'loss education' was identifiable in 63% of the schools (usually in the context of RE), only 26% had formal procedures in place to respond to pupils' losses. The seven recommendations with which his report concludes (p.38) deserve serious consideration by schools.

Nelson and White [19(3), 2001] remind us that separation is by no means the only source of anxiety and distress for children. Schools often do not know that a parent is (for example) suffering from cancer, let alone have in place some system for supporting the child. They observe that "(a) key element of a school's response to a crisis such as parental illness is 'teacher listening', which relies heavily on the skills, sensitivity and willingness of teachers to respond to distressed children on an individual basis" (pp.2-3). They conclude from questionnaire and interview data with 80 teachers and 80 children, that an ethos which allows for peer support alongside the role of the 'listening teacher' is crucial if children are to cope. (A case for 'cancer education' made by Carey *et al*, 1995 is discussed under *Pastoral Curriculum* below. For interesting examples of casework using a range of approaches for helping children resolve deep problems, see Decker *et al*, 1999).

Teachers' perspectives on working with children experiencing loss were investigated by Spall and Jordan [17(3), 1999]. Only eleven completed questionnaires were received and the authors are correct to conclude that no generalization was possible, but the report does contain interesting anecdotal evidence which could be used to inform a more extensive study.

Harris [14(3), 1996] reported research then in progress which investigated the way 800 Year 11 pupils in six schools were coping with the pressures of impending GCSE **examinations**. This can be manifest in a range of problems for which a pastoral response is required but, given the post-1988 emphasis on the academic curriculum, Harris is unsure that they receive the recognition they deserve. While prioritising a preventive and developmental approach, the author also recommends attaching teacher-counsellors to years 10 and 11 to provide reactive crisis-counselling where necessary.

New [11(2), 1993] surveyed and interviewed deputy heads in six schools about their support for children who had suffered **sexual abuse**, and subsequently surveyed nine girls known to have been sexually abused. (These questionnaires were administered by therapists already working with the girls). Although the numbers are too small to reveal statistical significance, differences between the abused girls and a control group of 20 did emerge in respect of their ability "to get on with their work; form close relationships with peers; perform in lessons to a standard which feels satisfying; compare themselves favourably with others; and feel positive towards school" (p. 23). The report concludes with a number of recommendations for improving the quality of school support for the victims of abuse. Skinner [17(1), 1999] uses three case studies - one a 'survivor', one a parent and one a teacher drawn from a sample of 28 cases she researched - to examine the complexities of responding to sexual abuse. Although not followed up, a search of the British Education Index through BIDS brought up over 100 titles, of which 24 would be relevant to this review. Many of these were to do with teachers' perceptions and training, although how many reported primary research is less clear.

An often over-looked but clearly needy group of children are **children in care**. In a special issue of the *Oxford Review of Education*, Jackson (1994) cites a review of the literature carried out in 1983

which found that “no book on the subject had been published in Britain or the US and it rated no more than a passing mention in the standard child welfare texts” (p. 268). Little seems to have changed. They report that there are “few hard data on the educational attainment of [such] children” (*ibid*), but that what there is demonstrates clearly the scale of disadvantage they suffer and that this is exacerbated by the deep split between care and education in our social institutions. In the same issue, Bullock, Little and Millham (1994) report “an intensive follow-up of 20 children going home from care, 11 of whom went to full-time schooling” (p. 313). Earlier work had established that teachers “find it difficult to conceptualise return to school as an issue” (p. 311), yet many children find it difficult because they are anxious, insecure and unsure of the rules and procedures of the new institution. They conclude that successful re-integration into the family can be assisted or hindered by how return to school is negotiated; that there is a need for a pastoral response by schools to ease the return and to support the child; and that closer liaison is needed between schools and social services.

In the HE context, Scott [6(4), 1988] reports how two counsellors interviewed ten heads of academic departments to establish the arrangements made for personal tutoring in a college of higher education. A questionnaire was subsequently devised for all members of the teaching staff. The 91 responses received (response rate: 39%) showed a consensus on the importance of personal tutoring, but varying degrees of concern about accommodation and time available for counselling and levels of training and general support for the tutor role. An institutional policy on personal tutoring is inferred as necessary for progress in the area.

Bullying has attracted a great deal of attention. Note must be made of Skinner’s admirable annotated bibliography of literature and resources on bullying (Skinner, 1994) which includes abstracts of research reports on many aspects and contexts of bullying, including bullying associated with transfer between schools; links with absenteeism, disruption and school refusal; and racial and sexual harassment. Although not pursued, a search of the Web of Science indexes brought up some 200 entries, many of which would have clear relevance in the current context.

Of the 29 articles in *PC in E* dealing specifically with bullying, 14 report empirical research. They typically refer to the pioneering work of Olweus in Scandinavia and the work of Tattum, Sharp and others in the UK (see references in Pervin and Turner [12(3), 1994] and Lines [17(1), 1999]).

There have been attempts to establish the incidence of bullying across schools. For example, Arora [17(1), 1999] used a *Life in School* checklist to generate a whole-school bullying index which could be used as a bench-marking tool by individual schools. However, the majority of the studies reported in *PC in E* focus on individual schools or groups within schools.

Thompson and Arora [9(4), 1991] report the evaluation by 14-year-olds, using questionnaires and interviews, of a whole-school policy to minimize bullying. They found (in the words of the abstract) that

“(t)hey showed good awareness of the details of the programme, support for the aims of the programme, a willingness to trust teachers to intervene effectively in incidents of bullying, and almost total mistrust of parents to intervene appropriately when bullying occurred” (p 8).

They note the need to further investigate pupils’ perceptions of what counts as bullying and the importance of gender differences in peer-group pressure. Some light is thrown on the latter by Jones [12(3), 1994]. Using questionnaire responses from 38 girls and 44 boys in Year 8 in an Essex comprehensive school, he found that while both boys and girls experienced bullying, there were gender differences in the incidence of particular types of behaviour. Girls were more likely to

consider bullying as a serious matter, were more likely to bully in mixed groups and more likely to be called names than to be physically bullied in the way boys were. He advocates development of a whole-school anti-bullying policy involving staff, pupils and parents, but argues that important preventive work can be done by enhancing self-esteem and social skills through the curriculum.

13 teachers and 147 Year 8 pupils were the subjects of a similar study by Pervin and Turner [12(3), 1994] in an inner-city comprehensive. Over half of boys and about one third of girls reported that they had been bullied at some time. The many forms which bullying can take were confirmed, as was the greater incidence of bullying amongst males, and the tendency for girls to engage in less physical, more verbal forms of harassment.

Lines [17(1), 1999] focused on name-calling in a large, urban state school in Birmingham. 245 questionnaires were returned and 77 interviews were carried out. 31 terms of abuse were compiled and considered in terms of their potency and the degree of emotion involved. Lines found an “alarming” tendency for a small number of victims to repeat a physical and verbal defensive behaviour already shown not to work, and there are grounds for arguing that social skills training which promotes understanding of the social rules of group behaviour and enhances confidence to be self-assertive may be the best way forward. In a later article, Lines uses examples from counselling sessions to demonstrate the effectiveness of intervention which focuses on these factors [19(2), 2001].

Primary perspectives were gathered in Northern Ireland by Stuart and McCullaugh [14(4), 1996]. Questionnaires relating to four tape-recorded cameos of types of bullying (*verbal, physical, exclusion and extortion*) were used by teachers to elicit the views of 400 boys and girls in P4 and P7 classes. Physical bullying was found to be the most feared and verbal the least feared, but the authors comment particularly on children’s dislike of peer exclusion. Children were shown to have clear ideas of the traits of a typical bully and a typical victim, but while these are insightful in some cases, stereotypes may conceal the reality that both bullies and victims come in all ‘shapes and sizes’.

McDougall [17(2), 1999] reminds us that bullying is not restricted to schools. Just under 10% of a sample of full-time students in a college of further and higher education reported having been bullied at college. The data (which included students’ reports of earlier bullying at school) “did not reveal any major issues; it confirmed rather than contradicted, other research” (p. 35), but qualitative data threw up some interesting issues inviting further research. In particular, the effects on health of undisclosed bullying, the contrast between students suggesting forms of action and those feeling that nothing can be done, and the tendency to stereotype racial groups with bullying are high-lighted. In a small but not un-useful study in a similar college, Hughes [19(3), 2001] interviewed 16 people in various roles and identified examples of good practice when dealing with bullying.

Sexual bullying was the subject of single-sex group interviews and related ethnographic techniques employed by Duncan in four secondary schools [16(2), 1998]. Every group of pupils claimed to have detailed knowledge and experience of sexual hostility of one kind or another. Attempts by boys to undermine girls’ reputations, peer-group exclusion and comments relating to physical development were described, but it is clear that both boys’ and girls’ group cultures need to be taken into account if these phenomena are to be properly contextualized. Duncan is surely right in calling for further research and a greater understanding of this issue by schools.

Sexual orientation itself can be the basis for bullying. Rivers [13(1), 1995] summarises research undertaken both here and in the USA, together with an analysis of questionnaires returned by 37 men and 7 women who responded to an advertisement placed in a gay weekly newspaper. Verbal bullying (especially name-calling) was reported as particularly prevalent. Victims had found it more difficult

to report bullying to teachers than to parents and about half the respondents considered that their sexual orientation was the basis for victimization by a teacher. Several respondents reported that they had been permanently damaged by being bullied at school.

Teachers can themselves be bullies or may “turn a blind eye” to it, but they can also be on the receiving end. Pervin and Turner [16(4), 1998] analysed questionnaires on teacher-targeted bullying (‘TTB’) returned by 84 teachers in a mixed London comprehensive. Significant proportions of teachers (especially NQTs) reported being bullied by pupils and indicated loss of confidence and substantial concern about other effects on them. Year 10 pupils were especially active, but there were pupils in all years engaged in TTB with boys and girls equally represented. Of particular concern is the claim by 15% of respondents that they received no support in this context from senior staff.

Parental attitudes and beliefs about bullying were the subject of a questionnaire survey of parents of Years 7 – 11 pupils in a mixed, comprehensive school [Pervin, 13(3), 1995]. Analysis of the 270 replies received revealed that a significant minority of parents believed their children to have been bullied over prolonged periods of time and felt let down by the school. Also worrying were the victims’ fear of reprisal should their parents report the matter to the school and the possible condonement of bullying by parents who view it as a part of growing up at school which has to be endured and is something which the victim has to learn to stand up to.

While there is much about perception of bullies, there is little if anything in *PC in E* which is specifically about *bullies’ perceptions of themselves*. However, Johnson and Lewis (1999) used a modification of Arora’s ‘Life in Schools’ checklist (see above) in a survey of 245 year 10 girls and boys in three comprehensive schools to investigate whether there were significant differences in the self-esteem and self-concept of bullies and non-bullies. They found little significant difference between the two groups, and confirmed earlier research in demonstrating positive self-esteem as an attribute of bullies, something which is counter-intuitive to some commonsense accounts of bullies’ motivation. They conclude that “a combination of temperamental traits and upbringing” may be causal, and infer the desirability of “a preventative approach alongside later intervention methods” (p.673).

Several articles in *PC in E* report *responses* to bullying in schools, but they do not generally satisfy the criteria for research. Exceptions are Jenner and Greetham’s carefully researched and evaluated case study of the development of a whole-school anti-bullying policy, using surveys of staff, pupil and parent opinions, a training day and a summative evaluation [13(3), 1995], and Hurst’s evaluation of an anti-bullying peer support programme in a British secondary school [19(2), 2001]. Hurst’s initial questionnaire in 1994 had aimed at establishing the incidence of bullying and this was followed up in 1996 and 1998 to find out pupils’ opinions of the peer-counselling system. For this report, the views of 44 teachers were collected by questionnaire and eight were interviewed. Taken alongside the results of the earlier questionnaires, the findings give encouragement to such schemes, although a number of concerns are raised and suggestions for improvement made.

An important dimension of pastoral casework is the ‘**welfare network**’ of care and support into which the school needs to fit. This might be thought to include links between the school and the home as well as with such agencies as the educational psychology service and social services generally. Two articles take *home/parent-school/teacher links* as their focus. Szwed [4(2), 1986] briefly reported a (then) on-going study of parents’ attitudes to home-school contact and, in particular, to home visits by liaison teachers. The implication is that schools should not assume that this is unproblematic for parents and should be sensitive to concerns about privacy, possible loss of face and so on. Irving [15(1), 1997] directs attention to careers education and guidance. ‘Approximately 30 parents’ were asked to consider, in small groups, what they hoped for their

children and how this might be achieved. The students themselves were asked to complete statements about their relationship with their parents. Irving concludes that more needs to be done to involve parents in partnership with schools in providing careers guidance and education. (For a critical perspective on home-school relationships as mechanisms for controlling the behaviour of pupils *and* parents, and which reviews some research in this field, see Vincent and Tomlinson, 1997).

Other agencies have received surprisingly little attention in *PC in E* although the involvement of local authority personnel in some of the curriculum initiatives reported below should be noted. In early issues of the journal, Welton [1(2), 1983] draws on his research in Northern Ireland and in England to discuss the social division of labour in the provision of welfare but reports no specific data, and Ling [1(3), 1983], reported below under *Discipline/Control* draws on data from one LEA to critique local authority procedures in suspension of 'disruptive pupils'. An initiative of the Police Schools' Liaison Department [Ball, 16(1), 1998] is also reported under that heading. Although no specific data are reported, Fletcher-Campbell [9(1), 1991] draws on a joint NFER/ESRC project reported elsewhere, to highlight the need for schools to know more about, and be geared up to help, children in care.

In a more rigorous and penetrating account, Moses and Croll [14(2), 1996] report a DfE-funded evaluation of a project employing two outreach workers in working with schools and families on a socially problematic housing estate. In a caveat which might be applied to most intervention projects in this field, they comment that

"it is not necessarily straightforward to provide hard evidence of the value and, in particular, the outcomes of a project of this kind. It is inevitable that much of the work of Schools Outreach, in common with much pastoral care, is not readily quantifiable. This is partly because it is aimed to be preventative but also because some of the work is aimed at alleviating unhappiness and personal stress which does not necessarily manifest itself in behavioural terms". (p. 37)

That said, both qualitative and quantitative data suggest significant outcomes to be reductions in exclusions and referrals for multi-professional support and improvements in relationships and social behaviour.

PASTORAL CURRICULUM

Over 50 articles in *PC in E* classified as 'empirical' or 'professional' research were considered to be primarily or exclusively concerned with the broad area of the pastoral curriculum. In early issues, these are frequently concerned with tutorial programmes (i.e. that part of the pastoral curriculum delivered in tutor periods), but in later numbers the range of topics is broad. Some deal with the content of programmes; others are more concerned with method. Many report evaluations of curriculum initiatives; others are reports of action-research in which needs are identified, programmes developed and then evaluated. For an historical review of the development of the pastoral curriculum in the '80s, see Follett [7(3), 1989].

Early reports of teacher-led initiatives are often in the 'grey area' between first-person accounts of single-teacher initiatives and properly systematic evaluations or action-research projects. They are not, however, without an evidence base, or without insight. Examples are Werner's report of the development of an Education for Parenthood course [1(3), 1983], Purnell's account of setting up a Personal and Social Development programme in an open-access sixth form [1(3), 1983], Hotham's use of tutor periods for a constructive programme of guidance [2(1), 1984], Healy's development of a

Social Education programme in a multi-ethnic comprehensive school [2(2), 1984] and Clarke's case study of a PSE programme in a community college [2(3), 1984]. A comparison is provided by Quicke's (1986) "illuminative evaluation" of a newly-introduced PSE programme. As a participant-observer of PSE lessons with a Year 7 class over a term, he noted the presence of a deficit model of pupils and a hidden curriculum of covert differentiation according to ability which had long been seen as a feature of other parts of the curriculum. His recommendation that teachers should be involved in reflecting "more keenly on the tension between deficit and appreciative models" (p. 217) is no doubt good advice, but the data base from which it derives is really rather thin.

More systematic studies at this time focused on the programmes of tutorial work being developed in the late 'seventies and early 'eighties. Thacker [3(1), 1985] reports on the research-and-development of Button's developmental group work in middle schools undertaken at Exeter. In the same issue, Stables [3(1), 1985] and Tall [3(1), 1985] evaluate the programme of *Active Tutorial Work* to which it gave rise in schools in Berkshire and Birmingham respectively. Tall *et al* report an evaluation of the introduction of ATW in a West Midlands school [4(1), 1986]. The now well-established advantages and disadvantages of such schemes are apparent in these reports, and in a later evaluation by Tall and Langtree [6(2), 1988], a number of unfavourable and ambivalent teacher attitudes revealed in interviews and questionnaire responses are used to identify the need for training for the tutor role in such programmes.

In [4(1), 1986], Forward describes an action-research project designed to move from a crisis-focused approach to a preventive tutorial programme in one school (cf Fincham [5(2), 1987]) and Ribbins and Ribbins [4(1), 1987] report the development of a 'Design for Living' course at another. Hailey [8(2), 1990] chronicles a carefully-planned and systematically evaluated PSE curriculum initiative, supported by TVEI, and concludes that changing circumstances mean that evaluation needs to be regular and on-going. Donovan [7(3), 1989] surveyed the pastoral curriculum across schools in a London borough and identified four distinct models: tutorial-based; tutorial leading to personal and social education; the pastoral curriculum as an integral part of the work of the faculties; and pastoral curriculum strongly identified with the school ethos. The issues he identifies - including coordination, time, resources, the need for INSET, clear curriculum and staffing policies and LEA support - deserve consideration in all schools.

Graham, Osborne and Stenhouse report a full-blooded action-research project in a Croydon high school [9(2), 1991]. Under the auspices of an LEA Social Responsibility Project (funded by a DES Education Support Grant), this project (like that of Forward above) employs the action-research cycle meticulously, from initial needs-identification through implementation and continuous evaluation. They conclude that the project has (amongst other things) acted as a catalyst in prompting plans to integrate the whole school pastoral programme across all years, been the vehicle for the introduction of developmental group work, encouraged cross-departmental collaboration between staff and raised awareness of alternative approaches to behaviour management. (In this connection there is a useful review of some of the research on social skills training in Wooster and Hall, [6(3), 1988]).

If autonomy for schools and LEAs facilitated imaginative initiatives in some places, it may also be seen to have permitted oversight and neglect in others, an argument which, in more general terms, underpinned the introduction of a National Curriculum in 1989. While the research status of data collected in the context of inspections is, as indicated earlier, uncertain, they give some indication of the state of play at any time. A survey of personal and social education courses undertaken by HMI in 21 secondary schools in England and Wales in 1986/7 found that there were great variations in provision. The content of syllabi seemed to depend on the interests of those charged with designing them, a lack of cross-year planning led to repetition of some topics and oversight of others, little

attention was given to assessment or evaluation, and there was “a general absence of reference to links with other subjects or aspects of the curriculum” (HMI, 1988, p.2).

Did the implementation of a National Curriculum make a difference?

By 1992, the National Curriculum Council’s *Curriculum Guidance* documents had identified cross-curricular elements to be included in planning for the (then new) National Curriculum. Whitty et al (1994) studied “the implementation of the cross-curricular themes in secondary schools in England and Wales and post-primary schools in Northern Ireland” (p.159). Questionnaires were sent to a random sample of 25 per cent of secondary schools in England and Wales and to all equivalent schools in Northern Ireland. The survey was followed up with intensive fieldwork in a sub-sample of ten schools. Bernstein’s model of the classification of educational knowledge codes informed the analysis, which was concerned with the expectation that themes be taught across the subject boundaries which are such a feature of the secondary curriculum. They concluded (*inter alia*) that “themes which did not have a significant presence in schools prior to the introduction of the National Curriculum have generally lacked status and resources”; that “the majority of schools made little systematic attempt to evaluate or assess cross-curricular work separately from procedures employed in relation to individual subjects”; and that the “lack of clear assessment criteria for work associated with the themes is identified as a major problem...” (p.159).

A study contrasting in scale and approach is that of Rodin and colleagues at Northolt High School [10(1), 1992]. They undertook an action-research project aimed at persuading staff of the value of an across-the-curriculum approach instead of the (then) concentration of PSE in a single, 35-minute period. The report concludes that improved pupil-teacher and pupil-pupil relationships, improved pupil motivation and personal responsibility levels and a more adult working environment were among the results emerging from the initiative. Cadmore’s discussion of the development of a whole-school policy [15(4), 1997] is in the grey area between a retrospective report of an initiative and a rigorous and explicit action-research project. It is an interesting example of the change in nomenclature and focus between the NCC’s guidance in 1992 and the need to respond to SCAA and Ofsted requirements for *Spiritual, Moral, Social and Cultural* development (SMSC) five years later. (For an analysis of reports and guidance on SMSC appearing around this time, see Best [18(4), 2000] and Best [Ed] 2000, pp. 1-12).

In a survey aimed at curriculum development which, in the light of events since Crick, now seems superficial, Vaughan and Edwards [11(1), 1993] used a simple questionnaire to pupils in Years 9 – 13 of a Northampton girls’ school and to 50 teachers and 50 other adults to investigate concepts of citizenship. The unsurprising outcome was that citizenship means different things to different people, but it is likely that the school itself benefited considerably from the exercise.

Rayner and Devi [14(4), 1996] report how the full teacher-led action-research cycle was employed in a project in an inner-city junior school in the West Midlands. “The aim of the research was to create an impetus for change within the school staff, which would lead to the renewal of the pastoral curriculum” (p.20). The results included affirmation of the school’s positive ethos and the replacement of a piece-meal, primarily crisis-led pastoral curriculum with a coherent and progressive PSE programme across Years 3 to 6.

A good example of research which produces evidence about curriculum approaches, generates issues for schools to consider in curriculum planning *and* contributes to the corpus of knowledge about education is Unwin and Wellington’s evaluation of an approach to the promotion of core, transferable skills (the *Personal Effectiveness Programme Initiative* [PEPI]) [15(2), 1997]. Data were collected mainly by individual interviews with 25 teachers and group interviews with 72 pupils. The data

illuminate the rationale for involvement, the roles of external consultant, key school staff and the pack of materials itself. Perceptions of the teachers and students themselves are shown to be very different, confirming the findings of previous research that “whilst teachers and curriculum designers view the curriculum as a well-constructed, well-designed edifice with different categories of building material... in a carefully manufactured structure...., their students see it as a pile of rubble” (p. 13). Doubts are raised about the degree to which the targeted skills are actually transferred, although they conclude that this is more likely to occur “(a) where there is self-awareness that a particular skill is being used or deployed; and (b) when the skill is made explicit, focused upon and highlighted, especially if this is done simultaneously by a number of subject-specific teachers” (pp. 13-14).

The separation of content and outcomes from process is dubious in regard to any aspect of the curriculum. In the realm of personal and social education, it seems particularly so. Here, the ‘hidden curriculum’ of teachers’ attitudes towards, and relationships with, their students is arguably more likely to have a lasting impact than the formal content of the lesson. Although details of precise method and data set are missing, Cooper (2000) draws on data from pilot interviews for an on-going study of the modelling of empathy and morality in teacher-pupil interactions to underscore the significance of the gap between rhetoric and reality (or, in her terms “words and deeds”). Moreover, since by definition, the ‘pastoral curriculum’ (Marland, 1980) has as its content the development of the child her- or himself, it would be folly to treat either content or desired outcomes as separable in any real sense from the experiences of the child in the process of engaging the curriculum. Not surprisingly, questions of *how* we do and should teach for this part of the curriculum are integral to the discussions in many of the articles reported above. However, **pedagogy per se** is the explicit focus for some papers.

One example is Harwood’s consideration of factors affecting the promotion of writing in programmes [3(2), 1985]. He used a limited pilot study to establish the potential of writing for helping children express and come to terms with sensitive life experiences such as bereavement. In a later paper with Newton [Newton and Harwood, 11(1), 1993], observations of 126 lessons in 14 subjects experienced by six ‘tracked’ Year 7 pupils in three secondary schools revealed that, despite ten years of active LEA support for ‘active learning strategies’ associated with ATW and PSE, formal ‘discipline-based’ teaching styles were twice as prevalent as ‘active-progressive’ ones. The value of techniques such as ‘The Island’ is established by socio-metric pre- and post-tests in Wooster *et al*’s R&D approach to social skills training in a special school [4(3), 1986]. In an action-research context, Mosley [6(2), 1988] used pupil questionnaires and interviews to evaluate the introduction of Circle Time, a technique later to become very popular and associated with her name in many schools. The scope of PSE as a concept is indicated in Saunders’ evaluation of a residential PSE course for an academic A-level class [8(3), 1990], concluding that the residential experience, especially early in the sixth form, can encourage self-evaluation of personal and social skills as well as welding a diverse intake into a cohesive social group.

Comparable data are to be found in the numerous small-scale projects (not all of which would qualify for the label ‘research’) reported in Lang’s book *Thinking about ... Pastoral Care and PSE in the Primary School* (Lang, 1988). These include interventions to deal with dysfunctional classes (e.g. Wagner; Wooster); to promote personal and social skills (e.g. Ingram; Brier); to promote self-esteem and ‘internality’ (e.g. Charlton); and to introduce personal and social education programmes in first, junior and middle schools (e.g. Rushton; Braddy; Stoa and Thacker; Harwood). Attention is also given to questions of ethnicity (David and Clements; Walker *et al*) and gender (Drummond). The work done on social skills by the Centre for the Study of Human Relations at Nottingham University is notable in this book and elsewhere. For example, Hall and Delaney (1992) used a programme of activities in a developmental, evolutionary and experimental way to promote friendship in an infants’

class. While the scale and limitations of the study are modestly but correctly acknowledged by the authors, the use of a control group and a pre- and post-test design gives the findings some credibility.

Sadly, work done on specific techniques and their outcomes is too often insufficiently supported by methodological detail. For example, Leat's paper [18(3), 2000] draws on four interviews from an undisclosed data-set in examining the teaching of thinking skills and its impact on socialization, patterns of classroom interaction and teachers' self-concept. In Viarengo's report of her study of mediation, autobiography and associated techniques to examine children's imaginal and reflective practices, pedagogy and data collection are virtually indistinguishable [16(2), 1998], although she describes her approach as 'ethnographic'. She concludes:

"The research revealed that imagination and meditation may promote the progress of thought and support children's rational thinking. The children showed that they were open to new ways of learning. For them, imagination was a meaningful medium to make sense of their world. Meditation revealed itself to be an instrument of self-knowledge and of the knowledge of others" (p. 8)

McLean [19(1), 2001] conducted semi-structured interviews with pupils and staff in two primary schools where meditation is practised. He found that teachers considered academic progress to be enhanced by meditation and a case is made for its inclusion under 'SMSC' in the curriculum, but the data are impressionistic and the author is careful to warn against unwarranted generalizations from such a limited study. The pupil 'voice' seems to have been considered by the researcher but frustratingly little is said about it.

Jones [18(4), 2000] showed that the use of action-learning projects (in this case in regard to citizenship education) can be effective (see below).

Aspects of **careers and vocational education** are the foci for five research reports in *PC in E*. Watts and Law [3(2), 1985] report discussion with teachers in three schools in the (then) ILEA to establish issues and discuss possible strategies for dealing with race, colour and ethnicity in careers education. A combination of compensatory teaching of knowledge and skills and preparation to deal with discrimination in the labour market are amongst the policies advocated.

During a schoolteacher fellowship at the University of Newcastle upon Tyne, Smith [7(2), 1989] analysed unemployment figures for Bedford and Newcastle and "talked to a wide range of people" (p.6) about schools' preparation for adult life. Although there is little detail of methods of data collection and analysis, the subsequent discussion is a useful overview of the inadequacy and challenges of the preparation for the world of work (frequently, at that time, for unemployment). Cooper [11(4), 1993] reports a study somewhat outside the mainstream, in which 56 18-25-year olds were interviewed in their work-places to explore their perspectives on schooling and subsequent vocational education and training, raising several issues which schools would do well to consider. Waterhouse and Turner [14(3), 1996] made case studies of three mixed comprehensive schools as part of an extensive survey of school-industry links in Scotland. The semi-structured interviews linked to participant observation of placements and analysis of pupil evaluations and other documentation reveal that work experience has a more fundamental value than the technical preparation for career choice and employment by which it is usually justified. The processes and outcomes of work placements contribute a great deal to the formation of the pupils' self-concepts and the development of their identities at a significant point in their lives. But this can be hazardous. Pyatt [6(4), 1988] briefly reports the case study of a young man ('Colin') whom she shadowed through a YTS placement where he undertook clerical work. While he found the experience generally beneficial, "he had to overcome labelling and ridicule, sometimes severe, from some of the male

workforce who were not sympathetic to the concept of equal opportunities as Colin had experienced in his vocational guidance” (p. 19).

While **education for citizenship** might be seen as presumed by or running through much if not all of what we commonly think of as PSHE or SMSC, and is therefore represented elsewhere in this review (see, for example, Vaughan and Edwards [11(1), 1993] cited above), it has received only limited explicit recognition in *PC in E*. This is surprising since ‘citizenship education’ as a keyword in a search of the British Education Index generated 339 entries, of which 33 appeared relevant to this review, although they were not accessed. Attention is also drawn to the emerging work of the NFER who have recently won the contract for a major, longitudinal study of the impact of the National Curriculum programme of study to be implemented at KS3 and KS4 from September 2002 (reported in the NFER’s *Current Research News*, Spring 2002). This will build upon preliminary surveys of citizenship education in UK and elsewhere (see Kerr et al, 2001).

Jones [18(4), 2000] analysed questionnaires from 28 students and more detailed data from follow-up interviews with three of them, to conclude that “action learning projects are an effective way of teaching citizenship because pupils learn from their experience and it motivates them to develop their skills and understanding(and) because it advances a model for citizenship education where young people are treated and valued as citizens themselves” (pp. 24-5). A very different focus is adopted by Hurni [19(1), 2001] who used interviews with (an unspecified number of) Year 7 and Year 9 pupils in three secondary schools to demonstrate that a good deal of the skills and values of social education programmes and of the new National Curriculum Order for Citizenship may be acquired and practised in the ‘hidden curriculum’ of the playground. The implication is that this should be exploited by schools for the achievement of curricular objectives in these areas.

In response to a request from the Speaker’s Commission, a much more extensive survey of citizenship education in secondary schools was carried out by the University of Leicester in collaboration with Social and Community Planning Research (Fogelman, 1990). The 455 questionnaires received from a random sample of 800 maintained secondary schools in England and Wales revealed that, although there was great variation from school to school, most schools provided for some community involvement; that while 11 per cent of schools taught citizenship as a separate subject, the majority taught it in the context of other subjects (notably the Humanities, Home Economics, English and Business Studies); and that there was a considerable amount of pupil representation on various councils and committees in the schools surveyed. Such data may be thought to have only an historical interest since the publication of the Crick Report and the advent of a programme of study in the National Curriculum at KS3/4, but there is food for thought here in the conclusion that those who, at the time of the research, were producing curriculum guidance on the delivery of the cross-curricular elements were ignorant of the fact that citizenship was already a flourishing area in many secondary schools.

Articles reporting the involvement of outside agencies in promoting good citizenship are conspicuous by their relative absence, with the evaluation of a ‘School Watch’ initiative (Ball [16(1), 1998] reported below under *Discipline and Control*) being a notable exception. It is also a matter of concern for those who are worried by the tension between empowerment and conformity in active approaches to citizenship.

(For the implications of some **feminist** research for citizenship education, see Arnot, 1997 and the references therein).

Religious Education and spirituality get just three, research-based treatments in *PC in E* although details of the methodology are not always reported. Sims-King [15(2), 1997] collected views from

Year 9 pupils in one school on their concepts of faith and its relation with RE. She identifies three areas in their perspective: personal definitions of faith, the school's view of faith and "faith as a tool, as something you need to survive" (p. 39), and is interested by pupils' perception of the need for RE teachers to have faith themselves. The difficulty of defining the *spiritual* for those needing to plan for its development in the curriculum, and for those required to inspect schools' effectiveness in so doing, is frequently noted in the literature. Sokanovic and Muller [17(1) 1999] adopted a phenomenological approach to investigate the perspectives of six teachers and six inspectors on definitions and approaches to teaching for spiritual development. The data are used to support an argument for greater attention to this aspect of the curriculum if a commitment to the development of the whole person is seriously espoused. In a very different (Further Education) context, Tatarkowski [15(3), 1997] draws on data from a pilot questionnaire to A-level social science students to support a largely theoretical discussion of spiritual development and a case for including it in FE colleges.

Gill (2000) undertook a questionnaire survey of attitudes to school assemblies and acts of collective worship in some 280 schools, complemented by observations in 35 schools, interviews with 33 heads or their representatives and discussions with 12 groups of pupils across the primary/secondary phases. She found that, even where teachers were strongly opposed to the use of assemblies for religious purposes, they were in favour of the collective purpose of assemblies *per se*, but concludes that the concept of a spirituality which might transcend a narrowly religious one remains to be satisfactorily articulated.

Sex education is the focus for just two research reports in *PC in E*. Taylor and Brierley [10(1), 1992] used questionnaires to survey the views of 75 pupils on a Sex Education module designed carefully to accord with new legislation introduced at that time. Teachers closely involved in teaching ethical and moral issues were also asked for their views. Although the evaluations were generally positive, the module was felt to be rather narrow and gave insufficient attention to sensitive issues. The authors conclude that "sex education which does not encompass all the major issues, controversial or otherwise, that could cause young people distress, is not preparing them properly for adult life" (p. 25). Beavet and Thompson [14(4), 1996] interviewed 30 governors, parents and PSE/Health Education coordinators and analysed 55 questionnaires returned by parents in Hampshire. They observe that "a number of methods and strategies have been successfully employed by schools in order to facilitate effective communication with parents" and conclude that

"Parents generally are keen for schools to provide a sex education programme [Their primary concern is] that they receive regular and accurate information on the programme and that they can readily access an appropriate member of staff should they have a query; schools can rely on the continued support of parents if they provide this information". (p. 13)

Some hard data are provided in the context of Buston *et al's* (2001) evaluation of a "randomised, controlled trial of a specially designed teacher-led sex education programme in which 25 non-denominational state schools in Tayside and Lothian (East Scotland) participated" (p. 355). The focus was on sex education provided within PSE programmes. They found that there was, as ever with such innovations, considerable variation from school to school. The amount of time devoted to sex education during the last four years of compulsory schooling varied from 0 to 45 hours and this seemed to depend on the priorities of the senior management team, sensitivity to parents' views, the influence of the PSE coordinator and the attitude of the Head who was seen as the "critical reality definer". Variations in commitment within schools seemed to reflect the cohesion or otherwise of the Guidance Team and the degree of collegiality (in Hargreaves's sense) amongst involved staff.

A surprising absence from the pages of *PC in E* is any paper specifically about **health education**. Nor did the computer search turn up much that was relevant, although this may say more about the key words used than the absence of actual research. *Education and Health* regularly publishes findings from the Schools Health Education Unit's on-going survey using the Health-Related Behaviour questionnaire (HReLB). One report (Balding and Bish, 1992) of relevance to this review records the responses of 48 secondary schools from a sample of 116 selected from the list used for HReLB, to questionnaires and follow-up telephone conversations concerning alcohol education. They found huge diversity in approach, little recognition of cross-curricular work, a belief in the overwhelming importance of peer-pressure and scepticism about the effectiveness of alcohol education in reducing drinking levels. Of some interest was the finding that teachers were more confident of the effectiveness of alcohol education where this was included in cooperative PSE programmes compared with its accommodation in tutorial periods. In the latter context, teachers "were clearly uncertain in their role, and therefore doubtless less convincing"(p.2). Most respondents felt their programme to be satisfactory but with significant room for improvement.

Following up on a 10-year survey by Eiser *et al* of smoking in young people, Regis *et al* (1994) looked at HReLB data relating to the use of alcohol and found that pupils were less likely to drink if they received alcohol education in PSE lessons than in Science. However, this pattern existed even for students who had not yet studied the alcohol module! The implication is that there may be something about schools which adopt a discussion- and activity-based approach in PSE rather than cross-curricular, subject-based approaches that promotes a more healthy lifestyle. In a yet later report, Regis (2000) analyses the responses of over 10,000 students to those items in HReLB relating to pupil perceptions of the utility of school lessons on various topics. He concludes that

"Most pupils are positive about most of the lessons that they have had about most of the topics on the lists, considering them at least 'quite useful'. There is some hesitation among Year 10s about 'the environment', 'puberty' and 'other health education', while 'drugs education' is working the best". (p. 37)

While the hoped for preventative function of alcohol and tobacco education is obvious, school-based prevention programmes may make an impact on other aspects of health. Carey *et al* (1995) collected data from a random stratified sample of 1,024 secondary school teachers in England and Wales on the place (if any) of *cancer education* in the curriculum. The results showed that 22.3% had taught cancer at some time and that it was "most often taught about in science or personal and social education (PSE)" (p. 101). They also found "a significant correlation between the teachers' knowledge of cancer and their involvement in cancer education" (*ibid*), and we are reminded that teacher experience may be a significant factor in confidence and willingness to address health issues generally.

Just one article in *PC in E* was concerned with **drugs education**. Zeitlin and Swadi [5(3), 1987] report a pilot study in a London comprehensive school in which they surveyed by questionnaire 588 11-16 year-old pupils and 14 tutors. Data were collected on incidence and prevalence of use of drugs (including alcohol and tobacco) and teachers' perceptions of, amongst other things, possible links between drug use and academic performance. Although teachers did not appreciate the full range of damaging drugs being used, their perception was found to be "a realistic though cautious estimate of the problem" (p.199).

A number of research projects concerned with the effectiveness of policies for drugs education and the prevention of drug abuse are reported in O'Connor *et al* (1998) and summarised in O'Connor's paper presented at the 2000 BERA National Conference ('Defining and supporting effective drug education in schools within a model of best practice', available on-line from BERA). O'Connor, Best

and Best (1998) report data collected in a collaborative research project in three London boroughs. The findings from a 'draw and write' exercise with almost 2,000 primary school children, a questionnaire returned by 2,440 secondary school pupils and six group discussions are reported. From this data, complemented by the findings of other research in the field, the authors offer eleven 'First Principles' which they hope will inform policy. They conclude that a more systematic, comprehensive and open policy with clearer aims, objectives and intended outcomes is required.

O'Connor, Rowley, Wotton and Evans (1998) report evidence from a dozen interviews and 16 questionnaires from PSHE and other teachers, police, school liaison officers etc, seeking their views on the implementation of drug policies and education in schools. They discovered a high degree of consensus on several aspects, including the strong preference for a fact-based rather than a 'scare tactics' approach, and the prime need for "more focused programmes matching the needs of young people" (p.66). Complementing their evidence with that of OFSTED, they observe that

"whilst elements of good practice have been identified, especially where commitment to PSHE or drugs education is apparent, schools do not generally provide the managerial conditions in which effective drugs policies can flourish" (p.70),

identifying particular problems where provision is encouraged but without statutory authority. Again, the paper concludes with a general plea for more committed support covering resources, planning, training and collaboration (p.71).

McWhirter, Wetton and Mortimer (1998) report the use of a 'Draw and Write' technique as a method for exploring the perceptions of risk of children and adults of varying ages. They conclude that four major issues need to be addressed: starting where people are; recognizing risk as part of normal behaviour; planning a 'spiral curriculum' which takes account of the different perceptions of risk at different stages of development and the value of the school as a health-promoting community (p. 80).

In her own report, O'Connor (2000) summarises some other findings from the Roehampton research to effect that:

"parents wish to play an effective role in their children's drug education, but lack the knowledge and skills to do so[and that] key skills relate to effective communication between parents and young people, which goes beyond drug knowledge issues..." (p.3)

She asserts that

"(t)he evidence base has developed to the point where there is a general consensus amongst educationalists on what constitutes good practice in this area, and this is apparent in the advice given in the Government's (DfEE 1998) drug education guidance document for schools and the Youth Service, *Protecting Young People*.... [This] recognizes the need for schools and teachers to lead and co-ordinate this area with the support of parents, multi-agencies including the police, and the broader school community.... (pp. 2-3)

However, she notes that the research also casts doubt on "the readiness of schools to act as catalysts for collaborative work in this area" (p.3). The non-statutory status of the Government's guidance is again seen as a major weakness (p.4)

Death education is perhaps the 'last taboo' in the pastoral curriculum, but has received some attention from researchers. Most notable is the SCSE award-winning book by Oliver Leaman entitled *Death and Loss: Compassionate Approaches in the Classroom* (Leaman, 1995). The methodology

and data-base of 750 pupil- and teacher-questionnaires, individual and group interviews with 223 children and adults in and outside of the educational context, and over 490 lesson observations in 43 schools are described in the appendix, and there are interesting extracts from interviews which give a flavour of the method and data collected by these means (see. pp.124-138). However, in the body of the text the research data are used to develop, support and illustrate the unfolding argument rather than being presented in full, something which may frustrate the reader seeking to relate commentary to data. Anticipating such a criticism perhaps, Leaman asks:

“How ‘scientific’ are the results of the research? If by ‘scientific’ is meant ‘universally valid’ then the answer is probably that the research was not very scientific. On the other hand, it does point to some interesting observations on the issues of death, loss and risk on the part of at least some children and adults, and readers are invited to reflect upon the nature of these observations”. (Leaman, 1995, p. 122)

To accept the invitation is well worthwhile, for the complexity and sensitivity of children’s (and adults’) experiences, perceptions and expectations where death and loss are concerned are well presented and the institutional attitudes of schools to disasters and ‘ordinary’ tragedies are developed. The questions posed by the discussion for those planning the pastoral curriculum are daunting but clearly of great importance.

Bowie [18(1), 2000] asks whether there is a place for death education in the primary curriculum. Data from 107 pupils, their classteachers and headteachers in two Scottish primary schools and 79 final-year BEd students showed a substantial balance of support for its inclusion, but there was significant disagreement as to whether this should be provided only when broached by pupils or when a death had occurred, or whether it should be included in the preventive or developmental pastoral curriculum. A more substantive study was undertaken five years earlier by Eiser et al [13(4), 1995], who report questionnaire responses from 104 trainee teachers and 39 experienced teachers attending an inservice course. Questions concerned sources of information about bereavement and loss, attitudes to teaching about it and the place it should have in the curriculum. A t-test revealed few statistically significant differences between the groups. There appeared to be neither training nor curriculum time for this particular topic. As with Bowie’s later research, the sample were divided over the desirability of pro-active and re-active approaches. (For comparative data from Australia, see Rowling, 1996).

The relationship between **pastoral care and academic support** is highlighted in four articles. Smith [7(3), 1989] draws on teacher and pupil interview data (details of methodology are sparse) in reporting the evaluation of the Oxford Certificate of Educational Achievement at the time when Records of Achievement were being piloted in each LEA. Sweetingham [8(4), 1990] reports a comprehensive study of one school’s approach to study skills. She used questionnaires, small-group and whole-class interviews and some field-work observation to explore pupil perspectives, identifying ideal-type pupils (‘defeatists’, ‘strugglers’ and ‘the autonomous’) and recommending pastoral pre-conditions for the development of healthy coping strategies in the face of GCSE course-work and examination demands. Williamson [18(2), 2000] reports the evaluation (in the context an action-research project), of the introduction of a ‘year planner’, not only to assist Year 9 students to set targets, schedule activities and monitor their achievement, but to enhance teachers’ ‘craft knowledge’ with respect to student attitudes to study and to relations with teachers. The significance of *gender* in this context is addressed by Morrish [16(1), 1998] in his report of an Essex comprehensive school’s attempt to increase boys’ achievement by a battery of strategies including peer counselling, mentoring and changes in assessment methods.

Assessment in the pastoral curriculum has received some attention, notably in the book *Assessing Personal and Social Development: measuring the unmeasurable?* Edited by Inman, Buck and Burke (1998). Although primarily concerned with theoretical review and discussion, empirical research informs some chapters. However, these reports could as well be seen as research and development of the PSE curriculum as much as studies of assessment. Harris (1998) uses (unspecified) qualitative and quantitative data collected in a two-year evaluation of the 'Pathways towards Adult Life' curriculum project to report the difficulties teachers encounter in trying to assess pupil learning outcomes against objectives, especially in the secondary school. Burke (1998) and Slade (1998) report a small action-research project using 'conferencing' as both a teaching technique and a means of assessment in a secondary school and a primary school respectively. Pooley (1998) reports a focus on assessment practices in an action-research project to set up a PSE programme in a secondary school, with particular attention to manageability of the assessment profile, appropriateness of methods (and, particularly, concerns about the efficacy of target-setting) and the quality of information gathered.

CONTROL/DISCIPLINE

Early critiques of the 'conventional wisdom' of pastoral care (Best et al, 1977, Lang, 1977) argued that the avowed concern for the well-being of individual pupils might well be more rhetorical than real. They suggested, somewhat cynically perhaps, that form tutors and tutor groups might be more about controlling 'difficult children' than supporting them, and that pastoral structures might function as hierarchies for the referral and correction of deviance rather than as means for accessing expert guidance and counselling. However that may be, a good deal of casework either focuses on, or is triggered by, behaviour that is defined as unacceptable, deviant, or (more generously) 'challenging'.

One particular context within which such behaviour occurs is that of bullying, and the 29 articles dealing specifically with that topic have already been reviewed under 'casework'. A further nine articles in *PC in E* focus specifically on aspects of control and discipline. This number may seem surprisingly small, but only if we imagine that (mis)behaviour and (in)discipline are separable from the promotion of pro-social behaviour. It is arguable that a good deal of the pastoral curriculum is concerned with the promotion of personal and social skills and the development of values and attitudes which encourage self-discipline and acceptable behaviour, thus pre-empting the need for corrective and reactive casework.

Rewards and punishments were the focus for Boxer, McCarthy and Colley in an early issue of *PC in E* [5(2), 1987]. After piloting in three schools, they surveyed 53 teachers and 572 pupils in one Derbyshire secondary school to establish attitudes to a range of rewards and sanctions. There appeared to be a greater consensus amongst pupils than teachers as to the effectiveness of various strategies, and differences between pupils of different ages and genders, though there are no statistical tests for significance and, as Harrop and Holmes point out [11(1), 1993], comparisons were not strictly valid since teachers were asked about *effectiveness* and children about how much they *liked or disliked* a particular measure. None-the-less, the paper exemplifies an approach which could be used in any school to stimulate a review of behaviour policy. Harrop and Holmes's own study [11(1), 1993] used a questionnaire to survey teachers' and pupils' attitudes to ten rewards and ten punishments in two urban primary schools. Spearman's correlation co-efficient was used as a measure of agreement amongst and between groups of pupils and teachers. Two findings were considered worthy of note:

“One is that there seems to be something of a gulf between the views of pupils on how well various rewards and punishments will help them work and behave better in school, and their

teachers' perceptions of these views. The other is that discrepancies between the views of teachers and of their pupils that have been highlighted since the early 1950s are still persisting". (p. 35)

Referral within school was the focus for a study in a co-educational, maintained comprehensive school in South West London [Evans, 17(4), 1999]. Questionnaires from 36 teachers reported perspectives on causes of, and strategies for responding to, disruptive behaviour in terms of the degree to which these originated from, or fell within or beyond, the control of the class teacher or the school/staff as a whole. Significant findings include the tendency for teachers to locate causes and solutions outside their own area of influence, and for teachers' 'internality' or 'externality' significantly to affect their readiness to refer problems elsewhere. The results are impressive confirmation of the idea of disruptive behaviour as a social construct rather than an objective description (cf Watkins and Wagner, 2000).

Suspension and exclusion have been on the agenda for much longer than New Labour's recent popularization of the idea of social inclusion. In a report which can be seen as setting the scene for the last two decades of concern about exclusion, Ling [1(3), 1983] used the data from an (unspecified) number informal interviews with suspended pupils in 'disruptive units', complemented by scrutiny of the documentation surrounding transfer between institutions in one LEA, to conclude that "little is gained by pupils or teachers in the way suspension procedures are currently organized... [These] serve the purely administrative ends of ensuring an apparently orderly exit of pupils from school" (pp. 197-8). Tattum [2(1), 1984] presents the findings of a three-year study using observation, informal 'chats' and semi-structured interviews with pupils and staff in a unit for disruptive pupils, arguing that pupil perspectives confirm the view that a rhetoric of caring too often conceals a reality which is about control and exclusion. Pomeroy (1999) used semi-structured interviews with 33 excluded pupils in a behavioural support centre to examine pupil perspectives on teacher-student relationships in secondary schools. An ideal-type model is produced and some light thrown on the contribution of teachers' personal style to pupil disaffection. Unsurprisingly, pupils like teachers who talk to them, explain things and listen to what they say in ways which communicate caring without inadvertently 'parenting' in the dialogue.

Bond [2(2), 1984] used the experience of a year-long experiment in running an in-school support unit for disaffected children to illuminate the complex emotional and interpersonal factors at work when children are disruptive. Pace (1998) reports a Birmingham secondary school's decision to provide such a unit which would allow referral (including self-referral) and re-integration of 'troubled students' while avoiding the problems associated with referral to a PRU. As a teacher-researcher, he surveyed 84 Year 8 and 86 Year 10 pupils in the school to discover (*inter alia*) their willingness to talk to form tutors and year heads about personal problems and their perceptions of the responses they get from students. His conclusion is that teachers need to *listen* and that schools need to create systems which provide "respite, relationships and opportunities" for pupils in need of emotional and behavioural support.

At a time when corporal punishment was yet to be abolished, Gale and Topping [4(3), 1986] used a simple questionnaire to investigate suspension rates in 19 secondary schools in a Metropolitan Borough in the North of England. The most frequent grounds for suspension were abuse to staff, bullying or assault, truancy (there is something ironic about suspending a truant!), damaging property and disruptive behaviour in classrooms. Data are provided on the duration of suspension, grounds for return and a surprisingly low rate of recidivism. Correlation coefficients showed only slight connections between suspension rates and socio-economic status or size of school.

One number [12(4), 1994] focused on exclusion with three research-based articles addressing this issue. Ashford [12(4), 1994] analysed exclusion statistics in one school and discovered that family type was a significant factor. Children from single-parent and 'reconstituted' families were significantly more likely to be excluded and to be excluded on more than one occasion than were children from two- (natural) parent families. Garner [12(4), 1994] interviewed just six pupils who had been excluded from their main-stream secondary school. Despite the small scale of the research, he was able to demonstrate that exclusion is not "a one-dimensional problem" (p. 8), and to advocate the need for schools to listen more carefully to the individual pupil's perspective and be prepared to respond to it (as, for instance, through a review of schools rules). Normington and Kyriacou [12(4), 1994] were interested in that part of the process which is determined from outside the school. They interviewed LEA officers and headteachers about LEA policy on exclusions and looked at the involvement of outside agencies in four cases. They concluded that

“... there are still evident shortcomings in the quality of co-operation between outside agencies in dealing with excluded pupils, despite the recognition in government documents and reports of the need to improve matters. Much of the problem lies in the mix of roles, expectations and positions taken up by the different agencies, together with severe under-resourcing..... (at a time when) there is acute pressure on many schools to exclude pupils whilst they are trying to cope with a series of rapidly introduced educational reforms”. (p. 15)

By 1994, the impact of the 1989 Elton Report, the OFSTED framework for inspection and the requirement that schools have a behaviour policy in place motivated Morrison [14(1), 1996] to analyse the written policy statements of 40 primary schools in the north-east of England and discuss these with senior staff. A range of common elements were identified under seven headings: setting the field; promoting positive environments; being proactive and fair; the formal curriculum; involving other parties; making the policy work; and staff management issues. The value of considering these elements for both formulation and evaluation of whole-school policies would seem clear.

An unusual approach to the reduction of antisocial behaviour - a 'School Watch' initiative in South Wales - is reported by Ball [16(1), 1998]. The evaluation of questionnaire responses from 1,369 primary school pupils suggests that the project, which includes democratically elected 'school watch' committees, raises pupil awareness and reduces the incidence of bullying, litter-spreading and damage to property, but has little effect on truancy (p.19).

More recently, Parsons et al [19(4), 2001] present data from the full report (referenced in the article) of a retrospective longitudinal study utilizing case file data on 726 children excluded permanently, indefinitely or for fixed-term periods in 1993/4 in ten LEAs, and follow-up case studies of 30 pupils in 1998/9. They conclude that for many of the pupils who were considered to be serious cases in terms of exclusion and multi-agency involvement at primary school level, the outcomes at secondary level are poor. Moreover, "(t)his study clearly illustrates that for most children exclusion is not merely a disciplinary issue - it is bound up with special educational needs and difficult or upsetting circumstances at home and sometimes within the community as well" (p. 13). However, the case studies showed that individuals *can* 'recover' and go on to more fulfilling and better-adapted school careers. Factors contributing to success include the presence of a concerned adult in professional contact, flexibility of approach and provision, recognition of individual strengths and abilities and a change of school or educational provision (p. 14). (The reader may wish to contextualize this report by relating it to Parsons, 1999).

PASTORAL MANAGEMENT

In this section, research related to the pastoral organization in schools is the focus. In terms of the model underlying this review, pastoral management refers to the organization, management, coordination and administration which facilitates the key pastoral tasks identified as casework, preventive and developmental curricula and discipline/control (and its more positive corollary of community-building – see Best, [6(2), 1988]). Pastoral management may be distinguished from other pastoral tasks in that it does not directly meet the needs of pupils but, if successful, facilitates teachers' work by meeting *their* needs for leadership, training, support, resources and so on. Processes, systems and role-making are as significant here as formal structures of status positions or 'offices', all of which receive attention from time to time in *PC in E*.

Early research-based articles are those of Lang [1(3), 1983] and Woods [2(3), 1984]. Lang reports (an unspecified number of) interviews with secondary school pupils in which characteristics of good pastoral teachers and perceptions of roles such as form tutor and head of year emerge. Woods, then a deputy head of an urban comprehensive school, reported a case-study of the evolution of her school's pastoral system from 1970 onwards. The details of data-collection are vague, but they included analysis of school documents and records, interviews and conversations with staff. The result is relatively weak in terms of evidence-based insight, but is otherwise an interesting picture of a typical comprehensive of its time, building on the philosophy of the founding head, adapting to phases of expansion and contraction and accommodating changes in thinking (such as the advent of the tutorial programme in the late '70s).

It is usual to distinguish between 'vertical' (or 'house' systems) and horizontal ('year' or 'schools-within-schools') systems, although these are sometimes combined to form 'matrix' structures, or are so customized as to fit comfortably in no typology. Structures in one LEA (Cheshire) were reported by Cameron [6(3), 1988]. Of the 49 schools surveyed, only 4% had an orthodox vertical system, 73% had horizontal systems and the remaining 23% "had developed their own individual systems" (p. 15). More than one-quarter had recently changed their pastoral structure. Data are provided on the roles of pastoral middle-managers (heads of house/year etc), time allocated for tutor periods, tutorial materials in use and the training received by teachers for their pastoral roles. (For a review of the research on pastoral care arrangements in the organization of middle schools, see Hargreaves [5(3), 1987]).

The potentially divisive effect of institutionalizing pastoral care systems as separate from the structure of academic or curricular responsibilities (the 'pastoral-academic split') has been a concern to those writing about pastoral care for many years, though not often from a research-based perspective. An exception is Sceeny [5(1), 1987]. Details of the methods used are sketchy, but included a questionnaire survey of 17 secondary schools followed by interviews with teachers in three schools chosen to represent Marland's (1974) ideal-type models of 'tutor-ascendant', 'tutor-emergent' and 'tutor-subordinate' systems. With assessment and progress-monitoring as a focus, distinctions between the pastoral and the academic become highly visible. As Sceeny concludes, "(t)he evidence from this research is hardly promising for those wishing to see the academic and the pastoral more integrated. Indeed, the evidence from this research suggests that there still remains a considerable territorial divide between the two" (p.67). (For a research-informed critical comment from an 'elder statesman', on the development of pastoral care systems generally, see Hamblin (1986)).

The pastoral-academic split is the focus for the only book published in this field since Best *et al's* (1983) *Education and Care* which can be categorized as a report of substantial empirical research on pastoral systems. This is Power's *The Pastoral and the Academic* (Power, 1996). Power makes clear from the start that she is sceptical about critiques which portray pastoral care as either "deluded social engineering" or as "social control", "for there is certainly little empirical research to underpin any such claims" (p 2). The guiding light throughout is that of Basil Bernstein. There is some critical commentary on Bernstein's work (drawing particularly on Pring), a review of the some of the literature of pastoral care, and a discussion of key social theorists (including Bourdieu and Foucault) and of Whitty and others from the era of the 'new Sociology of Education'. These are examined to see what light they can cast on the functions of pastoral care and its organizational and political relations to the academic dimension of schooling.

A little over a half of this book reports on data collected through ethnographic studies of two comprehensive schools using theoretical frameworks provided by Bernstein. In particular, the polarities of *collection* and *integrated knowledge codes* and of *visible* and *invisible pedagogies*, and the concepts of strong and weak *classification* and *framing* are used to examine the discourse of pastoral care and to explore the complexities and subtleties of school policy with regard to the organization of pastoral work.

Contrasts between the institutionalised pastoral/academic 'divide' in "Elmcroft" and the realities of a concerted effort to avoid or overcome such a divide in "Kings Marsh" are illuminating. They serve to highlight the very different principles which underpin the 'pastoral' and the 'academic' - effectively, those of *the education of the whole child* on the one hand and, on the other, of the centrality in education of the values of academic excellence and intellectual endeavour in the context of *subjects*. However, the differentiation of role, status and function entailed in embracing the pastoral and the academic as fundamental concepts endures, even where integration is sought and the emphasis is on interpersonal relations. Power concludes that, where educational identities are concerned, the supremacy of the academic persists and, paradoxically, is strengthened for high-status core subjects by the pastoral challenge at the periphery.

Specific *roles* are examined in several articles.

Drawing on the prescriptions offered by Marland and others in the '70s and '80s, Fincham [7(3), 1989] asked teachers in a Surrey secondary school to rate the importance of 30 tasks for form tutors and to register their agreement or otherwise with 14 normative statements about tutors' pastoral work. While there was some evidence that academic achievement was more highly valued than pastoral aims, the responses showed a generally positive attitude to pastoral care and relatively low priority to the more menial administrative tasks associated with the tutor role. A comparable study undertaken by Reynolds [13(3), 1995], also in a Surrey comprehensive, indicated similar positive evaluations of the role from the 32 form tutors surveyed by questionnaire. These data were complemented by interviews with seven form tutors, 3 heads of year and senior staff. However, the impact of the 1988 Education Act and the demands of the National Curriculum were felt by "a clear [but unspecified] majority" to be having a negative effect on form tutors' work as, for example, in greater attention being given to monitoring attendance than to more person-focused work. (For a dated but not uninteresting study of a year-leader role in horizontally-structured middle schools, see Robinson, 1985).

The 'person-focus' of pastoral roles was also a feature of a study of year-head roles by Brenton [7(3) 1989]. He used 'tracking' or 'shadowing' of two year-heads to produce 'activity descriptions' of their daily work. These were elaborated in interviews to map both the range of activities involved in the role and the proportions of time devoted to each. He found that most of the numerous 'acts' in which

they engaged were 'person-oriented' but that much time was taken up with 'crisis-management' rather than with more proactive work.

Given that the idea of the pastoral system (especially Houses) may be seen as imported into maintained day schools from private boarding-school sector, Watkins' study [5(3), 1987] adds an interesting dimension. He interviewed housemasters and their assistants about the housemaster role in a local-authority residential school in the south-east of England. Again, the child-centred perspective was seen as essential to the role, as was the particular significance of the teacher *in loco parentis* in the boarding context. Some interviewees also commented on the tension between their academic and their pastoral roles.

One role which is conspicuous by its absence is that of the school counsellor. Only one research-based article (the historical piece by Robinson [14(3), 1996 *op cit*]) was identified in the 19 volumes of *PC in E*.

Pupil perspectives on roles and structures have been sought by some researchers. Ellenby [3(2), 1985] "hypothesized that some of the pastoral problems in a particular school were concerned with the pupils' perception of the pastoral staff" (p. 145) and asked 301 pupils in one school and 53 in another the question: "What are Year/House Heads for and what do they do?" The responses, contextualized in the picture which emerged from (an unspecified number of) earlier interviews with teachers, indicates considerable variation in role perception and task prioritisation. Kitteringham [5(3), 1987] used group questionnaires, taped group interviews and "informal group discussion" to investigate pupil perceptions of the importance of various aspects of the form tutor role. The findings show "a solid, if tacit, valuing of the non-academic aspect of school life" (p.216), but indicate that personal characteristics and quality of relationships may be a greater influence on pupils' choice of source of support than the fact that a teacher holds a specific pastoral role. Tattersfield [5(3), 1987] reports the collection of the views of 75 sixth-form pupils on six possible structures as part of one school's debate on moving from a vertical to a horizontal system. The outcomes have little transferable value, but the exercise demonstrated the value for the school concerned of 'asking the clients'.

Only eight articles in *PC in E* were identified as reporting empirical research on **training and support** for pastoral roles, although this is sometimes considered as an aspect of another issue (e.g. see Pervin and Turner on the need for support for bullied teachers, [16(4), 1998, *op cit*]). One was set in New Zealand and provides some comparative data [Galloway *et al*, 5(1), 1987]). Two (Dunham [5(1), 1987] and Freeman [5(1), 1987]) focused on teachers' stress. Dunham used a short questionnaire to teachers prior to their attendance at INSET sessions to assemble lists of perceived causes of stress, coping strategies and recommendations for schools wanting to provide support. Freeman reports a case study undertaken over a four-year period in a secondary modern school. Data were collected by interviews with all teachers, a questionnaire to all staff and general field work including lengthy interviews with the headteacher, observation of a year head and head of upper school and an analysis of school documents. Insights are gained into teachers' perceptions of the causes of stress (for themselves and for their pupils) and coping strategies at organizational, personal and interpersonal levels are identified.

How such personal and interpersonal skills can be developed is frequently addressed in inservice courses and conference workshops for those involved in pastoral care. Woodhouse *et al* [3(3), 1985] report the evaluation of a six-day inservice course on discipline and experiential learning in the Centre for Study of Human Relations at Nottingham University. Teachers on the course were asked to keep diaries of incidents with students and staff, and the action they took in each case, and these were followed up with extensive interviews. The results indicate that courses of this kind can

significantly affect the way teachers perceive incidents and respond to them, leading to higher levels of self-confidence and greater preparedness to explore alternative interpretations with those involved. The authors conclude that “intensive experiential courses of this nature can provide a powerful form of training for pastoral care” (p.221). Bowes [5(3), 1987] confirms these findings, although the results of the 30 interviews she undertook are not reported in any detail. Fifteen years later, Harris and Biddulph [18(1), 2000] report the reflections of two teachers who experienced similar intensive courses in the context of Master’s study at the same institution. For these teachers at least, the course experience seems to have been a significant one in terms of “their own personal journeys” as well as developing professional skills which endure in their daily work (pp. 14-15). Holm et al [19(1), 2001] report the evaluation of a postgraduate certificate in Guidance and Pupil Support at Northern College, Aberdeen. Seven interviews with past students provided the basis for a questionnaire returned by 50 ‘graduands’. The course was considered to have made “a major impact on their competence and confidence in their roles as guidance teachers”, especially in regard to “enhanced interpersonal skills and counselling approach” (p.15). There was less effect on other aspects of the role (including managerial responsibilities) and some frustration at not being able more fully to apply the lessons of the programme.

The expectation that teachers contribute specifically to the *spiritual and moral development* of children raises particular challenges for training. How teachers might gain confidence in this aspect of the curriculum and improve their contribution through an action-research approach is reported by Erricker (2000) as one dimension of the on-going and extensive *Children and Worldviews Project* discussed above (see references to Erricker *et al* and Ota *et al, op cit*).

The neglect of training for pastoral roles in initial teacher education (ITE) identified in a NAPCE survey in the early '80s (Maher and Best, 1985) is confirmed in *PC in E* where the only report on this aspect of ITE and induction identifies continuing deficiencies. Calvert and Henderson [12(2), 1994] interviewed 30 newly qualified teachers (NQTs) about the contribution made in their PGCE programmes to training and preparation for the role of form tutor and for delivering the pastoral curriculum. They concluded that NQTs’ confidence in subject teaching contrasted with a lack of confidence in pastoral work, but stress that the effects of omissions in the university-based component of the PGCE are compounded by “insufficient opportunity for involvement in, and first-hand experience of, pastoral issues during the school-based part of their initial training course” and “little or no induction for NQT to the pastoral role in school” (p. 11). This view is confirmed by Fletcher (1997) in a paper which falls in the ‘grey area’ between research and reflections on professional practice. Drawing on responses from six schools to a request for copies of the written guidance they provide to form tutors, and anecdotal evidence from the authors’ work as a tutor, he concludes that HEIs and partner schools needs to address seriously how best to provide training and mentoring for the form tutor role.

But there are concerns about the adequacy of initial training at a more fundamental level. In the context of “a wider study looking at the students’ notions of citizenship and the role of schooling in producing ‘good citizens’” (p.7), Wilkins (2001) used questionnaire data from 418 PGCE students and interviews with 26 of them, to examine their views on race. The data suggest that many students have a simplistic view of racism as a matter merely of “personal prejudice caused by ignorance” which does not allow them to address the more significant questions of their own prejudices on the one hand, and of the embeddedness of racism in social structures (including schooling) on the other. The author concludes that the emphasis on practice and instrumental competences in ITE has left too little space for students to reflect on values issues like race, and that this raises questions about how, in the context where “the anti-racist agenda appears to have been side-lined in order to make citizenship education more palatable” (p. 19), teachers are to be able to counter racism in a coherent way.

Both specific roles and generic pastoral systems are frequently thought to have changed in the 1990s in response to the significant changes in the organization and control of education since the 1988 Education Reform Act. However, as the special issue of the journal devoted to 'Changing Structures for Care and Learning' [17(4), 1999] demonstrates, most of the discussion is conjectural or anecdotal, or concerned to 'float' for discussion (rather than demonstrate) the potential of such roles as 'year curriculum coordinator'. There is some research evidence to inform such discussions, however. Based on (unspecified) "conversations with many teachers and school leaders over recent months, together with a study of published materials, including inspection reports", Shaw [12(4), 1994, p. 37] commented on the emergence of the role of Key Stage Coordinator and how this might articulate with the roles of head of department and tutor, and went on to identify a number of emerging 'management issues' to do with the pastoral and the academic. Although the procedure for data-collection and analyses are unclear - other than that they were undertaken within the context of a management process involving discussion documents, staff consultation and systematic evaluation - Harper and Barry [17(4), 1999] report the development, from a traditional horizontal structure set up in 1986, of a structure of Year Curriculum Coordinators in a multi-cultural, inner-city girls' comprehensive school. Other developments (including the advent of 'key stage management teams' and 'parent forums') are described but they lack rigorous or systematic analysis.

The only systematic study of the impact of post-1988 changes on schools' pastoral organizations seems to be my own [Best, 17(2), 1999]. In a sample drawn randomly from NAPCE membership lists and those attending a NAPCE conference, 166 teachers reported on the pastoral systems in their schools. The hypothesis that "*the management structures of schools now are significantly different from those which conventionally facilitate pastoral work through horizontal and vertical systems, with new nomenclature reflecting changed priorities in the age of the National Curriculum*" was unsupported by the evidence. Only one-eighth of the schools showed evidence of modification to pastoral systems to reflect the National Curriculum key stages, with no less than 80% of schools still having traditional vertical or horizontal structures (p.7). The data also indicated that the effects of post-1988 developments in curriculum, accountability and the 'marketization' of education were perceived by respondents to be less pronounced and less negative than hypothesized. If the sample is representative and its perceptions accurate, time, resources and importance given to pastoral care and PSE have been less affected than is frequently supposed.

A NOTE ON IRELAND

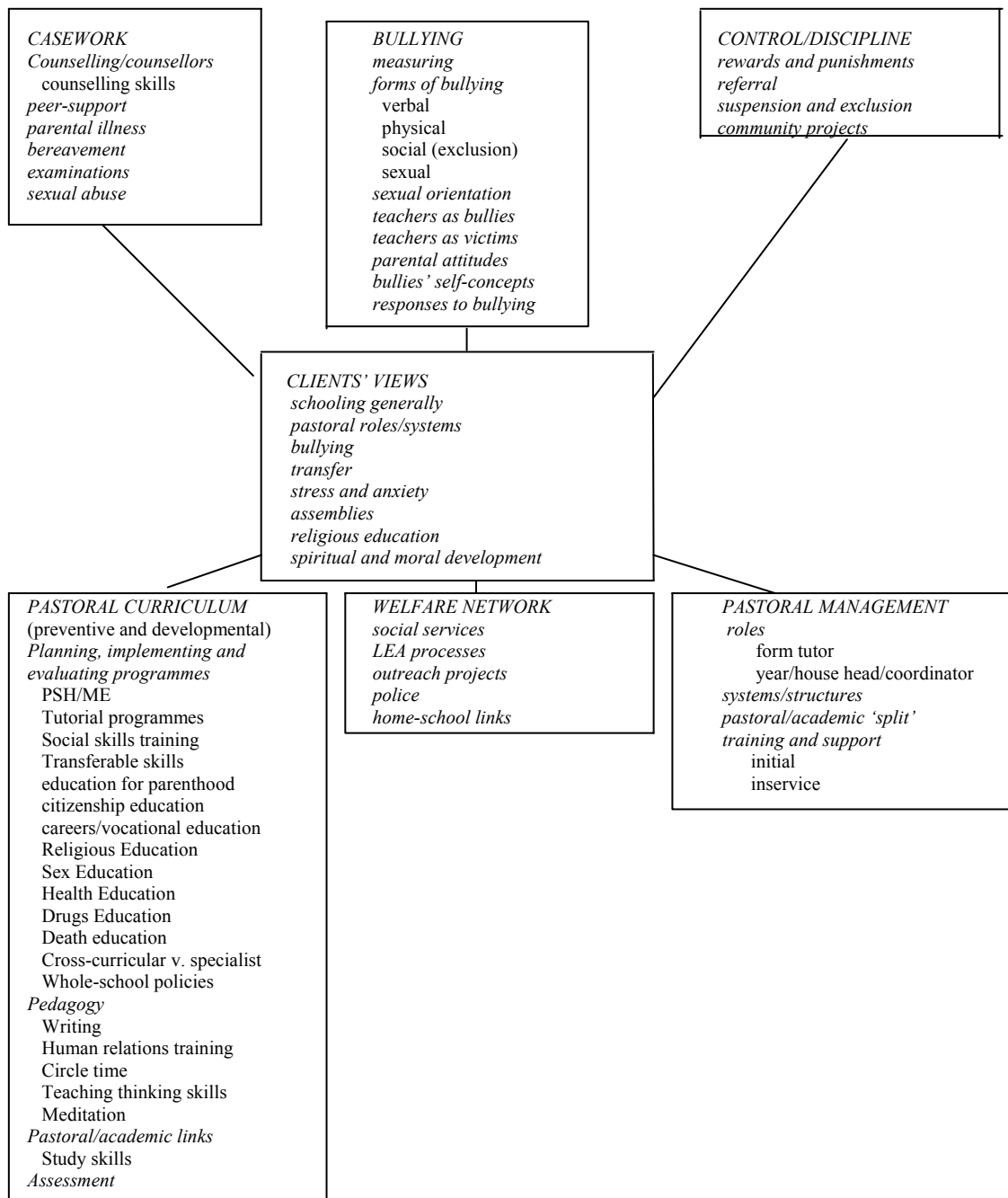
Attention has been given in Ireland to the development of pastoral care in recent years. This is not unconnected with the Government review of the education system (e.g. the *Green Paper: Education for a Changing World* and the *White Paper: Charting our Educational Future*, cited in Collins and McNiff, 1999). It is also connected to the development of training courses and qualifications, particularly at Marino Institute of Education and the National University of Ireland, Maynooth, and the development of the Irish Association for Pastoral Care in Education (IAPCE), closely modelled on NAPCE. Some prescriptive professional literature has come out of these developments (e.g. Monahan 1996, 1997, 1998), but a volume of reports of action research undertaken for the Post-Graduate Diploma in Pastoral Care at Marino deserves special mention (Collins and McNiff, *op cit*).

Five chapters contextualize the work both theoretically and in its relation to the Diploma programme and advocate an action-research approach. The remaining eight chapters report projects undertaken by teachers on the Diploma course. The foci for these projects are: the Personal Development programme in the transition year (first year) of secondary education (Lynch); raising the self-esteem and confidence of 'invisible' pupils whose needs go unnoticed (Grenham); school merger (Murphy); the personal, social and behavioural development of a very difficult class (O'Reilly); strengthening tutorial work and the role of the form tutor (Ryan); developing a student council (Keirman); the role of the pastoral care coordinator (Monahan); and 'invisible' bullies (McGuinness). The studies vary in their adherence to the strict action-research cycle (e.g. it is employed rather generally in O'Reilly's most engaging piece and in Murphy's it is employed post-hoc), but the journal as a major medium for planning and reflection is common, as is the use of a 'critical friend'. We are left in no doubt of the researchers' professional engagement and all testify to personal growth as a result of their research. There is ample evidence for policy-makers of the value of this paradigm to individuals working in the field. As always, an important question is how the experiences of individuals can be disseminated so to inspire others to follow suit.

SOME OBSERVATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The point was made at the outset that a map of the field of pastoral care and PSE might emerge as a result of the interplay between the conceptual framework with which the reviewer began and the "(sometimes quite unexpected) features of the terrain s/he encounters on the way". Figure 1 is the 'map' as it appears from summarising the main categories identified and foci emphasised as the review progressed. The idea that order "emerges" from data, as opposed to being constructed from, and/or imposed upon them by human agency is, of course, a myth. But the imputing or contriving of an order where none exists should be detectable by comparing the description of that order against the data from which it is said to be derived. It is for the reader to decide whether the map has validity by comparing it with the data provided in the summaries and commentary on the research reports reviewed in the body of the text.

Figure 1: A MAP OF THE FIELD OF RESEARCH IN PASTORAL CARE AND PSE



One criticism, of course, might be that the mapping process started with the wrong piece of terrain; that I should, for example, have made affective education or guidance and counselling (rather than pastoral care and PSE) the defining concept for the review. Had I done so, both the research reports discovered and included and the map of relationships between aspects of the topic would no doubt have been different. Clearly, that which one puts at the centre of one's initial 'chart' marginalizes other things. This might explain why *citizenship education* is under-represented in this review and why neither *health education* nor *careers education* have received the exposure I suspect they deserve. However, by taking as my primary source the journal which describes itself on its cover as "*the journal for pastoral care and personal and social education*", and working out from that, some objectivity is achieved. A case can be made that it is the academic and professional community of those concerned with pastoral care and PSE rather than the reviewer who have set the limits and identified the key concerns in this field. Moreover, if this community is thought to bring a distinctive perspective on education, omissions in its journal are significant, even where searches show that 'marginal' topics (such as *child abuse*) receive substantial treatment elsewhere.

What can be said of the field thus mapped in Figure 1?

The framework of five 'pastoral tasks' with which the reviewer began retains some credibility, but some of the distinctions made in that framework have little power when one looks at the research.

The distinction between the *preventive-proactive* and the *developmental* aspects of the curriculum might be discerned in, for example, drugs education and aspects of health education on the one hand, and careers- and citizenship education on the other. But the research on other aspects of the curriculum - social skills development, for example - makes little distinction between the development of the person and giving that person the where-with-all to cope with potential crises. That which is 'developmental' is inescapably, also 'preventive'. The very substantial number of research reports dealing with diverse aspects of the *pastoral curriculum* however, stands out, and it is clear that the idea of pastoral care as exclusively (or even mainly) about reactive casework (or "emotional first-aid" as it was sometimes derisively called) is not shared by those who research the field and must now be seen as at most a piece of history.

That is not to say that *casework* is no longer a very significant part of pastoral care, and the research reported above indicates the diversity of concerns with which teachers are expected to deal, and the responses schools make (from peer-support to specialist counselling) have also come under the researcher's scrutiny. The relatively high profile of *bullying* in the literature is especially noteworthy, both because there are 14 research reports on it in *Pastoral Care in Education* alone and because of the diverse aspects of bullying which these represent. No other focus for casework (supportive or disciplinary) attracts this sort of attention. I do not wish to detract from the importance given to bullying, for it is surely the cause of a great deal of unhappiness and concern. But equivalent attention to researching (for example) helping children to cope with relationship-breakdown, separation and bereavement is surely deserved. In this context, the relative absence of research in recent years on *the role of the school counsellor* is notable but not surprising given the decline in numbers of counsellor posts in schools for at least the last fifteen years. That said, counselling is an important task, whether undertaken by qualified specialist counsellors or by teachers who have developed counselling skills, and how this is provided deserves closer attention from researchers.

Nor does the interface between the casework done by schools and the functions of other agencies in the '*welfare network*' have nearly the visibility in the research as it deserves. Articles which deal with (for example) research on inter-agency cooperation for children in care, not to mention all aspects of home-school collaboration, are few and far between.

A second distinction that is more easy to make in conceptual analysis than it is to discern in the research literature, is that between 'positive' *community-building* and its 'negative' corollary of *control and discipline*. Indeed, community and the whole area of the pastoral ethos of the school are better seen as threads which run through much of the research on the pastoral curriculum and pastoral systems generally, including those reports which focus on the clients' perspectives. However, the paucity of research concerned explicitly with the promotion of community in schools and with positive, community-based projects is disappointing. There does appear to be a case for much more research into the whole area of community in education (and education in the community), and this may well follow the implementation of Citizenship Education in the National Curriculum from September of this year.

The substantial body of research that has concerned itself with pastoral *management* and the organizational *structures* within which it is performed, is also significant. Schools' organizational responses to changing priorities are perhaps the best indicator of the way education policy affects pastoral care and PSE. Although some changes in roles and processes are discernible, it is the overall resilience of traditional structures that is most notable in the research reported here. Structures are only as good as the people in them, of course. The effectiveness of any structure depends on the skilfulness and dedication of those playing roles within it, and the neglect of training for pastoral roles - more-so in initial teacher training than in CPD - has long been a concern. The research suggests that too little has changed since the inadequate and patchy provision found by a NAPCE survey undertaken in the mid-1980s (Maher and Best, 1985). The effectiveness of some approaches to training is demonstrated in the reports reviewed above, but it is probably time for a more systematic investigation of *training provision*, especially given the TTA's recent revision of the standards for 'qualified-to-teach' status and the system of funding CPD through which the TTA identifies priorities and controls resources.

The very considerable research attention given to *client perspectives* deserves comment. *Pastoral Care in Education* alone carried some 30 research reports which were primarily investigations of pupils' attitudes and evaluations, and the pupil 'voice' is to be heard in many other reports concerned with all aspects of provision. This is, perhaps, to be expected in an aspect of education which has pupil well-being at its heart, but it is none-the-less pleasing to see researchers focussing on the recipients as well as the providers.

However, concern must be registered over the relative neglect of some important dimensions of pupil well-being, both in terms of casework and curriculum provision. The desire for education to be *inclusive*, particularly in regard to referral, exclusion and suspension, underpins much of the research, and concern with social skills training, bullying, the self-concept and self-control are manifest, but the bases for discrimination and intolerance are under-represented. Except for some articles on bullying, there is relatively little on *gender differences* or *gender differentiation* in the research reported here. Nor are *race* and *ethnicity* much in evidence. Facts are given of the socio-economic context of schools studied and of the numbers/proportions of boys and girls in samples selected, but that's where it stops. References to proportions of ethnic groups are few and their significance not articulated. These seem to be significant oversights by the research community. Sub-cultural and gender differences are too important for an aspect of education which has *values* and *relationships* at its core to be neglected to this extent.

But it would be unfair to judge levels of interest in, and priority given to, such issues on the part of the profession generally, solely by the attention given them in a research context. To map the field of *research* in pastoral care and PSE is one thing; to map the field itself is quite another. Not all scholarship is research. Not all research has professional relevance. Much commentary and conjecture does. The reader is reminded that specific criteria were used to distinguish reports of

empirical research from other publications in the field, however insightful and professionally relevant they might be. A great many books and articles in the field make use of, but do not report research; many others are *evidence-based* but the means by which the evidence is collected and presented falls short of the criteria for research. They may, however, have very important contributions to make to both our understanding and the quality of pastoral care and PSE. Only a much larger and more inclusive review of the literature than that reported here can do justice to academic and professional scholarship in such a broad and diverse field.

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