

Learning mentors: a study of identity, policy and practice

Lesley O'Hagan

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ABSTRACT

This study has investigated the role of learning mentoring within one secondary school with a focus on developing an understanding of practice, professional identity and policy enactment at an institutional level. Learning mentors were first introduced in schools through the Excellence in Cities initiative in 1999, guided by the principle of helping pupils overcome barriers to learning. However, from the published literature little is known about the role of learning mentors in schools, especially in the period following the cessation of the Excellence in Cities programme in 2006. This practitioner based research was therefore devised to enhance current knowledge of learning mentors activity.

The research was conducted using a case study approach and a range of different data collection activities were used to explore and understand the complex environment in which learning mentors operate. The study revealed the professional identity of learning mentors and the activities they undertake are influenced by an array of interwoven factors. The role requires flexibility, as it is continually being redefined by the nature of the cases learning mentors deal with and the temporary networks and structures that are generated often at the interface between pastoral and academic functions within the school and with agencies and organisations beyond its boundaries. Further due to the training and the development of specialist knowledge, learning mentors are increasingly being used not only to add capacity to the pastoral system but act in a consulting role for other members of staff. However due to the flexibility associated with the role learning mentors, this has presented problems in relation to how the role has been perceived by others and a lack of clarity regarding learning mentor activity, creating not only the potential for the overlap of input, but the needs of some young people being unmet. The study has also revealed the impact of legislative measures and various policy enactments that have also shaped the role of learning mentors in schools.

CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	i
CONTENTS	ii
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	x
ACRONYMS	xi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	xiii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Area of Study	1
1.3 Rationale for the Study	3
1.4 Perceived Concerns	6
1.5 Aims and Purpose of this Research	7
1.6 Research Questions	8
1.7 Boundaries of the Research	8
1.8 Organisation of the Thesis	10
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	12
2.1 Introduction	12
2.2 Mentoring	13
2.2.1 Mentoring as a process	15
2.2.2 Mentoring as a relationship	16
2.2.3 Mentoring as a helping process	21
2.2.4 Mentoring as a teaching – learning process	23
2.2.5 Mentoring and reflective practice	24
2.2.6 Mentoring as a career and personal development process	25
2.2.7 Mentoring as a formalised process	25
2.2.8 Mentoring as a role constructed for or by a mentor	26

2.3	Pastoral Care	27
2.3.1	The development of pastoral care	27
2.3.2	Empowerment	28
2.3.3	Values	29
2.3.4	The role of pastoral care	30
2.3.5	Changing priorities	31
2.3.6	Pastoral care objectives	31
2.3.7	Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL)	34
2.3.8	The management and administration of pastoral care	35
2.3.9	Pastoral care and the organisational structure of schools	36
2.4	Learning Mentors	39
2.4.1	Systemic barriers	40
2.4.2	Societal barriers	41
2.4.3	Pedagogic barriers	43
2.4.4	Medical barriers	45
2.4.5	Barriers to learning – concluding remarks	46
2.4.6	Professional identity	48
2.5	Conclusion and Summary	49

CHAPTER 3: CONTEXTUALISATION **53**

3.1	Introduction	53
3.2	Local Context	54
3.2.1	The case study school	54
3.2.2	Local authority provision	56
3.3	Policy Context Themes	59
3.3.1	Welfare reform	59
3.3.2	Equality of opportunity	64
3.3.3	The role of education in an inclusive society	68
3.3.4	The development of personalisation under New Labour	71
3.3.5	The ‘marketisation’ of education	72

3.4	Policies	76
	3.4.1 Excellence in Cities	76
	3.4.2 Personalised learning	79
	3.4.3 Every Child Matters	85
	3.4.4 Work force reforms	90
3.5	Organisations	95
	3.5.1 Connexions	96
	3.5.2 Education welfare service	97
3.6	Conclusion	98

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY **101**

4.1	In Search of a Methodology	101
	4.1.1 My personal life history	101
	4.1.1.1 Early years	102
	4.1.1.2 The influence of Plowden	103
	4.1.1.3 Issues of resilience	104
	4.1.1.4 My learning trajectory	105
	4.1.1.5 From commercialism to education	106
	4.1.2 Ontological assumptions	106
	4.1.3 Epistemological assumptions	107
	4.1.4 Assumptions concerning human nature, agency and structure	112
4.2	Choosing Case Study Research – the Rationale	115
	4.2.1 Research design	117
	4.2.1.1 The selection of the case study site	117
	4.2.1.2 Unit of analysis	118
	4.2.1.3 Data sources	118
	4.2.1.4 Analytic strategy	118
4.3	Data Collection Methods	119
	4.3.1 Interviews	120
	4.3.2 Pupil identification exercise/Group research activity	122
	4.3.2.1 The selection of photographs	123

4.3.2.2	Consent and the gatekeeper	124
4.3.2.3	Group research activity	125
4.3.3	Questionnaires	126
4.3.4	Case file review	127
4.3.4.1	Frequency	129
4.3.4.2	Severity	129
4.3.5	Document mapping	130
4.4	Ethical Considerations in Relation to Methodology	131
4.5	Research Activities	134
4.5.1	Practical issues	134
4.5.1.1	Data protection	134
4.5.1.2	Funding	135
4.5.2	Ethical considerations in relation to research design	135
4.6	Reliability and Validity	137
4.6.1	Reliability	138
4.6.2	Validity and triangulation	139
4.7	Summary	140

CHAPTER 5: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS RELATING TO LEARNING MENTOR PRACTICE 141

5.1	Introduction	141
5.2	The impact of organisational structure on learning mentoring	143
5.3	Intervention	147
5.3.1	How are pupils referred to work with learning mentors?	147
5.4	Identification of Pupil Need	157
5.4.1	Issues of power	157
5.4.2	Types of pupil need	158
5.4.3	Key roles undertaken by learning mentors	160
5.5	Mentoring and Inclusion	161
5.6	Conclusion	162

**CHAPTER 6: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS
RELATING TO PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY AND LEARNING
MENTORS 164**

6.1	Introduction	164
6.2	Boundaries of Mentoring Work	164
6.2.1	Lack of definition – overlap of roles	164
6.2.2	Increasing capacity – sharing the same work	168
6.2.3	Changing of boundaries with different groups	169
6.3	Types of Activity Professional or Not?	172
6.3.1	Invisible issues	176
6.3.2	Is all mentoring helpful?	179
6.4	Becoming a Specialist – Consulting Role	180
6.5	Interaction with Other Agencies	181
6.6	Background of Mentors	183
6.7	Training	185
6.8	Career Structure	186
6.9	The Nature of Mentoring Relationships and Professionalism	189
6.10	Conclusion	191

**CHAPTER 7: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS
RELATING TO POLICY AND LEARNING MENTORS 193**

7.1	Introduction	193
7.1.1	Situated context	193
7.1.2	Professional cultures	194
7.1.3	Material context	195
7.1.4	External context	196
7.2	Legislative Framework	197
7.3	Child Protection	200
7.4	Every Child Matters	201
7.5	Building of Resilience	203
7.6	Competitive Environment	208
7.7	Reputation	209
7.8	Conclusion	213

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION	214
8.1 Introduction	214
8.2 Originality of the Study	214
8.3 Key Findings	215
8.4 Limitations of this Research	221
8.4.1 Researching within my own professional environment	221
8.4.2 Colleague involvement with the research	221
8.4.3 Tacit knowledge of the researcher	222
8.4.4 Researcher loyalties and politics	222
8.4.5 Lack of rigour	222
8.4.6 Pupil involvement in the research process	223
8.4.7 Issues of generalisation	223
8.5 Further Research	224
REFERENCES	225
APPENDICES	272

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Table 2.1 National learning mentor training – generic and role specific modules

Table 2.2 Potential barriers to learning identified in the literature

CHAPTER 3: CONTEXTUALISATION

Table 3.1 Every Child Matters - outcomes, aims and support requirements

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

Table 4.1 Pseudonyms used to anonymised interview participants

Table 4.2 Considerations associated with insider research

Table 4.3 Ethical considerations relating to methods of data collection used in the study.

CHAPTER 5: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS RELATING TO LEARNING MENTOR PRACTICE

Table 5.1 Research methods used in data collection

Table 5.2 Percentage attendance and GCSE results for St Anthony's

Table 5.3 Areas of learning mentor support for pupils with SEN

Table 5.4 Categorisation of problems and issues faced by pupils in St Anthony's

Table 5.5 The number of identified problems experienced by pupils in St Anthony's

Table 5.6 SEN Codes of Practice

CHAPTER 6: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS RELATING TO PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY

- Table 6.1** Categorisation of photographs
- Table 6.2** Learning mentor case file review
- Table 6.3** Learning mentor case file review - Average number of problems and point score
- Table 6.4** Types of mentoring in St Anthony's

CHAPTER 7: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS RELATING TO POLICY AND LEARNING MENTORS

- Table 7.1** A comparison of the themes from learning mentor case files with Every Child Matters core outcomes and sub-themes
- Table 7.2** The internal and external stakeholders influencing reputation in St Anthony's

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Figure 2.1 Key areas of literature relating to learning mentors

Figure 2.2 Waves of intervention model

CHAPTER 3: CONTEXTUALISATION

Figure 3.1 Thresholds triangle

Figure 3.2 The nine gateways to personalised learning

Figure 3.3 The four ‘deeps’ model

Figure 3.4 The five components of personalised learning

CHAPTER 5: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS RELATING TO LEARNING MENTOR PRACTICE

Figure 5.1 Key themes identified from data collection activities

Figure 5.2 Sub themes identified from data collection activities

Figure 5.3 An example of sources of intervention found within one case file coordinated by learning mentors

Figure 5.4 Outside Agencies liaising with learning mentors to support pupils

CHAPTER 7: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS RELATING TO POLICY AND LEARNING MENTORS

Figure 7.1 Link between inclusion, pastoral care, academic structure and learning mentors in St Anthony’s

Figure 7.2 Local behaviour policy network for St Anthony’s

ACRONYMS

ACMC	Advisory Council on the Misuse of Drugs
ACME	Advisory Committee on Mathematics Education
BERA	British Educational Research Association
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
CAF	Common Assessment Framework
CAMHS	Child and Adolescent Mental Health Service
CAT	Cognitive Ability Test
CIPFA	Chartered Institute of Public Finance and Accountancy
CWDC	Children's Workforce Development Council
DCSF	Department for Children, Schools and Families
DES	Department of Education and Science
DfE	Department for Education
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
DWP	Department of Work and Pensions
ECM	Every Child Matters
EiC	Excellence in Cities
EU	European Union
EWS	Education Welfare Service
FFT	Fischer Family Trust
FSM	Free School Meals
GCSE	General Certificate in Secondary Education
GEO	Government Equalities Office
GTC	General Teaching Council
HM	Her Majesty's
HMI	Her Majesty's Inspector
HMSO	Her Majesty's Stationery Office
IAG	Information, Advice and Guidance
IASR	Institute of Applied Social Research
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
INTEC	Institute of Technology

LEA	Local Education Authority
LCA	Latent Class Analysis
MA	Master of Arts
MA	Management Allowances
MARAC	Multi-Agency Risk Assessment Conference
NCSL	National College of School Leadership
NEET	Not in Education, Employment or Training
NFER	National Foundation for Educational Research
NPM	New Public Management
NUT	National Union of Teachers
NVQ	National Vocational Qualification
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operative Development
OFSTED	Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills
PPA	Preparation, Planning and Assessment
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
PISA	Programme for Student International Assessment
PRU	Pupil Referral Unit
PSHE	Personal, Social, Health and Economic education
QCA	Qualification and Curriculum Authority
QTS	Qualified Teacher Status
SATs	Standard Achievement Tests
SEN	Special Educational Needs
SENCO	Special Educational Needs Co-ordinator
SEU	Social Exclusion Unit
SEAL	Social Emotional Aspects of Learning
SIMS	School Information Management System
SLT	Senior Leadership Team
TA	Teaching Assistant
TDA	Training and Development Agency
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
TLR	Teaching and Learning Responsibility
UK	United Kingdom
UKCES	United Kingdom Commission for Employment and Skills
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

1.1 Introduction

Despite being based in schools for over a decade, the role of learning mentors is often ‘poorly understood and sometimes misinterpreted’ (Gardiner, 2008: 1), as a consequence, this study is concerned with contributing to an increased understanding of the role of learning mentors, based on practitioner research conducted in a secondary school setting. This chapter begins with a brief discussion concerning mentoring in general and the development of learning mentoring in particular. The rationale underpinning the study is considered in terms of the challenges facing educationalists today and the role that learning mentoring can potentially play to address such issues. However, without clarification regarding the role of learning mentors, particularly in relation to other pastoral care provision, the potential exists for the needs of some pupils to not be met. Thus in an attempt to develop a greater understanding of the role of learning mentors further, a number of research questions have been identified to be answered within the boundaries of this study, the structure of which is outlined in the final section of this chapter.

1.2 Area of Study

History and legend record the deeds of princes and kings, but in a democracy each of us also has a birth right, which is to be all that we can be. Mentors are the special people in our lives who, through their deeds and work, help us to move towards fulfilling that potential.

(Shea, 2002:3)

Mentoring is not a new phenomenon; indeed, the origin of the term ‘mentor’ dates back to Ancient Greece, in the tale of Odysseus depicted in Homer’s *Odyssey*. Odysseus, King of Ithaca, fights in the Trojan War and entrusts the care of his household to Mentor, who serves as a teacher as well as being a protecting, guiding and supporting figure to Odysseus’ son Telemachus.

Mentoring takes many different forms, operating in a number of environments including: education, health, business and the military. Thus, Hall (2003) describes mentoring not as one thing but a ‘range of possibilities’ (2003:10). Although different types of mentoring exist, it is

...fundamentally about learning and development, whether for coping in times of change, overcoming difficulties or grasping opportunities.

(Breeze, 2000:11)

In 1999, a new type of mentoring was introduced into secondary education in England by New Labour under the Excellence in Cities (EiC) programme. Learning mentoring was one of the seven interrelated strands that formed the EiC initiative in selected schools, providing advice and support to young people, access to services and assistance to pupils in overcoming barriers to learning (Sullivan and Black, 2008). Learning mentors were viewed as

...a bridge across academic and pastoral support roles with the aim of ensuring that individual pupils and students engage more effectively in learning and achieve appropriately.

(TDA, 2007:75)

In an attempt to ‘drive up standards in our schools in the major cities higher and faster’ (DfEE, 1999), the EiC programme expanded to cover approximately one third of secondary schools in England by 2001 (Kendall *et al*, 2005). However, the evidence base to support this increase, was according to Hall (2003) inadequate as

...claims are made for the impact of mentoring but there is as yet little evidence to substantiate them.

(Hall, 2003: v)

Sullivan and Black (2008) argue little has been done to guide learning mentor practice or ‘evidence the efficacy of different approaches in their work’ (2008:6). A view supported by Reid (2007) who argues that learning mentors ‘have had to acquire the skills of the profession from a low research base (2007:41). The limited number of studies into learning mentoring that did emerge, including: Machin *et al*, 2003, 2007; Golden *et al*, 2002, 2003; Kendall *et al*, 2005 and Reid, 2007, focused on the period of direct government funding of EiC between 1999 and 2006 when the programme ended. However, the legacy of EiC continued after 2006, with elements of the programme maintained through individual schools and local authorities, in particular the provision of learning mentors. Although the

role of learning mentors continues in many schools today, little is known through research as to how this type of intervention has evolved and developed. To understand the significance of the role of learning mentors and the potential relevance of this research, it is useful to consider the rationale that underpins this type of intervention work within schools.

1.3 Rationale for the Study

Despite significant government investment devoted to state education under New Labour (Vulliamy and Webb, 2006) from £30 billion in 1997 to £73.3 billion in 2008/9 (Kay, 2010), the UK has slipped down the international league tables in maths, reading and science, according to the latest Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) study for the OECD. In 2010, the UK was ranked 25th for reading, 28th for maths and 16th for science out of 65 countries. In 2006, when 57 countries were included, the UK was placed 17th, 24th and 14th respectively (Shepherd, 2010:1). Alan Shleicher, head of the PISA programme, described the picture for the UK as “stagnant at best” (Shepherd, 2010:1), with reading and maths scores at average levels, and only science above the norm. International comparison of school performance has become a key feature of the Coalition Government’s education policy as demonstrated in *The Importance of Teaching: The Schools 2010 White Paper* (DfE, 2010). The Coalition Government intends to use other international measures to drive up standards, such as PIRLS, the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study which measures literacy among 10 year olds and the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study – TIMSS, which measures the mathematics and science knowledge of 10-14 year olds around the world.

Caution should be applied to the use of PISA and other international comparison studies. The relative standings of countries taking part can be influenced by a variety of factors including: the type of questions asked; if the target population was grade or aged based; the extent of the curriculum match and the removal of difficult questions so effectively capping high performance systems (Smithers, 2004). Despite these difficulties, such comparison studies should not be dismissed, as they can offer a generalised picture of educational outcomes within a particular country, including the range of academic

performance pupils are achieving, a point highlighted in the White Paper 2010, in which it was stated

Our highest performing students do well but the wide attainment gap between them and our lowest achievers highlights the inequality in our systems.

(DfE, 2010:47)

Data collected internationally have also been used to assess the broader concept of child well-being of which education forms a part. In 2007, UNICEF published Report Card 7 (UNICEF, 2007) which provided an overview of an assessment of the lives and well-being of young people in 21 nations of the industrialised world. The report used six different categories of child well-being to facilitate international comparison. According to this report, children in the UK have the lowest levels of wellbeing in the developed world when taking into account average rankings across the six dimensions.

It is acknowledged within the UNICEF report that there are gaps and inadequacies in some of the data gathered and sources of information used. Despite these difficulties, it does represent a significant contribution towards an international assessment and understanding of child well-being. What the UNICEF report does show, along with the array of international studies of academic performance already mentioned, is the UK continues to fail many of its children in terms of their prospects at school and the educational outcomes they achieve, along with their levels of happiness and well-being, in a society in which they are potentially socially excluded.

According to Otero and West-Burnham (2007), if we are to overcome the entrenched 'plateauing' of educational outcomes, especially amongst long term underperforming groups, such as: young people living in poverty (Sharples *et al*, 2011); Gypsy, Roma and pupils of Irish Traveller heritage (DfE, 2012); and children who are looked after by the local authority (Ofsted, 2000), there needs to be a '...change in the focus in the strategies that are being used to maximise the achievement of every child' (Otero and West-Burnham, 2007:1). Osborn *et al* (2003) and Hughes (2004) call for a 'broadening on how learning is conceptualised' (Hughes 2004:396), taking into account not only factors within the classroom but those beyond it. Hughes (2004) talks of a need for a new theory of learning

...one that has a social dimension and that simultaneously connects the micro level with meso and macro levels of social analysis.

(Hughes, 2004:395)

Otero and West Burnham (2007) suggest consideration should focus on social factors, as these are 'disproportionately significant in their impact on children's academic achievement' (Otero and West-Burnham, 2007:1). In other words, the social environment of the learner is a key consideration in promoting positive education outcomes. Otero and West-Burnham argue

If our schools are to address the educational needs of all youth and be inclusive, schools and their communities must find new ways to work together on behalf of all youth...Efforts in community education must focus on young adolescents' engagement with schools and their communities.

(Otero and West-Burnham, 2007:17)

The extent of disengagement from education is estimated between one fifth to one third of all young people aged 14-16 year olds (Steedman and Stoney, 2004; Ross, 2009). The implications of such disengagement are far reaching including: economic disadvantage due poor labour market opportunities (McIntosh and Houghton, 2005); involvement in crime and anti-social behaviours (Hodgeson, 1999; OECD, 2003); teenage pregnancy (Hosie, 2007) and drug use (Beinart *et al*, 2002).

'Social class remains the strongest predictor of educational achievement in the UK' (Perry and Francis, 2010:2) and social inequality acts as an impediment to social mobility and meritocracy (Seccombe, 2000), a view supported by Power *et al* (2002) who argue

... (educational) outcomes in deprived areas are worse than those in non-deprived areas, whether they are measured in terms of qualification, attendance, exclusions or 'staying on rates'. Inner-city areas in particular feature as having low outcomes.

(Power *et al*, 2002:26)

Educational attainment and socio-economic status are inextricably linked (Perry and Francis, 2010; Sullivan and Black, 2008; Ofsted, 1993). Low levels of attainment at school are associated with poor outcomes later in life, which in turn have an impact on the children of the next generation, creating a cycle of underachievement and deprivation. Mortimore (1998) argues

The lessons of history are not hopeful. Whilst some outstanding individuals have achieved the highest educational levels despite...their inauspicious home backgrounds, most formal educational systems have failed pupils

whose families are disadvantaged. Paradoxically those who have most to gain from education have often least been able to do so.

(Mortimore, 1998:300)

The new approach called for by Otero and West-Burnham 2007; Osborn *et al* 2003, and Hughes 2004, however did begin to emerge due to a combination of factors which shaped the nature of how education was delivered and supported in our schools. What did materialise, through the late 1990s and into the new millennium, was the increased integration of academic functions and the pastoral care being provided in schools, in other words, a merging of educational and social provision, which was partly delivered through the introduction of learning mentors. This coincided at a time when

The increased complexity associated with the conditions of late modernity in industrialised countries has meant that, for contemporary young people, the concept of unproblematic transitions to stable employment are now elusive.

(Roberts, 2011:21)

As a consequence of this emerging and increasingly complex environment in which schools operate, Ritchie and Deakin Crick (2007) argue this requires ‘...those working in schools to take a much broader view of the needs of young people’ (Ritchie and Deakin Crick, 2007:11), with learning mentors being a significant group in helping meet that challenge.

1.4 Perceived Concerns

My professional involvement in education started in 2001 when I was appointed as a learning mentor in an urban comprehensive school as part of the second phase of the EiC programme (DCSF, 2008; Ofsted, 2003; Reid, 2002). Although my areas of responsibility have increased over the years, the central premise of my work remains the same - that of helping pupils overcome barriers to learning. The notion of ‘barriers to learning’ is a term applied in a number of areas, including: special educational needs (Evans, 2007); professional development in education (Fiest, 2003) and the use of digital communication and new technologies (Fowlie, 2010; Waller, 2010). In the context of this research, ‘barriers to learning’ can be described by taking a wider perspective to include those pupils who are capable of working towards the same learning objectives as their peers, but have

difficulties arising from a whole host of issues including, particular physical, cognitive, sensory, cultural, social and economic needs, which may prevent them from participating in and engaging with education successfully. Removing barriers to learning can be regarded as a tool to help promote social inclusion (DfEE, 1998; 1999a; Edwards *et al*, 2006). The removal of barriers will not in itself create an environment of conformity, but help to generate one where educational opportunity is more equitable. Like Preece (1999), I support the view that ‘... the discourse of inclusion therefore must mean a valuing of difference if mass participation is to be realised’ (1999:23), in other words to overcome exclusion, diversity needs to be recognised and catered for.

The removal of barriers to learning is not the sole domain of learning mentors, but is part of the wider support provision delivered through the pastoral care system. As with learning mentoring, ‘the key attribute underpinning the delivery of pastoral care is a genuine concern for the welfare of children’ (Davies, 2010:30). However, what is not necessarily clear is how learning mentoring due to its evolving nature differs from other aspects of the pastoral care system found in schools. Due to the lack of clarification between these pastoral roles, there is the potential for those requiring assistance and help, to not receive the correct level and type of support.

1.5 Aims and Purpose of this Research

This research aims to contribute to the understanding of the role of learning mentors working in schools, not only during the period of the EiC initiative (1999-2006) but beyond. From a personal perspective, I wanted to explore the role of learning mentors, to understand their place alongside other aspects of the pastoral care system established to meet the needs of individual pupils, but also to address concerns that as a result of a lack of clarity of roles and functions, the needs of some young people may go unmet.

1.6 Research Questions

In order to meet the above aims and fulfil the purpose of this study the following research questions have been identified:

- How has the role of learning mentors developed in practice within the case study school?
- What factors have shaped the professional identities of those working as learning mentors?
- How have the developments in policy and practice influenced the role of learning mentors within the case study school?

1.7 Boundaries of the Research

To clarify the focus and scope of the research the following boundaries have been identified:

- The DfES (2005) describes the role of learning mentors as supporting and guiding pupils

...by removing barriers to learning in order to promote effective participation, enhance individual learning, raise aspiration and achieve full potential.

(DfES, 2005:12)

However, a number of positions within local authorities and individual schools can also appear to fulfil mentoring roles. For the sake of accuracy and clarity, unless referred to otherwise, the term 'learning mentor' is applied only to those workers employed in schools in that particular capacity.

- Since the role of learning mentors was established through the EiC programme (1999-2006), operating only in schools in England – this remains the location of the research, however literature from elsewhere in Britain and beyond has been drawn upon, where comparable settings and situations exist.

- Learning mentors have been established in both primary and secondary settings, and although I have experience of working in both areas, the majority of my own practice has been in the secondary contexts, and as a consequence this research concerns the role of learning mentors in secondary schools.
- Learning mentoring formally first appeared in schools in 1999 and consequently this provides a natural starting point in developing an understanding of the role, however the policy context in which it has developed covers a wider timeframe and is therefore considered.
- Learning mentoring is often associated with Special Educational Needs (SEN) provision; this is due in part because learning mentors are often, although not exclusively managed by Special Educational Needs Co-ordinators (SENCOs) (Salter and Twidle, 2006). However, whilst some of the pupils learning mentors work with are identified as having special educational needs, a significant proportion will not.
- To avoid a potential conflict of interest and for ethical reasons, I have not approached any pupils for whom I have a professional duty of care either currently or in the past. Due to the nature of the work involved in mentoring and the potential vulnerability of those being mentored, I wanted to ensure there was no pressure or sense of obligation placed on pupils both past and present to participate. I have therefore chosen to develop an understanding of the work of learning mentors from the viewpoint of the professionals who work either in the role or alongside in other pastoral and academic functions.
- To protect participants from being identified through the research location, the case study school has been given the pseudonym of St Anthony's. To preserve the anonymity of respondents, I have allocated an alias to each member of staff I interviewed.

1.8 Organisation of the thesis

Chapter 1 – Introduction and Overview

This introductory chapter outlines the main ideas behind the thesis and the rationale underpinning the decision to pursue this area of study, identifying specific areas of concern and the research questions that need to be addressed.

Chapter 2 –Literature Review

To help understand how the role of learning mentoring has evolved in schools, three key areas of literature in this field of study have been explored and critically examined:

- The broader concept of mentoring and how this compares to the specific area of learning mentoring
- The inter-relationship between the pastoral care system and learning mentors
- The professional identities of those working as learning mentors and in other pastoral roles

Chapter 3 – Contextualisation

This chapter explores the key policy themes, both locally and nationally, that have shaped the development of the role of learning mentors within schools. Reference is also made to specific policy areas and organisations which have influenced the development of learning mentor activity taking place.

Chapter 4 – Methodology

This chapter outlines the methodology and methods of data collection chosen for this study and highlights the ethical considerations contained in the research. The ontological and epistemological assumptions underpinning the choice of methodology are also considered in this section supporting the theoretical approach adopted in the research. Consideration is

given to issues of reliability and validity in the qualitative research paradigm. The rationale for adopting a case study approach is also explored in this chapter.

Chapters 5, 6 and 7 – Presentation and Discussion of Findings

A thematic approach has been used to present and discuss the research findings. The main premise of this research concerns the role of learning mentors, and is considered as the core theme, with three other key themes identified as shaping and determining this central element, namely: structure and pastoral care; professional identity and policy enactment, each of which is considered in these chapters.

Chapter 8 - Conclusion

In the final chapter, the original aims and objectives of the research are revisited and compared to the overall findings of the study. The limitations of the research are also considered and how this in turn will influence future areas of study and implications for professional practice.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

According to Newburn and Shiner (2005)

There is a vast literature, across a range of disciplines concerned with the problems of youth.

(Newburn and Shiner, 2005:4)

Correspondingly, there is also a significant body of work concerning measures taken to address such issues, including mentoring. To help understand how the role of learning mentors has evolved in schools, since their introduction in 1999, this review considers the factors underpinning mentoring in general and the role of pastoral care in schools, of which learning mentoring can now be considered to form a part. Figure 2.1 is a representation of interconnection between the key areas of literature explored in this chapter.

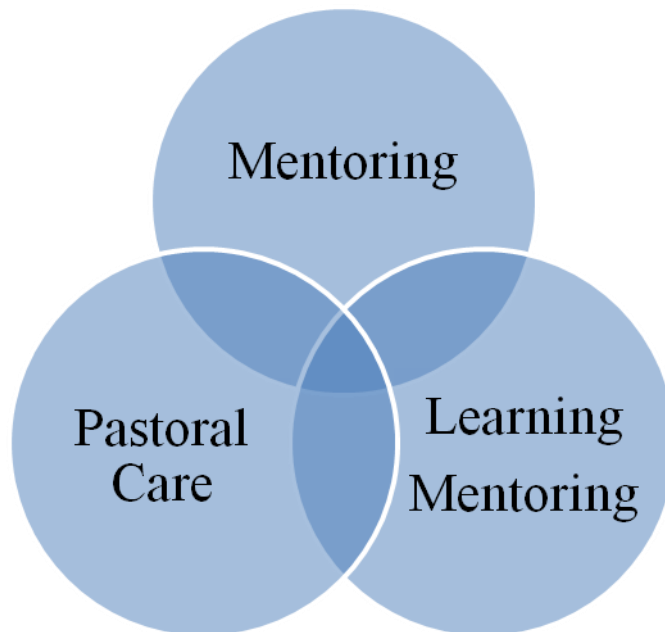


Figure 2.1 Key areas of literature relating to learning mentors

2.2 Mentoring

Learning mentoring is a relatively recent phenomenon, therefore ‘...whilst there is a huge library of reports, books, conference papers etc. on the theme of mentoring in general... there is a comparative lack of information on learning mentors in particular’ (Wood, 2005:2). By exploring mentoring in the wider literature, a greater insight into how learning mentoring is distinctive from other forms of this type of intervention can be developed. It is not my intention to provide a comprehensive review on all forms of mentoring, as that literature covers a vast range of work in a variety of settings. Instead, the focus here relates to mentoring in education settings, with an emphasis on individuals experiencing ‘barriers to learning’.

Pupils nowadays are likely to encounter a variety of mentoring schemes whilst at school, including involvement from undergraduates, business and voluntary sectors, academic staff, as well as specialist mentors and other support workers (Allen and Eby, 2007). Although a familiar term, ‘mentoring can hold a range of meanings and the terminology reveals a diverse set of underlying assumptions’ (Phillips, 1999:6). School based mentoring programmes are founded on a number of suppositions, including: academic targets accurately set and monitored to facilitate support of the mentee; the willingness of mentors and mentees to participate and the establishment of positive working relationships between participants. Meanings attributed to mentoring arrangements are shaped by factors, such as the degree of formality associated with the programmes; if mentoring is a stand-alone arrangement or part of a broader pastoral support structure and the power distance between the mentor and mentee (Clutterbuck and Lane, 2004).

As with many other definitions within education, mentoring can be regarded as a contested term, (Colley, 2003; Hall, 2003; Roberts, 2000; Haggerty, 1986), with Piper and Piper (1999) describing it as ‘everywhere in name but nowhere in substance’ (1999:129). Roberts (2000) identifies a more personal difficulty, noting

...despite being a mentor and researching mentoring for several years, I still found describing and sharing explanations of mentoring with others difficult to achieve with any degree of consensus.

(Roberts, 2000:145)

I concur with the challenge Roberts (2000) describes in relation to defining learning mentoring, due in part to its emergent and organic nature and that it is heavily influenced by the demands and requirements of its participants, in situations which often offer little consistency.

McKimm, Jolley and Hatter (2007) acknowledge the complexity surrounding mentoring, arguing it is context specific, being understood differently by the various parties involved; a point concurred with by Clutterbuck and Lane (2004), who describe mentoring as a 'situational competence' due to its 'diverse range of roles and...complex range of associated activities and underlying competences' (Lane, 2004:1). Lindholm (1982) identifies the difficulties in understanding how mentoring differs from other types of supportive relationships remarking

...there is no definitional list of things an individual must do in order to be considered a mentor. Mentoring has also been described as a "special relationship" but again there is no clear understanding of the specific ways in which a mentoring relationship differs for other relationships.

(Lindholm, 1982:1)

Hall (2003) expresses concerns about how mentoring can be distinguished from other forms of instructions or educational process, commenting,

The terminology surrounding mentors, mentoring and mentee is bewilderingly various, vague and sometimes misleading.

(Hall, 2003:3)

In an attempt to develop a greater understanding of mentoring compared to other forms of supportive interaction, Roberts (2000), distinguishes between 'essential' and 'contingent' attributes of mentoring. Roberts (2000) contribution towards an understanding of mentoring is useful to explore in more detail, as it is based on a phenomenological reading of the literature associated with mentoring between 1978-1999, the end of this period coinciding with the introduction of learning mentors into English schools, thus providing a basis to develop a greater understanding of this particular form of intervention. Through his examination of the literature, Roberts (2000) was able to develop his notion of the different attributes associated with mentoring, each of which is now considered.

2.2.1 Mentoring as a process

The first attribute concerns mentoring as a *process form*. A process is a course of action intended to achieve a particular result, made up of a series of structured and related activities. The extent to which mentoring can be considered a process, depends on the types of activities involved and how they are connected. To understand mentoring as a process, it is important to consider the inputs or elements that shape the relationship between the participants. Emmet (1998) argues a process is considered as

... a course of change with a direction and internal order, where one stage leads on to the next.

(Emmet, 1998:720)

However, not all mentoring relationships follow the linear trajectory as suggested by Emmet's initial comments, Emmet explains further

In some social processes there can be a practical, moral significance in seeing a situation as a stage in a process, since this can encourage us to look to a further stage where something constructive may be brought out of what could otherwise be seen as simply an untoward event or an unhappy situation.

(Emmet, 1998:720)

This raises a number of questions relating to mentoring: i) is it a process in itself, ii) part of a bigger picture, or iii) does it simply act as a mechanism to facilitate other social processes, in other words is it 'infrastructural' in nature (Bock and Grüniger, 2004:2). Whilst it is usually possible to identify a starting point in most mentoring relationships, possibly as the result of a formal referral process (Cruddas, 2005), movement through identifiable phases may not always be clear-cut and specific outcomes may not always be achieved. Collin (1986) suggests we should

...be more questioning about the processual nature of the relationship, its existence over time and the possible changes within it: we must not assume it has normative 'stages'.

(Collin, 1986:45)

In whatever form mentoring takes place, it provides the opportunity for 'interaction with another that facilitates the process of metacognition' (Rolfe, 2011:1). Metacognition plays a crucial role in successful learning, as it refers to 'higher order thinking which involves active control over the cognitive processes' (Livingston, 1997:1). The interaction that takes place according to East (1997) is not restricted simply from the mentor to mentee, but is a two way activity. Whilst mentoring can be regarded as a reciprocal relationship, it tends to be asymmetrical as the primary role of the interaction is one of protégé development and

growth (Allen and Eby, 2007; Jacobi, 1991; Kram, 1985; Levinson *et al*, 1978). Roberts' (2000) use of the term 'process form' as an attribute of all mentoring is questionable, as the degree of structured activity required for it to be considered a 'process' varies depending on the type of mentoring involved and the nature of the problems being addressed. However, what is common between the different types of mentoring, especially when considered in relation to other types of supportive activity, is it is an intentional action (Anderson and Shannon, 1992), whether it is considered as a process or not.

2.2.2 Mentoring as a relationship

The second attribute identified by Roberts (2000) is that mentoring is a *relationship*. Mentoring creates unique associations between individuals, (Austin, 2002; Garvey and Alred, 2003; Jacobi, 1991) and according to Allen and Eby (2007)

No two mentorships are the same; distinct interpersonal exchanges and idiosyncratic interaction patterns define and shape the relationship.
(Allen and Eby, 2007:10)

Traditionally, mentoring has often been understood in terms of relationships and the power differential that exists between the mentor and mentee. Lindholm (1982) comments

... the term mentor seems to be used most frequently to describe an individual with higher status in a relationship assumed to be beneficial to...an individual with a lower status. Status can be measured by hierarchical level, knowledge and/or experience age or educational level, and the role of a mentor will vary with the way it is defined in the environment in which it develops.

(Lindholm, 1982:2)

The notion of power is typically understood as the ability to exert influence and control over the behaviour of others (Rothman, 1979; Rogers, 1974). Ball *et al* (2012) argue power however, should not simply be considered as a top down, linear experience, but one that should be considered in a 'rational and situated way' (Ball *et al*, 2012:9). Indeed Foucault (1981) states

Power is not something that is acquired, seized or shared, something one holds on to or allows to slip away. Thus, power is relational; it becomes apparent when it becomes exercised.

(Foucault, 1981:94)

Consequently, power becomes associated with procedures, and practices operating at many different levels and dimensions (Townley, 1993).

Clutterbuck and Lane (2004) argue mentoring, as a source of learning, does not only exist in the 'traditional' hierarchical relationships described by Lindholm (1982), but also individuals learn, for example, in relationships with their peers, in 'lateral' structures (Eby, 1997). Packard (2003) argues the 'traditional model' is just one of many different configurations of mentoring which vary in structure and function. The structure can be based on a one to one relationship, or may involve a network of mentors (Bird and Didion, 1992). There is wide variety in the types of mentoring relationship that exist including: those that are formally and informally assigned; those based on the time scale over which the mentoring takes place, ranging from short term, almost temporary arrangements, to longer term relationships; and those that are carried out face to face, or facilitated through other means such as telephone, email and other technologies (Kasprisin *et al*, 2003; Packard, 2003a; Packard, 2003b). Consequently, Pawson (2004) notes there are an infinite number of ways in which a mentoring relationship may develop and operate. Further '... the precise way in which the mentoring partnership is configured...will make a potential difference to its outcomes' (Pawson, 2004:2). Pawson (2004) highlights the importance of the mentoring relationship, as '...the development of a bond between mentor and mentee can create the underlying momentum for change' (2004: i). Pawson (2004) uses three core concepts to explore the differences in the mentor/mentee relationship and as explanations why some mentoring partnerships seem to work better than others. The concepts are i) status difference; ii) reference group position; and iii) mentoring mechanism.

Status differences are important, as '...mentoring schemes find themselves embedded across a whole range of subtle status distinctions' (Pawson, 2004:2). However, there is a myriad of ways to describe status, including 'inherited' status differences, (e.g. gender, race) or 'achieved' status (e.g. occupation, levels of criminality) (Bendix and Lipset, 1960). The issue of status is further complicated due to the fact an individual's status is likely to be determined by 'multiple' factors (Lenski, 1954; Van Sell *et al*, 1981) that vary over time. Pawson argues it is not how status alone is identified and measured that will determine the likely success of any mentoring relationship, he argues

Status differences describe both the intrepid leap envisioned in mentoring
and the stubborn obstacle confronting it.

(Pawson, 2004:4)

The second core concept Pawson identifies, concerns the participants' orientation, willingness or motivation to change. Pawson explores the literature relating to 'social identity' and 'reference group' (Rosenberg, 1979) to develop a greater understanding of motives and levels of motivation underpinning the mentoring relationship. Pawson concludes

The basic concept is that mentees come to the relationship with different levels of identification ...and this 'reference group affiliation' is a key to determining whether, how, and in what respects they might be persuaded or helped to change. The capacity to change is intimately bound up with 'social identity' (rather than with individual character) because this 'social self' is defined in terms of group loyalties.

(Pawson, 2004:5)

Different levels of group affiliation can be expressed as differences in acquiescence in terms of current status (Merton, 1968). This can range from aspiration and a readiness to change, at one end of the continuum; through to reluctance and inertia, and on to antagonism, resistance and hostility at the other end. Such categorisation can also be applied to levels of disaffection and disengagement that exist within education (Ross, 2009). The terms disaffection and disengagement used in this context refers to the extent to which pupils are engaged with the education system and the level of negativity they may feel towards school. Disaffection, like disengagement, is a 'label' attached differently to pupils depending on school culture, a common characteristic in applying this 'label' is to refer to those pupils who do not fit into the normal provision to a greater or lesser extent (O'Hagan, 2004). The ability to 'fit' is however totally context specific (Cullen *et al*, 2000). Cooper describes disaffection as (although this sentiment can be applied to disengagement)

...behaviour that is perceived to be in some sense deviant and problematic to the smooth running of the organisation in which they are applied.

(Cooper, 1993:3)

Disaffection and disengagement can manifest itself in the form of truancy, a reluctance to participate in school and non-acceptable behaviour both in and outside the classroom. The levels of engagement and disaffection within our education system have been the concern of educators and politicians alike, resulting in numerous studies to explore the extent, causes and possible solutions to what is perceived to be a contributory factor to the broader and longer term problem of social inclusion (Steedman and Stoney, 2004; Ross, 2009;

McIntosh and Houghton, 2005; Hodgeson, 1999; OECD, 2003; Hosie, 2007 and Beinart *et al*, 2002).

Other studies have also explored the relationship with disengagement and the relationship with learning and underachievement in schools, for example, Callanan *et al*, (2009) carried out a qualitative study into underachievement between Key Stage 3 and 4, identifying a number of factors which could shape the level of engagement, namely

...curriculum and learning style, work load and coursework; teacher relationships; school and classroom environment; peer relationships; aspirations and future plans, family context and life events.

(Callanan *et al*, 2009: 2)

Whilst it may not be possible for schools to influence *all* of the factors listed by Callanan *et al*, (2009), there is the potential for significant intervention in a number of key areas, for example through mentoring. Research evidence suggests the levels of disaffection and disengagement are likely to involve a unique combination of factors (Kumar, 1993; Walker and Walker, 1997; Kinder *et al*, 1999 and Kinder, 1999). The factors identified as contributing towards disaffection can be broadly split into three categories: individual, family/community and school factors. Individual factors typically include, a deficit based on societal norms in the pupil's emotional or social wellbeing, such as a lack of self-esteem, confidence and social skills. Family and community factors include, parent-condoned absence, poor parenting skills and a lack of value placed on education by the family and community, particularly in areas of high unemployment and/or social deprivation. School factors involve problems associated with relationships either with teachers or peers and issues surrounding the curriculum itself. The perceived irrelevance of school, the prescribed academic orientation of the National Curriculum content, examination and assessment procedures and the reduction in time available for pastoral provision are all cited as issues that can contribute towards disaffection (Kinder *et al*, 1995). In later research by Kinder *et al* (1996) a clear emphasis was placed on peer influence as a significant contributory factor. The factors contributing to disaffection and disengagement can in themselves act as specific barriers to learning as well as reinforcing attitudes towards education and learning in general.

It is important to acknowledge underachievement is distinct from disengagement. A young person can be disengaged/disaffected and still achieve academic success, whilst a child

who is engaged may fall short of reaching their educational potential. It is possible for those whose attainment has fallen below the level expected by the school are satisfied with their academic performance and do not consider themselves as underachievers. This raises the ethical consideration on how we use labels to define and support young people and indeed how they label themselves. Although there appears to be similarity between how we perceive the willingness of participants to engage in education and mentoring, these two elements are not inextricably linked as the nature of barriers to learning for some individuals are extremely complex. For example, some young people with caring responsibilities may appear disengaged from school due to their attendance levels, lack of homework, punctuality, etc., however their willingness to receive support could be positive.

It is not only mentees who bring their social identity to mentoring relationships, but also mentors. Pawson (2004) remarks mentors

...have a different status from their protégés and ...they are charged with bringing some of the advantages of that status to bear on those protégés. In some cases the mentor is deemed to act as a role model...in other cases mentors act more passively. Their own status is not conceived as a goal for the protégé, but rather as an available resource.

(Pawson, 2004:5)

According to Social Identity Theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1986; Turner and Oakes, 1986; Ashforth and Mael, 1989), an individual will classify themselves according to perceived membership of a relevant social group, which shapes their identity, but also allows them to define themselves in terms of their social environment. Both mentors and mentees have multiple social identities and group memberships. Some identities may be more important than others in developing an individual's self-concept and establishing the common basis for the mentoring relationship (Ragins, 2002; Gilmore *et al*, 2005). Some mentoring relationships, especially those set up informally, can be based on shared perceptions of identity and group membership. In other circumstances, where mentoring is established by a programme co-ordinator or other administrative process, it may not be known which social identities are salient and important to the members of the relationship (Gilmore *et al*, 2005).

The third concept identified by Pawson (2004) refers to mentoring mechanisms. This concept is concerned with the active mechanism, or the function of the mentoring

relationship, i.e. the nature of the interaction between participants. Identifying what goes on in mentoring relationships can be problematic

In trying to classify the countless deeds done in the name of mentoring, the aim once again is to refine and define a particular dimension that offers some simple, readily observable distinction and yet one that is profound enough to explain the difference in programme outcomes.

(Pawson, 2004:6)

Consequently, Pawson focuses on the purpose of the relationship, rather than the precise means of delivery. Pawson argues in comparison with other types of social programme, in mentoring ‘...interpersonal relationships between stakeholders embody the intervention. They *are* the resource that is intended to bring about change’ (Pawson, 2004:7). Based on the work of Kram (1985) and Eby (1997), Pawson identifies a basic typology of mentoring mechanisms in which the primary ‘function’ of the mentoring relationship is identified through four key mechanisms: advocacy, coaching, direction setting and affective contracts. Advocacy concerns the development of positional resources through the use of social capital by the mentor to sponsor their mentee. Coaching refers to the acquisition of aptitudinal resources, with the mentor using a range of skills to encourage their mentees to gain practical competencies and qualifications. Direction setting concerns the use of cognitive resources to offer advice, guidance and support about goal setting and future plans. Affective contracts is concerned with aspects of mentoring that impacts how mentees feel about themselves including self-esteem. As with the issues of status and identity, mentors may perform multiple roles dependent on the nature of the mentoring involved, which may not neatly fit into the categories identified, a point acknowledged by Pawson (2004).

2.2.3 Mentoring as a helping process

Returning to the attributes of mentoring identified by Roberts (2000), it is possible to see how these coincide with the functions of mentoring as recognised by Pawson (2004). The third attribute noted by Roberts is that mentoring is a *helping process*. The forms of the help involved can include assistance with learning, guidance and protection (Caruso, 1990). Whilst Roberts (2000) identifies this as an essential feature, the nature of such help may not always be clear cut, as mentoring is a value laden interaction, centred round a perceived notion of a need to change, in areas such as academic performance, goal setting, motivation, disaffection and disengagement. Benard (1998) argues many teachers and

other helping professionals tend only to see pupils and their families through a deficit lens. Educationalists have tended to personalise the factors they believe contribute to this 'deficit,' by locating the problems within the youth, their families and their culture. Benard (1998) argues

This approach has increasingly led to harmful isolating practices for a growing number of students in urban schools.

(Benard, 1998:1)

If mentoring is considered in terms of the 'deficit' model, it may not be thought of as a helping process, possibly having the opposite effect, by focusing on and reinforcing problems, rather than concentrating on the positive aspects of an individual's life. Benard (1998) also acknowledges the possibility for those who work with young people to have the '...power to tip the scales from risk to resilience' (1998:1). Ainsworth (1989) identifies the potential benefit of powerful emotional attachments created through mentoring and the impact this has on healthy human development and psychological adjustment.

In environments where professional mentors are employed, e.g. learning mentors, tensions can exist between the needs of the organisation and those being mentored (Cruddas, 2005). Schools operate in competitive environments with limited resources and as a consequence, mentoring can become prescriptive, with mentors working to achieve specific goals using a target driven approach (Shelmerdine and Louw, 2008; Morrow and Styles, 1995). As a consequence Ecclestone and Hayes (2009) argue in school there has developed a climate of

...new sensibility, a form of cultural spirit, a set of explanations and underlying assumptions about appropriate feelings and responses to events, and a set of associated practices and rituals through which people make sense of themselves and others.

(Ecclestone and Hayes, 2009:128)

Further, Shelmerdine and Louw (2008) suggest mentors whose relationship is prescriptive and dominated by a narrative of help

...attempt to control both their relationship and their mentees, and to 'pass down' advice, models of behaviour and so on, instead of affirming their mentees' own knowledge. Mentors are agents of the relationship, and mentees passive recipients of their help. They are further 'change driven', with narrowly defined goals, imposing their own values on their mentees and thereby undermining their cultural and social identities.

(Shelmerdine and Louw, 2008: 24-25)

Not all mentoring relationships are based on a narrative of help (Shelmerdine and Louw, 2008; Morrow and Styles, 1995; Beam *et al*, 2002; Liang *et al*, 2002; Philip and Hendry, 1996; 2000) and may include narratives of friendship for their own sake (Shelmerdine and Louw, 2008), where mentors and mentees ‘...become equal participants and both partners are attributed with agency’ (Shelmerdine and Louw, 2008:25). Such relationships, Shelmerdine and Louw (2008) argue, are not developed in isolation and are strongly influenced by the organisational or programme structures under which mentoring takes place.

The extent to which mentoring can be considered as helpful is partially explained by internal models of dependency corresponding to patterns of attachment behaviour (Quick *et al*, 1987; Joplin *et al*, 1999; Kahn and Kram, 1994). According to Clutterbuck and Lane (2004),

Dependent people (anxious ambivalent attachment) are likely to seek a mentor’s advice, and thus will benefit from the initial stages of the mentoring relationship, but the relationship may turn dysfunctional, as dependent protégés may resist entering the separation phase of the relationship.

(Clutterbuck and Lane, 2004:89)

Conversely, counter dependent (avoidant) people can resist seeking help, or if they do, are less likely to exhibit self-disclosure, a necessary component in a mentoring relationship. Individuals described as secure or interdependent are at ease in developing relationships with others and therefore not fearful in asking for help. Therefore, the extent to which mentoring is perceived as *helpful* is, according to Clutterbuck and Lane (2004), partially dependent on the attachment styles of those participating.

2.2.4 Mentoring as a teaching – learning process

The fourth attribute of mentoring identified by Roberts (2000) describes it as a *teaching-learning process*. Earlier the notion of mentoring as a process was recognised as being dependent on the type of mentoring involved. The same can also be argued about the nature of the relationship between mentoring, teaching and learning, as this too is context dependent. Allen and Eby (2007) argue

Although the goals of the mentoring relationship may differ across both settings and relationships, nearly all mentoring relationships require the acquisition of knowledge.

(Allen and Eby, 2007:10)

There are many theories of how people learn and if it is accepted that human beings are equipped with the ability to learn in different ways, it follows that the teaching and learning associated with mentoring, which itself is multi-faceted, is likely also to exist in many different formats and configurations.

2.2.5 Mentoring and reflective practice

The fifth attribute identified by Roberts (2000) considers mentoring in terms of *reflective practice*. To develop a greater understanding of how mentors conduct their work and become skilled practitioners, reflection emerges as a key tool to ‘better understand what they know and do as they develop their practice’ (Loughran, 2002: 34). Loughran (2002) argues

It is through the development of knowledge and understanding of practice setting and the ability to recognise and respond to such knowledge that the reflective practitioners become truly responsive to the needs, issues and concerns that are so important in shaping practice.

(Loughran, 2002:34)

In situations where new professions are being created, such as learning mentors, reflection can assist the development and articulation of ‘those aspects of practice that might be described as being part of their knowledge base’ (Loughran, 2002:34). Schön (1983) establishes the link between reflection and practice, arguing

It is our capacity to see unfamiliar situations as familiar ones, and to do in the former as we have done in the latter, that enables us to bring our past experiences to bear on the unique case. It is our capacity to *see-as* and *do-as* that allows us to have a feel for problems that do not fit existing rules.

(Schön, 1983:140)

The importance of reflective practice upon mentoring can be identified in a number of different ways: it challenges taken for granted assumptions (Brookfield, 1998); places a focus upon the nature of problems being confronted (Loughran, 2002); keeps values in focus and avoids a formulaic way of working (Cruddas, 2005) and it ‘makes the tacit

explicit... [by drawing] one's attention to a situation that might be viewed as problematic (Loughran, 2002:35).

In situations where the problems are associated with complex social, emotional and economic factors and thus considered outside the control of practitioners, there is as a consequence 'little incentive for the practitioner to attempt to address the situation; hence the nature of the practice would be perceived as having little impact on the problem' (Loughran, 2002:45). However, where other practitioners, such as mentors, are introduced into environments and operate differently within the organisation compared to other professionals, it provides the opportunity to gain different insights and understanding of issues resulting in the ability to frame and reframe problems in other ways. The development of professional reflective practice however, is a 'complex and intellectually challenging activity' (Moran and Dallart, 1995:22) as it is more than just thoughtful practice, but the activity of turning situations into potential learning opportunities, and thus becoming part of a journey of professional self-discovery.

2.2.6 Mentoring as a career and personal development process

A career and personal development process is the sixth essential attribute of mentoring identified by Roberts (2000). This particular attribute refers to the career and personal development of the mentee, although it is acknowledged that not all mentoring schemes will have this as a prime aim, especially those in educational and some voluntary sectors.

2.2.7 Mentoring as a formalised process

The seventh attribute is that mentoring is a *formalised process*. Mullen (2007) describes formal mentorship as a 'one to one mentor-protégé arrangement based on assignment to the relationship' (2007:120); whereas, informal mentoring is considered as an extemporaneous and steadily developing arrangement (Johnson, 2002); as such informal mentoring relationships are typically neither managed and structured or sanctioned and officially recognised by the governing organisation. Mullen (2007) argues it is the formation of the mentoring relationship and how it was initiated, that is key in determining the degree of formality. Such formality is unlikely to be applied equally to all forms of

mentoring, Carruthers (1992) notes, the term is applied to different uses and adaptations, commenting

With the passage of time and with the demands of the situations in which mentoring occurs, adaptations of the classical mentor – protégé dyad have proliferated in order to satisfy particular needs.

(Carruthers, 1992:11)

The fluidity described by Carruthers (1992) is acknowledged by Roberts (2000) who notes

...essences and attributes are not fixed and permanent: they are dependent upon those who perceive the phenomenon of mentoring and the choice of language they deploy to ascribe meaning to their experience.

(Roberts, 2000:151)

The concept of formal mentoring does raise questions as to whose interests are being served, the mentee or the organisation (Roberts, 2000; Cruddas, 2005), which is partly determined by how the mentoring relationship was initiated: by the mentor, the protégé, serendipity (Dodgson, 1986) or the organisation itself (Roberts, 2000).

2.2.8 Mentoring as a role constructed for or by a mentor

The final essential attribute identified by Roberts (2000) concerns *the role constructed for or by a mentor*. A person's role refers to the named position they occupy within an organisation or societal network (Newman, 1997). Each person 'may define – or construct these roles differently...and the ability, or act, of taking a role in response to others' expectation is referred to as *role-taking*' (Roberts, 2000:157). A *role set* is a number of roles that one may have to adopt when occupying a named position' (Roberts, 2000: 158); - indeed Monaghan and Lunt (1992) suggests 'mentoring' should be considered as a 'fluid' term as it describes a number of different functions, generating different relationships and occupying varying context. Öein (1978) identified seven distinct mentoring roles: i) teacher, coach or trainer, ii) positive role model, iii) developer of talent, iv) opener of doors, v) protector (mother hen), vi) sponsor and vii) successful leader. A different typology put forward by Carter (1994) and Carter and Lewis (1994) considered mentoring in terms of competencies of which seven were identified: knowledge of the organisation to facilitate learning; communication; establishing support; giving feedback; overseeing learning; recording and creating interaction. Not all of mentoring roles in the above categories are described as essential by Roberts (2000); indeed, role modelling, coaching and sponsoring are considered as contingent to the mentoring phenomenon. The role of a

mentor is significantly shaped and influenced by the organisational structure in which they operate, for example although learning mentors can be considered in terms of mentoring in general, they also form part of the pastoral care provision that operates in schools. Schools have a long tradition in providing care and support to meet the needs of pupils and with the introduction of learning mentors, this not only influences the nature of the provision on offer but how it is delivered and it is this interconnection between pastoral care and learning mentoring that is now explored.

2.3 Pastoral Care

Pastoral care is ‘...an aspect of education which is widely acknowledged to be diffuse and multi-faceted’ (Best, 2002:4). The notion of care is one that extends beyond education and is itself a

... complex, constructed, multi-layered concept that refers not just to actions and activities but relationships and to attitudes and values about responsibilities for others and for our own being in the world.

(Fine, 2007:4)

Consequently, the literature surrounding pastoral care is both far reaching and diverse. In this section a brief overview of the historical development of pastoral care is offered to help contextualise it in relation to this study. According to Clark (2008)

The role of the school in providing both academic learning and support for the social development of students has been recognised for almost a century. However, the development of ‘non-academic’ provision is more difficult to trace.

(Clark, 2008:19)

2.3.1 The development of pastoral care

The term pastoral care has been used in educational settings for a number of years (Best *et al*, 1977), although the origin of its use in this context remains contested (Hughes, 1980; Ribbins, 1985; Power 1996; Davies, 2010). Indeed, working in a faith school, such as St Anthony’s, the term can be open to a different interpretation, due to its association with the ministry of care, counselling and support provided by pastors, chaplains and other religious leaders to member of their congregation. From an etymological perspective, the word pastoral is derived from the Latin *pascere* meaning ‘to feed’ thus, ‘pastoral care’

broadly denotes the notion of nurturing, that can take place both within schools and places of faith alike and indeed these can be one in the same.

Despite its widespread use within education, (Best *et al*, 1977; Clark, 2008; Davies, 2010) the notion of ‘pastoral care’ remained vague and unclear up until the mid 1970’s (Clemett and Pearce, 1986). Marland (1974) described it as a phrase that ‘...covers all aspects of work with pupils in a school other than pure teaching’ (1974:8), and thus would include the work of learning mentors. In many ways I can concur with this description of pastoral care even today, although, in its simplicity it fails to convey the array of components existing within this area of education. In an attempt to develop greater clarity and understanding, Marland (1974) put forward six aims to be incorporated in the pastoral care system

...to assist the individual to enrich his personal life; to help prepare the young person for educational choice; to offer guidance or counselling, to help young people make their own decisions – by question and focus, and by information where appropriate; to support the subject teaching; to assist the individual to develop his or her own life style and to respect that of others and to maintain an orderly atmosphere in which all of this is possible.

(Marland, 1974:10)

2.3.2 Empowerment

Marland’s contribution towards a definition of pastoral care can be considered through the notion of ‘empowerment’, by enabling young people to take control over their own decision making regarding critical life choices, by providing support, guidance and information. In doing so, pastoral care begins to share some of the essential attributes of mentoring as described by Roberts (2000). This process of autonomy can create tension, as much educational practice is about an attempt to assimilate pupils, such as through standardised performance, illustrated in national league tables and a target driven culture (ACME, 2001), rather than draw upon their differences (Cummins, 2001). For some, facilitating a move away from standardisation is an important aspect of educational reform. Sir Ken Robinson, in his 2010 Technology Entertainment and Design (TED) lecture, talks about the need to shift from an “industrial/manufacturing” model of education based on linearity and conformity, to a more “agricultural” approach to cater for human diversity, arguing

We have recognised human flourishing is not a mechanical process, it is an organic process. You cannot predict the outcome of human development, but like a farmer you can create the conditions under which they will begin

to flourish. So when we look at reforming education and transforming it. It isn't like cloning a system...it's about customising it to your circumstances and personalising education.

(Sir Ken Robinson, 2010 TED Lecture)

2.3.3 Values

Marland (1974) in identifying the 'aims' of pastoral care also highlights the part values play in the organisation of schools. Halstead and Taylor (1996) note

Values are central to both the theory of education and the practical activities of schools in two ways. First, schools and individual teachers within schools are a major influence, alongside the family, the media and the peer groups, on the developing values of children and young people and thus of society at large. Secondly, schools reflect and embody the values of society; indeed they owe their existence to the fact that society values education and seeks to exert influence on the pattern of its future development through education'.

(Halstead and Taylor, 1996:2)

However, values of society are not uniform and do not remain unchanged. In terms of the education, a number of stakeholders can be identified, including: parents, employers, politicians and local communities, those who work in schools and the young people themselves. Within these groups, values are shaped by a wide diversity of political, social, economic, religious, ideological and cultural factors. This diversity can create conflict within education, as different values vie for influence and dominance.

The aims put forward by Marland (1974) began to distinguish the difference between the transmission of knowledge typified in curriculum subjects and 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.

(Best, 2002:4)

Best *et al* (1977) were still concerned about the lack of clarity regarding a general understanding of pastoral care and more specific terms such as 'counselling' and 'guidance', usually the domain of trained and specialist staff. Whilst accepting that 'pastoral care' should be used as a '...general or umbrella category under which guidance and counselling are subsumed' (Best *et al*, 1977:127), it was also noted that

Caution will need to be exercised when referring to the non-specialist caring activities of ‘ordinary teachers’; ‘pastoral care’ may imply more than it ought and perhaps here should be replaced by an analytic category like ‘teacher-care’ for the exercise of pastoral care by the teacher in day-to-day routine.

(Best *et al*, 1977:127)

2.3.4 The role of pastoral care

Although the late 1970’s and 1980’s was a period in which the scope and nature of work considered as pastoral care was made clearer (Best, 1999), there was still concern expressed about the absence of an agreed definition and theoretical construct (Lang, 1984). In 1989, Her Majesty’s Inspectorate (HMI) published its own and considered by many as a comprehensive definition of pastoral care (Best and Lang, 1995; Clark, 2008; Davies, 2010). The report stated:

Pastoral care is concerned with promoting pupils’ personal and social development and fostering positive attitudes: through the quality of teaching and learning; through the nature of relationships amongst pupils, teachers and other adults other than teachers; through arrangements for monitoring pupil’s overall progress, academic, personal and social; through specific pastoral structures and support systems, and through extra-curricular activities and the school ethos. Pastoral care accordingly should help a school to achieve success. In such a context it offers support for the learning, behaviour and welfare of all pupils, and addresses the particular difficulties some individuals may be experiencing.

(DES, 1989:3)

This definition implies universality, by describing support being offered to *all* pupils and at the same time ‘...pastoral care is perceived to be a whole-school responsibility and not reliant solely on a small group of people i.e. a pastoral team...evident in all elements of the school environment, for example, the structures, systems and ethos’ (Davies, 2010:15), thus distinguishing it from learning mentor provision. Hearn *et al* (2006) argue this definition highlights the widely expressed view that schools should promote the wellbeing of individuals as well as members of a community (Lang *et al*, 1994; Grove, 2004; Nadge, 2005). It also emphasises the need for schools to respond to individual need at times of difficulty and crisis, due to personal, domestic, social and emotional factors (Lang *et al*, 1994; Konu *et al*, 2002; Jimerson *et al*, 2005). The ideas put forward by the HMI focuses attention on the ‘...inextricable link between pastoral care and education’ (Hearn *et al*,

2006:11), for example, through a curriculum that enhances skills for coping (Baker, 2005; Clemitshaw and Calvert, 2005; Sawka *et al*, 2002). This link is supported in other literature in which pastoral care is viewed as a process that facilitates a young person's transition from dependence to independence (Chittenden, 2002) and therefore '...pastoral care and academic care have been seen as closely interconnected' (Hearn *et al*, 2006:9). Pastoral care can be considered as a mechanism to support and promote the '...knowledge of self, self-efficacy, health risk taking, goal setting, negotiation, reflection and empowerment' (Nadge, 2005:30) with learning mentoring forming part of such provision.

2.3.5 Changing priorities

Absent from the HMI definition (DES, 1989) was the mention of how the levels of success and achievement of pastoral care are measured and against what criteria. There is an implied assumption that learning and pastoral development outcomes can be pursued with equal vigour. However, since the publication of every school's examination results became compulsory in 1992, there has been a significant emphasis on academic performance within schools (Hayes *et al*, 2004; Gray, 2008), consequently

...it has often been argued that teachers, particularly at the secondary school level, view teaching subject disciplines as their prime function and that the notion of caring is outside their teaching domain.

(Hearn *et al*, 2006:9)

Although one of the justifications for the publishing of exam results, through league tables, is to enable parents to make an informed choice about school selection, academic criteria alone are not the only consideration, as other factors such as the existence of a safe, happy and secure environment in which their child is cared for are also taken into account (Gray, 2008). This situation creates potential tension for schools to generate not only academic success but, at the same time support the broader needs of their pupils – raising questions how this situation can best be managed and if there is necessarily a trade-off between pastoral care and academic achievement.

2.3.6 Pastoral care objectives

Failure to address this dilemma was reinforced by the definitions put forward by Marland (1974) and DES (1989) due to the fact they were both '...vague in terms of what the

delivery of pastoral care entailed in practice' (Davies, 2010:26). By 1999 a more specific model was put forward by Best who identified three objectives. These he refers to as '...reactive, proactive and developmental care' (Best, 1999:18). Best describes reactive pastoral care as the act of staff, often form tutors, who respond to children presenting 'problems of a personal, social, emotional or behavioural kind' (Best, 1999:19). Undertaken on a one to one basis and sometimes described as 'case work', this type of pastoral care often involves the provision of an "open door" approach to guidance and counselling and the use of mentoring including peer support (Lang, 1999; Owen, 2002; Charlton and David, 1997). The array of issues pupils face was explored by Carey (1993), who identified a list of 77 areas of potential pupil crisis or potential barriers to learning, which can be categorised into the areas of '...individual, family, peers, school, community and global' (Best, 2002:13). In situations where the problem is considered too complex, too severe or beyond the expertise of the staff member, there is an expectation that the issue is referred to a higher level in the pastoral structure. This referral process in turn creates an important aspect in pastoral casework – namely the development of a 'welfare network' which includes links with school, home and other agencies such as social services and education welfare (Best, 2002). Although offering immediate support and seen as fundamental to a school's pupil support provision – one of the main criticisms of this aspect of pastoral care is that it occurs outside the everyday school routine and reinforces to some extent that it is beyond a teacher's remit or domain. (Best, 2002; Davies, 2010).The impact of this type of intervention is not always immediately evident again reinforcing the question amongst teaching staff as to whether or not it is part of their responsibility or duty of care. However, with workforce reforms and changes to working practices, this aspect of pastoral care has undergone a period of transformation, especially in the period since the election of New Labour in 1997, and the introduction of roles into schools including learning mentors.

Proactive, or preventative care, is the second type of pastoral support put forward by Best (1999). The principle aim of this element is to pre-empt 'critical incidents' that may occur and impact upon the lives of pupils (Hamblin, 1978), and reduce the need for reactive casework. Typically delivered during assemblies and other dedicated tutor time, the focus is

... on the development of practical knowledge and coping skills which would allow children to make wise choices and respond positively to social, emotional and educational challenges

(Best, 1999:19)

Such intervention has the potential to develop

...not only the children's self-esteem, resilience and academic capacity to make appropriate choices, but also creating a broader school and community ethos, organisation and environment that encourages student well-being.

(Hearn *et al*, 2006: 11-12)

The building of such an environment as described by Hearn *et al*, 2006, is according to Smith (2009) found in everyday activities such as

Being around in hallways, canteens and recreation areas to help build an environment that is safe and convivial.

(Smith, 2009:1)

The ability to pre-empt the incidents, pre-supposes a level of knowledge or experience suitable for that role. It also assumes staff including, teachers and those in support roles, have the necessary knowledge of the pupils to make judgements about the levels of intervention they require and that they are delivered appropriately. Ainscow (1998) remarks the '...design, selection and use of particular teaching approaches and strategies arises from our perception about learning and learners' (1998:10). Best (1999) argues these ideas and influences are likely to transfer to the pastoral care that takes place in schools, a point reinforced by Hearn *et al* (2006) who comment

...the purpose, organisation and provision of pastoral care differs depending on our conceptual role of teachers tasks, as well as the different structures and processes which schools institutionalise to facilitate them.

(Hearn *et al*, 2006:12)

The third objective of pastoral care put forward by Best (1999), concerns developmental pastoral curricula. In 1980 Marland argued there was a requirement for schools to provide a curriculum that focussed on a young person's personal and social development and not simply the skills to cope with particular incidents, delivered through distinctive programmes, tutorial lessons and extracurricular activities aimed at '...promoting the personal, social, moral, spiritual and cultural development and well-being of children' (Best 2007:251). Consequently, Personal, Social, and Health Education (PSHE) was introduced into schools as a planned programme of learning opportunities and experience, designed to assist young people to grow and develop as individuals and as members of

families, wider social groups and economic communities. This aspect of pastoral care was viewed as a major contributor to a school's statutory responsibility to promote children and young people's wellbeing. Wellbeing as defined in the Children Act 2004 being the promotion of physical, mental and emotional health; protection from harm and neglect; education and training and recreation; social and economic wellbeing and their contribution to society.

2.3.7 Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL)

In addition to PSHE used to develop the social and emotional skills of young people, a further approach was introduced into schools in 2003 through the programme known as the Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL). SEAL was viewed as a '...comprehensive whole-school approach to promote the social and emotional skills that are thought to underpin the effective learning, positive behaviour, regular attendance and emotional well-being' (Humphrey *et al*, 2008:5). The SEAL programme was intended to contribute to a school's planning and delivery of PSHE, by offering a framework through which social and emotional skills could be developed (DfES, 2007). The skills being promoted and developed were based on the five domains based proposed in Goleman's model of emotional intelligence (1996), namely: self-awareness; self-regulation (managing feelings); motivation; empathy and social skills. Delivery of the SEAL programme varied from individual intervention to whole school approaches and is illustrated in Figure 2.2, taken from the National Strategies' 'Waves of Intervention' model:

Redacted forcopyright reasons

Figure: 2.2 Waves of intervention model (DfES, 2005b:13)

The distinction between programmes that are ‘universal’ and those that are ‘targeted’ is well documented in the literature surrounding social and emotional learning (Wells *et al*, 2003). In the ‘Waves of Intervention Model’ (DfES, 2005b), Wave 1 refers to universal strategies developed to deliver provision to the entire student body, whilst Waves 2 and 3 indicate targeted intervention, to provide focussed support to those pupils at risk of or already experiencing social, emotional or behaviour difficulties (Humphrey *et al*, 2010).

Unlike other approaches to social and emotional learning, SEAL ‘...was envisaged as a loose enabling framework for school improvement, rather than a ‘structured’ package that is applied to schools’ (Humphrey *et al*, 2010:7). Schools were encouraged to develop their own interpretation of SEAL, rather than a ‘...single consistently definable entity’ (Humphrey *et al*, 2010:7), or as Weare (2010) notes schools were ‘...encouraged to take from it what they wish’ (2010:10). However, as Weare remarks ‘...too much tailoring to local needs and circumstances can lead to dilution and confusion’ (2010:11). For SEAL to be effective, it

...essentially means thinking holistically, looking at the whole school context including organisation, structures, procedures and ethos, not just at individual pupils.

(DCSF, 2007a:22)

It is this approach illustrated by SEAL which links the first three objectives of pastoral care put forward by Best, and the two additional ones added in his later writings (2002) namely: the promotion and maintenance of an orderly and supportive environment and the management and administration of pastoral care. The promotion and maintenance of an orderly environment was originally identified in the work of Marland (1974), but further developed by Best, who stated that the promotion of such an environment can be developed

...through extracurricular activities, the ‘hidden curriculum’ of supportive systems and positive relations between all members, and the promotion of a persuasive ethos of mutual care and concern.

(Best, 2007:251)

Whilst this approach towards creating a supportive and caring environment is regarded as the responsibility of all members of a school community, those who undertake specific pastoral roles, including learning mentors, are dependent, according to Rogers (2007), on the value others place upon this work.

2.3.8 The management and administration of pastoral care

The final objective, the management and administration of pastoral care, refers to the methods used to facilitate the four previous objectives, for example, through monitoring, encouragement and support (Best, 2007). This aspect of pastoral care is not only important within schools, but the links it creates beyond, a point supported by Harris and Allan (2011) who argue there is a need ‘...for young people and professionals to be brought together to form broader structures and better identify need’ (2011:414), not only in terms of multi-agency working, but also the development of social capital through the creation of networks of social relations that have productive benefits.

Despite the structure offered by Best’s model in terms of the categorisation of the elements of pastoral care, Best (2002) also recognises the continuing reshaping of this aspect of education, arguing

It is clear that different discourses have prevailed at different times as a response to changing contexts and policy drivers. It is evident that ‘pastoral care’ does not have a shared meaning ... the umbrella term ‘pastoral care’ has managed to accommodate a range of attitudes and practices that have changed significantly over time.

(Best, 2002:4)

A significant factor impacting on the format and delivery of pastoral care has been the expansion of the number of non-teaching staff working in schools, including learning mentors.

2.3.9 Pastoral care and the organisational structure of schools

The ‘traditional’ structure of the secondary school as described by Watkins (1999) is one he compares to the Victorian factory, where ‘...separated departments independently contribute to the final product, which is shipped in its formative stages from one to another for disconnected processing (1999:3)’. Watkins argues schools are predominately hierarchical which have developed structures that do not always support their organisational goals, which can be complex and multiple in nature, relating to social as well as academic outcomes. The extent to which goals are met will depend on a range of factors including school ethos, style and culture, socioeconomic considerations, community and parental links as well as school structure itself.

In an attempt to achieve an array of different goals, schools have traditionally split academic and pastoral functions. The majority of teachers are expected to undertake academic and pastoral responsibilities, and from the outset of their careers they are likely to be members of two quite distinct teams, each with its own leader and sub-hierarchy in the school, i.e. the academic and pastoral split. Watkins (1999) suggests that

...teachers are treated in a rather schizophrenic fashion: rather than their two functions being resourced and supported for their contribution to overall learning and achievement, staff have to juggle both responsibilities as though they compete with each other, and understandably many staff make trade-off decisions about which to prioritise.

(Watkins, 1999:4)

Such a division, may not only hinder the work of teachers and create organisational confusion, but also develop an environment which is divisive and generates tensions (Clark, 2008; Best, 2002; Watkins, 1999; 1999a). The structural arrangements governing pastoral and academic matters within schools, which Clark (2008) and Watkins (1999) argue have been perpetuated almost without question, has been reinforced, to some extent, through the introduction of Teaching and Learning Responsibilities (TLRs) and wider workforce reforms. Under remodelling, many schools abandoned using teachers for 'traditional pastoral roles', unless the position required the skills and expertise of a qualified teacher (NASUWT, 2005).

It can be argued that such workforce reforms reinforced the divide between a school's academic responsibilities and its pastoral duty of care. During this period, other changes were taking place resulting in the situation found within schools which was not as clear cut as previously implied. In the past, pupils were often viewed as '...either a recipient of a curriculum with the need of academic teaching or as a person requiring pastoral care, rather than an individual with integrated needs' (Clark, 2008:7), in other words, those to be taught and those to be cared for (Buckley, 1980).

Over the last decade or so, there has been a fundamental shift within schools in England and Wales in the ways they understand and create environments in which the pastoral care system supports learning. Consequently, pastoral care was viewed as '...a factor which supports learning, and academic achievement and progress are seen as the primary purpose

of the school experience' (Clark, 2008:29) Thus, '...the pastoral and academic elements of a school are becoming intermeshed, where the sense of knowing the whole child as a person is linked to following that child's academic achievement' (Clark, 2008:29), supported through structures which can be considered as heterarchies, which Hass (2001) describes as

... the relation of elements to one another when they are unranked or when they possess the potential for being ranked in a number of different ways.
(Hass, 2001:25)

The development of a more flexible structure can also create an environment of creativity and ingenuity. The positive aspects of this fluidity are echoed by Allen-Collinson (2006) who argues

Many clearly valorise the ambiguity of this social space with its attendant possibilities for boundary crossing and fluidity of identity, and this very ambiguity of identity-positioning [can be] constructed as a positive and celebrated aspect aspects of ...occupational lives.
(Allen-Collinson, 2006:2)

Such a move is demonstrated in the creation of new roles including learning mentors. The New Labour drive towards personalised learning, introduced in 2003 (Miliband, 2003), recognised factors 'beyond the classroom' that could affect the learning within it, highlighting a long term challenge faced by schools, one of creating a pastoral system to help individuals without always giving individual help (Marland, 1980).

Watkins (2003) argues effective '...pastoral care promotes relationships for learning' (2003:1), by facilitating communication and supporting achievement for all pupils. Watkins (2003) argues if pastoral care becomes de-emphasised, marginalised and distorted, this leads to a mechanistic view of teaching and schooling, with a narrowing of the curriculum and teaching "towards the test" in the pursuit of results, at the expense of meaningful learning. Watkins (2003) instead calls for engagement in learning in which pastoral care and support, through its different mechanisms, develops performance by improving learning and relationships. Watkins (2003) argues

Such improvement is not achieved through instrumental means: it is an essentially social process, most successful when relating to learners' felt purpose, experiences of success, supportive interpersonal relationships and a sense of becoming a person we want to become.
(Watkins, 2003: 2)

Aspects of the wider agenda of educational and welfare reform, e.g. the promotion of the five outcomes of Every Child Matters and the Labour government's legislative framework towards child wellbeing may well have been mapped ... 'on to pastoral care practices... but they do not replace pastoral care or cover all that pastoral care arguably should' (Calvert, 2009:269). However, a significant aspect of pastoral care provision that has been directly shaped and influenced by policy has been the introduction of learning mentors into schools.

2.4 Learning Mentors

Although introduced as part of a policy initiative, 'the specifics of what learning mentors do is a matter for individual schools' (Smith, 1999:1). This is not unsurprising as the EiC programme argued for an '...individual as well as an institutional perspective' (Smith, 1999:1) The learning mentor strand of EiC, was promoted as a means for schools to take a more individualised approach to support the teaching and learning needs of pupils and to enhance equality rather than reinforcing existing inequalities (DfES, 2001a).

'What makes learning mentors different from other mentoring provision is the focus on learning' (Cruddas, 2005:11), through the removal of barriers to individual learning. Although mentioned in the regulations to implement the EiC programme, the term barriers to learning remains a relatively undefined concept and one open to interpretation, referred to primarily in relation to the role of learning mentors.

Learning mentor means a person appointed, to assist those pupils who need additional support to overcome barriers to learning both inside and outside school.

(The Education Regulations 1999 (Amendments), 1999:1)

According to the EiC guidelines (DfEE,1999), barriers to learning are identified through the school assessment process to highlight those pupils requiring extra help to realize their full potential and benefit from 'building on effective pastoral and other arrangements in place' (Smith, 1999:1). However, the effects of barriers to learning are not always shown up in the assessment process, especially if the issue is on-going, having a sustained impact on an individual's long term academic performance. Further, absence from school and changes between schools may delay the identification of such difficulties. Barriers to

learning may also vary depending on a child's ability to cope in times of difficulty and distress, in other words their levels of resilience. Harris and Allen (2011) argue learning mentors play a crucial role supporting individuals, commenting

School based mentors ...were singled out by young people as offering useful support and intervention. In many schools they play a central role in supporting vulnerable young people through one to one discussion in a secure and appropriate environment. The evidence showed that mentors were effective at helping young people to support and articulate their needs and develop appropriate coping strategies.

(Harris and Allen, 2011:409)

In the context of this research, 'barriers to learning' can be described by taking a wide perspective, to include pupils who are capable of working towards the same learning objectives as their peers, but have difficulties arising from a host of issues including particular physical, cognitive, sensory, cultural, social and economic needs. Thus anything that stands in the way or prevents a learner from fully participating and learning effectively can be regarded as a barrier to learning. Barriers to learning may be transitory or sporadic, and can arise suddenly due to changes in personal and family circumstances, emotional trauma and physical and medical conditions, as well as a variety of other issues. Some barriers to learning are more long term in their impact and have the potential to become entrenched as '...youngsters' problems are exacerbated as they internalize the frustrations of confronting these barriers and the debilitating effects of performing poorly at school' (Adelman and Taylor, 2002:35).

Barriers to learning can be categorised into 4 and sometimes overlapping groups: systemic, societal, pedagogical and medical barriers (WCED, 2002) and these are discussed below:

2.4.1 Systemic barriers

The education system itself can contribute to conditions which may cause barriers to learning extending beyond the classroom. For example, parental engagement may be curtailed with the school due to issues associated with parental literacy levels and English as an additional language. This not only makes communication with the school challenging, but can impact on a parent's ability to assist their child with homework, as well as making access to additional services to support their child, in conjunction with the school, potentially more problematic.

With schools increasingly using computers to deliver aspects of the curriculum and to set homework, access to computer facilities at home, including high speed internet connection, can produce potential barriers to learning, by creating a ‘digital divide’ between those who have access to computers and those who do not. The extent of this ‘barrier’ is disputable, however, Clotfelter *et al* (2008) argue

Put to appropriate use information technology has always offered the promise of increasing the productivity of teaching and learning. The challenge is to ensure that young people use information technology appropriately.

(Clotfelter *et al*, 2008:36)

Systemic barriers to learning can also be generated from a complex array of in-school experiences, which can be shaped by the development of a person’s self-image, attitude forming experiences and expectations of success (Gipps and Murphy, 1994; Wikeley and Jamieson, 1996).

2.4.2 Societal barriers

According to Otero and West-Burnham ‘...social factors are disproportionately significant in their impact on children’s academic achievement’ (2007:1). Wikeley and Jamieson (1996), argue environmental and social factors have a significant role in setting differential patterns of achievement. This association of poor academic achievement and social disadvantage is supported widely in the literature, for example Power *et al* (2002) conclude

...[educational] outcomes in deprived areas are worse than those in non-deprived areas, whether they are measured in terms of qualification, attendance, exclusions or ‘staying on’ rates. Inner-city areas in particular feature as having low outcomes.

(Power *et al*, 2002:26)

More recently Perry and Francis (2010), in a review of the literature concerning social class and educational underachievement, argue

Social class remains the strongest predictor of educational achievement in the UK, where the social class gap for educational achievement is one of the most significant in the developed world.

(Perry and Francis, 2010:2)

A view further supported in the statistical studies of: Cassen and Kingdon (2007); Dyson *et al* (2010); National Equality Panel (2010); Sodha and Margo (2010) and Kerr and West

(2010). Such studies have highlighted that British children's educational outcomes and achievements are linked to parental qualifications, as well as their occupation and income. Perry and Francis (2010) argue that whilst social class is a strong predictor of educational achievement '...it intersects in complex ways with other factors, notably gender and ethnicity' (2010:6), the impact of which becomes more influential as the young person grows older (Sammons, 1995 *et al*). Comparisons of data concerning educational achievement relating to class, gender and ethnicity can produce complex patterns; for example, certain middle class ethnic minority pupils underachieve in comparison with their white middle class peers (Strand, 2011) and middle class boys still out perform working class girls at literacy (Francis, 2006), however girls out-perform boys at literacy within each social group (Francis and Skelton, 2005).

The debate surrounding the differences between boys' and girls' underachievement in schools is not new. One only has to explore the differences in the pass rates in the 11+ examination, used throughout the UK between 1944-1976 as a means to govern entry of 11-12year olds into secondary schooling, where girls had to gain higher grades to attend grammars schools than boys, in order to keep the ratios more equitable (Mendick, 2012). Girls' dominance in terms of academic performance was enhanced by the introduction of the National Curriculum (Education Reform Act, 1988) in which the study of science subjects to GCSE level became compulsory leading, to a rapid improvement in results for girls in these areas; however, there was not a corresponding improvement in the previously female dominated area of languages amongst boys, which also become mandatory at this level (Arnot *et al*, 1999).

More recent debates surrounding differences in educational achievement between girls and boys has been precipitated by the introduction of school league tables in 1992, allowing for the easier comparison of results by gender (Francis, 2006). According to Cassen and Kingdon (2007) boys continue to outnumber girls as low achievers by three to two. Gender differences were reflected in the 2010 GCSE results with 72.6% of girls obtaining A*-C, whilst boys achieved 65.4% (Stoddard 2010). However, such comparisons can appear to over simplify and potentially sensationalise the debate surrounding gender differences in academic performance. Mendick (2012) calls for such differences to be explored in more detail, for example '*which* boys are beating *which* girls' (2012:1), as Francis (2006) remarks '...not all girls are achieving and not all boys are underachieving' (2006:4);

gender should not be considered in isolation, as ethnicity and especially social class are strong predictors of educational achievement (Griffin 1998; Epstein *et al* 1998; Lucey, 2001; Reay, 2001; 2002).

Amongst popular discourses to explain boys underachievement has been the results of the perception that

...the teaching profession has become increasingly “feminized” and thus the education of boys has suffered because of the resultant lack of role models.
(Mills *et al*, 2004:355)

It is this perception and concerns about the relative lack of male teachers especially in primary schools (Smith, 1999; Lahelma, 2000; Hutchings 2002; Sargent 2001; Skelton 2003) that has driven policy and recruitment campaigns aimed specifically at attracting particular groups into the profession, (Arnot *et al*, 1999; Francis, 2000; Hutchings, 2002; Carrington and Skelton, 2003; Mills *et al*, 2004; Francis and Skelton, 2005; Martin and Marsh, 2005; Carrington *et al*, 2007). However, there are a number of studies (Lingard *et al*, 2002; Martin and Marsh, 2005) that question the extent of the influence of a teacher’s gender on academic motivation, engagement and achievement. Whilst Carrington *et al* (2007) noted ‘the gender of the teacher was largely immaterial’(2007:397); both boys and girls did express a preference for a teacher of the same gender when it came to talking about personal issues, an important consideration in the provision of pastoral care and support.

2.4.3 Pedagogical barriers

One of the most fundamental barriers to learning can be found within the curriculum itself. Inflexibility within the curriculum can mean the diverse needs of learners are not always met, which in turns interferes with a ‘student’s ability to participate effectively and fully benefit from classroom instruction and other educational activities’ (Adelman and Taylor, 2006: xix). Key elements associated with pedagogic barriers include: the style and tempo of teaching; classroom management and organisation; learning resources used to facilitate the learning and teaching process and assessment procedures. Deficits in these areas can create barriers to individual pupils.

The term pedagogy is also used in relation to a wider social context. Social pedagogy is an approach concerned with the wellbeing, learning and growth of the individual, and

involves theory and practice associated with holistic education and caring. Social pedagogy is an academic discipline which draws upon core theories associated with a range of disciplines including education, psychology, philosophy, and sociology. Vitler, (2002) argues

Learning mentoring has strong competence links with social pedagogy in its focus on an education function, social activity and a holistic approach to children and young people that promotes well-being.

(Vitler, 2002:2)

Central to a social pedagogical approach is the consideration given to ‘learning as a social activity, intimately connected to participation in community life.’ (Cruddas, 2005:84), the origins of which can be found in the Dewey’s theory of democracy and education. Dewey argues education is ‘a fostering, a nurturing, a cultivating process. These words all imply attention to conditions of growth’ (1916:10). Importantly, social pedagogues

... help promote personal and social development. Their skills and commitment enable them to work with all types of people and not only those identified as problem groups.

(Davies Jones, 2000:1)

When considering pedagogic barriers to learning, considerations should be given to those relating to social pedagogy and issues associated with integrated working. Young people and their families may not access the services and support they need in terms of education, social services and other professional support, if such provision is not sufficiently integrated. Paget *et al* (2007) argue

The principles of social pedagogy should be incorporated into training and qualifications at all levels of the young people’s workforce to support integration.

(Paget *et al*, 2007:5)

In an attempt to address this issue, The Children’s Workforce Development Council (CWDC) reviewed the National Training Programme undertaken by learning mentors, to incorporate the induction of other professionals deemed to operate at the same level within the children’s workforce, such as education welfare officers. The National Training programme consists of generic units and specific modules relating to the work of learning mentors identified in National Occupational Standards (see Table 2.1).

Cruddas (2005) argues that ‘Learning Mentoring has close occupational competence links with the European tradition of social pedagogy’ (2005:84), with theoretical foundations

that ‘stresses learning as a social activity, intimately connected to participation in community life’ (2005:84). This social constructivist approach towards how people socially construct knowledge is considered in more detail in Chapter 4.

Generic Modules
Principles, values and legislation
Understanding children and young people’s development
Building relationships and communication with children and young people
Keeping children and young people safe from harm by contributing to the protection of children and young people from abuse
Operate within networks/integrated training
Role Specific Modules relating to Learning Mentor Job Functions
Facilitate children and young people’s learning through mentoring
Support the child or young person’s transfer and transition in learning development context

Table 2.1 National learning mentor training – generic and role specific modules (Source: Cruddas, 2005:27; Greenwich Council, 2013:1)

2.4.4 Medical barriers

Medical barriers take a number of forms including: those affecting pupils directly such as chronic conditions; acute and rapid onset medical problems; injuries impacting temporarily on attendance, access to resources and mobility; substance misuse and dependency, mental health concerns and teenage pregnancy. Medical barriers may also impact on the lives of young people due to illnesses and conditions that exist within their families, which in turn may result in them becoming young carers, with responsibilities to look after and care for others, at a level above what would normally be expected for someone of their age.

Other medical conditions acting as barriers are identified under the special educational needs provision found within schools, these include young people with physical, mental and sensory impairments; specific learning difficulties including speech and language; as well as emotional and behavioural problems. If such challenges are simply considered as medial issues to overcome, Reiser (2013) argues the person is seen as the problem, required to fit into the world around them, with a focus placed on the impairment rather

than the needs of the individual. Reiser (2013) instead puts forward a ‘social model of disability’ where barriers are considered as anything that prevents someone from participating and not the condition itself. In schools this can be regarded as not simply physical participation, but a situation that considers the social and emotional needs of the young person of which learning mentors may form a part.

2.4.5 Barriers to learning - concluding remarks

The categories used to describe barriers to learning only indicates some of the issues faced by young people, as problems encountered tend to be context specific and vary considerably in terms of severity and duration. A review of some of the key literature identifies a number of potential risk factors or areas of challenge faced by young people that can be considered as specific barriers to learning or more broadly aspects of their life in which there is a difficulty and thus they may not be able to take advantage of opportunities that are presented to them, see Table 2.2.

In respect of the nature of the work and the role undertaken by learning mentors to overcome barriers to learning, this is context specific. Parallels can be drawn with the three objectives of pastoral care put forward by Best (1999) and the Waves of Intervention Model (DfES, 2005b) forming part of the SEAL programme. Some of the work of learning mentors can be described as reactive, acting in response to the immediate need of pupils and offering support through personalised intervention (Wave 3). Although such provision may arise out of crisis, the intervention associated with it may take place over a significant period of time. Learning mentors may also be involved in proactive pastoral care in which problems and barriers to learning are pre-empted (Wave 2). Using data and knowledge of individual young people, learning mentors may help to identify those at risk of not fulfilling their potential. Intervention measures are put in place to ‘... support schools in raising standards. Specifically, in raising pupils’ attainment, improving attendance and reducing permanent and fixed term exclusions’ (Hayward, 2001:3), and as such this approach can be considered to represent the original function of learning mentors envisaged in the EiC programme. The developmental approach towards pastoral care concerns whole school activities, including curriculum based input to support the needs of young people (Wave 1). Learning mentors can play an instrumental role in developing such input, by providing feedback, in an attempt to target resources more effectively.

Sabates and Dex (2012)	Levitas et al(2007)	Every Child Matters-DfES (2004)	Harris and Allen (2011)	Barns (2005)	Gordon et al (2000)	Audit Commission (2005)
Overcrowding	Material and Economic Resources	Being Healthy	Confidence Raising	Financial Situation	Impoverishment	People and Places
Having a teenage mother	Access to Public and Private Services	Staying Safe	Substance Misuse	Material Possessions	Labour Market Exclusion	Community Cohesion and involvement
One or more parents with depression	Social Resources	Enjoying and Achieving	Community Environmental Factors	Housing Circumstances	Service Exclusion	Community Safety
A physical disability	Economic Participation	Making a positive Contribution	Mentoring Support	Neighbourhood Perceptions	Exclusion from social relations	Culture and Leisure
Low basic skills	Social Participation	Achieving Economic Wellbeing	Role Models for boys of single parent families	Social Relations		Economic Well-being
Substance misuse	Culture, Education and Skills		Coaching Support	Physical Health		Education and Lifelong Learning
Excessive alcohol intake	Political and Civic Participation		Support for teenage parents	Mental Health		Environment
Financial Stress	Health and Wellbeing		Health and Wellbeing interventions			Health and Social Well Being
Worklessness	Crime, Harm and Criminalisation		Crime Reduction			Housing
Domestic Violence			Bereavement			Transport and Access
			Safeguarding			
			Family support			
			Civic Activities			

Table 2.2 Potential barriers to learning identified in the literature

According to Cruddas, (2005) learning mentoring is a model of helping which ‘empower[s] young people to improve their learning’ (2005:117) with a focus on ‘results, outcomes, accomplishments and impact’ (Egan, 2010:7). However, for many learning mentors overcoming barriers to learning is not just about achieving improvements in an array of quantifiable measures, but making a difference to wellbeing of the young people at the centre of their work.

2.4.6 Professional identity

Although learning mentoring can be described as a fledgling occupation (Gardiner, 2008), an understanding of their professional identity is beginning to emerge (Rhodes, 2006; Bateman and Rhodes, 2003). However, due to the comparative lack of literature relating to this area, a useful comparison can be made by exploring the development of the professional identity of others working in education, such as teachers. In the same way the construction of a teacher's professional identity can be considered an ongoing process of interpretation and reinterpretation of experiences (Beijaard *et al*, 2004; Rhodes, 2006), so too can that of learning mentors. Such experiences are shaped not only by the broader context of in which learning mentors operate, but also through 'modernising initiatives such as Excellence in Cities, which have generated 'high' expectations that barriers to learning will be addressed' (Bateman and Rhodes, 2003:121). Further, the professionalism of learning mentors has also been determined by the replacement of some 'volunteer' aspects of mentoring work by trained and salaried professionals (Bateman and Rhodes, 2003). Such training not only involves the acquisition of skills through formal training, but the development of informal learning based on everyday experiences and this in turn contributes to learning mentors becoming more active in the creation of their own professional identities through both explicit and tacit practice.

In Rhodes (2006) key study into the construction of the professional identity of school learning mentors, it is argued that whilst those in this role are keen to embed themselves within the school system, through the establishment of clear job boundaries and shared understandings of the role accepted by themselves and other staff (Coldron and Smith, 1999; Beijaard *et al*, 2004; Busher, 2005); Bateman and Rhodes, 2003); also identified was the potential conflict of interest some mentors experience in role development, due to the targeted aspects of the work through the pursuit of 'additionalities' associated with behaviour and attendance improvements. These activities combined with the more supportive actions undertaken by learning mentors, have the potential to create 'unresolved sub-identities' (Rhodes, 2006:163).

Bateman and Rhodes (2003) argue the pursuit of additionality, not only experienced by learning mentors but also teaching staff (Sachs 2001), has in part been addressed through

the development of more collaborative professionalism through the communities of practice.

Rhodes (2006) acknowledges the emergence of the professional identity of learning mentors is dependent on the extent to which they respond to externally directed and imposed conditions of their work; the clarity surrounding role definitions and boundaries; the degree they have control over the creation of their own professionalism and the professional recognition by other staff, especially teachers. However, Rhodes (2006) argues that due to the diversity of roles learning mentors undertake, their claims to professionalism are potentially weakened.

2.5 Conclusion and Summary

In attempting to develop an understanding of the role of learning mentors in schools and the creation of the professional identity of those undertaking this position, exploration of the literature relating to mentoring and pastoral care reveals a lack of consensus relating to both terms. What is agreed however, is the difficulty in developing a shared definition of mentoring, due to the lack of a definitive list of the necessary elements needed to be considered as a mentor (Linholm, 1982); the infinite number of ways mentoring relationships may develop (Pawson, 2004) resulting in no two mentoring relationships being the same (Allen and Eby, 2007); and the diverse range of underlying assumptions (Philips, 1999) upon which mentoring is based. Consequently, mentoring is considered as a 'situational competence' by Clutterbuck and Lane (2004) due to the diverse range of roles and actions associated with this activity (Lane, 2004; McKimm, Jolley and Hatter, 2007), the different configurations of mentoring structures (Packard, 2003) and the different factors that influence mentoring relationships, including status difference, reference group position and the mentoring mechanism itself (Pawson, 2004).

Pastoral care like mentoring can be considered as 'diffuse and multi-faceted' (Best, 2002:4), involving the social development of pupils (Clark, 2008). Indeed, the description of pastoral care put forward by Fine (2007) contains elements equally applicable to mentoring, describing it in terms of not merely actions and activities, but also relationships,

attitudes and values. Similarities between pastoral care and learning mentoring in the literature are also evident through the notion of empowerment, enabling young people to take control over decision making and their learning by offering support, guidance and information (Cruddas 2005). However, although mentoring and pastoral care are described using similar terms, differences are identified by Marland (1974) who describes pastoral care as a broad term to cover ‘all aspects of work with pupils in schools other than pure teaching’ (1974:8); a view supported in the work of Best *et al* (1997) who considers pastoral care as an umbrella term, in which activities such as learning mentoring would be included. Further distinctions are made by Davies (2010) who describes the universality of pastoral care in contrast to the specific targeting of intervention by learning mentor activity. Indeed, Marland (1980) describes pastoral systems as helping individuals without necessarily giving individual help. However, where pastoral care and mentoring activities do coincide these are situations typically associated with responses to individual crisis or difficulty (Lang *et al*, 1994; Konu *et al*, 2002; Jimerson *et al*, 2005) or the facilitation of a young person’s transition towards independence (Chittenden, 2002), which may involve specific intervention to help re-engage those identified as socially excluded in the form of engagement mentoring (Colley, 2003).

The overlap of pastoral and mentoring activity in schools can also be understood in terms of the model put forward by Best (1999) who identifies three objectives of pastoral care. Of the three objectives i.e. reactive, proactive and developmental care, it is the first two categories that are likely to involve mentoring input. However, the literature surrounding pastoral care and mentoring also indicates tension created by the extent to which elements of the intervention go beyond the remit of the school routine and duty of care for individual students (Best, 2002; Davies, 2010; Cruddas, 2005).

Pastoral care and mentoring in schools operates in an environment of changing contexts and the discourse associated with these areas continues to alter to accommodate developments in attitudes and practices (Best, 2002). The ‘traditional’ hierarchical structure of schools (Watkins, 1999), has split the academic and pastoral functions, with the majority of teachers expected to undertake dual pastoral and academic roles. However, with increasing pressure to deliver improvements in academic performance and the expansion of non-teaching staff in pastoral functions, including learning mentors, there has been a significant shift in the way schools understand and develop pastoral care

environments, with an increasing emphasis in knowing and supporting the whole child (Clark, 2008) through a more flexible structure (Allen-Collinson, 2006) extending beyond the boundaries of the school and shaped by the wider agenda of education and social reform (Watkins, 2003).

The role values play in shaping pastoral care and learning mentoring is also evident within the literature (Helstead and Taylor, 1996; Cruddas 2005) and the potential conflict that exist as the influence of various stakeholders and their associated values vie for dominance including: parents, employers, politicians, local communities, school staff and the pupils themselves.

Difficulties of definition associated with mentoring in general are also found in relation to learning mentoring and its position within the pastoral care system within schools; this is in part due to the complex nature of this activity, but also as a result of the lack of literature relating to learning mentoring (Wood, 2005). Using the categorisation of essential and contingent attributes of mentoring identified by Roberts (2000), to distinguish it from other forms of supportive interaction, it becomes apparent that learning mentoring can only partially be understood and explained in these terms. A key study of learning mentoring using a case study approach was conducted by Cruddas (2005) who distinguished it from other types of mentoring due to its ‘focus on learning’ (2005:11) through the removal of barriers to learning which include systemic, societal pedagogical and medical challenges. Cruddas (2005) used the functional definition put forward by Sauv  Bell (2003) to develop a greater understanding of learning mentor practice in schools. It is this definition that has also been used for the purpose of this thesis to describe the main role and function of learning mentors

Providing support and guidance to children, young people and those engaged with them, by removing barriers to learning in order to promote effective participation, enhance individual learning, raise aspirations and achieve full potential.

(Sauv  Bell, 2003:1)

This definition also serves as a basis to help understand the development of the professional identity of learning mentors. With only limited literature relating specifically to this aspect of the learning mentors role, it is the definition put forward in the key study by Rhodes (2006), based on the work of Beijaard *et al* (2008) and Busher (2005), that has been used for the purposes of this thesis to understand professional identity, which

... implies an interaction between both person and context as individuals adopt and adapt professional characteristics depending on the necessities of their immediate context and the value they personally place on these characteristics... [and] although identities are partly grounded in people's personal lives and their histories, interaction with other people in the workplace and work related experiences are also influential.

(Rhodes, 2006:159-160)

Using the model of learning mentoring proposed by Cruddas (2005) the work of those undertaking this role is based on a number of key tenets

- The working alliance is primary in the facilitation of learning and participation
- Practice is person-centred, value driven and reflective
- Problems and problem situations are viewed as opportunities
- Learning is a social process
- The goal of mentoring is empowerment and the continued capacity for growth
- Equality and democracy are integral to the learning mentor process

However, the professional identity of the learning mentor is shaped and characterised by:

- The boundaries of mentoring work
- The nature of the activities undertaken by learning mentors
- The specialist aspects of the role
- The building of relationships to facilitate professional support with other agencies
- The background of mentors
- The training and career structure
- The building of professional mentoring relationships with pupils

It is the shaping of the professional identity of learning mentors along the developments of practice and policy that are explored in the subsequent chapters.

CHAPTER 3: CONTEXTUALISATION

3.1 Introduction

In 2007, Ritchie and Deakin Crick highlighted the challenges facing education professionals when they remarked, ‘the current context for schools in England is undeniably one that has become increasingly complex over the last few years’ (Ritchie and Deakin Crick, 2007:11). Such complexity can partly be attributed to the location of education within a wider context of interwoven and, at times, conflicting social issues, as well as the policies developed to tackle them. Perry and Francis (2010) argue it is the failure to address this complexity that has resulted in a lack of sustained improvement in the educational outcomes of disadvantaged groups, commenting,

Although various positive interventions have been developed, there is scepticism in the literature as to whether the ‘grafting’ of interventions on to a fundamentally unequal education system can significantly address inequality ...there are arguments for an approach that simultaneously tackles social and educational inequality. Holistic interventions are required, which take into account the dynamics of local areas.

(Perry and Francis, 2010:3)

When New Labour came into power in 1997, there were clear indications that education was to become a key policy area (Blair, 1996), with an attempt to develop a more holistic approach. By 1999, the Excellence in Cities (EiC) programme was launched (DfEE, 1999), due to concerns about underperformance in education, particularly schools in large urban areas. It was through this programme that the role of learning mentors was first introduced into schools in England. To understand the policy context in which the role of learning mentors has developed one has to look beyond the confines of the EiC programme, to the position that learning mentors occupy in schools, at the interface between academic and pastoral functions, due to their primary role of overcoming barriers to learning. This chapter explores the themes, policies and organisations that have not only created the environment in which learning mentoring has evolved, but also the circumstances that have shaped the relationship between pastoral and academic activities in school, with a focus on the development of learning mentors within this interface, considering local and national contexts. Policy issues are not only considered during the funding period of EiC (1999-

2006), but beyond, due to the continuation of this role in many schools. Although, the origins of this research are firmly set in policies, initiatives and political decision making of New Labour, its place within the political landscape of the Coalition government still remains relevant, especially in light of public sector spending cuts and the necessity to use resources more efficiently and effectively.

3.2 Local Context

3.2.1 The case study school

It is important to understand the context of this study at school level, as this is not only where the research takes place, but because of its impact on the role of learning mentors in the school and the development of their professional identity. The case study school, St Anthony's, is an 11-18 Catholic comprehensive, located in an economically deprived ward (BP, 2011) of a medium-sized English city. The school serves a geographically wide catchment area and draws pupils from a range of cultural and socio-economic backgrounds. As an Independent Catholic Academy, St Anthony's receives public funding, but under the provisions of the 1944 Education Act, the school's admissions procedures give priority to practising Catholics. The pastoral care offered to pupils is considered a significant asset, reflected in the 2007 Ofsted report when it was noted,

A great strength of the school is the pupils' personal development and well-being...the school is extremely successful in developing the whole person not just pupils' academic potential.

(Winskill, 2007:4)

As a non-Catholic working in a faith school, I can recognise the sense of community that exists within the school and beyond. This 'community' I believe has been shaped by the commonality of a number of conditions including: belief, intent, resources, preferences and need, in addition to an individual's faith. In part, this can be attributed to the support offered through the wider community, including the Church, voluntary groups and charities. The sense of 'community' is also generated from within the school, due partly to the length of service of some staff, which contributes to their knowledge of the families of the pupils attending, but also the number of staff who have children who are either current or former pupils (30 out of 85 support and teaching staff in academic year 2011/12). This I

believe has developed a sense of ‘ownership’ and ‘pride’ regarding the school and its community, acting as an indicator of the confidence the staff have in the environment and the education their children receive. This ‘confidence’ is then transmitted to the wider community through formal interactions, such as open evenings and informal encounters through ad hoc conversations and meetings. The cohesiveness and sense of identity developing from such communication, helps to facilitate a notion of connectedness and the formation of social networks, generating in turn social capital for its members.

Although learning mentors were introduced into St Anthony’s as part of the second phase of the EiC programme in 2001, the school did not have the profile of underachievement typical of other establishments in the same cohort, indeed, the results of the school at Key Stage 4 (GCSEs) continue to remain above the national average. However, the staff and its management team are not complacent about St Anthony’s standing regarding its academic achievements and pastoral care. The search for continual improvement has partly been driven by external factors; for example, although heavily oversubscribed, St Anthony’s faces increased ‘competition’ amongst other local schools to attract pupils. With the conversion of two former private schools into academies and the opening of a ‘free school’, as well as improved academic performance in other local educational establishments, parents have an increased choice, in a ‘rapidly changing marketised system’ (James *et al*, 2009:89). The desire to improve has also been driven through measures and ideas generated within the school, including: ‘house’ and departmental reviews; target setting; staff appraisals and planning in relation to pastoral care, as well as the use of a wider range of data to support pupil academic achievement.

The environment in which I work is one where academic research has been encouraged (Leiblich, 2007), however, the learning taking place amongst the staff is not simply restricted to academic endeavour, but the development of ‘communities of practice’. As Wenger (1998) describes

...this collective learning results in practices that reflect both the pursuit of our enterprises and the attendant social relations. These practices are thus the property of a kind of community created over time by the sustained pursuit of a shared enterprise. It makes sense, therefore to call these kinds of communities - *communities of practice*.

(Wenger, 1998:45)

One such community brings together both teachers and non-teaching staff through their pastoral roles. Participation in such a community is an important consideration, as it shapes a ‘...members participation in, and orientation to, the world around them’ (Eckert, 2006:1) and contribute to the development of their professional identity.

3.2.2 Local authority provision

Different ‘communities of practice’ exist at a local authority level, and they too have influenced the development of learning mentor practice in St Anthony’s. ‘Improving the outcomes for children and young people and their families’ (BCC, 2012:1) is described as the key driver of the Local Authority where St Anthony’s is located. The work of the Local Authority in creating the desired outcomes for young people and their families, is shaped by the Children and Young People’s Plan (BCC, 2011), which provides the overarching strategic vision. The plan bridges the gap between identifying the needs of the individual, those of the local community and national priorities. The latest version is evidence of a rapidly changing environment, due in part to significant national policy changes under the Coalition government, but also the economic environment in which services now operate.

The challenges faced by the Local Authority are significant, reflecting issues faced at institutional levels, i.e. how to maximise outcomes as funding reduces. Amongst the priorities identified by the Local Authority is ‘improving the shared understanding and planning for the needs of children and young people (BCC, 2011:18), recognising that ‘we cannot afford to duplicate work in forecasting the future demand for services’ (BCC, 2011:18). Schools are seen as key in improving the outcomes for vulnerable children, by strengthening prevention and early intervention arrangements, with the most ‘value’ in terms of benefiting young people and their families created by working together.

Consequently, one of the main principles underpinning the Children and Young People’s Plan is to

...be more creative in removing the boundaries and barriers that prevent us from working together – through new work roles, better use of support systems...and more joined up early intervention.

(BCC, 2011:4)

A significant mechanism to deliver intervention services at a local authority level is through the Common Assessment Framework (CAF) in which learning mentors play a

significant role. The CAF is a process facilitating the gathering of information about the needs and strengths of a child, based on discussions with the individual, their family and other practitioners. The process intends to identify the young person's needs at the earliest stage and offers a standardised approach to assess how these should be met. This process is used by practitioners from children's services across England in a wide range of settings and circumstances. Not all children and their families, where a need has been identified, will involve the full CAF process, as the level of support required is low and the signposting to services is usually sufficient. As the level of need increases, so does the requirement to encourage the young people and their families to participate in the CAF process. To determine the level of support required, the local authority has developed a threshold triangle to represent the needs of young people (Figure 3.1).

Redacted for copyright reasons

Figure 3.1 Thresholds triangle – (The Common Assessment Framework - BP, 2011)

However, Pollard and Filer (2004) argue any attempt to adopt a more holistic approach, delivered through educational establishments, is curtailed by the 'limited range of academic and social outcomes that usually circumscribe political and policy discourses around school achievement.' (Pollard and Filer, 2004:2). The 'audit culture and pressure for accountability' (Lipsett, 2008) have been exacerbated locally, due to a history of poor levels of educational attainment and achievement within the authority. Consequently, the

holistic approaches discussed by Pollard and Filer, (2004) and encouraged in the Children and Young People's Plan (BCC, 2011) have the potential to be sacrificed at the expense of more target driven measures.

The relationship between the Local Authority and schools, in many instances, has fundamentally changed over recent years, through the implementation and expansion of the academies programme. Started under New Labour, academies were introduced, to combat entrenched failure and low academic achievement. The programme has since been adopted by the Coalition government as part of their education reforms. Indeed, there has been a ten-fold increase in the number of academies since May 2010 (National Audit Office, 2012). An academy is a school directly funded by central government, and is independent of direct control by local authorities.

Whilst the impact of academies on GCSE results has become a contentious issue (Vasagar, 2012; Leo *et al*, 2010), they have also been accused of 'letting down their most vulnerable pupils' (Mackean, 2012:1). Titcombe (2012) believes the issue is exacerbated by the pressure to succeed in league tables, remarking

Academies are very high stakes institutions. An enormous amount of money has been spent on them. The expectations of everyone, the DfE, politicians who are in favour of the academies scheme must be that they are a success.
(Titcombe, 2012:1)

With this potential for tension to exist between the needs of the learner and the pressure of achieving exam and attainment success, I share the call put forward by Osborn *et al* (2003) and Hughes (2004) for a 'broadening on how learning is conceptualised' (Hughes, 2004:396). However, I fear this ambition may not be achieved, due to the impact of financial constraints and cutbacks of provision, as well as the pressure on academic results for schools both within the confines of the academy system and beyond. Thus, due to changes within the local context, the role of support services in schools delivered through pastoral care systems and by learning mentors is likely to enter a period of uncertainty and change.

3.3 Policy Context Themes

In attempting to develop an understanding as to why learning mentors were introduced into schools, it is important to consider the environment in which they evolved, shaped by key policy areas, some of which have developed beyond the boundaries of education, including welfare reform, equality of opportunity and the role of the individual.

3.3.1 Welfare reform

The policy context of this research can be traced back to the election of New Labour in 1997, and the paradigm shift that occurred in their thinking towards the welfare state and the role of the individual within it; moving from ‘a concern with equality, to a focus on inclusion and equality of opportunity’ (Lister, 1998:215); representing not only a shift away from Thatcherite and neoliberalist policies towards the welfare state, but also from the classical social democracy of the old Left.

From a neoliberal perspective, the welfare state is perceived as a ‘safety net’ for the most marginalised (Giddens, 1998). Under Thatcherism, social inequality was perceived as neither, ‘inherently wrong or harmful’ (Marsland, 1996: 212). Indeed, it is egalitarian policies that are viewed as damaging as they ‘...create a society of drab uniformity, and can only be implemented by the use of despotic power’ (Giddens, 1998:13). Thus, the welfare state is perceived as potentially damaging to the very people it is intended to help. As Marsland explains, the welfare state

...wreaks enormously destructive harm on its supposed beneficiaries: the vulnerable, the disadvantaged and the unfortunate ... cripples the enterprising, self-reliant spirit of individual men and women’
(Marsland, 1996:197)

Conversely, amongst social democrats, the pursuit of equality is viewed as a key concern. The welfare state is seen as a mechanism, not only to protect citizens from the ‘cradle to the grave’, but also to create a more equal society, through policies such as progressive taxation. Critics of this doctrine argue there are unintended consequences of the egalitarian approach of the old Left, illustrated by crime ridden, decaying council housing estates, served by poor health and education provision, thus

The welfare state, seen by most as the core of social democratic politics, today creates as many problems as it resolves.

(Giddens, 1998:16)

Both critics of classical social democracy and those of neoliberalism argue such approaches fail to cope in a world experiencing fundamental change, through the creation of new global markets and a knowledge economy; Giddens (2000) argues as a consequence

We need to introduce a different framework, one that avoids both the bureaucratic, top down government favoured by the old Left and the aspiration of the right to dismantle government altogether...Public policy has to shift from concentrating on the redistribution of wealth to promoting wealth creation.

(Giddens, 2000: 2-3)

Giddens' comments suggest a new approach is required, namely a 'Third Way', the essence of which 'lies in the need to adapt the traditional values of the centre Left to contemporary and social conditions (Deacon, 2002:103). The concept of a 'Third Way' although associated with New Labour, has its origins in politics long before, used to describe a path between capitalism and socialism (Romano, 2006; Reich, 1992).

In the Labour Party manifesto of 1997, Tony Blair stated,

In each area of policy a new and distinctive approach had been mapped out, one that differs from the old Left and the Conservative right.

(Labour Party, 1997:1)

Giddens expands the concept in 1998, arguing

The Third Way politics looks for a new relationship between the individual and community, a redefinition of rights and obligations.

(Giddens in Prideaux, 2005:104)

The Third Way was not only a description of a political doctrine, but became a 'brand' of New Labour, evident in Blair's own words, when he remarks

...ideas need labels if they are to become popular and widely understood. The "Third Way" is to my mind the best label for the new politics which the progressive centre-left is forging in Britain and beyond.

(Blair, 1998:1)

Under New Labour, an emphasis was placed on education, training and paid employment, to provide opportunities for the redistribution of income, rather than through the tax benefit

system; a welfare state that offers ‘a hand up, not just a hand-out’ (Levitas, 2005:35), shedding the ‘tax and spend’ image of previous Labour governments. Social spending or ‘social investment,’ a term first coined by Giddens (1998), became both targeted and closely monitored. The focus was in areas of ‘perceived dividends’ (Dobrowolsky, 2003:1) such as in education and health, with an emphasis on economic growth, to prepare the country to meet the demands of the 21st century global economy. Significantly, New Labour’s approach to the welfare state was one where ‘...policies towards poverty and inequality ... [were] *selective* in both target groups and in the instruments used’ (Hills, 2004:210), for example, the EiC programme allocated significant resources into underperforming schools in targeted urban areas.

New Labour set out to ‘construct and occupy a new moral architecture’ (Dobrowolsky, 2003:4). Stephen Byers, the then Secretary of State for Trade and Industry recognised this fundamental shift when addressing parliament, stating,

Our objective must be a dynamic, knowledge-based economy, founded on individual empowerment and opportunity, in which Governments enable but do not dictate, and the power of the market is harnessed to serve the public interest. The real challenge for Government is... how can we prepare Britain for a world in which knowledge will be the new currency?

(Byers, 1999: column: 243)

To create the ‘modernised social democracy’ envisaged by Blair (1998) required a balance between the demands of the economy and those of ‘social justice’. The emphasis on creating opportunity for individuals to realize their potential resulted in a shift in responsibility (Blair, 2002; Bobbitt, 2002; Dobrowolsky, 2003; Prideaux, 2005), from the state acting as a provider to one of enabler, focusing on the rights, responsibilities and duties of each citizen, with roles such as learning mentors introduced to facilitate this approach.

Welfare reform has also become of major focus for the Coalition government. Driven by the need to reduce public spending, David Cameron along with his Coalition partners have repeatedly promised ‘...to protect the poorest and most vulnerable’ (Cameron, 2010: no page number) in their radical reforms of the welfare and benefits system. However, Beresford (2012) is highly critical of this rhetoric arguing

...the Coalition government repeatedly committed itself to looking after the ‘vulnerable’. It was not always clear who the vulnerable were or how useful

it was to redefine in this way those large adjectival groups of the ‘old’, the ‘disabled’, the ‘poor’ the ‘long-term sick’ and ‘carers’.

(Beresford, 2012:67)

Beresford argues at first glance there is nothing fundamentally new in the ‘safety net’ approach proposed by the Coalition government however, upon closer inspection significant differences do emerge. Beresford remarks

What has, however, been novel about the Coalition’s social policy is its apparent ending of the Victorian poor law distinction between the ‘deserving’ and ‘undeserving’ poor. If anything, the deserving poor seem to have become the Coalition government’s particular target.

(Beresford, 2012:67)

If it is accepted that social class remains the strongest predictor of educational achievement in the UK and social inequality acts as an impediment to social mobility and meritocracy (Perry and Francis, 2010; Seccombe, 2000), one has to question the implications of the welfare reforms and spending cuts proposed by the Coalition government and the impact on the lives of some of the most vulnerable members of our society. The implications for education could be particularly significant, as Power *et al* (2002) argue

... (educational) outcomes in deprived areas are worse than those in non-deprived areas, whether they are measured in terms of qualification, attendance, exclusions or ‘staying on rates’. Inner-city areas in particular feature as having low outcomes.

(Power *et al*, 2002:26)

There is substantial evidence that educational attainment and socio-economic status are inextricably linked (Perry and Francis, 2010). Low levels of attainment at school are associated with poor outcomes later in life, impacting on the children of the next generation, creating a cycle of underachievement and deprivation. Cox (2000) argues

The lessons of history are not hopeful. Whilst some outstanding individuals have achieved the highest educational levels despite...their inauspicious home backgrounds most formal educational systems have failed pupils whose families are disadvantaged. Paradoxically those who have most to gain from education have often least been able to do so.

(Cox, 2000:157)

The view put forward by Cox (2000), is reinforced by the earlier work of Bourdieu who comments:

The action of the school, whose effect is unequal among children from different classes, and whose success varies considerably among those whom

it has an effect, tend to reinforce and to consecrate by its sanctions the initial inequalities.

(Bourdieu, 1977:493)

The relationship between class and education is significant in policy terms, as reforms taking place in one area can have intended as well as unintended consequences elsewhere.

Griffiths (2003) expresses concern that

An approach that focuses primarily on large scale power and structure can dangerously over simplify the complexities of how a particular agent may articulate the material constraints of their lives, and sometimes transform them. ...a policy that does not recognise differences is falling into the same kind of trap as the single perspective that diversity is trying to get away from.

(Griffiths, 2003:21-22)

The impact of the changes enacted through the Welfare Reform Act 2012, described by the Coalition government as the ‘...biggest change to the welfare system for over 60 years’ (DWP, 2012), remain to be seen. With the replacement of key benefits along with the introduction of a cap in the amount being claimed; such reforms are likely to ‘...penalise the poor rather than the better off’ (Beresford, 2012:68). Consequently, the offspring of those who fall into this category, may experience additional barriers to their learning, principally financial, but also due to the cutting back of services designed to support such families. At the time of writing the impact of such changes is a matter of speculation, as little is known about the extent and nature of the government spending reductions that are accompanying welfare reforms. However, when comparing actual and forecasted spending through data supplied by English and Welsh Councils, services focusing on prevention, such as Sure Start are particularly susceptible to cuts, with reductions in expenditure ‘...most apparent in English urban areas.’(CIPFA, 2011:4). Such reductions are therefore likely to impact on those who would have previously been targeted under the EiC programme. According to the CIPFA

Deep cuts to discretionary early intervention services may lead to a further increase in the number of children in need and looked after.

(CIPFA, 2011:6)

The CIPFA calls for ‘...more effective intervention and smarter investment’(2011:6) with schools playing a significant part, due to their position in directly supporting children on a daily basis, with mentors and other support workers playing a vital role.

3.3.2 Equality of opportunity

Central to mentoring is the identification of individual difference and need, and how services are designed to take this diversity into account. It can be argued the existence of mentoring in many schools only exists because, differences are often viewed as ‘...problems to be solved, rather than resources on which to draw’ (Griffiths, 2003:8). The tailoring of services to meet individual need has been reflected at national level, for example, in the *UK Action Plan on Social Inclusion 2008-10*, it was argued,

It is particularly important that the most disadvantaged receive services tailored to their particular needs...before their problems become entrenched.
(DWP, 2008: iii)

This view of tailored approach to meet the needs of individuals is supported by Williams, who remarks

It cannot be the aim of this maxim [of equality] that all men should be treated alike in all circumstances or even that they should be treated alike as much as possible.

(Williams, 1976: 231)

Despite the fact that we are living in a society that is becoming more diverse, for example, as the result of international migration in a contemporary era of globalisation (Hugo, 2005) and new family structures that have emerged (Smallwood and Wilson, 2007), there are those who yearn for more conformity and uniformity (Griffiths, 2003). In many cases issues of difference are regarded as ‘problems’ that need to be solved, illustrated through the education policies of both New Labour and the Coalition, where many government targets promote the narrowing achievement of gaps. However, according to Griffith (2003),

The system as it is now (in all its variety) works differently for different people. Partly this is a matter of individuality...but also a matter of systematic – and unfair – difference of social and political position.

(Griffith, 2003:9)

Like Griffiths, I agree that,

...education can produce flourishing, but also that it can produce unfairness and actual injury to the well-being of both pupils and teachers ... it is clear and this is significant for all educators and their policy makers – that there is not and *could not be*, a single view of the purpose of education. A ‘good education’ judged by process and by outcome, is not the same for all sectors of society, nor for all the individuals in any one sector.

(Griffiths, 2003:10)

Over recent decades, Griffiths (1998) argues that the concept of equality typically has been regarded as either a discourse of sameness, or one of competition, where individual aspirations are encouraged potentially at the expense of others. Further, equality of outcome, a concept often linked with the concept of equality of opportunity, is not necessarily desirable. Aspirations for equality of outcome can create their own inequalities; for example, policies that seek to promote this rhetoric, can be seen to move away from concepts such as meritocracy and legal egalitarianism, towards ones of positive discrimination or more typically positive action (Gilhooley, 2008; Government Equalities Office (GEO), 2010). Indeed, the Coalition government argues ‘the gradual evolution of equality law led to a ‘strand-based’ approach to equality with different laws to protect different groups’ (GEO, 2010:7) itself creating differences and inequality.

Tony Blair, in his speech to the 1999 Labour Conference, outlined his vision of equality commenting

...how do you develop the talent of all, unless in a society that treats us all equally, where closed doors of snobbery and prejudice, ignorance and poverty, fear and injustice no longer bar our way to fulfilment. Not equal incomes. Not uniform styles or tastes or culture...but true equality: equal worth, an equal access to knowledge and opportunity.

(Blair, 1999:1)

In his acceptance of implicit ‘inequality,’ Blair’s words reflected New Labour’s ‘willingness to embrace the concept of society as a competitive hierarchy motivated by aspiration’ (Prideaux, 2005:115). Conspicuously, there was no commitment by New Labour to reduce overall inequality of income; instead a focus was placed on tackling the complex issues relating to long-term disadvantage, which cut across different government departments, with an emphasis on early years intervention and initiatives from the then newly formed Social Exclusion Unit (SEU) (Hills, 2004). The emphasis became to achieve equality of opportunity, rather than a reduction in the outcomes of inequality itself (Levitas, 2005).

Blair’s demand for ‘equality of all’ was based on what he describes as a ‘moral purpose’ in a new era in which the ‘class war’ was declared over (Blair, 1999). In his attack on the ‘old elites and establishments,’ Blair’s critics argue he was striving more for ‘equality of esteem’ rather than ‘equality of opportunity’ (Ecclestone and Hayes, 2009). According to Perry and Francis (2010), this focus on aspirations ‘individualises the problem of

underachievement' (2010:2), particularly among the working-class in relation to education. The projection of personal 'deficits' onto particular sections of society, not only potentially stigmatises individuals, but also portrays educational underachievement as primarily a cultural problem due to individual inadequacies, as opposed to institutional, societal and financial causes (Rose, 1999; Gerwitz, 2001; Francis and Hey, 2009; and Reay, 2009).

Equality remains a concern for the Coalition Government due to the problems associated with inequality and social exclusion found within society. A point highlighted by Hills *et al* (2010) in their report for the National Equality Panel in which they argue, 'wide inequalities erode the bonds of common citizenship'(2010:3). In the Coalition Agreement 2010, which laid out the principles under which the Conservatives and Liberal Democrats work together, key themes of freedom, fairness and responsibility were identified, with a 'commitment to ...tear down the barriers to social mobility and equal opportunity in Britain' (GEO, 2010:6). If the language used by the Coalition is compared to the rhetoric of the early New Labour government, the issues and desire for improvement in relation to inequality remain relatively unchanged. Back in 1999, Alistair Darling, the then Secretary of State for Social Security, stated that in relation to tackling poverty and social exclusion, the government's goal was that

...everyone should have the opportunity to achieve their potential. But too many people are denied that opportunity. It is wrong and economically inefficient to waste the talents of even one single person.

(Department of Social Security, 1999:1)

More than a decade on the Coalition Government argues

Failure to tackle discrimination and to provide equal opportunities harms individuals, weakens our society and costs our economy...we want a fair society where every child has the opportunity to progress as far as their talents will take them, not one in which people's chances are driven by where they come from, how others see them or who their parents are.

(GEO, 2010:6)

The similarity of approaches, in terms of the language used and rhetoric adopted, recognises a potential consensus in relation to inequality. Where differences do occur, they are in relation to the legislative framework required to address issues of inequality and the monitoring of progress. The Coalition argues the central target driven approach of New Labour was too bureaucratic and costly, diluting the capacity of frontline workers from addressing the causes of inequality and targeting action on the consequences. Instead they

advocate transparency of information to challenge performance and drive accountability. However, questions arise as to who is accountable when challenging performance and without the appropriate legislative framework, what action can indeed be taken. Whilst both approaches discuss meeting the needs of individuals; they however fail to adequately address issues of identification. For example, the use of Free School Meals (FSM) to target additional educational funding through the Pupil Premium (DfE, 2010a), a key policy of the Coalition, can be described as a blunt instrument to support the disadvantaged, for according to Kounali *et al* (2008)

...the proportion of disadvantage in schools is higher than indicated [by FSM]...and FSM is a coarse and unreliable indicator by which school performance is judged and leads to biased estimates of the effects of poverty on pupils' academic progress.

(Kounali *et al*, 2008:2-3)

The challenge facing governments is to strike a balance between offering parity of resources and services to achieve equality of opportunity, whilst at the same time ensuring those who are most vulnerable have their needs met. One approach to equality is through universalism of provision, such as Child Benefit, which up until the 2010 Spending Review (HM Treasury, 2010), was a non-means tested benefit. Whilst some argue that in a time of austerity, restricting such benefits makes financial as well as moral sense; however, as Roberts (2009) remarks, it is not argument purely about money

...it's precisely because child benefit is universal and not means tested that it lays down a marker of mutuality in society that has a value that must not be sacrificed' otherwise she goes on to argue it 'brands the family that receives it as poor.

(Roberts, 2009:1).

Whilst universality ensures the majority of those requiring extra support receive it, and avoids the difficulties associated with labelling specific groups, it ignores the issues of identifying those in greatest need or experiencing the greatest inequality. Although the Coalition describes us as a 'nation of 62 million individuals' (GEO, 2010:8) and wishes to move away from 'treating people as groups or 'equality strands' (GEO, 2010:24), many individuals share the same needs or face similar challenges and difficulties. From a purely economic and organisational perspective, it makes sense to group resources together to address these common requirements; this in turn requires co-ordination, to avoid duplication of input. Although for this thesis I am considering this problem very much

from a micro scale, the issues remain the same, identifying those requiring extra support and how their needs can be met to facilitate greater inclusion.

3.3.3 The role of education in an inclusive society

New Labour viewed education as a major contributor to developing a more inclusive society (Prideaux, 2005), arguing learning offers ‘...a way out of dependency and low expectation, it lies at the heart of the Government’s welfare reform’ (DfEE, 1998:11). Schools were seen as the primary mechanism to equip individuals with the skills to compete in a global economy (Leitch, 2006; Brown, 2007), acting as ‘the “bedrock” of the programme to modernise and reform the country’ (Naidoo and Muschamp, 2002:146). It was Tony Blair’s famous “education, education, education” utterance in his pre-election speech in 1996 that ‘...signalled a decisive repositioning of education onto the centre of the policy stage in England’ (Ball, 2008:1). Schools were seen as a way to provide children with ‘equality of opportunity’ regardless of their socio-economic background.

One of Blair’s flagship policies which sought to address long term educational underachievement in areas of high socio-economic deprivation, was the Excellence in Cities (EiC) programme (DCSF, 2008; Ofsted, 2003; Reid, 2002). Amongst the core beliefs of the programme were the high expectations placed on every pupil and the ‘diversity of provision in secondary education in the major conurbations so that the needs of all pupils can be met’ (DCSF, 2008:2). Initiatives such as EiC can be regarded as part of a broader social policy strategy to tackle ‘social exclusion’ by

...bringing excluded groups back into employment, through the development of ‘social capital’ and early interventions into ‘failing’ families.

(Ball, 2008:153)

Ball explains

Within this approach exclusion is constructed and addressed as primarily a social problem of community and family inadequacies rather than an economic problem of structural inequality. Families and circumstances, and cultures, are to blame and where appropriate the state will intervene to ‘interrupt’ the reproduction of deficit and disadvantage.

(Ball, 2008:153)

EiC did not focus resources on all poorly performing schools in England, but those in selected urban areas, in a three phased programme commencing in 1999. It is significant that considerable resources were targeted at particular areas and not others elsewhere in the country also suffering from deprivation, thus in turn creating a disparity of opportunity and the potential to exclude some sectors of society. In addition, the three core strands of EiC also targeted resources towards specific groups. Firstly, learning mentors were introduced, to help selected pupils overcome barriers to learning as a result of educational, social and behavioural problems. Secondly, Learning Support Units offered short-term teaching and learning programmes, to support disengaged pupils and those with challenging behaviour at risk of exclusion, with the clear aim of trying to keep these ‘hard to reach’ students within school. ‘Hard to reach’, although a contested term, in the context of EiC, predominantly referred to those

...young people who are not engaged with, or are disengaged from the usual range of education or other services for children and young people.

(Hendry and Polson, 2007:3)

However, the term can also be used to describe those young people who are the ‘underserved’, those who are slipping through the net, not accessing the services they require or deem to require (Brackertz, 2007; Doherty *et al*, 2003; Hendry and Polson, 2007), a group largely ignored through EiC provision.

The third strand, involved the introduction of gifted and talented programmes to support a cohort typically representing the top 5-10% of pupils in each school, who excelled in academic subjects, technology, art and sport. Other aspects of the EiC programme included the introduction of specialist schools to develop particular expertise in named subject areas, and beacon schools whose role was to disseminate good practice to other establishments. In addition, City Learning Centres provided centralised ICT facilities. The core strands of EiC were aimed at those young people at the top and bottom ends of academic achievement, and did not offer specific programmes to develop the potential of the ‘invisible’ middle band pupils. Instead, the extra resources were focussed at the extreme ends of the academic and behavioural spectrums or those that would have the biggest impact on school league tables or attendance figures, by allowing other staff to focus input in these key areas, such as those C/D boarder-line pupils at GCSE.

Despite initial spending on the EiC programme of £300 million per year, its impact was described as modest by Machin *et al* (2003) with only limited improvements to pupil achievement and absence rates. However, having personally been involved in local authority evaluations of this programme, it is important to remember the intervention was focussed in areas of perceived deprivation, with long-term and complex social problems. This programme was not a ‘quick fix’ solution, a point acknowledged by Machin *et al* when stating

It may be that the policy will have a greater impact when it has been longer established in schools.

(Machin *et al*, 2003:17)

Further, as identified in the policy debate held by the Council of the European Union regarding the role of education in combating poverty, inequality, and social exclusion it was noted

Education policy alone cannot remedy the situation. What is needed is a careful mix of preventative and remedial cross-sectional policy measures, coupled with a culture of policy evaluation and long term planning in order to ensure success against the vicious cycle of disadvantage.

(Council of European Union, 2010:2)

Education policy is therefore only one in an array of measures at the disposal of the government to combat social exclusion. As Levitas remarks ‘...the political breadth of the idea of social exclusion itself means that a very wide range of policies may bear on the delivery of inclusion’ (Levitas, 2005:168). Further, unsurprisingly with New Labour having shifted towards a ‘Third Way’, the policies adopted to tackle social exclusion did not neatly fit into any of the three discourses previously discussed (Levitas, 2005). Instead, with a move away from the redistributionist approach of the old Left, a combination of doctrines were put forward in attempt to shape the moral and social fabric of society, arguably despite rhetoric to the contrary, New Labour policies created an environment of conformity as opposed to individualism.

The austerity measures taken by the Coalition government to reduce the budget deficit, are both political and ideological in nature, and have shaped their approach towards social inclusion policy, as Van Reenen (2010) argues this has had a disproportionate impact on lower income families, consequently

The government’s tax and benefit reforms mean that (with the exception of the richest 2% of the population) the poor will pay a proportionately larger fraction of their income than the rich.

(Van Reenen, 2010:1)

Elements of the Coalition's policies towards social inclusion can be arguably described as redistributionist in nature, such as the introduction of the Pupil Premium to provide 'additional funding' for more disadvantaged young people in schools. However, this measure is based on Free School Meals which, as discussed earlier, is problematic when used as a mechanism to target funds. Mansell (2010) suggests if '...the effect of the Pupil Premium is to direct more money towards pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds, this must come at the expense on non-disadvantaged homes' (Mansell, 2010:1), which can still have very similar levels of need.

Further, policies under New Labour, such as the EiC programme, were targeted at areas of deprivation as well as individual pupils, thus enabling support for a larger number of disadvantaged children. It can therefore be argued that in an era of budget constraints, the Coalition government has adopted a 'reductionist' rather than a redistributionist approach, coupled together with strong social and moral undertones, as illustrated by Education Secretary Michael Gove's comments in relation to the Pupil Premium,

Schools should be engines of social mobility. They should provide the knowledge, and the tools, to enable talented young people to overcome accidents of birth and the inheritance of disadvantage in order to enjoy greater opportunities.

(DfE, 2010:1)

3.3.4 The development of personalisation under New Labour

In attempting to develop greater social cohesion within society, Blair's modernisation project placed citizens 'at the heart of public services' (DfES, 2004a:4). Indeed, a central strand of this policy was

...to make those defined as excluded from society and work feel included in social and welfare services, where building self-esteem and responding in expressions of emotional vulnerability enables the state to confer recognition and affirmation.

(Ecclestone and Hayes, 2009:11)

This move towards 'personalisation through participation' (Daniels *et al*, 2005:1) was arguably not only a move away from a culture of dependency, but the development of a more inclusive society. To encourage end users to engage more deeply with public services, such as education and health, they were not only asked to help find solutions but also identify the initial problems. Improvements in education and other public services could

only be recognized with the help of end users, due to the complexity of human interactions involved in the use of such provisions (Lownsborough and O’Leary, 2005). If citizens ‘have their say in the design and improvements of the organisations that serve them’ (DfESa, 2004:4); it was argued this would increase the scope and choice available, and to meet the specific and personal needs of the individuals concerned (West-Burnham and Coates, 2007). This approach represented a

...profound change from the prevailing orthodoxy of people having to fit into the systems and structures of a bureaucratic system as best they can.
(West-Burnham and Coates, 2007:9)

The challenge generated by personalisation, of which learning mentoring forms a part, is how to make these practices universal whilst at the same time meeting the needs of the individual, thereby creating a potential for contradiction and tension. For example, in education ‘schools are by definition, generic experiences; in almost every respect schools are organised in terms of standardised experiences’ (West-Burnham and Coates, 2007:9), potentially making it a challenge to meet the needs of individual pupils, a point highlighted by Leadbeater who remarks,

Public service reforms should be user centred. It should be organised to deliver better solutions for the people who use the services. But it must also, in the process, deliver better outcomes for society as a whole.
(Leadbeater, 2004:6)

The origins and motivation behind the drive towards personalisation are complex and can be explored in terms of over-arching ideas such as social cohesion and inclusion, as well as representing a shift in the way in which people are governed (Ledda, 2007). More specifically, it can also represent the marketisation of government funded services (Hartley, 2008), due in part to the mounting dissatisfaction with the public sector, and the development of an increasingly consumer led culture (West-Burnham and Coates, 2007).

3.3.5 The ‘marketisation’ of education

Personalisation within education under New Labour represented a shift in its marketisation, a process begun in the 1980’s under the Conservative government, facilitated by an administrative philosophy of governance referred to as New Public Management (NPM) (Hood, 1991; Hartley, 2008). NPM describes the provision of public services using a

market orientated approach, with a focus on: disaggregation – the splitting up of large bureaucracies and hierarchies into smaller leaner ones; competition between different public services and incentivisation with a reliance of targeting and budgeting by results (Dunleavy, 2010).

The Conservative approach towards the consumer was the delivery of public services through the quasi market, which differs from conventional markets, principally in how supply and demand are managed and influenced (Le Grand and Bartlett, 1993). This market-orientated philosophy was particularly evident in education as noted by West and Pennell (2002) when they remarked;

The Conservative reforms were designed to bring market forces into the school-based education system and make it more consumer –orientated.
(West and Pennell, 2002:207)

Despite rhetoric to the contrary, New Labour ‘embraced the quasi-market with a similar enthusiasm to that of its Conservative predecessors’ (West and Pennell, 2002:206), a view shared by Chitty and Dunford (1999) who remarked

It is possible to argue that New Labour has accepted much of the Conservative Government’s education agenda ...on a broad front, the Conservative education programme has remained remarkably intact.
(Chitty and Dunford, 1999:150)

West and Pennell (2002) argued New Labour effectively only ‘softened the edges of the quasi-market’ (2002:206) and their continuation of the marketisation of public services was not surprising, especially in relation to education, as this was seen as a primary mechanism to drive the economy forward, through the creation of a skilled workforce (Kwegan, 2010; DfEE, 1997; DfEE, 1998). This desire was reflected in the type of mentoring being encouraged under New Labour, namely *engagement mentoring*, with its emphasis on employment related outcomes (Colley, 2003). This type of mentoring was viewed as a means of achieving social inclusion, through the integration of its participants into the labour market, assisted by services such as *Connexions* – the generic youth and mentoring service introduced in 2001 and learning mentor provision in schools to target underachievement and facilitate transition into further education, training and employment.

Implicit in New Labour’s approach to the marketisation of education was its link with economic prosperity, although not all commentators would share the view that such a

positive correlation exists between education and growth for the economy, Wolf (2002) argues the relationship is ‘... far less direct than our politicians suppose’ (Wolf, 2002: 14-15). Indeed, the wider benefits of education are not necessarily captured in economic data. Temple (2001) argues

One could probably construct a viable case for much educational expenditure entirely based on its implications for personal development, independent of any productivity effects ...For policy makers who wish to raise the growth rate, policy on education remains a natural place to look, but it is by no means a panacea.

(Temple, 2001:90)

Despite the apparent continuation of certain aspects of Tory education policy, differences did begin to emerge under New Labour, especially in relation to the notion of consumer and consumer culture. Hartley (2008) argues, under New Labour consumer culture began to focus more on variety and differences, thereby introducing a new kind of consumer,

...not a ‘passive consumer’ who selects from what is on offer, but an ‘active’ user who ‘shapes’ service provision from below, thereby weakening both the consumer-provider nexus and that producer-capture’ so abhorred by economic neo-liberals.

(Hartley, 2008:366)

The development of this new kind of *consumer* raises the question – are the *needs* of such communities, social groups or individuals being autonomously defined, or are they to some greater or lesser extent being shaped by the systems including market forces, private companies, corporations, governmental media and cultural institutions set up to serve them?

Hartley’s description would tend to suggest a shift in consumer ‘need’. Slater argues

Statements of need are by their very nature profoundly bound up with the assumptions about how people would, could or should live in society: needs are not only social but also political in that they involve statements about social interests and projects

(Slater, 1997:1)

This shaping of need is reflected in the work of mentors, particularly those involved in engagement mentoring whose role is to facilitate ‘...re-engagement by altering young people’s values, attitudes, beliefs and behaviour in order to engage their personal commitment to become employable’ (Colley, 2003:20). However, creating a skilled workforce and reintegrating disaffected young people into mainstream education is not the sole purpose of mentoring in the same way that according to Weiss (1995),

Education does not have to be justified on the basis of its effect on labour productivity...students are not taught civics, or art, or music solely in order

to improve their labour productivity, but rather to enrich their lives and make them better citizens.

(Weiss, 1995:151)

One explanation to understand the rise of ‘consumer culture’ within education can be described as a consequence of ‘liquid modernity,’ resulting in a departure from the old social order to the creation of a ‘...new and indeed unprecedented setting for the educational process’ (Bauman, 2005:303). In addition to the formal changes to education created through the legislative framework, Bauman argues, the nature of schools and learning is being shaped by changes to society in general, being transformed ‘...from the ‘solid’ to the ‘liquid’ phase of modernity’ (Bauman, 2005:303).

Bauman argues society has become more of a ‘network’ rather than a ‘structure’ as it is ‘...perceived and treated as a matrix of random connections and disconnections, and of essentially infinite volume of possible permutations’ (2005:304); consequently individuals are required to possess different sets of skills and assets to respond to the increasing complex array of opportunities. If, as Bauman argues, individuals are exposed to ‘...the vagaries of commodities and labour markets inspires and promotes divisions not unity’ (2005:304), the need for more tailored public services is likely to increase, in turn, this may itself produce a more fragmented society, which subsequently fuels the need for more personalised services and so on.... In other words, as complexity increases within society, individuals are likely to require more personalised support to navigate such conditions, which in turn creates unique situations of its own, thus perpetuating societal complexity even further.

Bauman argues the impact of the ‘liquid’ society has been important in relation to education, arguing one of the most significant shifts has been the change in emphasis from ‘teaching’ to ‘learning’, the trajectory of which becoming the responsibility of individual students. Whilst this may be true, the change in relationship between teaching and learning is not a new phenomenon that can be solely attributed to the development of a more ‘liquid society’. The roots of research and concepts aiming at a more active role of the learner, including participatory approaches and new forms of teaching and learning go back to the 1960s. What is new, is the ‘...more consumer/client centred culture in today’s society [which has] provided a climate where the use of student centred learning is thriving’

(O'Neill and McMahon, 2005:34). However, 'student centred learning', as O'Neill and McMahon explain, is a widely used term, and a precise definition is hard to establish, having been associated with: *flexible learning* with an emphasis towards e learning (Taylor, 2000, Shurville *et al*, 2008); *experiential learning* and *education*, where learning arises out of reflection on experience (Kolb, 1984, Jacques *et al*, 1991) and *self-directed learning*, where an individual is in charge of their own learning trajectory (Lowery, 1989; Knowles, 1975) as well as the concept of *personalised learning* itself, of which learning mentoring in supporting pupils beyond the classroom plays a significant part.

This move to a more personalised approach to public services is now explored through selected education policies brought in during the late 1990s and into the new millennium. The focus is on policies which not only introduced learning mentors into schools but also shaped the development of this role.

3.4 Policies

So far in this chapter, the social and political contexts which created an environment where a more personalised approach to public services was deemed necessary and encouraged have been explored. Starting with Excellence in Cities – this is not only a significant policy in that it established the role of mentors in schools, it can also be regarded as a forerunner to the New Labour government's personalised learning programme, through the identification and targeting of specific support at individual pupils to help them overcome challenges which were restricting their educational outcomes.

3.4.1 Excellence in Cities

The Excellence in Cities (EiC) programme (DCSF, 2008) was launched by the New Labour in 1999 to improve educational outcomes for secondary schools in disadvantaged areas and promote social inclusion (Ofsted, 2003). The origins of this initiative follows recognition in the White Paper - *Excellence in Schools* (DfEE, 1997), that to overcome the persistent problems of low achievement and issues associated with social exclusion, there needs to be a move towards 'inclusive schooling which provides a broad, flexible and

motivating education that recognises the different talents of all children and delivers excellence for everyone' (Sims and Stoney, 2002:2). This precedes the earlier report by Ofsted (1993) which identified an increasing gap between the average attainment levels nationally and those in socially disadvantaged areas.

EiC was introduced in phases over a number of years into different cities across England. At its peak over 1000 primary schools and 1000 secondary schools were involved, through 57 different local authorities (Wood, 2005). In an expansion of the programme a small number of schools in 'pockets of deprivation' were also selected outside the designated areas of the main programme, creating *Excellence Clusters*. These *Clusters* were different from the main EiC phases, as not all schools within a particular Local Education Authority (LEA) were targeted, only those in areas of perceived deprivation. Whereas, in England within the chosen areas for the three main phases of EiC programme all LEA maintained schools were affected. Consequently, Machin *et al* (2007) argue

Since there is considerable heterogeneity in the degree of disadvantage and school performance within LEA's, the policy does not cover every disadvantaged or poorly performing school in England

(Machin *et al*, 2007:4)

Conversely, in the same way that Machin *et al* (2007) suggests that not all disadvantaged schools are covered by the EiC programme, there were schools within the targeted cities that could be regarded as neither 'disadvantaged' or 'failing'. The existence of the EiC policy raises ethical questions in relation to the allocation of resources, a point raised by Machin *et al* (2007) who asks

Do resources matter? This question remains controversial in the economics of education and many studies find no relationship between school resources and educational outcomes. Yet improving educational performance, especially of 'hard to reach' children, is a key area of government policy.

(Machin *et al*, 2007: i)

Plewis and Goldstein (1998) in their critique of the 1997 White Paper – *Excellence in Schools*, which paved the way for the EiC programme, identified the difficulties in the allocation of resources in 'fair' and 'just' way. Plewis and Goldstein (1998) remark

A redistributive policy of allocating relatively more resources to those groups identified as disadvantaged is sensible in principle, but the difficulty lies in deciding how much more, relatively the disadvantaged are to

receive... When overall resources are scarce and no new resources for education are being made available the removal of resources from some schools or areas into others may have an overall deleterious effect.

(Plewis and Goldstein, 1998:18)

Concerns regarding the allocation of resources between schools can also be applied within such organisations, as Machin *et al* (2007) argue the ‘...effects of the policy is highly heterogeneous for different schools and different groups of pupils within schools’ (2007:25). Overall, schools in EiC areas generally made greater progress than those in non EiC areas, with extra resources creating improvements in both mathematics and school attendance levels (Machin *et al*, 2007). Due to the diverse nature of the schools involved in the EiC programme and the targeting of resources at a range of pupils, including gifted and talented as well as those who are not fully engaged with the education system, Machin *et al* (2007) conclude:

Our findings show that additional resources can matter, and that education policies can help to turn around the fortunes of poorly performing inner city schools... the extra resources seem less effective in securing achievement gains for ‘hard to reach’ children for whom different and probably more intensive and earlier policy treatments may be required.

(Machin *et al*, 2007:26)

Although EiC ceased to be centrally funded and run since April 2006, its legacy remains, especially through the continuation of the learning mentor role in many schools. Learning mentors ‘...provide the link between academic and pastoral support, playing a vital role in the efforts to improve achievement levels’ (Morley, 2007:1). Learning mentors typically are not based within the confines of one classroom, but have a role throughout school, acting as an interface with home. Learning mentors are now recognised as a new occupational group with The National Occupational Standards for Learning Development and Support Services describing the role ‘...as support and guidance to children, young people and those engaged with them, by removing the barriers to learning in order to promote effective participation, enhance individual learning, raise aspirations and achieve full potential’ (Morley, 2007:1). Indeed, it is through such descriptions that the role of mentoring, in supporting a child’s wider needs, can be understood and its potential contribution to New Labour’s personalised learning programme recognised.

3.4.2 Personalised learning

Against a policy background aimed at promoting diversity and flexibility to meet the need and talents of all (Barber, 1996), personalised learning was heralded as the ‘Big Idea’ (Pollard *et al*, 2004). It was viewed as having the potential to provide more ‘choice’ in public services; transform the experience of disadvantaged children (Chief Secretary to the Treasury, 2003) and galvanise professional energies in schools through its focus on learners and learning’ (Pollard *et al*, 2004:4).

The term personalised learning is used in conjunction with a variety of issues including: the use of technology and e learning within schools (Mosely and Higgins, 1999), pupil expectations of learning (Kirriemuir and Mc Farlane, 2004) and pupil creativity (DfEE, 1999) – whilst others would describe it as a term to address a ‘whole host of disparate issues’ (Best, 2007a), including differentiation, inclusion and standards. For the purposes of this research, I am referring to personalised learning, as the concept introduced in 2003 by David Miliband, and brought to wider public attention by Tony Blair at the Labour Party Conference later that year (Miliband, 2003b; Blair, 2003), as part wider and more fundamental reforms to public services delivered through a personalisation agenda (Besley, 2004; Leadbeater, 2004). Unlike the individualisation of services, personalisation was deemed to be a far more socially-orientated idea (Campbell *et al*, 2007).

The concept of personalised learning, when mentioned by Blair could be described as ‘... merely a seductive slogan in search of meaning,’ (Beadle, 2006). In an attempt to offer a more developed explanation, David Miliband, in his speech, at the National College for School Leadership, said

The goal is clear. It is what the Prime Minister described in his party conference speech as personalised learning; an education system where assessment, curriculum, teaching style, and out of hours provision are all designed to discover and nurture the unique talents of every single pupil.

(Miliband, 2003a:1)

However, as Johnson (2004) argues ‘The goal may have been clear, but the boundaries of the concept were not obvious’ (Johnson, 2004:2).

Upon initial examination, the term ‘personalised learning’ would appear a relatively straightforward concept

Personalised learning demands that every aspect of teaching and support is designed around a pupil's needs.

(Miliband, 2003b:1)

As Paludan (2006) comments, it is a term that is hard to argue with and could indeed be considered unnecessary, remarking

There is something both politically correct and inherently redundant about the concept of 'personalised learning' in the sense that it would be strange to meet anyone who was opposed to it...it seems superfluous to attached the label 'personalised' before education.

(Paludan, 2006:1)

It became apparent that the reality of personalised learning was far more complex than Miliband's definition would imply, (Best, 2007a; Leadbeater, 2004; Hargreaves, 2004) especially when considered in terms of its multi policy agenda (Maguire *et al*, 2011), and the ideological principles behind the concept, particularly the different assumptions made about the role of users and professionals in the creation of the public good (Campbell *et al*, 2007). Leadbeater (2004a) argues the nature of the personalisation is dependent on the extent to which the state creates a platform or environment in which people can become co-producers of the good in question. As Campbell *et al* (2007) explain the level of involvement will determine the form such personalisation takes:

...providing better access and some limited voice about services (shallow personalisation), sustaining improvements in the existing systems; or, a more 'disruptive' innovation in which users become 'designers and paymasters' of services (deep personalisation).

(Campbell *et al*, 2007:136)

Learning mentoring can be described as an example of the model of 'deep personalisation,' in that:

...professionals become advisers and brokers of services, not providing the services themselves so much as helping clients generate pathways through the available range of provision that meet their particular needs...deep personalisation would be particularly appropriate in services which are face to face, or involve a long term relationship or depend on direct engagement between professionals and users.

(Campbell *et al*, 2007: 137)

Although the work with some pupils can be on a long term basis, the delivery of the professional services that have been brokered and co-produced tend to be transitional in nature, due to the natural time boundaries of working with someone in a school environment.

In an attempt to develop a greater understanding of personalised learning and explore what it might look like in practice, David Hargreaves developed the ‘9 gateways Model’ (2004) shown in Figure 3.2.

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Figure 3.2 The nine gateways to personalised learning (Specialist Schools and Academies Trust, 2005:2)

As work on the model developed it became apparent that the inter-relationship between the gateways was far more complex, consequently, Hargreaves focused the nine gateways into the ‘Four Deeps’ model as shown in Figure 3.3. The first of the deeps was ‘deep learning’ which combined the first three gateways, namely student voice, assessment for learning and learning to learn. Fundamental to the idea of personalised learning is how knowledge is transferred and skills developed. The term ‘deep learning’ is not a new concept and was first introduced by Marton and Säljö (1976; 1976a) along with the corresponding term ‘surface learning’. According to Atherton (2005)

Although learners may be classified as “deep” or “surface”, they are not attributes of individuals: one person may use both approaches at different times, although he or she may have a preference for one or another.

(Atherton, 2005:1)

Figure 3.3 The four 'deeps' model (Specialist Schools and Academies Trust, 2005:4)

Linked with deep and surface learning is the concept of motivation. Hargreaves views pupil motivation and commitment to learning as an essential to raising achievement. Deep learning tends to be associated with intrinsic motivation and surface with extrinsic, although the contrary can also be true. Atherton (2005) also identifies a third approach to learning, known as 'achieving' or 'strategic', which involves the acquisition of technique to improve performance and in turn raise achievement; in other words 'a very well-organised form of the surface approach' (Atherton, 2005:1). According to Fink (2005) personalised learning means

...a focus on learning, deep learning, learning for understanding, learning for meaning and giving people time.

(Fink, 2005:21)

Closely linked to the concept of 'deep learning' is the second component of Hargreaves' model, that of 'deep experience'. Fielding (2007) explains, 'the education system cannot reach all pupils unless structures, the curriculum and pedagogy take account of relationships and human dignity' (Fielding, 2007:1). Here Hargreaves explores how the curriculum and new technologies can ensure 'all students are fully engaged in their learning'. He acknowledges that

...whereas there are many measurable indicators of student underachievement, there are no agreed metrics of indicators of disengagement, even though this is often at the root of poor learning, underachievement and disruptive behaviour.

(Hargreaves, 2006:3)

If as Hargreaves suggests, engagement is seen as the key to foster better relations between pupils and staff, leading to the development of individuals as learners, this component of personalised learning could perhaps be more appropriately entitled as ‘deep engagement.’

Williamson (2006) argues ‘deep support’, the third component in Hargreaves model, ‘demands that schools and teachers should collaborate with other institutions, agencies and people to secure deep learning for students,’ (2006:2) through mentoring, coaching, advice and support. However, noticeable by its absence in the literature surrounding ‘deep support,’ is the involvement of parents in the learning process. Parents need to be fully engaged with personalised learning, as they too are stakeholders in the process, along with teachers, support staff, outside agencies as well as the pupils themselves. Tarleton (2004) reinforces this approach by saying ‘Personalisation means integrating parents as true partners, both as informed consumers and active contributors’ (2004:4).

‘Deep Leadership’, the last of the ‘four deeps’ was seen by Hargreaves to underpin all the gateways. Without this component, personalised learning could not be successfully resourced or implemented. Initially leadership was not made one of the gateways, as it was viewed to be an essential element in all the other gateways. According to Tarleton (2005), one of the greatest challenges faced by leaders involved in personalised learning, is one of attitude

We need to find ways of turning risk taking and accountability mechanisms into engines of change rather than barriers to progress.

(Tarleton, 2005:7)

At the same time Hargreaves was developing his own interpretation of personalised learning, the then Department for Education and Skills (2004a) in its own model (Figure 3.4), identified five key components. The first three elements related to academic pedagogy and curriculum, the other two concerned school culture and environment, with a focus on the removal of barriers to learning to enable the involvement and achievement of all, where mentoring was identified as playing a significant role.

The five components of personalised learning

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Figure 3.4 The five components of personalised learning (Standards Site DCSF, 2008c:1)

Unlike Hargreaves model where there was a clear consultative process, the basis for the development of the five components is less obvious. However, according to the National College of School Leadership (NCSL) (2005) the formulation of the five components draws upon the work of constructivist and social constructivist research, which focuses on the process of learning, including the impact of social interaction and previous experience. As a consequence, learning is not only understood as an individual but also a social process, being shaped by prior experience and environmental factors. Importantly, learning ability is not regarded as fixed ‘...but capable of development with the support of others’ (NCSL, 2005:29). Implicit in this understanding of learning is the influence of factors beyond the classroom, such as: parental involvement; learning in the community and the co-ordination of services both in and outside schools to support the whole child, a key consideration in the development of learning mentor practice.

Pykett (2010) argues that under New Labour, personalisation was not

...founded on a moral purpose of education but is instead generative of a moral imperative. The ethical purposes of public policy are not being replaced by the economic drivers of neoliberalism. Rather, public policy is creating new moralised rationalities. This is achieved through the reconstruction of the learner.

(Pykett, 2010:4)

The assertions made by Pykett (2010) highlight the complexity surrounding the personalisation of learning and the fact that it is still emerging. Under the Coalition government personalised learning remains an ‘idea that is struggling for an identity’ (Watson, 2012:1) and continues to be a

...reaction against the ‘one size that fits all’ model and accepts the importance, identity, and needs of individual learners and that they learn at different paces and respond differently to their learning environments.

(Watson, 2012:1)

3.4.3 Every Child Matters

At the same time that personalised learning was being developed and the EiC programme was taking place, the desire for improved outcomes for children and young people was also being considered under the policy direction of Every Child Matters (ECM) (Chief Secretary to the Treasury, 2003). It is important to mention this specific agenda in conjunction with personalised learning and EiC, due to the significant overlap of desired outcomes of each of these policy areas. The five outcomes of ECM (be healthy, stay safe, enjoy and achieve, make a positive contribution and achieve economic wellbeing) can be described as universal ambitions for every child and young person, in the same way personalisation of learning is equally desirable for all those attending school (Paludan, 2006). In addition to the 5 core outcomes, 25 specific aims for children and young people were also identified along with the support needed for parents, carers and families to achieve these aims (see Table 3.1). The outcomes of ECM can be described as mutually reinforcing, for example, children and young people are likely to thrive and learn, when they are healthy, safe and engaged and the evidence shows that educational achievement is one of the most effective route out of poverty, although it cannot on its own overcome the effects of economic inequality (Hirsch, 2007a).

In response to the inquiry headed by Lord Laming into the tragic death of Victoria Climbié in 2000 and a report from the Joint Chief Inspectors (Department of Health, 2002), the government put forward a range of measures in the Green Paper ‘*Every Child Matters*’ (2003) (Chief Secretary to the Treasury, 2003), to reform and improve the services supporting children’s care and well-being. The Green Paper not only highlighted concerns

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Table 3.1 Every Child Matters – outcomes, aims and support requirements (DfES, 2004:9)

about child protection, but also the desire to ensure every child reached their full potential, with an emphasis on raising school standards. The debate generated by the Green Paper resulted in the 2004 Children Act, providing the ‘legislative spine for developing more effective and accessible services focused around the needs of children, young people and families’ (DCSF, 2009:1). Reforms in the Act become known under the ‘brand’ *Every*

Child Matters and were described as ‘one of the most significant changes in children’s local services in living memory’ (Lownsborough and O’Leary, 2005:11).

The overall aim of the Act was to encourage integrated planning, commissioning and delivery of services, through improvements in multi-disciplinary working and the establishment of a duty of care to co-operate, supported by the creation of Children’s Trusts. The legislation was described as ‘...enabling rather than prescriptive’ providing local authorities with ‘a considerable amount of flexibility in the way they implement its provisions’ (DCSF, 2008a:1). It is this approach that is directly comparable with personalised learning, as both are examples of polyphonies (Maguire *et al*, 2011), in other words multi-dimensional policies that simultaneously combine components from an array of different areas. Due to the complexity of the components involved in the delivery of both policy areas, and the flexibility of approaches adopted, it is unsurprising that both policies became ‘...hybridised, borrowed, cut and pasted... [in a] complex process of enactment’ (Maguire *et al*, 2011:1). The situation in EiC schools had the potential to become even more complex; whilst learning mentors provided schools with extra capacity, their involvement in creating support beyond the classroom, potentially added to the complexity, by creating an additional ‘layer’ of input, requiring further co-ordination and management from within schools.

The challenge faced by providers of local public services, was to implement policies and establish practices, that demonstrated children and young people had made progress against the five key outcomes of ECM. Outcomes which the government would identify as inter-dependant, a view supported by Max-Neef *et al* (1989), who argue

Human needs must be understood as a system: that is all human needs are inter-related and interactive.

(Max-Neef *et al*, 1989:19)

The relationship between education and well-being was central to policy development in this area (Noddings, 2003; 2005). Despite a backdrop of child protection failings and numerous social challenges including: high levels of truancy (Paton, 2011; 2008); increasing health inequalities faced by those in areas of social deprivation (Reading, 1997; Acheson, 1998); and a damning report from UNICEF (2007) placing the UK in the bottom third of OECD countries in relation to child well-being, one has to question the real

impetus behind this policy. Whilst it appears to promote ‘social justice’ and wellbeing, with an emphasis on equality of opportunity and outcome, the underlying economic agenda behind ECM becomes apparent. Policies such as ECM could be viewed as a means of maximising national attainment levels, by focusing on the needs of the individual, to create a workforce with the necessary skills base (Johnson, 2004).

Nationally, the New Labour government argued that, whilst positive outcomes for young people, their families and communities remain at the ‘heart of the process’ (DfES, 2004:6), local change will be more effective if established within a ‘supportive’ framework. ‘Supportive’ in the sense of targets based on public service agreements linked to local performance indicators, with the criteria for local assessment and inspection. Indeed, on the surface this approach would appear to represent an example of ‘localism’, in the sense that ‘...services provided closer to their point of use can be targeted better and can be cheaper and more efficient than if provided by central government’ (Jones, 2010:1). Stuart argues

The aim of integrated working was to ensure that no children fell through the gaps between services, and to reduce duplication of work by multiple services in a culture of increasingly high stakes accountability.

(Stuart, 2012:1)

Under the Coalition however, through the Education Act 2011, the duty on schools and colleges to engage with Children’s Trust partnership arrangements was removed; instead schools and colleges were encouraged to develop the types of partnership which make most sense locally. However, without a legislative structure to support such arrangements, the accountability and sustainability of these changes remains uncertain.

Despite an array of tools that were mandated to facilitate integrated working for example, the CAF process designed to collect information about children from different services, and the development of the ‘lead professional’ role to help co-ordinate and champion services; the challenges of multi professional working should not be underestimated. Working across different departments, organisations, agencies, partnerships, sectors and networks requires individuals to work with others of differing professional identities, which can cause tension and conflict, as they have their own professional backgrounds and discourses with their ‘own terms and conditions and day-to-day practice based in their construct of ‘childhood’ and ‘youth’ (Stuart, 2012:1). To facilitate multi agency working

Strong forms of agency may be required to help people who need to collaborate across organisational boundaries, to find moments of stability as they move in and out of different settings without the protection of institutional shelter.

(Edwards, 2005: 168)

To create such an environment to assist inter-professional working is not without its challenges (Edwards, 2008; Hartley, 2007), especially in locations with rigid bureaucracies and procedures. Edwards (2008) argues

...new work orders of collaboration marked by notions of 'inter' and 'co' are producing new 'affinity' or 'solution' spaces which do not fit easily with, for example, the pedagogic patterns of curriculum delivery and social order in schools.

(Edwards, 2008:8)

Edwards (2008) describes the boundary space between schools as academic mechanisms and other support services as emergent, with the potential to create heterarchical structures at the interface, which can be described as a 'third space environment' (Whitchurch 2008, Gordon and Whitchurch, 2010). Edwards (2008) argues this space has become important as '...expectations that schools would contribute to preventing social exclusion became increasingly apparent' (2008:18). Schools have been responding to these demands in part through workforce remodelling and reforms and the introduction of roles such as learning mentors who it could be argued have started to occupy the 'third space environment'.

Edwards (2006) argues

...new forms of practice are being required which call for a capacity to work with other practitioners and draw on resources that may be distributed across systems to support one's actions.

(Edwards, 2005:168)

Working with others both within an organisation and beyond its boundaries is an important aspect of the work of learning mentors, as Goodwin (2005) comments

Everywhere...we found that close relationships acted as important 'social glue' helping people deal with uncertainties of their changing world.

(Goodwin, 2005: 615)

Edwards (2005) argues the role of working with others is particularly important to the 'mobile and dislocated communities of late capitalism' where boundaries are often unclear and hard to maintain, despite the fact individuals have the opportunity to be connected as

never before. Distributed expertise, which is created as a consequence of greater flexibility in working practices across systems and organisations, ‘raises questions about professional knowledge, team working, collaboration, professional boundaries and identities’ (Edwards, 2005:172). Engeström and Middleton (1996) consider the development of distributed expertise through the co-operative and fluid working practices in identifying tasks and developing appropriate solutions using the combined skill and talent of those within and across systems, rather than the reliance on a single individual, which has become a key feature in the development of learning mentor working practices both within school and beyond its boundaries.

3.4.4 Work force reforms

A significant change that has impacted on the format and delivery of support services and care to pupils has been an expansion of the number of non-teaching staff now working in schools. This increase can be traced back to: the implementation of the National Agreement on Teacher Workloads (DfES, 2003) and associated workforce remodelling, the replacement of management allowances with Teaching and Learning Responsibilities (TLRs), and the introduction of new roles into schools as a result of specific government initiatives, such as EiC.

Raising Standards and Tackling Workload: A National Agreement (DfES, 2003), to give it its full title and hence referred to as the National Workload Agreement was viewed as part of the reform process of the education system, intended to lead to improvements in the teaching and learning of individuals and their subsequent achievements. According to Hammersley-Fletcher and Adnett (2009) the remodelling generated by this agreement

...was primarily designed to reduce constraints on school level decision making and enable schools more freedom to develop their own solutions to meeting the government’s key objectives of raising standards.

(Hammersley-Fletcher and Adnett, 2009:181)

The National Workload Agreement, signed by the government, employers and unions, with the exception of the National Union of Teachers (NUT), was intended to improve teachers’ conditions of service. Smethem (2007) identified, a number of factors likely to impact on teacher retention rates and levels of motivation within the profession including: stress, relationships with other staff members and the culture of the organisation; but it was

concerns over workload and pupil behaviour that were identified as the main contributory factors in attracting and retaining qualified staff (DfES, 2002a; Hastings, 2002; Smithers and Robinson, 2003; Thomas *et al*, 2004; Gunter *et al*, 2005). Taking into account problems associated with teacher recruitment and retention (Gunter *et al*, 2007; Gunter, 2005) and the age profile of the teaching population, (Woodward, 2003; Butt and Lance, 2005), together with evidence from the influential PricewaterhouseCoopers study into teacher workload (2001) and the School Teachers Review Body (2000, 2002), the National Workload Agreement was seen as a means of reworking professional roles in schools (Howes, 2003).

The Training and Development Agency for Schools describes the implementation of a National Workload Agreement for teaching staff as, ‘representing important gains in their conditions of service’ and as a means to ‘enhance professionalism’ (TDA, 2008:1) through the elimination of duties that have little or nothing to do with their core area of expertise. The key features of such changes include:

- fewer administrative tasks
- improved work life balance
- reductions in providing cover for absent colleagues
- guaranteed planning, preparation and assessment time
- time set aside for leadership and managerial responsibilities

(INTEC, 2005:2)

It was recognised that for such changes to take place, it would have a substantial impact on the role of support staff.

The contractual changes set out in this document [the National Agreement] will not be delivered unless schools deploy more support staff in extended roles as a means of releasing the extra time for teachers and reducing their workload.

(DfES, 2003:2)

The legislative framework to support these changes was established in the Education Act 2002, in which the involvement of support staff in the teaching and learning process was regulated for the first time. Under the Act ‘specified teaching work’ was identified as: planning, preparing and delivering lessons and courses; assessing and reporting on pupil development, progress and attainment; and the marking of work. Such a list however, does not necessarily ‘convey the degree of challenge and complexity of different learning situations’ (DfES, 2002:20). Indeed, the teaching activities identified in the Act are not

restricted to those with Qualified Teacher Status (QTS), but can be carried out by a range of adults working within schools, subject to a system of supervision.

The Education Act 2002 and the National Workforce Agreement, not only freed teachers from routine administrative tasks, giving them protected time to carry out their teaching duties, it expanded the role of support staff in the classroom, arguably blurring the professional boundaries for teaching and non-teaching staff alike; a point reinforced by Rothman, who argues

...modern occupations are embedded in complex social, political and economic networks of individuals and groups. The form and content of occupational groups is emergent and dynamic, reflecting the outcome of interaction among these units.

(Rothman, 1979: 495-496)

The National Workload Agreement also led to changes to the School Teachers' Pay and Conditions Document, issued under the provisions of the Education Act 2002. This saw the introduction of Teaching and Learning Responsibilities (TLRs) in place of Management Allowances (MAs). Following the National Workload Agreement the old system of MAs was no longer seen as fit for purpose, as evidence existed that 'some allowances had been awarded for admin tasks that had little to do with teaching and learning' (Cleaver, 2006:2). Management allowances were intended for those teachers who undertook 'responsibilities beyond those common to the majority of teachers' (DfES, 2003a:64), yet at the time of reform, over 70% of teachers in secondary schools were in receipt of an allowance, (Cleaver, 2006). Thus, TLR's were introduced to recognise classroom teachers undertaking significant and specified responsibilities.

Wider workforce reform not only had implications for teachers' professional identity, but also the roles and responsibilities of all staff in schools in England and Wales (DfES, 2003). Indeed, the NUT viewed the recruitment of staff without Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) as damaging for the profession by reducing its status (Slater, 2006); although as Howes (2003) argues, there is also a danger that such reforms fail to do justice to the work of non-teachers as potentially

...support staff are portrayed first and foremost as a means of releasing teachers from the 'shackles of excessive and inappropriate workload.

(Howes, 2003:147)

Changes to working practices and professional expectations of teachers, have resulted in issues of professionalism and the creation of 'new social identities' (Ball, 2004) within education, being '...contested at both the level of policy and of practice' (Sachs, 2001:149). The debate within the teaching profession, as to what constitutes 'professionalism' has become according to Sachs a '...site of struggle between various interest groups concerned with the broader enterprise of education,' (Sachs, 2001:149). De Finzio (2009) suggests teachers need help in shifting the perception of the role from one of expertise in a given subject area, to one where an increased 'understanding and application of pedagogy' becomes the foundation of professional identity. Day (2003) suggests 'teachers now work within cultures in which their careers are ever more dependent upon external definitions of quality, progress and achievement for their success' (Day, 2003:1), impacting not only on their own role, but the professional identities of others around them.

Much discussion surrounds the notion of what constitutes a profession, with numerous definitions existing (Clarke and Newman, 1997; Seddon, 1997), shaped by different academic and ideological perspectives. According to Furlong *et al* (2000),

It is because professionals face complex and unpredictable situations that they need a specialised body of knowledge; if they are to apply that knowledge, it is argued that they need the autonomy to make their own judgements. Given that they have autonomy, it is essential that they act with responsibility – collectively they need to develop appropriate professional values.

(Furlong *et al*, 2000:5)

Using the definition put forward by Furlong *et al* (2000), it can be argued that it is amongst non-teaching staff that the emergence of new professions can be witnessed, whilst the professional status of more established groups such as teachers is being diminished.

However, Andrews (2006) recognises the difficulty in describing accurately and appropriately those staff in schools who are not teachers. The term 'non-teacher,' he argues portrays such colleagues in the negative, whilst the term 'support staff' is an inadequate term that does not fully reflect their contribution to the school (Andrews, 2006:31). Blatchford *et al* (2009) use seven different categories to classify the work of 'support staff in schools': teaching assistant (TA) equivalent; pupil welfare; other pupil support; technicians; administrative staff; facilities and site staff. This classification clearly demonstrates the diversity of the roles described using the generic term of 'support staff', with only some specifically associated with pastoral care. Rhodes (2006), in his paper

regarding the construction of professional identity in school learning mentors acknowledges

...a plethora of terms has been used to describe the various roles of staff directly supporting the learning of pupils in school, but who are not employed as qualified teachers.

(Rhodes, 2006:158)

However, not only are distinctions to be made between different roles within schools, but within sectors, for example, learning mentors are not a homogenous group,

There is no typical profile of a learning mentor. Mentors have a wide range of experience and qualifications.

(Ofsted, 2003:46)

Goddard and Ryall (2002) raise the issue of clarity of role definition and job descriptions in relation to teaching assistants, although equally applicable to other non-teaching staff, as an essential component in helping those concerned maximise their potential. Without such clarity, Quicke argues 'teaching assistants are often left in an ambiguous position with no clear boundaries' (2003:72). The issue of identity is made no less clear cut as a result of the range of complex issues associated with the remodelling agenda, including: legislative change; challenges to traditional practices both in schools and beyond through multi-agency working (Leadbetter *et al*, 2007); the weakening of job boundaries; technological developments (Butt and Lance, 2005), and the desire for increased productivity (Miliband, 2003a).

Collarbone (2005) describes remodelling not as an initiative, but in terms of the change it represents, with the scale reaching beyond the limitation of schools

Fundamentally, remodelling is about... the underpinning systematic nature of the requirement to meet the demands for change across the whole system, not just in education, that has led to the development of this process and the level of investment to help make it work.

(Collarbone, 2005:78)

The number of staff employed in schools without QTS increased significantly in the first decade of the 21st Century (DCSF, 2008b; Blatchford *et al*, 2009; Davies, 2010). This increase was attributed to a combination of factors: the increase of pupils identified with Special Educational Needs (SEN) being taught in mainstream schools; new initiatives such as EiC; changes in overall school budgets and the implementation of planning, preparation and assessment (PPA) time following workforce reforms (Blatchford *et al*, 2009). This

period of increase not only resulted in the expansion of those employed to work alongside teachers in the classroom, but the introduction of new roles being established outside the classroom, such as learning mentors (Lodge, 2006). This expansion also saw the employment of staff without QTS into roles traditionally undertaken by teachers, such as pastoral management positions (Andrews, 2006). The re-designation of pastoral roles from teachers to those without QTS can require significant changes to the structure of the pastoral system itself, (Lodge 2006; Ofsted 2007; Davies, 2010) and requires adaptability of the participants, as it requires new ways of thinking, acting and operating (Schalk *et al*, 1998) - key features of organisational change. Reaction to such change is likely to vary, for as Duck (1993) describes it is ‘...inescapably and intensely personal, because it requires people to do something different’ (1993:109). However, inertia or resistance to change should not necessarily be regarded as negative concepts, for not all change is inherently beneficial to an organisation and all those influenced by it. According to Morrison (1998) a key factor for successful implementation of change, is for those responsible for implementation to identify ‘...participants perceptions, attitudes, values, beliefs and opinions’ (1998:15).

As has already been shown the workforce supporting the needs of children and young people is made up of a diverse range of occupations and professions, each with their own identity, and often with roles and responsibilities that are associated with more than one employment sector or agency. Despite the challenges, the development of such a workforce however, creates ‘new possibilities for action’ Ball (2004:144).

3.5 Organisations

The environment in which learning mentoring has developed in schools has not only been shaped by the policies, initiatives and political decision making of both New Labour and latterly the Coalition governments, but also by organisations providing additional services to schools to assist in supporting the needs of young people.

3.5.1 Connexions

The Connexions service was launched by the Department for Education and Skills in April 2001. The introduction of this generic youth support and mentoring service, resulted in a wholesale transformation of the delivery careers advice and guidance and youth services within schools and the wider community (Colley, 2003). The service aimed to provide integrated advice, guidance and access to personal development opportunities for 13 to 19 year olds in England and to help them make a smooth transition to adulthood and working life (McNicol, 2005). Connexions acted as a conduit between schools and a range of organisations working with and helping to support young people including: youth services, voluntary and community groups, education welfare services, training providers, police, local educational authorities, youth offending teams and employers. Connexions staff worked in schools as well as advice centres, to help young people think about their future and make plans, with personal advisors facilitating this process. The exact nature of the work carried out by Connexions personal advisors who were based in schools, varied depending on the requirements of the organisation and the young people with whom they worked, in some, the focus was mainly on careers advice and guidance, whilst in others a greater emphasis was placed on engagement activities and targeted intervention work.

One of the key aims of the Connexions service was to target those at risk of being socially excluded with a focus on reducing the numbers of young people not in education, employment or training (NEETs). However, in a report produced by the Panel on Fair Access to the Professions (2009), the Connexions service was severely criticised because

...it seems to have focused on the disadvantaged minority to the detriment of the aspirational majority.

(Panel on the Fair Access to the Professions, 2009:7)

Despite the presence of Connexions to offer a 'one-stop shop' for information, advice and guidance (IAG) in relation to careers, in many schools this was being provided by full-time teachers and not careers professionals, consequently, the Panel for Fair Access concluded, Connexions due to its focus on

...on the minority of vulnerable young people is distracting it from offering careers advice and guidance to the majority of young people.

(Panel on the Fair Access to the Professions, 2009:34)

Watts (2010) argues with much of the work of Connexions being focused on those at risk of dropping out they ‘...seriously eroded the extent and quality of the universal careers provision for all young people’ (2010:1).

In light of these criticisms the Coalition government transferred responsibility for careers guidance for young people to schools. In parallel, an all age careers service known as the Nations Careers Service was introduced in 2012 to encourage the consistency of provision across all ages from school into adulthood. However, the Department for Education’s funding contribution to the all age service was designed to cover on-line and phone provision only and not the face to face contact previously available through Connexions service to under 18s. Schools have been tasked with providing impartial careers advice to young people, however with no additional funding and concerns expressed by the Association of Colleges about the ‘powerful financial incentives for schools to retain their pupils’, the quality and success of such provision is one that is likely to remain questionable, with a major concern that under the new arrangements, personalised careers support available in schools will have diminished if not entirely disappeared. The Education Select Committee argue

...there is no substitute for personal advice, given on the basis of an understanding of a young person’s circumstances and ambitions.

(Commons Select Committee, 2011:156)

As a consequence, the work previously carried out by Connexions which extends beyond giving careers advice and guidance, has now become the responsibility of schools, the long term implications of such changes remain to be seen. However, it is not unreasonable to assert that the expectations of support generated by the existence of the Connexions service cannot be reversed and this will have to be accommodated by schools. The mechanism to deliver this support could significantly impact on the work of learning mentors and other staff providing support, advice and guidance to young people and their families.

3.5.2 Education welfare service

The Education Welfare Service (EWS) provides specialist education support, focusing on helping young people and their families work in partnership with schools so they can gain the best out of the education system. This is based on the principle that all children have

the right to a suitable education. The law is clear that while education is compulsory, school attendance is not, (Education Act 1996). The majority of work however, of the EWS service under the control of Local Authorities remains attendance based.

In 1999, the then DfEE published a consultation document – *Tackling Truancy Together* in which it was proposed to devolve part of the funding of the EWS service to secondary schools to enable them to ‘buy back’ EWS support. In an evaluation of the effect of the devolution of services, Wilkin *et al* (2003) identified improved relationships and efficiencies in dealing with attendance issues. Many schools decided to employ their own attendance officers, due to issues associated with: clarity of roles and professional boundaries; challenges associated with training and supervision; and consistency of provision which impacts on relationships with staff, parents and pupils alike. Due to the fast changing pace of the circumstances surrounding some pupils, the limited access of EWS provision meant schools were putting in their own resources to meet the needs of the young person concerned. As a consequence, in schools such as St Anthony’s, the position of education welfare officer was combined with that of a learning mentor, due to the complementary nature of the roles involved. The overlap with the role of an education welfare officer and a learning mentor was identified in the ‘Good Practice Guidelines for Learning Mentors issued by the DfES (2001). It describes the learning mentor strand as

...primarily to support schools in raising standards. Specifically in raising pupils’ attainment, improving attendance and reducing permanent and fixed term exclusion

(DfES, 2001:3)

Importantly, attendance issues are often indicators of other problems as well as being a barrier to learning in their own right (Atkinson, 2000; Roebuck *et al*, 2004; OECD, 2005; Stephens, 2010).

3.6 Conclusion

The policy context surrounding the introduction and development of the role of learning mentors in schools extends beyond the EiC programme. Under New Labour, education was promoted not only as a mechanism to cope with the demands of a modern global economy, but also as a means to develop social equality, by creating a new relationship between the

individual and state. This change resulted in a shift in the responsibilities, rights and obligations relating to the individual, with the intention that the state acted as an enabler not simply as a provider. The desire by New Labour to create an environment which promoted 'equality of opportunity' generated a host of ethical and moral dilemmas, including the challenge of tailoring opportunities to meet the needs of the individual. The introduction of learning mentors into schools was one of an array of measures that focused support on tackling the complex issues relating to long-term disadvantage, and associated disengagement and disaffection with education. Learning mentoring was brought in to focus on prevention and early intervention by removing barriers to learning, although it was recognised this would not necessarily provide a quick fix solution (Machin *et al*, 2003) due to the complexity of some of the problems that were being tackled. Under New Labour, learning and education was seen as the key to prosperity, a link maintained by the Coalition government.

The EiC programme of which learning mentoring played a significant part, can be described as the forerunner to New Labour's personalised learning programme, bringing together aspect of pedagogy, curriculum, culture and environment. As with EiC, the development of personalised learning became policy recognition of factors outside the classroom which could affect learning within it. Such recognition was reflected in other policy areas, such as ECM, which attempted to improve the outcomes of children and young people through the integration of education along with other support and caring services. Learning mentors were seen as crucial in a school's delivery of the five outcomes of ECM, due in part to the variety of work they undertake and their involvement in many aspects of the life of a school, its pupils and their families.

The development of learning mentoring in schools also coincided with workforce reforms which have influenced the role of non-teaching staff in schools. Learning mentors are amongst a group of educationalists now employed in schools at the interface between pastoral and academic support, blurring the boundaries of the traditional school structure.

Learning mentoring exists in an environment of great complexity and fluidity. Originally introduced as part of a New Labour flagship education policy and centrally funded until 2006, mentoring now operates in a more autonomous environment within schools, however it continues to be influenced and shaped by the policies of the Coalition

government. This is not surprising as the themes of developing a fair society with a stronger economy have been promoted by both New Labour and the Coalition alike, it is the mechanisms to achieve such goals that differ and will continue to shape learning mentoring in schools.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

4.1 In Search of a Methodology

In determining the methodological approach for this research I not only considered the phenomenon being investigated, but also my own philosophical stance. By developing an understanding of my own positionality as a researcher, I have explored the fundamental assumptions I make in relation to ontology, epistemology, human nature, agency and structure. It is a stance under constant review, as my own views are not fixed and immutable; instead they are continually shaped and refined, not only as a consequence of this research process, but through the living of daily life. Wellington *et al* (2005) argue the biography of the researcher is fundamental in determining their social positionality, the perspectives they hold and the assumptions that underpin their understanding of the world; thus my own personal history provides a starting point for this chapter.

4.1.1 My personal life history

In this section I have considered the influences that have shaped my life, not only from the perspective of a researcher, but also as a doctoral student, practitioner, colleague, parent, friend and spouse. Fulfilling each of these roles, results in the creation of multiple identities, the formulation of which can be described as a dynamic process, continually evolving through interaction between the individual and the complexity of the social environment that surrounds them (Koch and Kralik, 2006).

In attempting to explore and understand one's own philosophical position in relation to my own ontological and epistemological stances, I believe it is important to recognise the potential '...paradox of competing and seemingly incompatible identities' (Egan 2001:13) that can exist within each of us. As Raz (2001) argues all aspects of one's identity are

...the source of meaning in one's life and sources of responsibility...They are normative because they engage our integrity...Thus, identity-forming attachments are the organising principles of our life, the real as well as the imaginative. They give it shape as well as meaning.

(Raz, 2001:34)

Not only can identity be argued to be a ‘contested space’ (Egan 2001:13), but the definitions we use to describe our experiences, principles and opinions are also contestable.

As Pring (2000) remarks

...certain words [such as education] can rarely be defined in a way that attracts universal agreement. The reason is very often they embody values which themselves are contestable within society.

(Pring, 2000:9)

The values I hold are being influenced and continually reshaped by my experience in different areas of my life, including those associated with being a practitioner. I share Sullivan’s view that

The acceptance and rejection of earlier ideas are both equally valid reactions in the process leading to the development of new theories. It is necessary... to have an awareness of the possibility that one’s personal beliefs and attitudes...could be a potential source of bias.

(Sullivan, 2006:46)

The bias Sullivan refers could also be reinforced through our ‘tendency to seek similarities and integrations’ (Horowitz, 1976:115), by looking for solidarity, approval and affirmation from those around us, and thus embedding opinion, beliefs and values. I am aware that the beliefs and values I apply in my professional practice may indeed be different to those in a context where I am emotionally involved, such as being a parent; where behaviours and attitudes that I accept in others in my professional role, I may not tolerate in my own offspring. Like Cahill (2007), my values act as a ‘guiding principle for my action’ (2007:101), however, they remain an abstract linguistic concept until they are tested when this rhetoric is put into action, thus giving it meaning. I have therefore considered below some of the events in my personal as well as professional history that I believe have not only had significant impact on my identity, but have tested the principles and values by which I live my life.

4.1.1.1 Early years

Reflecting upon my childhood, I recognised the impact of my father’s politics in developing my sense of equality, fairness and social justice. A local government councillor, member of the Co-operative movement and a socialist, my father encouraged our sense of co-operation and equality through our participation in the Woodcraft Folk, - a youth organisation established to ‘educate and empower children and young people to be able to

participate actively in society, improving their lives and others through active citizenship' (Woodcraft Folk, 2011: policies). It was not simply our involvement in this organisation that promoted the ideals of a more egalitarian society within our household, but also a significant factor was growing up in an environment which was culturally and ethnically diverse, providing opportunities to create an atmosphere of understanding, tolerance and acceptance.

4.1.1.2 The influence of Plowden

I attended primary school in the early 1970s, - a period influenced by the aspirations of reform contained in '*Children and their Primary Schools*' known as the Plowden Report (DES, 1967). The report was set at a time when, selection for secondary schools was being abolished, streaming was abandoned and comprehensive and middle schools were being introduced (Gillard, 2004). Describing children as being '...at the heart of the educational process' (DES, 1967:7) an emphasis was placed by Plowden on child centred approaches, recognising the need to see children as individuals

Individual differences between children of the same age are so great that any class, however homogenous it seems must always be treated as a body of children needing individual and different attention.

(DES, 1967:25)

The recurring themes present throughout the report can be identified as '...individual learning, flexibility in the curriculum, the centrality of play in children's learning, the use of the environment and learning by discovery' (Gillard, 2004:1). The psychological basis for the report was based on Piaget's theory of developmental sequence, (Gillard, 2004) 'that is, events which are fixed in their order, but varying in the age at which the sequence begins' (DES, 1967:7). Piaget viewed the cognitive development of children in terms of adaptation to an environment to create a state of renewed equilibrium. Structurally, Piaget identified a hierarchical pattern which '...produces progressively more stable states of adaptation' (Neumark, 1996:1) which he referred to as 'stages'. Early critics of Plowden questioned the view that the '...'natural' child is curious, motivated to learn and keen to discover' (Halsey and Sylva, 1987: 9).

By the time I reached secondary school the theories of Piaget were no longer in favour and the impact of Plowden appeared to be diminishing, and instead political forces were shaping curriculum thinking and development in schools (Gillard, 2004). In 1976 James

Callaghan's speech at Ruskin College raised issues that have dominated educational policies ever since: '...accountability, effectiveness, the curriculum and most profoundly of all, the relationship between teachers, government, parents and industry' (Barber, 1996:1). Education at the time was seen as a means 'to prepare the child for adult life' (DES, 1981:1). The 'child centred approach' of my early years was replaced with the rhetoric of 'the school curriculum [being] at the heart of education' (DES, 1981:1).

4.1.1.3 Issues of resilience

Due to a number of issues impacting on my education, observers would have described me as having high levels of 'resilience' – the ability to cope with stress and adversity. An individual's level of emotional resilience, according to Mills and Dombeck (2005), is due to '...a specific set of attitudes concerning themselves and their role within the world' (2005:2) and these are summarised below:

- Have realistic and attainable expectations and goals.
- Show good judgment and problem-solving skills.
- Be persistent and determined.
- Be responsible and thoughtful rather than impulsive.
- Be effective communicators with good people skills.
- Learn from past experience so as to not repeat mistakes.
- Be empathetic toward other people (caring how others around them are feeling).
- Have a social conscience, (caring about the welfare of others).
- Feel good about themselves as a person.
- Feel like they are in control of their lives.
- Be optimistic rather than pessimistic.

Source: Mills and Dombeck (2005:2)

When I consider the attitudes/attributes identified by Mills and Dombeck (2005), I not only recognise many of these traits within myself, but also other mentors with whom I have worked. This is demonstrated in the list of skills and qualities identified in the recruitment process for learning mentors:

- A genuine concern for the welfare of young people.
- Excellent communication skills.
- Excellent motivational skills.
- Understand issues from a young person's point of view.
- Engage young people and earn their trust.

- Develop good working relationships with people from a wide range of age groups and backgrounds.
- Non-judgemental.
- Patient.
- Able to develop links with other agencies that can help young people who are facing difficulties.
- Flexible in their approach to work.
- Good planning skills to manage a caseload.
- Cope with the emotional demands of the work.
- A sound knowledge of the education system.

Source: Input Youth 2011:1

I have endeavoured to take this concept of resilience into account when working with young people in my capacity as a mentor, especially when considering the type of intervention required, if any; for example, a child who may be facing challenging circumstances but demonstrates an ability to cope well, may require less assistance in comparison with others in apparently less difficult situations who need more extensive support.

4.1.1.4 My learning trajectory

Laterally, I demonstrated an essentially ‘... characteristic and predictable pattern of participation’ (Gorard *et al*, 1998:401), completing A levels and a degree. Concerning my own learning trajectory, I would agree with Gorard *et al*, when they remarked

The individual’s attitude to learning, their learning identity is based on their view of learning, stemming from their educational experiences, not simply of success or failure, but an entire educational culture.

(Gorard *et al*, 1998:401)

In respect of educational experiences and culture, I would interpret the term ‘education’ in the broadest sense, to include all those factors that shape our opinions, values and thoughts, both inside the classroom and beyond. Whilst an individual’s learning trajectory is not predetermined, participation within education, especially at a post compulsory level, is strongly influenced by a range of social and economic factors. Patterns of engagement do emerge based on gender, class, family backgrounds, initial schooling, occupation and motivation (Gorard *et al*, 2001). Educators are in a privileged position to help individuals explore the range of options available to them, by creating opportunities and breaking down barriers to participation and learning that have a long-term impact, in other words

...educators can make more of a difference in a shorter term when addressing the determinants of later participation, which are more susceptible to change than the determinants of early participation.

(Gorard *et al*, 2001:185)

4.1.1.5 From commercialism to education

Having graduated, I worked for a number of different commercial organisations in a variety of roles. My involvement in education as a professional started in 2001, when I was appointed as a learning mentor as part of the second phase of the EiC programme. By 2003, I became a Link Learning Mentor, which involved supporting and ‘mentoring’ a number of learning mentor colleagues working in primary schools across the Local Authority. I was intrigued by the differences in their roles and the parameters in which they operated, thus illustrating the flexibility in the professional identities of those working as learning mentors. Despite the cessation of central government funding for EiC in 2006, learning mentors have continued to contribute to the academic functions and pastoral care offered in schools.

4.1.2 Ontological assumptions

Ontology is the area of study concerned with the nature of being, reality and existence (Freimuth, 2009). Understanding the ontological assumptions a researcher makes is crucial in any research process, as it influences their perceptions of human nature, which in turn impacts on the approaches used to reveal social truths (David and Sutton, 2004). The way in which one might view the nature of social reality, according to Bracken (2010), is likely to impact the choices made regarding methodological considerations.

Flowers (2009) argues we have a number of deeply embedded ontological assumptions which affects our view on what we perceive as real, and whether we attribute existence to one set of factors over another. Flowers (2009) argues

If these underlying assumptions are not identified and considered, the researcher may be blinded to certain aspects of the inquiry or certain phenomena, since they are implicitly assumed, taken for granted and therefore not opened to questions, consideration or discussion.

(Flowers, 2009:1)

My own ontological assumptions are based on a constructivist/interpretivist position, where perceived meanings are associated with an individual's personal and social context. According to Gray (2009) constructivism is

... a perspective that assumes that people construct the realities in which they participate.

(Gray, 2009:575)

Individuals make sense of situations based on their experiences, memories and expectations that are constructed and constantly reconstructed over time, resulting in multiple interpretations, and creating a social reality in which people act. Consequently, the focus of the researcher is to understand the meanings and constructions created by social actors, along with the contextual factors that determine and affect these interpretations. Such an approach is not without issue, Flowers (2009) notes

The close nature of the researcher and the researched in this paradigm, and the risk that an interpretation is framed within the mind of the researcher means that steps must be introduced to avoid bias. The use of self-reflection is advised.

(Flowers, 2009:3)

A significant challenge of this research has been to separate my roles as a researcher and practitioner, exploring the same situation from different perspectives and identifying preconceived notions and assumptions that may impact on the study and its findings.

4.1.3 Epistemological assumptions

Epistemology is closely related to ontology because the answers to these questions depend on, and in turn help forge, ontological assumptions about the nature of reality.

(Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006:13)

If ontology is the study of what we know or what we think we know, then epistemology is concerned with how we achieve or think we achieve knowledge (Freimuth, 2009). In general terms epistemology is the study of the nature and extent of truth and what it is to know (Walker and Evers, 1988; Thayer-Bacon, 1996; Somekh and Lewin, 2005; Freimuth, 2009). Thayer-Bacon (1996) expands the concept by exploring the notion of 'relational epistemology', claiming what human beings 'know' is dependent on their experiences of both their internal and external worlds. Kant (2007) suggests that what we know is not independent reality, but a reality as it appears to us as human beings. Thayer-Bacon (1996) argues that knowing of absolute truth is fundamentally flawed by our own social constructions as we are not neutral beings, remarking

If descriptions of the world are created by people, that means they are open to re-examination, criticism and possible re-describing.

(Thayer-Bacon, 1996: 402)

If it is accepted we are not 'neutral beings' Freimuth (2009) argues

...any research that is undertaken is best done under a reflective microscope since it is contaminated with our beliefs about knowledge and what we hold as true.

(Freimuth, 2009:2)

Social constructivism is essentially about how people socially construct knowledge and forms the epistemological basis for this research. In Vygotsky's social constructivist theory, culture gives the tools needed for development. The rate and pattern of this development is, according to Vygotsky, dependant on the type and quality of these cultural tools. Adults surrounding young people including parents, teachers and learning mentors act as conduits for the tools of culture including language, cultural history and social context. According to Vygotsky's theory, learning cannot be separated from the social context, indeed community is crucial in the process of making meaning, he comments

Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice, on two levels first on the social, and later on the psychological level...The actual relations between human individuals underlie all the higher functions

(Vygotsky, 1978:128)

The social constructivist viewpoint can also be considered important due to the reciprocal nature of mentoring relationships, as the learning experience is regarded as an iterative process, involving discursive, reflexive and adaptive qualities (Laurillard, 1993), thus it is not only the culture, values and background of the mentee that are important but also those of the mentor. Other studies that have argued the importance of mentoring in the process of learning from a social constructivist perspective include Archee and Duin (1995) and Brown *et al* (1989).

The choice of a social constructivist approach towards this research has not been based solely on my own beliefs and values, but also the theoretical resonance it provides in relation to identity. Wallace (2009) argues

Social construction theory makes no claim that identities are predisposed, inevitable or are gradually emergent in response to predefined variables. Rather it claims identities are fluid, mutable constructs that are perpetually emergent and are formed through social interaction and relationships.

(Wallace, 2009:1)

One aspect of identity that has particular significance to this research in developing and understanding of how learning mentoring fits with other aspects of pastoral care, is concerning role identity which, according to Burke and Stets (2009), refers to ‘the internalised meaning of a role that individuals apply to themselves’ (2009:114). Role identity involves how individuals make sense of a particular role and the motivations underpinning the adoption and enactment of such a position. Burke and Stets (2009) argue

The energy, motivation, drive that makes roles actually work require that individuals identify with, internalised and become the role.

(Burke and Stets, 2009:38)

The creation and development of a role is not an individual process, but involves social negotiation with others, in other words

An individual does not simply designate oneself as being a certain identity, but rather in the social and political give-and-take of work relationships identities are developed.

(Crow, 2012: 236)

According to social constructivism it is norms and shared beliefs that comprise an individual’s identity and interest, thus one of the main data collection methods underpinning this research has been through interviews to understand how actors perceive and make sense of the social world.

My epistemological values are demonstrated in action through my work as a learning mentor and also in my role as a researcher, in particular, through valuing the uniqueness of each child who has the ‘...potential of making their original contribution in life’ (Cahill, 2007:103). Such ability to create new ideas, institutions and frameworks was described by Arendt (1958) as natality. In developing this notion of natality, it is important to build an environment in which young people have the opportunity to exercise their creativity and develop their talents and abilities as individuals. The uniqueness and complexity of learners is recognised by social constructivists as integral to the learning process (Wertsch, 1985). Noddings (1997) argues

Children whose lives are physically, materially and emotionally secure are likely to respond with enthusiasm to literature, science, and history taught well in a relevant social context

(Noddings, 1997:30)

Thus, the background and culture of the learner are viewed as key components throughout the learning process, as this context helps to shape the knowledge and truth a learner creates and modifies and indeed shapes the purpose of education itself.

Lloyd Yero (2002) argues our beliefs in the purpose of education lie at the heart of our professional practices and behaviours. For myself, the purpose of education is the key to unlock potential, by providing the tools, opportunity, care and inspiration to nurture the talent within every individual. However, Lloyd Yero remarks

...there is no definition of education that all or even most educators agree upon. The meanings they attach to the words are complex beliefs arising from their own values and experiences.

(Lloyd Yero, 2002:2)

Whitehead (1989) concurs, stating 'values are fundamental to educational theory' because 'education is a value laden activity' (1989:45). Due to the differences in the values we hold, it is not uncommon for value systems to be in conflict (McNiff, 2002). Whitehead (2004) highlights how values provide a source for 'epistemological standards of judgement', explaining

As I clarify my values, in the course of their emergence in my practice of enquiry learning, they are transformed, through the process of clarification, into the living standards of judgement I use to test the validity of my knowledge-claims.

(Whitehead, 2004:5).

Further, it is the judgements we make about what is 'educationally desirable' that inform actions or improvements (James and Gleeson, 2008). Therefore, as we learn from our actions our values and judgements are altered, informing further practice.

In her research, Roche (2007) describes how she developed as a reflective practitioner, explaining this involves an on-going 'real-world practice of becoming critical' (151:2007). She distinguishes between reflections made during the data gathering period, and those which she calls 'meta reflections' i.e. reflections upon the older reflections. Thus, differentiating between, reflection-on-action, reflection-in-action, (Schön, 1983) and reflection-on-reflections. The concept of reflection is an ambiguous term, used interchangeably in the literature with other concepts of 'reflexivity' and 'reflectivity' (D'Cruz *et al*, 2007), and described by Procee (2006) as an 'elusive term', 'open to interpretation' and 'applied in a myriad of ways.'

D'Cruz *et al* (2007) in their attempt to clarify the term 'reflexivity' in contrast to 'critical reflection' use the idea of variations in timings, as indicated in the work of Roche (2007), to establish the differences.

In critical reflection, the use of a critical incident as the basis for knowledge generation can be considered as 'reflection-on-action' rather than 'reflection-in-action' (Schön, 1983). The critical incident is firmly in the past, and is represented as a learning opportunity for the future from this selected incident. Reflexivity, in contrast...can be described as a critical approach to the generation of knowledge that operates 'in the moment'.

(D'Cruz *et al*, 2007:83)

The notion of knowledge generated 'in the moment' as described by D'Cruz *et al* (2007) is indeed embedded into semi structured interviews, which are amongst data collection methods used in this research, as the interviewer is constantly reappraising the information within the conversation. The interviewer is not only actively engaged in the learning process during the interview, but subsequently. The use of semi-structured interviews allows for a greater flexibility to explore a topic and facilitate greater openness for the interviewee to express their opinions (Esterberg, 2002), as '...the interviewee's responses shape the order and structure of the interview' (Esterberg, 2002:88).

Whilst the epistemological aspects referred to so far offer insight into the approach used in this study, 'few pieces of research are ever pure examples of any one paradigm, fitting unequivocally into one category to the exclusion of others' (Candy, 1989:8). I have sought to take the advice offered by Bracken (2010) who suggests

...it is important that one's own socially and culturally constructed identities as a researcher and educator are interrogated throughout all phases of the research process.

(Bracken, 2010:6)

This observation highlights the importance of reflexivity in developing an understanding of how the social, political and value position of the researcher may influence all aspects of the research process. Concurring with Bracken (2010), Sultana (2007) argues reflexive actions

Occur from the beginning to the end of the research process; just adding it on at the end is mere introspection which can leave positive methodologies intact. A reflexive research process can open up the research to more complex and nuanced understandings of issues, where boundaries between processes and content can get blurred.

(Sultana, 2007:376)

4.1.4 Assumptions concerning human nature, agency and structure

Assumptions relating to human nature and agency are ‘essentially concerned with the ways people are believed to be able act within the world’ (Wellington *et al*, 2005:103); whereas ‘structure,’ according to Giddens (2012), relates to ‘a more holistic model that incorporates social systems and rules, social order and social reproduction’ (Giddens, 2012:9). If ‘agency’ refers to an individual’s capacity to act independently and make choices according to their own freewill, and ‘structure’ is regarded as those factors which impact on those choices, such as social class, gender, religion and so on, this then raises questions as to the extent social structure or human agency determines an individual’s behaviour.

Giddens (2012) argues the relationship between social structure and human agency is on-going, being both interactive and reciprocal, where social actions have intentional as well as unintentional effects on others and society. Summarised the relationship between structure and agency is according to Giddens and Pierson (1998) one where

Society only has form and that form has effects on people, in so far as structure is produced and reproduced in what people do.

(Giddens and Pierson, 1998:77)

Assumptions pertaining to human nature, agency and structure have implications for choices of methodology and methods (Wellington *et al*, 2005). For example, Giddens (2012) argues that whilst life within society is not simply a collection of random individual acts at a micro level of activity, it is not possible to understand social structures simply by looking for macro level explanations. It is the complex nature of the relationship between human nature, agency and structure and the repetitive acts of individual agents that reproduces the structure. This view has implications not only concerning the nature of learning mentoring taking place in schools but also for those working as learning mentors and in other pastoral roles. The work of learning mentors is based on the assumption that there is some deficit in terms of human structure i.e. factors that can limit or influence the opportunities that individuals have. A concern to address this lack of ‘structure’ is demonstrated through the work of learning mentors, by helping individuals overcome barriers to learning. Indeed, learning mentors are attempting to alter social structure by asking individuals and their families to change behaviours and do something different. Further, structure is not only important in relation to the work of learning mentors with

young people, but how the role itself has developed. Giddens (1984) argues, the rules and resources that actors draw upon within society are, ‘generalisable procedures, implemented in enactment or reproduction of social practices’ (1984:21). Some of these ‘rules’ are highly explicit and formally codified, whilst others are less formal ‘unwritten’ social guidelines. Since these rules act as the ‘blueprint’ for the way individuals act in social situations, it is important try to develop an understanding of such conditions and how they impact on the development of a given role.

In conjunction with the impact of structure on the development of roles, are the resources that act as the frames of reference for carrying out social ‘rules’. Giddens (2012) describes these resources as allocative, in other words the control over material objects to facilitate action and authoritative being those related to influence over other people such as status, education, knowledge and authority.

The notion of resources as described by Giddens (2012) has parallels with Bourdieu’s concept of capital (Bourdieu, 1986). Bourdieu argues the social world has an accumulated history, and ‘it is the distribution of the different types and sub-types of capital in a given moment in time, that represents the immanent structure of the social world’ (Bourdieu, 1986:1). Capital can present itself in three fundamental forms: i) economic capital relating to financial means which may be institutionalised in the form of property rights; ii) cultural capital which itself exists in three forms the *embodied state* – the long lasting disposition of the mind and body; the *objective state* in the form of cultural goods such as, books and computers; and the *institutionalized state* in the form of educational qualifications; iii) social capital is described by Burt as ‘a metaphor about advantage’ (2000:346-347) and refers to the social obligations or connections which may under certain conditions be converted into economic capital.

Stevens *et al* (2007) argue schools have an important role in developing social capital, due to their potential to increase a pupil’s socio-psychological resources, and related to this, their educational outcomes. Stevens *et al* (2007) argue

...close relationships with ‘significant others’ seems to be correlated with lower levels of stress and more engagement with school; suggesting that social support and support for families may well enhance students learning experiences.

(Stevens *et al*, 2007: ix)

Thus, one of the key areas in developing social capital for young people is through the pastoral approaches adopted by a school, including mentoring to meet the needs of young people.

The discussion of agency in relation to this research is not concerned with the wider sociological debate as to whether or not individuals have agency (Bandura, 1989; Foucault, 1984). Instead, it is based on the belief that individuals have the ability to influence their lives and environment which are also shaped by social and individual factors (Bourdieu, 1977 and Giddens, 1984). Indeed, the very premise of the work of learning mentors is based on this assumption. However, young people are limited in their agency due to age, experience, legal requirements, and economic considerations amongst other factors. Whilst social structures can enable and facilitate change, rather than just simply compelling or prohibiting action, young people may require assistance in developing agency through for example the use of power to draw on facilities or resources (Giddens, 2012).

Further, agency has relevance in relation to self-identity. Giddens (1991) argues in modern society, self-identity becomes a reflexive project based on an understanding of an individual's biography. Giddens (1991) remarks

Self-identity has continuity – that is, it cannot easily be completely changed at will – but that continuity is only a product of the person's reflexive beliefs about their own biography.

(Giddens, 1991:53)

Lasky (2005) adopts a sociocultural approach to examine agency and identity in secondary school settings. Lasky argues

What individuals believe, and how individuals think and act is always shaped by cultural, historical and social structures that are reflected in mediational tools such as literature, art, media, language, technology and numeracy systems; or more specific to school reform in such things as policy mandates...guidelines and standards.

(Lasky, 2005:900)

Such tools continue to evolve as people use them. A mediating system not only creates the conditions of school based activities to take place but shapes the identity of participants. Viewed in this way, 'agency is always mediated by the interaction between the individual (attributes and inclinations) and the tools and structures of social settings' (Lasky, 2005:900).

Whilst Lasky's research focused on teacher identity, much of the work can be equally applied to the formulation of the role of other professionals working in schools including learning mentors. The assumptions made about human nature, structure and agency provide an important foundation in how the role of learning mentors has been conceptualised and subsequently developed. To understand the complex dynamic of learning mentor agency which not only influences, but in turn is influenced by, the cultural and structural features of institutions and society (Datnow et al, 2002), a suitable research methodology is required.

4.2 Choosing Case Study Research – the Rationale

Crotty (1998) defines research methodology as

The strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and use of the methods to the desired outcomes.

(Crotty, 1998:3)

In broad terms this study involves empirical research as it deals with gathering information through direct and personal experience. Further it can be described as applied research as it is concerned with a specific group, namely learning mentors (Wallen and Fraenkel, 2001). This study has been shaped using an inductive research design as opposed to a deductive approach. An inductive study is one where a conceptual and theoretical structure is developed from the observation of empirical reality, consequently general inferences are induced from particular instances. The rationale underpinning the choice of research methodology has not only been influenced by my own theoretical perspective as a researcher, but also the ways in which data are to be used and methods adopted, consequently, case study as a research methodology was identified as the most appropriate to meet the overall aims of the research.

Case study research allows the exploration and understanding of complex issues through detailed contextual 'analysis of a limited number of events or conditions and their relationships' (Soy, 2006:1). By drawing upon multiple sources of information and techniques as part of the data gathering process, such as through, questionnaires, interviews and document reviews, case studies research provides a means of examining

contemporary real life situations as well as the providing the basis for the application of ideas and extension of methods. Yin (1984) defines the case study research method as

...an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context; when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident and in which multiple sources of evidence are used.

(Yin, 1984:23)

Although case studies use data gathering techniques found in other research methods and rely on the same sort of covariational evidence utilised in non-case studies (Gerring, 2004) differences do exist. Gerring (2004) argues

The case study method is correctly understood as a particular way of defining cases, not a way of analysing cases or a way of modelling causal relations.

(Gerring, 2004:341)

According to Stake (1995), a case study is a specific complex functioning entity, which Smith (1988) describes as a 'bounded system', drawing attention to it as an object rather than a process. Colley (2003) advocates case study research to explore the complexities and idiosyncrasies that occur in social and behavioural phenomenon, to develop an understanding of the 'rich possibilities of what *can* happen' as opposed to a 'limited view of what *tends* to happen' (Colley, 2003:3), in other words why certain outcomes may happen, not just the fact that they happen (Denscombe, 1998). It is the intimacy of case study research that can offer the reader 'rich data with multiple dimensions, reflecting on a variety of perspectives ... at an experiential level usually hidden from view' (Colley, 2003:4). Zainal comments further

Through case study methods, a researcher is able to go beyond the quantitative statistical results to understand the behavioural conditions through the actor's perspective. By including both quantitative and qualitative data, case study helps explain both the process and outcome of a phenomenon.

(Zainal, 2007:1)

A case study approach is particularly useful in exploring the causal relationships between the phenomenon and the context in which it takes place. Case studies are a valuable way of looking at the world around us and offer an appropriate approach that supports a deeper and more detailed investigation associated with answering the type of questions identified in this research (Yin, 1994; Rowley, 2002).

4.2.1 Research design

Prior to considering the research design applicable to this research, it was important to identify the type of case study that was involved in this research. There are a number of typologies regarding case study research, including the classification proposed by Yin (1993) who identifies *Exploratory*, *Explanatory* and *Descriptive* case studies; and Stake (1995) who uses the terms *Intrinsic* – when the researcher has interest in the case; *Instrumental* – when the case is obvious to the observer; and *Collective* – when a group of cases is studied. From the descriptors provided by Yin (1993) and Stake (1995) the case study for this research can be considered as exploratory and intrinsic.

According to Rowley (2002)

A research design is the logic that links the data to be collected and the conclusions to be drawn to the initial questions of a study: it ensures coherence.

(Rowley, 2002:18)

The research design is the action plan linking the research questions to the conclusions and involves the procedures the researcher will carry out for the study (Yin, 2009; Emory and Cooper, 1991). Yin (2009) emphasises that the research design deals with a logical rather than a logistical problem. The components that make up a research plan will differ between case studies. For example, Yin (1994) identifies five components of case study research: a study's questions; the propositions of the skills; the unit of analysis; the logical steps linking data to the propositions; criteria for interpreting the findings. However, the propositions he identifies are derived from theory and other relevant research, and as Yin (1994) acknowledges not all case studies will need or have propositions. Indeed, due to the exploratory nature of this research no propositions have been identified, however, the key components pertinent to the design of this research are explored in the following section.

4.2.1.1 The selection of the case study site

When I decided to undertake a Doctorate in Education, I wanted to consider an area of research that would enhance my own professional practice, and potentially benefit the pupils with whom I work. A case study strategy is particularly useful for practice-based problems when the experience of the actors involved is important, but the context in which it takes place is critical (Lee, 1989; Galliers, 1990). As a consequence a single case study

was conducted over a period of 2 years in my own place of work. Whilst research access was easily obtained, practitioner research itself creates other concerns, particularly associated with the ethical issues.

4.2.1.2 Unit of analysis

Deciding the unit of analysis, i.e. the major entity being studied, is often the first decision made in designing a case study. In this research the decision coincided with the selection of the case study site rather than preceding it. For the purposes of this research the unit of analysis is the range of activities relating to the work of learning mentors within the case study school.

4.2.1.3 Data sources

The use of multiple data sources, including both primary and secondary formats, is a key feature of case study research. Yin (2004) identifies six potential data sources: documents, archival records, interviews, direct observations, participant observations and physical artefacts. Due consideration was given to the use of secondary data in a written format, as this will have been compiled for specific purposes with an intended audience, which in turn may impact upon its usefulness and accuracy for research purposes. In this research, secondary data covered a variety of different sources (see Appendix 1) and provided essential preparation for the interviews that took place as well as other primary data collection activities. Care was taken to ensure any actions that could be considered as either direct or participant observation were clearly indicated as research activities to those involved, due to my role both as a researcher and work colleague. According to Yin (1994), the rationale for using multiple sources of evidence is: to develop converging lines of enquiry; triangulate data to help substantiate findings and to possibly address a broader array of issues.

4.2.1.4 Analytic strategy

Data analysis consists of examining, categorising, tabulating or otherwise combining the evidence gathered during the data collection stage of case study research (Yin, 1994). Yin (1994) argues every investigation should have a general analytical strategy to guide what will be analysed and the reasoning to support such decisions. As previously noted in this

research no propositions were identified, consequently a descriptive framework was developed around which the case was organised, using a thematic approach to focus on key ideas within the data. To develop an understanding of themes within the raw data, coding was used. Familiarisation with the data is key to thematic analysis, if it is to be expedited and insightful. Familiarisation of the data is not only assisted through the collection process, but also through transcription activities. Following data familiarisation, 'codes' or brief descriptions are applied to sections of data, with possibly more than one code applied to the same section of text. Data reduction occurs to collapse the data into labels in order to create categories for more efficient analysis. Specialist software, such as Nvivo, as used in this research, helps to code and categorise large amounts of narrative text generated for example from interview transcripts, however the researcher still needs to study outputs to determine whether any meaningful patterns are emerging.

At each stage of analysis, alterations and modifications were made in light of experience and ideas and thus earlier codings were adjusted. This was to enable a close fit of the codings to the data and to avoid a plethora of idiosyncratic categories (Howitt and Cramer, 2010). Codes were combined into over-arching themes reflecting the textual data. It is important that such themes are accurately described by researchers, so it is not only clear to others what the themes depict, but also to identify what is missing from the analysis. Trial and error is a feature of this process, as change and adjustment are required to develop themes, allowing for the expansion of some and revision of others.

4.3 Data Collection Methods

Case studies use multiple methods of data collection to understand complex social phenomena. For this study they involved interviews with key participants, questionnaires, group research activities along with reviews of primary sources material and documentary evidence. The research was conducted in the case study school between June 2010 and July 2012.

4.3.1 Interviews

I wanted to gain an in-depth understanding of participants' perceptions and this is reflected in the use of face-to-face interviews (Gillham, 2000; Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). Research interviews have the purpose of producing knowledge and can be described as a 'professional' conversation. The interchange of views in the form of an interview contains dual aspects, 'an alternation between the knowers and the known, between the constructors of knowledge and the knowledge constructed' (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009:2). However, due to the structure and purpose of interviews it is not a conversation between equal partners because the researcher defines and controls the situation.

The closeness of the research interviews to everyday conversation may imply a 'certain simplicity' (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009:15) and thus may create a false impression to those participating in the process. In this study to distinguish this aspect of the research process from other activities that occur as part of normal working practice, interviewees were consulted as to when and where the interviews took place, the purpose and format were explained and recordings were made of the dialogue which I subsequently transcribed. Transcription itself is an interpretive process and involves close observation of data (Bailey, 2008). To aid familiarity and focus attention on what was actually said as opposed to what is expected, each recording was listened to repeatedly, as the first step of the data analysis.

Due to my position as a researcher and colleague, I rapidly recognised the notion of interviewing as a moral inquiry and the significant level of trust participants placed with me, since you are 'researching private lives and placing account in the public arena' Mauthner *et al* (2002:1). As Kvale (2007) suggests close attention should be given to the ethical implications of this personal interaction. Ethical issues are not simply restricted to the interview itself, but throughout all stages of the interview process; this not only involves obtaining informed consent, but also securing the confidentiality of subjects, considering the consequences of participation and reviewing the role of the researcher. Kvale (2007) argues in terms of ethical considerations, much is left to the judgement and integrity of the researcher, commenting

The ethical issues of an interview project go beyond the micro-ethics of protecting the interview subjects to also encompass macro ethics concerning the value of the interview-produced knowledge in a larger social context.

(Kvale, 2007:31)

The anonymising of the participants' contributions is part of the ethical considerations associated with this research. In the case of interviews, each interviewee has been allocated a non-gender specific pseudonym detailed in Table 4.1. Further due to the uniqueness of the job titles held within St Anthony's, which could identify participants, where practicable these were anonymised by grouping certain roles together, under two team headings: Pastoral Leaders and Pupil Support Team.

Pastoral Leaders	Pupil Support Team
<p>The Pastoral Leaders refers to the: Heads of House and Head of Year within St Anthony's using the pseudonyms of: Chris, George, Sam and Nick</p>	<p>The Pupil Support Team refers to the: Leader of Learning Support and Inclusion; Pupil Support Teacher; Welfare and Attendance Officer/Learning Mentor; Learning and Achievement Administrator within St Anthony's using the pseudonyms of: Alex, Charlie, Francis, Ellis</p>

Table 4.1 Pseudonyms used to anonymise interview participants

Semi-structured interviews were selected as they offered a flexible and fluid approach (Smith, 1995). At the start of each interview the broad area for discussion was outlined. The identification and subsequent selection of participants was based on their role within the organisation, with a focus on those who worked within the pastoral care structure, including those with learning mentoring responsibilities, a total of seven interviews were conducted.

Field notes were kept at the end of each interview, and consisted of any observations, thoughts feelings and reflections that occurred during the interview process and immediately afterwards. Due to the semi-structured nature of the interviews, the way in which questions were constructed during the process, and the keeping field of notes, these all served to recognise the importance of interviews as a 'shared communication...not just a one-way traffic of information from respondent to researcher' (Davies and Dodd, 2002:283).

Interview participants were given the opportunity to view the transcripts produced from the audio recordings, to check for accuracy and indicate any alterations or extractions required to avoid the possibility of misrepresentation. The availability of the transcripts for review formed part of the consent process; however none of those involved decided to avail themselves of this offer, indicating a level of trust in the subsequent processing of the information. The transcripts of each interview were examined using Nvivo, a software package to assist in the coding and identification of themes, which were then analysed and the findings presented and discussed in subsequent chapters. A sample transcript of the interview with one of the pastoral leaders can be found in Appendix 2 and the schedule used to guide the programme of semi structure interviews is found in Appendix 3.

4.3.2 Pupil identification exercise/Group research activity

The work of learning mentors and staff within the pastoral care system is based on a fundamental assumption that they ‘know’ the children with whom they work, which is distinct from many other types of intervention work. In terms of their knowledge of each individual, this is likely to vary from case to case. However, before trying to explore how pupils are identified as requiring support, I wanted to investigate a more fundamental issue – the extent pupils are known to staff, as this is the basis upon which intervention through learning mentoring and personalised pastoral care is based. One approach to explore this particular issue involves exploring the degree to which staff visually recognised pupils from a selection of photographs.

Initially, I had planned to take the photographs myself, but was concerned about the ethical implications, not only from the point of view of consent, required from both parents and pupils along with the principal of the school ; but also the explanation required as to why I was taking the photographs. I anticipated pupils and parents could be concerned why particular individuals had been chosen. Further, the results had the potential to highlight the extent to which a child is known in the school, which could have both positive and negative implications. However, this issue was overcome through the use of school photographs stored on the computerised school record system (SIMS). Fortunately, these photographs were for the first time, uploaded on to the system, shortly before I wanted to undertake this exercise. The use of these photographs overcame the ethical concerns, firstly

they were in the public domain, (all staff had access) and secondly they formed part of the pupil record of their basic details and therefore would not require separate consent.

4.3.2.1 The selection of photographs

Photographs of Year 11 pupils were selected because the pupils had been in the school for the longest period of time and therefore are more likely to be known to staff. I wanted to select enough photographs to obtain a better understanding of the extent to which staff knew the pupils, but not too many as to make the exercise cumbersome. The pastoral system in the case study school is based on 3 houses, and in Year 11 at the time of the exercise there were 6 tutor groups, 2 for each house. To represent a cross section of the pupils I created 3 categories: firstly, those pupils who can be described as ‘characters’ either for behavioural or academic reasons; secondly, those in the ‘achievers’ either academically or due to sporting ability; lastly, the ‘invisible’ pupils who do not stand out either behaviourally, academically or because of any other particular gifts or talents. I decided to select a total of 18 photographs, 6 from each category, split evenly between genders and the 6 tutor groups.

The categories used ‘character’, ‘achiever’, and ‘invisible’ are based on the notion that

...schools are social and cultural institutions where young people are introduced to particular ways of life, where subjectivities are produced, where ways of being-in-the-world are constructed and given legitimacy, or refused and degraded.

(Cruddas, 2005:4)

The categories are also a reflection of the compatibility between a young person’s home or primary discourse and their school or secondary discourse. According to Gee’s socio-linguistic theory (1990)

Discourses are ways of being in the world, or forms of life which integrate words, acts, values, beliefs, attitudes, social identities, as well as gestures, glances, body positions and clothes. A discourse is a sort of ‘identity kit’ which comes complete with the appropriate costume and instructions on how to act, talk and often write, so as to take on a particular social role.

(Gee, 1990:142)

The pupils categorised as ‘achievers’ are those identified as being successful, where the acquisition and development of the school based discourse is ‘facilitated by the close match between their primary and secondary discourses’ (Cruddas, 2005:4). The

participation level of ‘achievers’ is high, both within the classroom and through other events such as sports and extra-curricular activities. ‘Achievers’ are often given positions of responsibility such as prefects, and sports captains and will wear the symbols associated with such roles, including lapel badges and sports ties.

Pupils described as ‘invisible’ can often be regarded as ‘model’ pupils as they stay on task, are quiet and well behaved, consequently many staff never get to know them well (Barker, 2012). For many of these pupils they may be physically present and behaving well but fail to take part in lessons mentally, in other words they are playing truant in mind as opposed to being physically absent (Barker, 2012; Collins, 1998).

The ‘characters’ typically do not conform to expected codes of behaviour and present challenges to those around them. In schools discursive positions, according to Cruddas (2005), are governed by a tacit set of rules about who belongs and how people ought to behave. Such rules however, may appear contradictory, resulting in ‘a ‘crisis of choice’ for the young person between their primary and secondary discourses’ (Cruddas, 2005:5). As a consequence

The crises experienced by young people are often encoded in their behaviours. ‘Acting out’ is a crucial signifier of crisis enacted in the cultural codes of an oppositional discourse: non-standard, aggressive language, oppositional modes of dress, challenging behaviours, rejection of forms of academic knowledge and even literacy.

(Cruddas, 2005:5)

4.3.2.2 Consent and the gatekeeper

I wanted to carry out this exercise during a staff meeting for a variety of reasons:

- The staff meeting is attended by the majority of teaching staff and held after the end of the teaching day.
- I was able to conduct the exercise in person to address any concerns, and answer questions, including those in relation to ethics.
- Equipment, photographs were shown on a screen using a digital projector.
- This forum allowed me to explain the purpose of my research and so increased the participatory nature of the exercise

Presenting at the staff meeting was controlled by the Principal, acting as a ‘gatekeeper’ (Homan, 2001). We met 3 times prior to the staff meeting. Firstly to discuss my initial ideas, including what I hoped to achieve; secondly a more detailed meeting to discuss the photograph exercise along with two other group activities; and lastly to finalise the ‘script’ I would use as a basis for my presentation, so that I did not open a “can of worms.” With this amount of input I was concerned I would lose ownership of the research process, however I found our discussions extremely useful and Principal’s role was more as a ‘critical colleague’ than as a ‘gatekeeper.’ Indeed, as the results of our discussion it was the Principal who suggested I ask ‘Why we gather information in schools’ when staff were asked to participate in group discussions following the photograph exercise.

I was conscious that my input at the meeting needed to be short and concise. I supplied staff with an answer sheet and pen. Following a brief introduction by the Principal, I gave an outline of exercises I hoped they would participate in, along with some background to my research and the ethical guidelines I was using, stressing the voluntary nature of the exercise.

The photographic exercise was the first of three exercises I asked the staff to participate in during the meeting. Each child’s photograph was shown on the screen for approximately 10 seconds. Staff were asked to write the child’s name on the sheet and indicate if they had work with the child or not. This was carried out as an anonymous exercise, so as not to embarrass any staff or make them feel uncomfortable. I announced the child’s name before we moved on to the next photo so they could mark themselves as they went along. This also had the benefit of speeding up the exercise.

4.3.2.3 Group research activity

Once the photographic exercise was complete, staff were then asked to get into groups of approximately 6 and discuss the following:

- ‘List as many reasons or purposes as to why we gather information in schools’
- ‘List as many ways how we gather information about pupils’

In each group one member of staff was asked to scribe. Again the exercise was carried out anonymously. Staff were given approximately 5 minutes to complete each exercise.

Although I walked around between the groups, I did not actively participate in any of them, instead made myself available to answer any questions, none were asked. Field notes were completed at the end of the exercises to record any observations, thoughts and opinions.

4.3.3 Questionnaires

The school reception team (n=6) act as a filter for enquires relating to pastoral care and support. They receive incoming telephone calls and emails as well as face to face requests for information and assistance, for example, from parents, carers, employers, educational establishments, external agencies such as social services, as well as other outside organisations. The types of enquiries include those relating to: attendance; medical issues; changes to family circumstances; bereavements; discipline and behavioural problems, bullying concerns, administrative queries and information requests. A questionnaire was produced to explore how these requests were dealt with and to consider the flow of information between departments (see Appendix 4). The questionnaire comprised 22 questions, each containing a statement outlining a different scenario. The scenarios were compiled using categories identified in the case file review. Participants were asked to indicate the course(s) of action they would take from a selection of responses; with the opportunity to write additional comments they felt appropriate.

A self-completion questionnaire was chosen to provide an efficient method of data gathering. The questionnaire was handed out and verbal as well as written instructions were given, to convey the purpose of the research activity and to reassure participants their responses would be anonymised. A targeted questionnaire was deemed an appropriate data collection method, as it facilitated the gathering of opinions of those with direct experience.

This data collection method was used to explore activities taking place at the fringes of the 'community of practice' which supports pastoral care and learning mentor activities within the case study school. Drawing on the work of Wenger (1998), Boud and Middleton (2003) argue

...social participation within the community is the key to informal learning.
It is embedded in the practices and relationships of the workplace and helps

to create identity and meaning... Informal learning is not often acknowledged as learning within organisations. It is typically regarded as part of the job.

(Boud and Middleton, 2003:194-195)

The questionnaire was designed to explore a specific aspect of informal learning i.e. the referral process of enquiries, relating to pastoral care and mentoring, by reception staff. Once the questionnaires were completed the results were reviewed and the findings discussed in subsequent chapters.

4.3.4 Case file review

Central to the role of learning mentors is the breaking down and removal of barriers to learning. To develop an understanding of the types of cases dealt with by learning mentors in St Anthony's, and to explore recurring themes concerning the identification of need and the associated interventions, extensive data were gathered from the case file held in the Pupil Support Department. The contents of the 'case files' were produced by members of the Pupil Support team, consisting of the Pupil Support Manager, the Welfare and Attendance Officer/Learning Mentor (this is a split position) and the Learning and Achievement Administrator. The files did not contain information relating to a pupil's special educational needs as information pertaining to this area is held by the Special Educational Needs Co-ordinator (SENCO). The nature of these files varied and included documentation such as: file notes (both hand written and typed); written records of telephone conversations; attendance printouts for individual pupils from the school's computer system; correspondence sent and received by the school and family members; contact details such as mobile phone numbers, and email addresses; copies of referral forms to outside agencies such as the school nurse, and social services; applications for additional funding to help families in need; letters and reports from outside agencies, such as hospital education, and the education welfare service; copies of emails sent and received; written confirmation of medical issues; and various miscellaneous forms of documentation such as appointment slips (to confirm absences), reports from college, copies of certificates of achievement and sample pieces of academic work. The extent of the information contained in each of the files varied ranging from a single sheet of paper, in some instances to extensive records (in excess of 70 pages) containing information stretching over a number of years. Some files contained standardised documentation, typically in relation to non-attendance at school and the legal procedure surrounding this particular issue.

By reflecting on the details and descriptions of each case, it is possible for ‘naturalistic generalisations’ to be produced. Stake (1980) put forward the concept of naturalistic generalisations, which can be described as a partially intuitive process ‘arrived at by recognising the similarity of objects and issues in and out of context’ (Gomm *et al*, 2000:22). Being a researcher exploring my own professional environment, the concept of naturalistic generalisation is an important consideration, as it is developed as a product of experience. Further, naturalistic generalisations

... derive from the tacit knowledge of how things are, why they are, how people feel about them and how these things are likely to be later or in other places with which this person is familiar. These generalisations became verbalised from tacit knowledge to propositional.

(Gomm *et al*, 2000:22)

To overcome concerns regarding the typicality of selected cases in comparison with the wider population being studied, all the case files in the Pupil Support Department were reviewed as there were too many variables for any one case to be considered as typical (Gomm *et al*, 2000).

Having examined all the ‘case files’ (n= 149), it was possible to identify the challenges and difficulties faced by young people recorded in the documentation held by the department. It should be noted that only those challenges and difficulties that had been brought to the direct attention of staff in the Pupil Support Department were recorded in the files; however, a young person may be experiencing other issues they have discussed with other members of staff and the incidences of which are recorded in separate documentation. It is therefore possible that files held by the department only give a partial picture of the type and nature of the difficulties with which a young person has to contend.

Each file was read and 34 different categories were identified to record the issues each young person was experiencing (or had experienced), which had the potential to impact on their ability to fully participate in school life. Each of the categories was then assessed regarding the frequency and severity of the issues concerned. This assessment was based on the professional judgement of the Pupil Support team, as the extent and frequency of the problems involved could not always be fully ascertained from the documentation alone. This ‘assessment’ process can be described as an example of ‘reflection-on-action’ (Schön, 1983) as it gave the participants, i.e. the Pupil Support team, the opportunity to consider the problems encountered by pupils along with the frequency and extent of the issues

concerned. According to Smith (2011), ‘...the act of reflecting-on-action, enables us to spend time exploring why we acted as we did, what was happening in a group and so on. In doing so we developed sets of questions and ideas about our activities and practice’ (Smith 2011:1). As a result, field notes were written following the discussions associated with assessment process of the case files, to record any observations, thoughts and remarks and to assist in developing meaning and understanding associated with this aspect of the research.

4.3.4.1 Frequency

Each of the difficulties faced by the young person was assessed in terms of how often it occurred and a score was assigned by the Team. A score of ‘1’ was given if the incident or problem involved was considered to be a one-off event or unlikely to occur again; ‘2’ if the issue was transitory or sporadic in nature and ‘3’ if the problem was an on-going concern. The frequency with which a particular problem occurs, only gives a partial picture of the potential impact that a difficulty may create, it is also important to consider the level of severity of the issue involved.

4.3.4.2 Severity

The category describing the problem the young person is experiencing is not always a good indicator of the severity of that issue. For example, children who experience a significant bereavement such as the loss of a parent or close family member will react differently. Some will require a high level of support such as specialist counselling, medical advice and guidance, as well as daily support and would be considered as a severity level ‘3’ (high). If the young person requires regular but less specialist support or intervention, they would be considered as severity level ‘2’ (medium). A child who appears to be coping well in school, evidenced by them attending regularly, completing homework, participating in all aspects of the curriculum, after the initial period of grieving, would be considered at severity level ‘1’. However, the level of severity may need to be reviewed, if the child does not appear to be coping as well as initially thought. Having completed the review of the pupil files, the results were anonymised and tabulated, with the findings discussed and analysed along with data produced through other collection methods, the details of which are found the following chapters.

4.3.5 Document mapping

In an attempt to develop a greater understanding of the interplay of organisational practices with contextual variables in the case study school, a document mapping exercise was conducted to gather contextualising data. Gillies *et al* (2010), in their study on learning engagement, recognise a need to comprehend and analyse local contexts, environments and social interactions. Documents including those relating to policies and procedure were collected and analysed in relation to the specific areas of pastoral care, pupil support and learning mentoring in St Anthony's (see Appendix 1). Ball *et al* (2012) argue that policy and context are inextricably linked. Policy enactment and interpretation in schools are facilitated by institutional factors, i.e. context. Enactment of policy can be evidenced through an array of mediums in schools, including documentation.

Policy is not simply regarded as the 'closed preserve of formal government apparatus of policy making' (Ozga, 2000:42), but also the array of policy processes and enactments occurring in and around schools. The origins of policy may stem from government, their agencies, local authorities and other influential stakeholders, however the policy making in all levels and locations involves 'negotiation, contestation or struggle between different groups who may live outside the formal machinery of official policy making' (Ozga, 2000:113).

Ball *et al* (2012) argue it is not just the teachers and senior leadership teams in schools that interpret and respond to policy; they have also identified a group which they call 'transactors'. They describe this group as diverse and whose relationship with policy is not only supportive and facilitatory but also interpretative. Ball *et al* (2012) argue their role within policy in schools is 'sorely neglected by research'. Included within this group are specialist support staff including learning mentors, who form part of a collective that enacts policy in schools, bringing with them different kinds of experience, training, expert knowledge and perspectives (Maguire *et al*, 2010). Ball *et al* (2012) argue such groups are often outside of the mainstream process of policy interpretation and translation and in many cases 'they operate literally out of sight' (Ball *et al*, 2012:57). Thus the document mapping exercise has identified those texts with specific relevance to policy enactment associated with learning mentors, the findings of which are found in subsequent chapters.

4.4 Ethical Considerations in Relation to Methodology

Case study research as a methodology raises complex ethical issues not found in more 'traditional' forms of enquiry (Nolan and Vander Putten, 2007). Puchner and Smith (2008) for example, have identified the problems associated with the proximity of 'subjects' in the research process, more specifically 'being close to your subjects can force you to be particularly sensitive to the potential outcomes' (2008:422). This is of particular significance to this research due to the insider status of the researcher. To help minimise the impact of any conflicts of interest associated with such a position, a number of the major considerations associated this aspect of the research have been identified are summarised in Table 4.1.

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Table 4.2 Considerations associated with insider research (IASR, 2009)

A major ethical consideration associated with case study research is protecting the anonymity and confidentiality of participants. Stake (2003) argues the researcher is in a highly privileged position, and in my own experience one of great trust. Stake (2003) comments

Qualitative researchers are guests in the private spaces of the world. Their manners should be good and their code of ethics strict.

(Stake, 2003:154)

It became increasingly apparent that the ethical considerations involved were more complex than implied by the guidelines governing research ethics, such as those proposed by the British Educational Research Association (BERA) (2011). As Bruckman remarks,

‘No set of rigid rules can ever capture the subtlety of ethical considerations that arise’ (2002:1). Stake (2003) stresses the importance of researchers going beyond the standard ethics protocols and ensuring every effort is made to minimise the risks to participants, for example, by providing feedback; maintaining an active dialogue with research participants; and in particular ‘to listen well to signs of concern’ (2003:154). Specific ethical considerations in relation to this study have been summarised in Table 4.3, with a focus on the different components of data collection.

Data Collection Method	Ethical Considerations
Interviews	All interviews were conducted within St Anthony’s at a time convenient to interviewees, to help minimise any sense of pressure associated with participation. Approximately two weeks prior to the interviews taking place, the study was outlined to participants, to give those involved time to consider their participation and their right to withdraw from the study at any stage. Non-gender specific pseudonyms were used along with anonymity of roles to protect the identity of those involved (see Section 4.3.1). If those being interviewed used names of individuals or divulged situations which could potentially identify others from whom consent had not been obtained, although transcribed, direct usage of such sections was not used to present or discuss findings. Although prior knowledge could be considered as a limiting factor in a researcher’s ability to be objective, due to the semi-structured nature of the interviews, it allowed questions to be modified based on answers given.
Document Mapping Exercise	The documents examined were available with the consent of the gatekeeper i.e. the college principal. In terms of the document mapping exercise, the details of specific pupil data were not considered and as a consequence individual consent was not obtained, instead the documents were gathered to provide contextualising data. All data, including the identity of the school, were anonymised in the presentation of findings.
Case File Review	Although this method of data collection involved analysis of individual case files, consent was not sought from either pupils or parents as specific details concerning individual pupils were not used or presented. Instead, the nature of the problems individuals experienced were explored and identified. The results were not only anonymised through the removal of names, but through the presentation of the data by showing the results of each issue separately, to ensure patterns of difficulty could not be identified and possibly associated with individual pupils. Due to the potential of prior knowledge impacting on my ability as a researcher to be objective, each file was categorised in terms of the problems

	experienced by individual pupils based on the combined professional judgement of the Pupil Support Team.
Questionnaire	The questionnaire was produced to explore how pastoral enquiries are dealt with by reception staff. Freedom of consent was extremely important and both written and verbal explanations of the study were given with an emphasis placed on the voluntary nature of participation in the study. To avoid undue pressure to complete the questionnaire, which could be interpreted as a perceived power dynamic, participants were given a two week response time to avoid putting them under pressure to complete, but also a time scale that was not open-ended and thus may result in non-completion. It was also emphasised this questionnaire was for the purposes of the study only and had not been requested as part of any school commissioned activity, and as such participants had the right to withdraw their consent at any time and the results produced would be anonymised.
Pupil Identification Exercise	Special consideration needs to be given to the use of photographs as a means of collecting data (Menter <i>et al</i> , 2011:188) especially in relation to consent, confidentiality and anonymity. However, if photographs used in the research were originally taken for other purposes, the ethical considerations involved are likely to be different compared to those associated with photographs taken directly in pursuit of the research. Stiles and Boothroyd (2011) emphasise the balance of research actions to ensure the rights of individuals to privacy and protection are made, at the same time providing the professionals concerned with access to data for research purposes. With specific reference to this research, it was decided that due to the availability of the photographs used in the pupil identification exercise to all staff within St Anthony's as well as the researcher, and the permission of the school principal had been given for their use, no further consent was sought or obtained. The privacy of those involved in the exercise either as staff participants or as pupils through the use of their photographs, was protected through the anonymisation of results. Further, the potential of harm to pupil participants involved in the exercise was considered and deemed to be minimised if attention was not drawn to the selection of their photographs due to the potential connotations associated with level of recognition or selection criteria (see Section 4.3.2). Such decision making principles are made on a daily basis within a school environment, however, if such an exercise were to be conducted elsewhere in another school, by a non-participant researcher, then consent and other ethical issues would need to be reviewed.
Group Research Activity	This data collection exercise took place during a staff meeting and involved the participation of colleagues. Access to conduct this data collection exercise was controlled by the Principal, acting as a gatekeeper. Verbal instructions were given at the start of the

	exercise, including the background to the study. It was important to stress the voluntary nature of the exercise which was facilitated by the splitting of the participants into smaller groups in which individuals could contribute as much or little as they wanted. One person in the group acted as a scribe, and thus the contribution of individuals could not be identified by the researcher and thus assisting in the anonymity of findings
Field Notes	Field notes were made throughout the research process in a variety of forms, including the recording of brief notes, ideas, observations as well as descriptive text. Since ‘much information recorded in field notes and other records directly relates to individual persons, their social interactions, personal relationships, behaviours, beliefs and opinions’ (De Laine, 2000:146), it has been important to consider what aspects of the field notes should be regarded as confidential or private, or remarks considered as ‘off the record’. Thus, any information recorded in the field notes and subsequently used in the main study, pseudonyms have been used to protect individuals mentioned directly or whose identity can be deduced from other circumstances such as the settings in which people work, their role or relation to others.

Table 4.3 Ethical considerations relating to methods of data collection used in the study.

4.5 Research Activities

4.5.1 Practical Issues

4.5.1.1 Data protection

A significant component of this study has been the identification of different sources of pupil data and information held within the case study school to support the needs of individual pupils. It involves the consideration of sensitive personal data, subject to the provisions of the Data Protection Act 1998. At a school level it is permissible under the Act to hold information on individual pupils to support their learning and teaching, monitor and track progress and provide appropriate levels of pastoral care. The use of secondary data for research purposes is permissible under the Act provided the following conditions are met:

- The data are not processed to support measures or decisions relating to particular individuals; and
- The data are not processed in such a way that substantial damage or substantial distress is, or is likely to be, caused to any data subject.

(Data Protection Act 1998, Chapter 29, Section 33:31)

To ensure data collected were in a manner compliant with the Data Protection Act 1998, it was essential that those I asked to participate in the research process through interview or questionnaire were,

...informed fully about the purpose, methods and intended possible uses of the research, what their participation in the research entails and what risks, if any are involved.

(Economic and Social Research Council, 2005:23)

4.5.1.2 Funding

I have received some financial support from my employer and time off to attend the Ed D programme for which I am very grateful. Through participation in this course I wanted to undertake research that I felt would enhance my own professional practice, and benefit the organisation in which I work. Despite this, I still feel I retained ownership over the research process, as I have not experienced any pressure to follow a particular direction, and my only obligation to my employer is a moral one to successfully complete the course.

4.5.2 Ethical considerations in relation to research design

The research undertaken for this thesis is located within my own place of work which carries with it ethical dilemmas distinct from other forms of research, whereby

...work based practitioners risk being unethical (or at least a-ethical) unless a different approach is sought where personal moral deliberation is central to research ethics.

(Gibbs and Costley, 2006: 240)

Throughout the research I have remained employed within my existing organisation and therefore, access to information, staff and student data, did not pose a significant problem. Having already outlined the project proposal, the school principal granted permission for the study to be conducted within my own organisation, thereby acting as a 'gatekeeper' to the research process by allowing access. Homan (2001) would claim the presence of a 'gatekeeper' has ethical implications of its own, especially in relation to informed consent, arguing

In educational research... it is frequently the case that the principles of informed consent, which is central to the ethical control of all social research, is directed not at those behaviour is the subject of an enquiry but one who takes a decision on their behalf.

(Homan, 2001:229)

Informed consent was obtained, by providing prospective participants with adequate information, to make a considered decision about their involvement in the research process. Since I was requesting participation and support from colleagues it was important that, such consent was obtained without duress and participation was voluntary. Inherent in the concept of informed consent, lies a moral obligation to respect participants and ensure where possible, potential risks have been minimised and interests of those involved have been considered. Depending on the method of data collection, I either verbally informed participants or provided them with an information sheet (see Appendix 5), outlining the details of the study, and to confirm the information they provided would be treated in confidence and their anonymity protected.

Homan (2001) argues once informed consent has been obtained there is a concern

...investigators may feel that their moral duty has been discharge: the subject's signature on a piece of paper may be held to indemnify the researcher

(Homan, 2001:332)

The issue of informed consent is also problematic due to the complex nature of learning cultures (James and Gleeson, 2007). This complexity is illustrated using Bourdieu's concept of field to describe the social arena in which agents and their social positions are found. Due to the interaction between fields, those granting access may indeed be allowing entry into other social settings.

Puchner and Smith (2008) question exactly whom do you obtain consent from. For example, in an interview situation, ethical guidelines usually require consent to be obtained from the interviewee, although there is potential for harm to others through the disclosure of information. Indeed, it is questionable if informed consent can ever truly be obtained as it is not possible to predict all the implications and consequences of a research activity (Puchner and Smith, 2008; Smith, 1990; Van den Berg, 2001).

Another significant challenge was to separate activities which I carried out as part of my regular work, and those undertaken as part of the research process. Homan (2001) highlights the issue of the researcher using information gathered prior to the start of an enquiry whether ‘systematically or unconsciously’, (2001:330) and the status of consent of the participants as it is neither informed nor voluntary.

Puchner and Smith (2008) identify potential ‘tension between the personal and the professional’, (2008:427) that exists when attempting to act ethically. In part, this is the recognition that in addition to improving practice, the existence of other aims and motives needs to be considered, such as the successful completion of an academic programme. In addition, due to the position of the researcher within the research process, which may be one of power, the potential for manipulation of subjects, data and access also needed to be taken into account. To ensure the study was conducted in an ethical manner, it was important to view such considerations as integral to the research process and that I have conducted the research with sensitivity and integrity and developed an ‘understanding of care’ (Gibbs and Costley, 2007; MacCorraidh, 2002) throughout the research process.

4.6 Reliability and Validity

Case studies when compared with other research methods have traditionally been viewed as lacking objectivity and rigour (Rowley, 2002). Careful design can assist to reduce such criticisms and the possibility of bias (Billingsley and Poole, 1986; Paton, 2002; Smith, 1978 and Yin, 1994). In dealing with these criticisms, case study researchers have developed a number of different approaches to increase the integrity of this form of research (Reige and Nair, 1996), in particular in relation to notions of reliability and validity. Golafshani (2003) calls for a redefinition of the terms validity and reliability for their use in a naturalistic approach towards research that seeks to understand phenomena in a context specific setting. Golafshani (2003) argues to understand how validity and reliability relates to qualitative research, it is important to consider this in terms of ‘quality’. Golafshani (2003) remarks

Reliability is a concept to evaluate quality in quantitative study with a “purpose of explaining” while quality concept in qualitative research has the purpose of “generating understanding”.

(Golafshani, 2003:601)

In the sections that follow, issues of validity and reliability are explored with a specific focus on the integrity of case study research.

4.6.1 Reliability

Wellington (2000) refers to reliability as a ‘... judgement of the extent to which a test, a method or a tool gives consistent results across a range of settings’ (2000:31). According to Richie and Lewis (2003), the reliability of findings generated through research is not only dependent on the likely reoccurrence of the original data, but also the way that it is interpreted. The absolute replication of findings in qualitative studies is unlikely to be achieved, as it reflects realities at the time when the data were collected in a changeable environment (Marshall and Rossman, 1999; Seale, 1999). Due to the use of semi-structured data collection methods, the replication of research activities is difficult to achieve. However, in instances where replication is not possible, reliability can be enhanced through

...showing the audience of research studies as much as possible the procedures that have led to a particular set of conclusions
(Seale, 1999:158)

The reliability of the data gathered can be enhanced through the documentation of procedures and appropriate record keeping. Further, the development of a case study protocol can be used to assert reliability and consistency of case study research (Yin, 1994; Tellis, 1997; Hoepfl, 1997). Typically, such a protocol covers

- Overview of the project (project objective and case study issues)
- Field procedures (credentials and access to sites)
- Questions (specific questions that the investigator must keep in mind during data collection)
- Guide for the report (outline, format for the narrative)

(Yin, 1994:64)

However, the notion of reliability as argued by Lincoln and Guba (1985) is inextricably linked to the concept of validity, they remark

Since there can be no validity without reliability, a demonstration of the former [validity] is sufficient to establish the latter [reliability]

(Lincoln and Guba, 1985:316]

A point agreed with by Patton 2002 who also states reliability is a consequence of the validity of the research process which is explored in the following section.

4.6.2 Validity and triangulation

Case study is known as a triangulation research strategy (Tellis, 1997). Snow and Anderson (1991) argue that triangulation is not simply restricted to data but can be applied to investigators, theories and even methodologies. Stake (1995) argues the protocols identified to develop case study accuracy and alternative explanations are themselves called triangulation. Tellis (1997) argues triangulation has occurred as a result of the ethical need to ensure the validity of processes. Thus whilst triangulation can be interpreted to occupy a number of meanings within research, it is broadly a strategy that is used to reinforce the confidence of research findings (Arksey and Knight, 1999).

In respect of the present research, triangulation through the use of multiple methods of data collection is one way to ensure valid research results (Johansson, 2003; Belbase, 2007; Freimuth, 2009). Data have been collected from different sources and using multiple data collection methods, including semi-structured interviews, document analysis and questionnaires. However, the notion of combining methods for the purpose of triangulation is viewed with caution by Babour (1998), who argues that mixing methods within one paradigm, such as qualitative research that can be problematic, as it is based on the ‘ terms of the theoretical frameworks we bring to bear on our research’ (Babour, 1998: 353). Babour argues it is important that triangulation is ‘defined’ from the researcher’s perspective and the method used to test the validity of a study is dependent on the criteria of the research.

This research is based on a constructivist approach which Crotty (1998) describes as one where

... the view that all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context.

(Crotty, 1998:42)

Since constructivism values the idea of multiple realities, a variety of different methods of searching and gathering data were used, as this was deemed the most suitable approach to meet the research purposes outlined in Chapter 1 (Section 1.4) and to support the rationale behind choosing case study research.

4.7 Summary

This chapter describes the methodological considerations and practical methods contained within this study. My own life history has been used to explore how my philosophical stance as a researcher has developed, taking into account the assumptions made about ontology, epistemology, human nature, structure and agency that underpin the study and the subsequent impact this had on the rationale for choosing case study as a research methodology. Details of how the research was planned and conducted have also been presented, along with consideration given to any potential ethical issues that could arise throughout different stages of the research. The rigour of the research has also been considered in terms of validity and reliability and how this impacts on the findings obtained from the data analysis which are presented in the following chapters.

CHAPTER 5: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS RELATING TO LEARNING MENTOR PRACTICE

5.1 Introduction

Thomas (2011) argues that due to the holistic nature of case study research, the analysis and discussion of findings is likely to differ from more linear approaches. In a linear study ‘findings precede the analysis, which precedes the discussion’ (Thomas, 2011:196); however, in a case study such boundaries are less clear, with the analysis and discussion of findings merging and infiltrating each other (Thomas, 2011).

Wiggins (2012) warns of the danger, that even with rich and interesting empirical data, the structure used to present, discuss and analyse findings is crucial, if one is to avoid producing a ‘deadly dull laundry list’ (Wiggins, 2012:1) in which readers become lost; as compared to one that produces a more ‘palatable and interesting shape’ (Wiggins, 2012:1), through a writing process that generates a coherent story and valuable insights. To assist in the construction of such an account and to identify the implicit and explicit ideas within the data, a number of themes were identified and subsequently interpreted. As a consequence a thematic approach has been adopted in this and the two subsequent chapters to discuss and analyse the findings of this study.

The central focus of this research concerns learning mentors, and this is considered as the object of the study. Three main themes have been identified as shaping and determining this central element, namely: learning mentor practice; professional identity and policy enactment at an institutional level. Although identified as separate themes, these aspects are interconnected as illustrated in Figure 5.1.

Having analysed the data gathered from the different collection activities outlined in Chapter 4, twenty-one sub themes were identified and these have been grouped into three sections as illustrated in Figure 5.2. Again the sub themes are interconnected and overlap with each other, for example the organisational structure of schools has strong links with the boundaries of mentoring work.

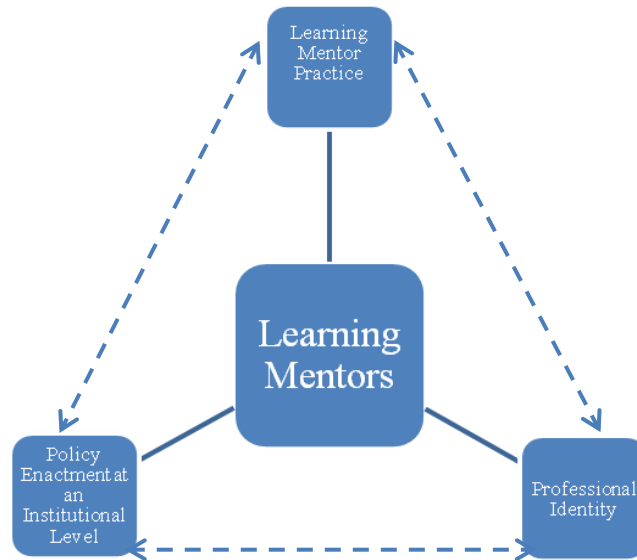


Figure 5.1 Key themes identified from data collection activities

Sub themes
<p>Learning Mentor Practice: Organisational Structure of Schools, Intervention, Identification of Pupil Need, Mentoring and Inclusion</p> <p>Professional Identity: Boundaries of Mentoring Work, Types of Activity, Becoming a Specialist, Interaction with Other Agencies, Background of Mentors, Training, Career Structure, The Nature of Mentoring Relationships and Professionalism</p> <p>Policy: Dynamics of context, Legislative Framework, Child Protection, Every Child Matters, Building of Resilience, Competitive Environment, Reputation</p>

Figure 5.2 Sub themes identified from data collection activities

The twenty one sub themes were then considered in relation to the three main themes reflected in the data, thus shaping the presentation and discussion of findings in this and the following two chapters. The data collection methods used to produce the findings are summarised in the Table 5.1

Research Method Reference	Research Method	Details
RM1	Interviews	8 interviews semi-structured were conducted in school with pastoral leaders and members of the Pupil Support team
RM2	Document Mapping Exercise	A document mapping exercise was conducted to gather contextualising data from a variety of different sources as detail in Appendix 1
RM3	Case File Review	149 Case files held in the Pupil Support department were examined to develop an understanding of the types of cases dealt with by learning mentors and to explore recurring themes concerning the identification of need and the associated interventions
RM4	Questionnaire	A questionnaire was produced to explore how pastoral enquires are dealt with by reception staff and to consider the flow of information between departments
RM5	Pupil Identification Exercise	Photographs of pupils were used to explore the extent they were known to members of school teaching staff
RM6	Group Research Activity	These exercises concern the gathering of information in schools to support the needs of pupils
RM7	Field Notes	To record, observations, remarks and experiences associated with the research process

Table 5.1 Research methods used in data collection

5.2 The Impact of Organisational Structure on Learning Mentoring

The organisational structure found within St Anthony's is more complex than the 'traditional' configuration described by Watkins (1999). Having reviewed a range of

school policy documentation found in St Anthony's (RM3) and through observations recorded in field notes (RM7), a number of different organisational structures, predominantly hierarchical, have been identified, depending on the functions being performed within the school. The division of academic and pastoral activities as described by Watkins (1999) is evident within St Anthony's, with the vast majority of teachers undertaking two roles, one associated with their teaching responsibilities, the other concerning their pastoral duties. The 'academic' hierarchical structure (see Figure 1, Appendix 6) is based on the 'core task' of teaching and learning (Stevenson, 2007:224) and is carried out by those with qualified teacher status. The 'pastoral' organisation is again hierarchical in nature, and consists of members of the senior leadership team, three heads of house (Years 8-11), a head of year (Year 7 only), and a team of tutors, again all of whom are qualified teachers (see Figure 2, Appendix 6).

The position of learning mentoring within St Anthony's concurs with the definition of pastoral care put forward by Her Majesty's Inspectorate in 1989, in that it forms part of the general support system (see Figure 3, Appendix 6) to offer assistance to individual pupils, rather than the specific pastoral structure relating to the house and year activity found within St Anthony's (see Table 1, Appendix 6) which offers universal pastoral provision. However, comments from a member of the Pupil Support team, indicate learning mentors do not necessarily consider themselves completely absorbed within the pastoral care structure

I'm not sure if people see us as one thing or another. We're everything to everyone...we help out on the academic side with things like coursework, additional qualifications and revision, but also a large amount of our time is taken up by things I would describe as purely pastoral. I think we form our own structure, somewhere between the pastoral side and the academic...it depends on what we are being asked to do.

(Charlie, Pupil Support Team, St Anthony's)

One explanation that accounts for this perceived overlap, is the relatively recent addition of mentoring roles into schools and consequently they are yet to become an integral part of the more traditional hierarchical structures, neither fully part of the academic or pastoral functions, but operating at the interface, which can be described as a 'third space environment' (Whitchurch 2008, Gordon and Whitchurch, 2010).

The emergence of a 'structure' at the interface between the pastoral and academic functions, has started to 'blur the already fuzzy divide' (Ball, 2010:124) Such a move can be regarded as an example of 'destatisation' (Jessop, 2002: Ball, 2012) which involves the redrawing of the partnerships within organisations, by reallocating tasks and rearticulating the relationships within structures, and can also be considered an example of a shift towards 'liquid modernity' as described by Bauman (2005).

The development of new structures at the interface between existing hierarchies in turn paves the way to potentially replace more traditional structures with one of heterarchy, in which the elements are configured in alternative ways compared to more conventional structures. An example of the different ways elements within organisations are ranked, can be found in the case study school within its documentation relating to learning mentors, who, as previously mentioned, are considered part of the general pastoral structure, but are also shown to be part of an eclectic mix of occupations known as 'support staff' (Blatchford *et al*, 2009) (detailed in Appendix 7). In this instance, these individuals are grouped together, not because of the functions they perform, but by the fact that they are essentially non-teachers (excluding their line managers). If members are considered to be part of a homogenous group under this categorisation, there is the potential to misjudge the skill level of learning mentors and others, as the range of qualifications and experience varies considerably between each position, and thus impacting on the perceived professional identity of those concerned, and reinforcing the difficulty expressed by Andrews (2006) in accurately and appropriately describing non-teaching staff.

Evidence to support the position of learning mentors at the interface of academic and pastoral activity (Clark, 2008) was also found in the case file review (RM3). With the exception of the cases that related specifically to attendance matters which followed a standardised procedure, each file contained evidence of a unique combination of intervention activities, involving communication and support from staff in both academic and pastoral positions and in some instance input from external agencies and organisations. In the most complex cases up to 16 different parties were involved in providing support for individual pupils (Figure 5.3). Since the documentation examined in the case file review was held in the Pupil Support Department, it is not surprising that the role of learning mentors appears pivotal in many of these cases in a role drawing parallels with the lead professional role under the CAF process. As a consequence, learning mentors may not

simply act in an administrative role to aid communication, but in an active position to co-ordinate and facilitate intervention.

Learning Mentors		
<p>Academic</p> <p>Leaders of Learning Subject Teachers</p>	<p>Pastoral</p> <p>Head of House Tutor Pupil Support Teacher Welfare and Attendance Officer Inclusion Manager Vice Principal</p>	<p>Outside Agencies</p> <p>Hospital Education Service CAMHS Social Services Specialist Education Support Services School Nurse Educational Psychologist Local Authority SEN</p>

Figure 5.3 An example of sources of intervention found within one case file co-ordinated by learning mentors.

A recurring theme, that is found in the research data gathered from interviews (RM 1), is one of communication (referred to 12 times in 6 separate interviews) between individuals and departments and it is perceived to be a real strength of the school in how it looks after its young people, reflected in the comments of one member of the Pupil Support team

I see it across the school. I witness many conversations between tutors and staff about students. I see people in conversations between non-teachers and... when I say non-teachers, teachers who don't have responsibility for a student, either in their tutor group or in their teaching groups but have interaction because staff here interact with students all the time even if they don't know them. And I've witnessed many conversations where... "Oh yeah I saw so and so...have you noticed...and that's a bit odd...he's doing really well". Those asides, which are general conversations here, that happens all the time. I don't think the school realises they do as well as they actually do.

(Alex, Pupil Support Team, St Anthony's)

The nature of communication implied by these comments is one of informality. Whilst such communication offers flexibility, there is the potential to create an overlap between functions, activities and roles within the school, a point reflected in the comments of one pastoral leader who remarks

I think we do overlap and that can cause more work for ourselves sometimes. But because they have so many different options for somebody to go to for support, they know they've got pupil support, they got Mrs M, they know they've got the Heads of House, they've got their tutors, I know some even go up to see Mrs E and Mr P and things like that. I think we are pretty good at covering those gaps – I mean someone could fall through, someone could not feel confident enough to see any of those, we've got bully mentors as well within the pupils, so I would hope, I would hope very much we are covered, but I do think we overlap a lot.

(George, Pastoral Leader, St Anthony's)

Such 'structural' overlaps have implications not only concerning the boundaries of the work of learning mentors, but how the role has developed over time and how it is perceived by others. For learning mentoring to be both effective and integrated into all aspects of school practice, 'the role needs to be recognised and understood by the whole school and wider community' (Learning Trust, 2009:12) and thus the boundaries of the work need to be clear, whilst retaining elements of flexibility and creativity to meet the needs of young people.

5.3 Intervention

5.3.1 How are pupils referred to work with learning mentors?

Having reviewed the learning mentor case files (RM 3), the nature of the referral process within St Anthony's can be described as 'informal', with no identifiable procedure or explicit criteria upon which the commencement of the work with learning mentors is based, a situation that is in contrast to that found in other schools according to Cruddas (2005). Having examined the documentation contained within the case files it is possible to identify a variety of trigger factors that instigates the work of learning mentors and these are detailed overleaf:

Information received directly from other members of staff

Learning mentors receive information concerning pupils directly from the staff within St Anthony's, including non-teachers, either in the form of verbal comments or other forms of communication such as emails.

These different forms of communication can be considered as examples of informal education (Smith, 2009) and contribute to the development of communities of practice (Wenger, 1998) within the school. Case files show evidence of this type of education particularly in the file notes used to encompass 'the everyday conversations that emerge in the classroom, or in encounters in hallways, canteens and play areas' (Andrews, 2001:14).

In St Anthony's direct feedback from staff can also be in the form of information received via those working in the Reception Department, as a result of enquiries and situations requiring action. Enquiries of a pastoral nature are not automatically passed on to a particular group or individual, as a number of options are available for reception staff to process these enquiries. In the absence of a formalised procedure, a questionnaire was devised to explore the courses of action undertaken by reception staff processing an enquiry (RM 4). A total of 6 responses were received from different members of the reception team (100% return rate). The findings of the questionnaire are detailed in Appendix 8. For some of the scenarios, there was a consensus of replies relating to: academic progress; transport issues; exam stress; disaffection; potential eating disorders and attendance concerns. However, for other situations the responses were more varied, predominately concerning three main courses of action regarding referrals to: the Pupil Support Department; Heads of House/Year and the Vice Principal or a combination of the three. Referral of enquiries to the young person's tutor were limited, with only 9 first choice responses, 3 of which were given as part of a combination answer. Due to the extent of the differences in response for some of the scenarios, it is possible to conclude the understanding of pastoral roles relating to specific situations may not always be clear, thus blurring the boundaries particularly between the three key response areas. The differences in responses however, can also be considered as an indication of flexibility within the pastoral care system within St Anthony's, as a number of options are available to deal with enquiries, potentially creating additional capacity, especially in relation to reactive pastoral care situations described in Chapter 2 (Section 2.3.6).

Observations made by the Pupil Support Team

The origins of learning mentor cases can stem from observations made by staff from within the Pupil Support Department. Such observations may relate to changes in the behaviour and appearance of pupils; the development of new friendship groups; or a young person's ability to cope with a period of stress such as exams, medical conditions or difficulties outside school. Many of these observations originate from the presence of the team at break and lunchtimes in the central concourse area in the school, which can be considered as part of the informal education agenda within St Anthony's (Smith, 2009). Witnessing children in different circumstances, compared to classroom situations, enables those working in the Pupil Support Team to potentially gain a different insight into the issues facing young people in comparison with other members of staff.

Pupils seen by learning mentors for non-mentoring activities

Learning mentors in St Anthony's have a number of different roles that they fulfil in addition to their mentoring activities, including the provision of careers advice and guidance, work experience co-ordination and dealing with welfare and attendance issues. The diversity of the different aspects of the work undertaken by the learning mentors in the school is an example of 'how the role itself has developed beyond its original inception' (Bishop, 2011: 32). Pupils when discussing one situation may allude to difficulties or challenges in other areas, such as discussions regarding career options and the associated qualifications may expose other problems they experience in relation to completing coursework, homework and study skills, which may not be apparent through school assessment data alone.

Attendance Issues

Attendance was the most prevalent reason identified in the case file review (RM 3) for learning mentor intervention. Non-attendance, whilst a barrier to learning in its own right (Hughes, 2009), may also be associated with or an indicator of problems elsewhere - (a summary of the attendance information contained within the pupil case files is detailed in Appendix 9).

Out of the 149 cases reviewed, 113 contained issues relating to general attendance concerns. In addition, a further 2 cases were noted, pertaining to the most serious form of non-attendance, where a pupil is described as a child missing education. In these circumstances the pupil is reported to the local authority, as the young person concerned cannot be traced using routine school procedures such as home visits, and their whereabouts is not known. Due to the potential child protection issues associated with a child missing education, the severity level associated with this type of case is at its highest. The data from the case file review show that attendance issues not only increase as pupils progress through the school but also the associated intervention level intensifies. The gender split associated with attendance issues as indicated by the review remains even, with the exception of year 9, and in Year 7 where the numbers are comparatively small (n=3). The pattern of cases in terms of age profile and gender split, reflects that of the overall case file review discussed in Chapter 6 (Section 6.3.3).

Pupil Data

Pupil data are used to identify underachievement and potential barriers to learning amongst pupils. The source of such data as identified in the document mapping exercise (RM 2) takes various forms including examination results, teacher assessments, pupil reviews and cognitive ability tests. In St Anthony's, academic underachievement becomes a focus of activity involving learning mentors, especially for those pupils in Year 11 who are in danger of not reaching school league table key performance indicators, in particular 5 GCSEs grades A*- C, including Maths and English. Learning mentors are involved in the organisation and administration of additional qualifications with the equivalency rating of GCSEs recorded in the national qualifications framework (QCA, 2006). Record of this activity, however, is not found in the learning mentor case files, instead separate records are kept and were explored as part of the document mapping exercise (RM2). Further learning mentors are also involved in the support of pupils on a one to one basis, in relation to coursework, homework, study skills and general motivational support, usually upon the request of individual teachers. On occasion learning mentors may work with pupils at home, most typically in situations where the child is unable to attend school due to illness. Whilst data may indicate levels of underachievement, learning mentors are engaged regarding the 'soft' factors associated with motivation, attitude and behaviour (Morris and Pullen, 2007) as well as levels of disaffection and disengagement (Ross, 2009). Further

learning mentors within St Anthony's also work with whole year groups and their parents to support pupils through exams and help to develop study skills and revision techniques. It is not possible to extrapolate the impact of learning mentor intervention alone upon the overall exam results of the school, as a variety of other factors and interventions are put in place to support pupils academically; however there has been a continued improvement in exam results since the learning mentoring programme was established within St Anthony's and this accompanied by a continued increase in attendance rates as shown in Table 5.2.

Academic Year	Attendance %	% of Pupils achieving 5 A*-C grades at GCSE
2003-2004	91.9%	57%
2004-2005	92.9%	70%
2005-2006	92.9%	73%
2006-2007	93.4%	77%
2007-2008	93.9%	87%
2008-2009	93.5%	85%
2009-2010	93.9%	91%
2010-2011	94.0%	99%
2011-2012	94.3%	98%

Table 5.2 Percentage attendance and GCSE results for St Anthony's

Outside agencies

Learning mentors work with pupils as a result of information obtained from different outside agencies, for example, notification of offending behaviour from the police or youth

offending teams may result in learning mentors working with individuals or co-ordinating support from other more specialist agencies. In other situations, learning mentors may be contacted to provide input and background information for particular cases and as a consequence gain a greater understanding of the needs of an individual, who in turn may require additional support. The range of agencies involved in supporting pupils ascertained from the case file review (RM3) is detailed in Figure 5.4.

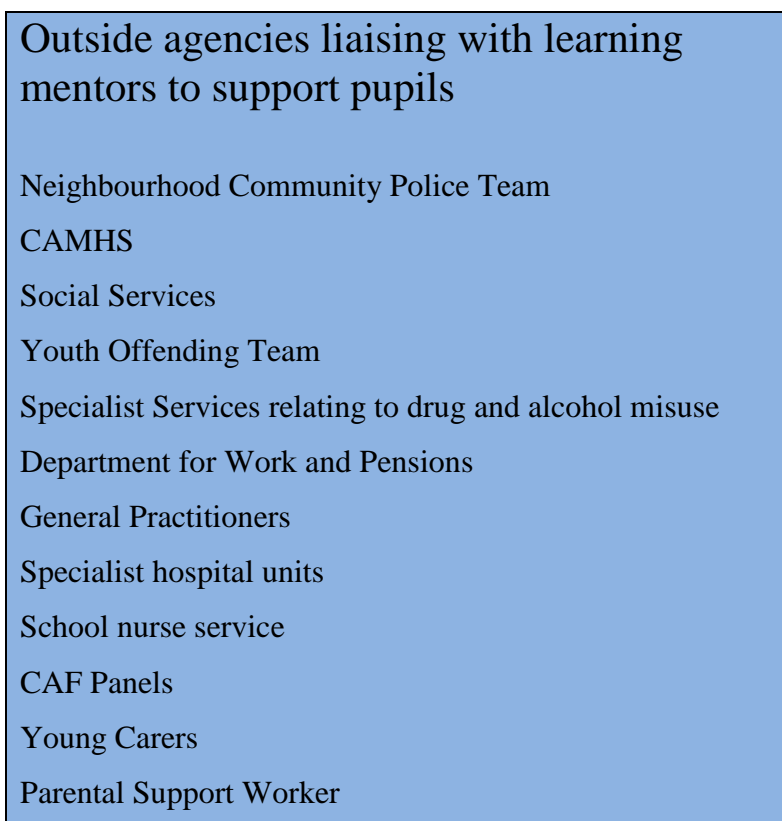


Figure 5.4 Outside agencies liaising with learning mentors to support pupils

Peer concerns

Some of the learning mentors' caseload has evolved as a result of concerns expressed by fellow pupils. In some instances this is the result of anonymous information received and in others situations pupils have directly reported concerns about a member of their peer group to learning mentors or other school staff, usually because they have been supported themselves by a particular member of staff. Why pupils gravitate to a particular member of staff was an issue identified in the research interviews, reflected in the comments of one of the Pupil Support team who remarked

We all have different strengths and I think the children naturally gravitate to one or other of us. I'm not sure why but they somehow or other seem to identify who they prefer to work with. I think it's how they respond to us and in turn how we respond to them.

(Charlie, Pupil Support Team, St Anthony's)

The nature of the problems pupils wish to report on behalf of their peers varies, however the overriding concern focuses on the individual not being prepared to report the issue for themselves. From my own observations, learning mentors exercise caution and use their professional judgement concerning the information received, as initially it has not been validated, as it could be considered as rumour, speculation or gossip. Such judgement is demonstrated in the comments by one of the Pupil Support team who remarked

If they [the peers] bother to come and see us, they genuinely care... therefore we will always try and carefully tease out any issues their friend maybe facing, if they don't want to talk we reassure them we are always there if they want to come and talk.

(Charlie, Pupil Support Team, St Anthony's)

Pupils self-refer

Learning mentors may commence working with a young person at the pupil's own request. Self-referral is of particular significance, as it indicates a level of awareness by the young person of issues that may be causing them concern. The opportunity for pupils to self-refer is important, as it recognises an 'understanding children themselves have of their own barriers to learning and participation, and their willingness to change' (Cruddas, 2005:59). According to the case file review (RM3) the majority of the issues experienced by pupils who self refer relate to social and emotional problems, relationship issues, mental health concerns, bullying and difficulties associated with studying and exams.

Information received from parents

Learning mentors within St Anthony's may work with pupils as a result of a direct request from parents. The nature of the initial communication may be verbal or written. The learning mentor case files show a variety of parental requests for assistance, including: help with attendance issues; support regarding medical conditions; study skills and revision advice and support regarding friendship issues and bullying. In addition to requests for help received from parents, the case files also recorded information given by parents

concerning changes to family circumstances, as a result of divorce and separation, bereavement and other family difficulties. The case files also recorded two instances where requests for support and intervention were received from the parents of another young person regarding a particular individual they had concerns about.

Information received from primary schools

Each year, the Head of Year 7 from St Anthony's and the Inclusion Manager will visit the partner primary schools from where the majority of the school's intake is received. This gives the staff an opportunity to discuss any concerns regarding the young people shortly to join the school with their class teacher. The information gathered, concerns academic data, special educational needs requirements and general observations about the child's personality, their family background, the social and emotional needs of the child and recommendations about tutor group allocations. Evidence from the case file review (RM3) in the form of documentation, including meeting notes and pupil profiles, indicates some pupils are referred to the learning mentors for action as soon as they join the school, whilst others are monitored so that they can make a 'fresh start' (Pastoral Leader, St Anthony's) and only receiving support as required.

The upset child

On occasion children who are upset and have been unable or unwilling to explain the cause to other members of staff will be brought to the Pupil Support Department. Staff within the department, will then embark on a careful process of settling the young person, calming them down and then exploring the nature of the issue at hand. Sometimes this can involve a comparatively straightforward issue to deal with, for example, lost equipment, academic issues, and friendship concerns. However, in some instances as indicated in the case files, the distress of the young person is an indicator of more far reaching issues, including those associated with child protection and personal safety, which if the situation dictates will then be referred on to the appropriate member of staff who deals with these issues. Such an approach reflects the importance, identified by Harris and Allen (2011), regarding the role of learning mentors in providing support and guidance to young people and when required mobilising specialist help.

First Aid

Due to the proximity of the first aid room to the learning mentor base within St Anthony's, many pupils will arrive at the office requesting first aid assistance. However, upon further questioning as evident in the case files (RM3), other issues may arise, for example, homework not completed; eating issues, self-harm, friendship concerns, problems at home or the avoidance of particular lessons. One of the Pupil Support team is a trained first aider, as a consequence they are in a position to pick up patterns of illness and first aid requests, to see if there are other underlying factors or potential barriers to learning that may impact upon an individual pupil. Evidence in the case files indicates close liaison between learning mentors and reception staff regarding the frequency of requests for first aid help by particular pupils and the subsequent action undertaken by the learning mentors, including liaison with pastoral and academic staff and contact with parents.

Special Educational Needs (SEN)

Some pupils who are identified as having SEN, may also require additional support from learning mentors, typically in relation to social, emotional and practical difficulties. From the case file review (RM3), document mapping exercise (RM2) and field notes, it is possible to identify instances of such provision including: lunchtime supervision activity; applications for financial assistance for specific individuals from different charitable and voluntary organisations; emotional support relating to friendship difficulties and relationship problems; liaison with medical and other agency professionals; in addition to coursework and academic support, detailed in Table 5.3. Such provision is different from that offered by other support staff including learning support assistants who predominantly are classroom based and focus on pedagogic issues. Learning mentor involvement with pupils identified with SEN may be part of a multidisciplinary team and this is most notable in relation to pupils with medical needs.

Nature of Support from Learning Mentors	Pupils identified with SEN	Pupils identified without SEN	Total
Targeted lunchtime activities	5	15	20
Applications for financial assistance*	3	9	12
Emotional support with friendship and Relationship activities	9	15	24
Liaison with medical agencies/ support agencies e.g. hearing impairment team	19	23	42
Individual academic and coursework support	8	1	9

Figure 5.3 Areas of learning mentor support for pupils with SEN

Common Assessment Framework (CAF) Panels

Some of the learning mentor case load has been generated following a common assessment framework (CAF) panel meeting. The CAF process can be instigated not only for pupils attending St Anthony's, but also if they are a sibling of a child who attends another school who is undergoing a CAF, or for children who are at a point of transition who are likely to join the school in the near future. The background information and the identification of need facilitated by the CAF process assists learning mentors in supporting young people and their families, for those individuals currently attending the school, or likely to do so in the near future. Evidence from the case files shows the involvement of learning mentors with 6 CAF Panels, two of which relate to pupils yet to start St Anthony's.

Multi-Agency Risk Assessment Conferences (MARAC)

Learning mentors may be asked to attend Multi-Agency Risk Assessment Conferences (MARAC) as representatives of the school. These are meetings that facilitate, monitor and evaluate effective information sharing amongst professionals, external to the school to enable appropriate actions to be taken to increase the safety of high risk victims of domestic abuse. Facilitated by the police, such meetings can result in information being shared not previously known to the school, and as a consequence the pupils affected may not have received any form of additional support or consideration of their circumstances from educational staff. At the meetings relevant information is shared, combined with an assessment of the victim's needs. This allows a tailored action plan to be formulated, based

on the current level of risk, to increase the safety of the victim, children, perpetrator, other vulnerable parties and agency staff. As indicated in the case files one of the outcomes from these meetings is additional support for individual young people provided by school staff, especially learning mentors.

5.4 Identification of Pupil Need

Within St Anthony's the learning mentor referral process and the identification of need have become entwined, in part because of the informal nature of the practice but also due to the fact that initial observations may only indicate the possibility of an issue, rather than confirmation of one actually existing. Further, due to the lack of formal criteria upon which situations are considered, learning mentors within the school feel that they cannot turn a case down, as they are not 'in a position to refuse' (Charlie, Pupil Support Team, St Anthony's). The position of learning mentors in relation to the identification of need can be considered as a demonstration of the power (or lack of) associated with the role.

5.4.1 Issues of power

Power in relation to learning mentors should not only be considered in terms of the relationship with the mentee, but how it shapes the interaction with the young people with whom they work. Learning mentors can find they are working in sites of conflict and challenge as the nature of the power they can exert may appear to be contradictory; for example in relation to attendance, learning mentors who have responsibility for this area, may encourage pupils to attend through rewards and targets, however due to legal and policy pressures, if these incentives are not successful, they may need to commence legal measures, ultimately resulting in the prosecution of the parents.

Egan (2010) suggests that the 'helping' aspect of the work of learning mentors is a 'social influence process' (Egan, 2002:55) where young people are guided as opposed to coerced into action, having ownership of the goals which determine the nature of the intervention taking place. Yet social influence is itself a form of power that can lead to manipulation and oppression (Egan, 2010). Usher and Edwards (1994) argue that the power relations

associated with personal exchanges contain within it, a set of values held not only by mentors but also mentees themselves. Rothman (1979) goes on to claim that the nature of the interaction that takes place involves the process of bargaining, accommodation and negotiation, not only through overt social control but also via more subtle manipulation, the outcome of which is ultimately determined by the power that exist amongst groups. The bargaining process associated with learning mentoring can create tensions as the needs of the mentee, mentor and those of the school may not always be compatible.

5.4.2 Types of pupil need

To help understand the types of issues dealt with by the learning mentors within St Anthony's, the records of 149 pupils who had worked with the learning mentors were examined. In each case, the issues and problems faced by the young people were identified and categorised in 34 separate groupings. Each category was grouped together according to overall themes and these are represented in Table 5.4. It should be noted that as a result of some pupils contending with more than one problem the combined totals of the problems encountered exceeds the number of case files reviewed. The nature of the problems found in the case file review coincide with the factors identified as contributing towards disaffection and disengagement, i.e. individual, family/community and school (see Chapter 2, section 2.2).

Attendance	Learning	Medical	Mental Health	Home Environment	Relationships	Crime	Social and Emotional	Bullying
Non Attendance	Attitude and Motivation	Medical Conditions	Mental Health Concerns	Family Medical Conditions/Illness	Friendship Issues	Youth Offending / Crime – Police Concerns	School Policy Compliance	Bullying victim
Attendance Missing Education	Behaviour in Class		Eating Dis-order concerns	Young Carers	Parental Relationships	Victim of Crime	Anger Management	Bullying perpetrator
Lateness/Getting up	Education off site		Self-Harm	Family Alcohol Misuse	Family breakup / Separation		Effects of the bereavement of family member	Bullying Cyber
	Academic Support			Teenage Pregnancy/	Divorce/ Separation issues		Self Esteem	
	Transition			Financial Issues	Parenting Issues			
	Lack of Organisation			Excessive Computer Game Playing				
				Domestic Violence in the home				
Number of Pupils	Number of Pupils	Number of Pupils	Number. of Pupils	Number of Pupils	Number of Pupils	Number of Pupils	Number of Pupils	Number of Pupils
120	35	21	26	25	57	4	30	10

Table 5.4 Categorisation of problems and issues faced by pupils in St Anthony's

Having identified the different issues contained in the files, it was also evident that the severity and frequency of the problems experienced by young people varied, thus a scoring system was devised to reflect this and is detailed in Chapter 4 (Section 4.3.4.1 and 4.3.4.2). In Appendix 10 the findings for the review are summarised according to the issues that were identified. In each summary table, the colour coding relating to the intervention level refers to the extent of the need and associated input required to support a particular pupil; with green indicating a low level of involvement, amber a more extensive response and red the highest level of assistance. The average score (i.e. Severity x Frequency) is also identified for each intervention level).

The application of categories and the subsequent scoring of the severity and frequency of problems and the associated intervention levels are based on a series of value judgements. Such judgements stem from values associated mentoring as a narrative of help as described in Chapter 2, (Section 2.2.3) and the role of values associated with education in broader terms (Section 2.3.3). More specifically each case file is compiled as the result of the decisions made by the mentors in dealing with each case and the subsequent recording of information, all of which is shaped by the values they hold. Thus, the results detailed in Appendix 10 are constructed from the interpretations placed on each individual case by the mentor and researcher alike.

Over half the cases reviewed related to single issues (n=80), whilst at the other end of the spectrum two pupils faced a complex array of challenges both with eleven separate problems identified. The spread of the number of problems experienced by individual pupils is reflected Table 5.5.

Number of Pupils	Number of identified problems	Average Points Score
80	1	2.89
26	2	5.11
19	3	5.94
8	4	5.53
4	5	8.30
5	6	6.73
3	7	5.9
2	8	7.44
2	11	9

Table 5.5 The number of identified problems experienced by pupils in St Anthony's

5.4.3 Key roles undertaken by learning mentors

Using data collected from the case file review, interviews and the document mapping exercise, the range of different mentoring activities and additional key roles and responsibilities undertaken by learning mentors can be identified. However, it is noteworthy that although the existence of learning mentors within St Anthony's is identified in the school documentation, it has not been possible to find written exemplars of how the school understands and defines the role of learning mentors that would be available directly to staff, parents, pupils or other parties. Any explanation of the role to a third party is conducted verbally, usually at the point of intervention with parents and pupils or through induction meetings with newly appointed staff. The only documentation available within St Anthony's that does identify the principle purpose of the learning mentor role is contained within the job description found in the personnel records of those undertaking this position. According to this job description the purpose of the role of learning mentors within St Anthony's is

To enable pupils to overcome individual barriers to learning and raise standards of achievement by identifying the problems and being solution focused'

(Learning mentor job description – St Anthony's)

As indicated earlier in this chapter the mentoring activities taking place within St Anthony's can be categorised into two main groups - academic and pastoral interventions. The clear distinction between academic and pastoral support found in St Anthony's upholds the findings of Bishop (2011) who argues 'Learning Mentors define and organise their role around two different types of intervention' (2011:33).

In contrast to the work undertaken by learning support assistants (LSAs), academic mentoring activities conducted in St Anthony's take place outside of the classroom, predominantly on a 1:1 or small group basis. The purpose of such intervention varies including, GCSE coursework support, homework assistance, organisational help and study skills development. Similarly, pastoral support activities also occur on a 1:1 or small group basis, covering a range of issues relating to social and emotional problems experienced by young people and identified in Table 5.4.

With the exception of some attendance issues, the case file review revealed a tailored approach to pastoral intervention, reflecting the unique set of circumstances faced by each individual. The uniqueness of each case appears to govern the role constructed for or by the mentor as revealed in the studies reviewed in Chapter 2. As a consequence of this personalised approach, the role of the mentor that emerges differs depending on the context in which it operates, thus mentoring can be considered not as one single role, but made up of a multitude of separate components supporting academic and pastoral issues alike, in other words a 'situational competence' Clutterbuck and Lane (2004).

5.5 Mentoring and Inclusion

Within the case files, there is evidence of learning mentors supporting pupils in relation to both social and educational inclusion. In terms of social inclusion evidence was found relating to a range of different interventions and type of support to assist individual pupils and their families including: help with applications for financial support from local charities; provision of food bank vouchers; assistance with school uniform; making arrangements to ensure pupils have the facilities to carry out homework and the organisation of activities supported by the Pupil Premium.

In terms of educational inclusion this can be considered in relation to those pupils receiving support from learning mentors who are also identified as having special educational needs. Thirty eight pupils who are on the inclusion register have files with Pupil Support Department, representing 25.5% of the total learning mentor caseload, and 4.1% of the school population. The SEN code of practice associated with these pupils is identified in Table 5.6.

Number of Pupils	SEN Code of Practice
7	Identified in the Inclusion Register, but not at a code of practice level for SEN provision
24	School Action
3	School Action Plus
4	Statemented

Table 5.6 SEN Codes of Practice

The intervention levels associated with the pupils supported by the learning mentors identified within St Anthony's as having SEN or recorded on the Inclusion register are detailed in Appendix 11. Noticeably half of the pupils identified in this category (n=19) require the highest levels of intervention support (Red), in comparison with 20% of the overall learning mentor cohort. The intensity of the intervention required to support pupils with SEN reinforces the link between the learning mentor activity and the inclusion agenda within St Anthony's.

5.6 Conclusion

This chapter is the first of three based on a thematic approach to discuss the findings associated with this research. Specifically this chapter has explored learning mentor practice through four sub themes. Learning mentors can be considered to operate in a 'third space environment' (Whitchurch, 2008; Gordon and Whitchurch, 2010) between pastoral and academic structures and supported by the key aspects of learning mentor practice

associated with flexibility and informality in relation to communication and referral procedures. A number of key trigger factors were identified that instigate the work of learning mentors and the nature, frequency and severity of the issues young people experience, necessitating intervention, were also examined. Learning mentoring is not only shaped by organisational factors and the needs of the young person with whom they work, but the extent of power they have to influence their own practice. Learning mentor activity also forms part of the inclusion agenda operating in schools in a distinctive capacity; indeed, it is the professional identity of learning mentors that is explored in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS RELATING TO PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY

6.1 Introduction

The professional identity of learning mentors in schools is shaped by a complex arrangement of political, organisational, contextual and social factors, operating at micro, meso and macro levels. Evidence of this complexity surrounding the professional identity of learning mentors was found in the case study school, from different data sources (RM1-RM7). A number of elements have been identified through this research that contributes to the intricacy surrounding the professional identity of learning mentors and these are explored below.

6.2 Boundaries of Mentoring Work

To understand how the organisational structures, discussed in Chapter 5 (Section 5.2), have developed, with particular reference to the role of learning mentors in schools, the demarcation between teaching and other roles in schools is important, as the skills, professional knowledge and capacity of teachers do not operate in isolation, but are shaped by the ‘historical, ideological, and socio-political factors that underpin the power relationships with which teachers work is framed’ (Stevenson, 2007:227). However, the demarcation of learning mentor roles within St Anthony’s is not always clear, and this lack of clarity presents itself in a number of forms that have been identified from the research data, particularly the interviews (RM1) and these are subsequently considered in the sections that follow.

6.2.1 Lack of definition – overlap of roles

One of the core elements of the professional role of learning mentors is to help pupils overcome ‘barriers to learning’. An ill-defined but frequently used term, overcoming ‘barriers to learning’ describes activities of mentors that focus on ‘supporting achievement

and engagement in the broad context of inclusion activity and multi-agency working' (Cruddas, 2005:59). When pastoral leaders were asked to describe their own role, a number of key features emerged that appear to overlap with the activities undertaken by learning mentors. One pastoral leader describes their work as

There's monitoring pupil progress in terms of the levels they're making in KS3, the grades they are getting at GCSE and making sure you're inputting extra support or putting in extra encouragement in whatever terms that needs to be for those people. So there is an educational attainment side to it. But what I've really enjoyed, what I've got most out of is working with pupils regarding their emotional and social needs, supporting those who come to you with difficulties, trying to identify potential problems, strategies in place to help them, getting to know the whole child is what I've really enjoyed, working with pupils in that respect.

(George, Pastoral Leader, St Anthony's)

Other pastoral leaders also identified similarities between elements of their own work and those of learning mentors, although the scale of such activity differed, with importance given to the development of the 'bigger picture' of the needs of young people and then putting intervention in place to address this requirement. One of the pastoral leaders describes their role as

It's now linked into their [the pupils'] academic performance and learning and making sure they are still achieving across the board. Because obviously what should happen is heads of faculty feedback through to me to say, "what's going wrong"; so if I get a big picture to realise there is one child who is struggling across the board and then things can be put in place for him and that's obviously when the mentoring side would link in, to say why are they under achieving is it simply they are in the wrong set, is it simply they've got issues at home that have only just cropped up anything that could be going wrong with that pupil. So I then obviously have to look at how I can help, and that might just be liaising between Pupil Support, Heads of Faculty and at home, to say what's going wrong and how we can put it right.

(Sam, Pastoral Leader, St Anthony's)

This 'big picture' does not simply cover shortfalls in academic performance, but can include a more holistic approach as described in the comments of another of the pastoral leaders

... it's a duty of care in many different ways, and it's... I think, it's the glue for linking the care, and the ethos, and the spirit at St Anthony's along with the academia. Ensuring all students fulfil their potential because they all need different care in different ways and it's about knowing the students,

knowing the tutors. Knowing what works for whom and what doesn't work for others.

(Nick, Pastoral Leader, St Anthony's)

The importance of knowing the pupils has been highlighted by all the pastoral leaders through the interview research process. It is accepted that the pastoral leaders will know some pupils better than others and thus rely on the observations and feedback of staff, which is reflected in the remarks of one of the pastoral leaders who argues

I would say the tutors should know their tutees, that's the biggest part of that relationship, if they understand their tutees and they know what's going on with them and they have that really close relationship and I would say from the head of house point of view the big picture is the overview of those. You might not know those children as well, but you will know some of them particularly well and you will be able to pick up any that need to go above the tutor. But a lot of what they do is making sure, where I can, getting the right support in place for pupils and that often means referring them on to Pupil Support.

(George, Pastoral Leader, St Anthony's)

The extent to which pupils are 'known' in the case study school varies considerably. As part of the research for this study, teaching staff were asked to participate in an exercise to identify pupils in their final year at St Anthony's, using a selection of photographs (RM6). Forty-seven staff participated in the exercise and the results are summarised in Appendix 12. The core objective of this exercise was to ascertain the extent to which staff could identify and name 18 pupils in Year 11. The rationale behind the exercise was based on the premise that if you do not know the pupils in the school very well, it is more difficult to identify subtle changes in behaviour and identify issues before they become potential problems.

The results shown in Appendix 12 indicate a significant difference in the identification and naming of different pupils by members of teaching staff. The highest rate of recognition for a pupil was 98 %, in other words 46 out of a total of 47 staff participating in the exercise could identify and name the pupil concerned. The lowest level of recognition was 36% which represents 17 members of staff being able to identify and subsequently name a particular pupil. However, differences in the levels of recognition are not totally surprising as the photographs selected for use in the exercise were based on particular criteria I had devised: 6 pupils were selected from each house, 3 male and 3 female and to reflect a cross section of the school population, 3 categories to summarise the characteristics of three

different groups of pupils were created ‘characters’, ‘achievers’ and ‘invisibles’. This categorisation of the photographs is summarised in Table 6.2

	Red House		Green House		Blue House		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	
‘Character’	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
‘Achiever’	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
‘Invisible’	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
Total	3	3	3	3	3	3	18

Table 6.2 Categorisation of photographs

The recognition rate of pupils by teachers was highest amongst the ‘characters’ and lowest amongst the ‘invisibles’ see Appendix 12. The number of teachers who recognised pupils but had not worked with them, followed the same pattern. Some of the staff indicated through comments following completion of the exercise that they had recognised some of the pupils but could not name them. In addition, another member of staff said they knew the first name of the pupil, but would refer to them not only by this name but also the garment of school uniform that they were being chastised about, using extended names such as “xxx earrings” or “xxx skirt”. Therefore the pupil in this instance became known to the member of staff not simply by their name, but how they would typically subvert the system in the way they would wear their uniform, possibly indicating a young person in ‘crisis’ (Cruddas, 2005).

The extent to which a child is known by staff is not necessarily a reflection of the challenges they may face, for example, the young people at the top and bottom of the recognition table found in Appendix 12 were both children in care. The difference in the recognition rate in itself may not be a problem, however if only a relatively few members of staff know an individual, that relationship becomes increasingly important in identifying potential issues and problems facing a young person, especially in circumstances where there has been a high turnover of staff who work with that particular pupil. According to Barker (2012), teachers getting to know their pupils is ‘obviously key – although far easier said than done with large classes and a fulltime teaching timetable’ (Barker, 2012:6) Thus, the inclusion of learning mentors into the body of educational professionals that get to

know the pupils, not only increases capacity but also effectively helps to ‘reduce the scale of the school’ (Barker, 2012:7). The notion of expanding capacity can also be considered in relation to the job functions shared between pastoral leaders and learning mentors and is considered below.

6.2.2 Increasing capacity – sharing the same work

Evidence taken from the interviews indicated the sharing of particular functions not only creates the potential for duplication and a lack of clarity between roles, but also adds capacity of pastoral leaders, as they can refer cases and issues to learning mentors and members of the Pupil Support team. This aspect was felt particularly important to the pastoral leaders who commented

In a pastoral job you never know what you are going to get from day to day.
(Sam, Pastoral Leader, St Anthony’s)

The nature of such referrals is important to understand, as this can reflect upon how the professional identity of mentors is perceived by others. For example in the comments made by one of the pastoral leaders it was remarked

...it’s a way of passing them sideways to say we need help with this person, we found out they’ve got an issue with whatever it might be and coming to Pupil Support, they can then turn around and say we’ve got someone – great, who can talk to them or the experience you’ve got in your team to say no problem at all, we’ll sit down and have a talk.
(Sam, Pastoral Leader, St Anthony)

The notion of ‘sideways’ suggests elements of the roles have parity, a point reinforced by the comments of another pastoral leader who remarks

I think they’re [mentors] certainly needed...um... especially in the capacity that I also have a teaching timetable and there are some things I just can’t pick up if I’m teaching at the time
(Nick, Pastoral Leader, St Anthony’s)

The ability to transfer work between the pastoral leaders and the mentoring team, not only has the benefit of helping to manage peaks in the workload of the pastoral team, but also provides the opportunity of pupils to discuss issues with someone who is not a teacher, a point identified by one of the pastoral leaders who comments

...it’s good to have [a mentor], although a member of staff, but in a different setting to come and approach and open up to. Whereas coming to

myself or the other heads of house, it is still that “Oh my God it’s a member of staff, it’s a teacher”.

(Nick, Pastoral Leader, St Anthony’s)

In this instance although there is a blurring of boundaries in respect of the nature of the activities involved, distinctions are drawn in relation to the profile of those carrying out the work from the perspective of both the pastoral team and the pupils themselves.

6.2.3. Changing of boundaries with different groups

There is evidence, from both the case file review and the interviews, that the nature of the relationship between the pastoral leaders and the learning mentors tends to vary as the pupils progress through the school. Each of the files used by learning mentors to record the activities undertaken with individual pupils were examined and the results have been tabulated and found in Appendix 10. A summary of the finding in relation to the split between year groups, gender and the level of intervention required, is shown in Table 6.3.

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	3	0	3	0	100	2	1	0
8	24	12	12	50.00	50.00	17	6	1
9	36	14	22	38.89	61.11	27	4	5
10	38	18	20	47.37	52.63	24	4	10
11	48	23	25	47.92	52.08	23	11	14
	149	67	82	44.97	55.03	93	26	30

Table 6. Learning mentor case file review

Table 6.2 indicates that the number of pupils who engage with learning mentors increases as the pupils progress through the school. The gender split remains relatively even, with the exception of Year 7, where the numbers are relatively small (n=3, all female), and Year 9 where the difference in the number of male and female pupils seen by learning mentors is 8. The number of pupils who work with the learning mentors increases as the young people progress through the school. This increase can be attributed to a number of reasons: pupil awareness of the Pupil Support Department; the nature of the problems and difficulties encountered by pupils; and the phasing out of the transition activities that takes place when pupils first join the school. The number of pupils with more complex needs and associated levels of intervention increases as pupils progress through the school (indicated red in Table 6.2). Once again this may be attributed to better identification of issues by staff and

the willingness of pupils to discuss problems, the nature of which changes as they become older.

Throughout their time in the school, pupils are likely to encounter the Pupil Support team, of which learning mentors form a part, in many different ways, these include: the presence of mentors around the school 'on duty' at break and lunchtimes, when pupils will have the opportunity to engage with them; the administration of the NFER Cognitive Ability Tests (CAT) which take place within the first month of pupils joining the school; fundraising activities and one to one support for a range of different issues including, academic, social and emotional challenges. Therefore, it is not unreasonable to assume that a young person's knowledge of the Pupil Support Department's activities is cumulative throughout their time at school. However, there is no formal launch to the young people regarding the Pupil Support Department's activities or documentation issued to explain the role to them or their parents. Instead young people are introduced to learning mentors either through direct referral (usually verbally) or involvement in specific activities organised by the department such as work experience which takes place during Year 10. Other than the NFER testing which takes place during Year 7, the majority of whole year group activities take place during years 10 and 11, and this may help to explain the increase in the number of pupils working with learning mentors on a one to one basis as stronger relationships between mentors and pupils are developed and maintained.

A review of the files held by the Pupil Support team (RM3) indicates that pupils can experience a multitude of problems varying in severity and frequency (Chapter 4, Section 4.3.4 and Appendix 10). The review also indicates the average number of problems identified increases with each successive year group (Year 7 the only exception, the sample size $n=3$ not big enough to draw any conclusions), along with the average points score associated with the severity and frequency of problems (Table 6.3). The apparent correlation between the number and extent of problems along with the individual's year group should be treated with caution. The results may be attributed to better identification of issues by staff as they get to know the pupils more or pupils themselves have greater confidence to discuss any problems troubling them with the learning mentor team.

Year Group	Number of Pupils	Average number of problems	Average points score
Year 11	48	2.77	16.41
Year 10	38	3.5	15.13
Year 9	36	1.63	7.58
Year 8	24	1.54	6.25
Year 7	3	2	7

Table 6.3 Learning mentor case file review - average number of problems and points score

Another explanation that may account for the increase in the learning mentor case load as pupils progress through the school, is the role of the Head of Year 7 in St Anthony's. This role is distinct from other pastoral leaders due to the focus on transition activities. The Head of Year 7 liaises closely with the partner primary schools, which provide the majority of St Anthony's intake of pupils. The liaison activities include, visits to the primary schools and discussion with class teachers, in addition to a number of visits by pupils and their families to St Anthony's including open days, taster days and school tours. As a consequence of this transition activity, the Head of Year 7 becomes the main focal point for contact both for the pupils and their families, with a particular emphasis on aspects of care, which is reflected in the comments of the Head of Year 7

I think really for me it's the um...it's to look after them...to have that caring role, to...it's not the instructions, it's not them coming in they go here, they go there. For me it's to make sure they feel happy, to feel settled, to feel they want to come back next day, that um...to me that's the primary thing, it's not about anything about their work, that comes in a little bit later, so when I come in it's those caring...somebody they feel comfortable with...and to make them feel relaxed. I think for the first half term that's really important that they do that.

(Chris, Head of Year 7, St Anthony's)

Due to the nature of relationship between the Head of Year 7 and the pupils in that year group along with the nature and frequency of communication with their parents, the role of the learning mentors is different in comparison with other year groups. The main reasons for learning mentors working with Year 7 pupils are those relating to attendance, specific

transition issues, bullying and concerns in relation to parenting. Thus learning mentors tend to work with pupils in Year 7 in a specialist rather than a general capacity.

6.3 Types of activity professional or not?

How individuals conceive and enact their roles and relationships will contribute to their perception of their own professionalism (Sykes, 1999). The term profession ‘denotes an occupational class distinguished according to certain characteristics’ (Sykes, 1999: 228-229). Such distinctions can be considered in terms of the ‘appropriate function or role of an activity as it relates to society’s needs’ (Bond, 2010:1) Therefore, in developing an understanding of the professional identity of learning mentors, consideration should be given to the nature of the activities undertaken by them. Table 6.5 details the different types of mentoring taking place in St Anthony’s. In St Anthony’s the forms of mentoring associated with academic support, university students’ input, and peer provision all use a formalised programme of structured activities, thus facilitating mentoring as a process (Roberts, 2000). Whereas, the forms of mentoring that are associated with the complex social and emotional needs of pupils, tend to be less structured and process orientated. In this environment the degree of process is determined by the nature of the mentoring involved, rather than the individuals delivering the intervention, as some members of staff can be academic as well as learning mentors. It is only learning mentors who are paid directly by the school to undertake a mentoring role, all other types, indicated in Table 6.4, are carried out either on a voluntary basis, part of professional development activities or financed by outside organisations such as universities and other agencies. This arrangement places learning mentors in a unique position as the only ‘professional mentors’ within the school, whose primary responsibility is mentoring activities. This role can itself create tension as learning mentors not only have a responsibility towards the children and families with whom they work, but also towards their employers, a point reinforced by Cruddas (2005).

Type of Mentoring	Who is mentored	Who is carrying out the mentoring	Key features and assumptions
Academic Mentoring	Year 11 pupils	Volunteer academic teaching and support staff	Pupils underperforming against their target grades. Emphasis on those on GCSE C/D grade border line. Pupils identified through analysis of performance data. Pupils are 'encouraged' to participate. Part of a programme of interventions, without which the pupils are unlikely to realise their academic potential.
Assertive Academic Mentoring	Year 11 pupils	Members of the senior leadership team	Pupils underperforming against their target grades. Perceived to require more than 'gentle persuasion' to participate. Likely to be more reluctant learners sometimes displaying challenging behaviour.
Learning Mentoring	Years 7-13	Pupil support manager, education welfare officer and learning mentor, pupil support teacher,	Potentially any pupil could receive learning mentor input for a variety of social, emotional personal and educational issues,
Peer Mentoring	Years 7-10	Years 10 and 11	This takes place as either group work, pairing up (mentor and mentee) or older pupils visiting younger ones in their tutor groups. In some circumstances it is felt that pupils may relate to someone closer to their own age to discuss problems and issues with their learning – peer mentoring provides an opportunity to take place.
External Mentoring	Year 7-13	Specialist support workers for example in connection with drug and alcohol abuse, police officers working with young people on a 1:1 basis	This type of mentoring is determined by the identified needs of the young person and the availability of services available to support these needs.
Colleague Mentoring	Newly qualified staff, new members of staff	Experienced members of staff	Complying with requirements of newly qualified teacher programme, and the continued professional development of staff. Support advice and guidance from more experienced members of staff
University Mentoring	Year 11	University undergraduates recruited by and from local universities as part of their outreach programme	Pupils who are not receiving additional support elsewhere and are on target to reach their predicted grades ,but would benefit from additional input to reinforce their levels or achievement, help with organisational skills and raise aspirational levels

Table 6.4 Types of mentoring in St Anthony's

Tension can also be created between the demands of other departments within St Anthony's and the work of learning mentors. Due to their position at the interface between the pastoral and academic structures, learning mentors can be placed in a position of dealing with conflicting priorities. For example, due to the target and performance driven culture found in schools (ACME, 2011), tensions can develop between those in the classroom delivering individual subjects and the interventions being put into place to help individuals access the curriculum in general and boost their performance in exams. When the pressure is on to deliver results, for those pupils on the C/D GCSE borderline both in terms of departmental and school performance, certain pupils face demands from a number of staff in terms of course work, syllabus completion and attendance in lessons. Thus taking young people out of lessons to provide different types of intervention can prove problematic.

Not all the activities undertaken by learning mentors can be considered as specialised or requiring specific training, as reflected in the comments of one of the Pupil Support Team

...some of the strength is the existence of the Pupil Support Department, in the heart of the school, where people consider all the different aspects of a child: getting to school, attendance, whether they've got school uniform, whether they feel unwell, they can turn up to Pupil Support. If they've lost something they can turn up to Pupil Support. Pupil Support sort of helps them find a solution to whatever it is that might be tripping them up that day and preventing them from being settled at school.

(Francis, Pupil Support Team, St Anthony's)

Thus, the activities of the Pupil Support Department are not just about helping pupils function to learn, but to function generally. The success of such intervention, does however require levels of tacit knowledge that are developed through working with the young people concerned, getting to know them, establishing relationships and picking up on unconscious signals that may indicate bigger problems. However, identifying tacit knowledge is not easy due to it being highly personal, abstract in nature and difficult to express (Polanyi, 1958, 1966; Lubit, 2001; Meso and Smith, 2000: and Haldin-Herrgard, 2008). Further 'tacit knowledge is not synonymous with job knowledge, as it can pertain to any personally-valued activity, including academic and social activities' (Scott Murray *et al* 2005:317). Unlike explicit knowledge which is easy to share, tacit knowledge is more problematic due to it being person or group specific, often unclear, complex and situational, as well as difficult to imitate (Haldin-Herrgard, 2008a). Importantly according to Haldin-

Herrgard tacit knowledge 'is what makes an expert!' (Haldin-Herrgard, 2008a:7). Examples of tacit knowledge were evident throughout the interviews conducted for this study, such as in the comments made by one of the pastoral leaders when reflecting upon their start in that role

Some of it has just been by feel, you have to make that judgement. Is it something I should deal with? Is it something I should kick back to the tutors? And I think just by doing it on a day to day basis job, I've got better at that.

(George, Pastoral Leader, St Anthony's)

Amongst the factors that shape tacit knowledge sharing are language, and time. For those new entrants to the field of education such as learning mentors who have experience in other occupational areas, there is an array of different terminology, jargon and working practices that exist within schools with which they need familiarise themselves. As Haldin-Herrgard (2008) points out 'everyday expressions have different meanings to different people' (Haldin-Herrgard, 2008a:10). An example of this occurred when a member of the pastoral team met with a parent to discuss a piece of course work for a particular pupil and described it as 'outstanding'. The member of staff concerned had wanted to convey to the parent that the piece of work was overdue; however from the subsequent remarks made by the parent, they had interpreted the comment as meaning the work had been considered as exceptional. The development of tacit knowledge is not an instantaneous process, but requires time as it is based on the acquisition of experiences. The average length of service of those working as part of the Pupil Support team is in excess of 10 years, making it one of the departments with this highest average length service in the school. According to Haldin-Herrgard (2008a) the length of time of those working in the department can facilitate organisational tacit knowledge as this is dependent on, 'routines, culture and mental models'(2008a:13) which are established over time, especially in schools where there is a cycle of activities based on curriculum, enrichment events and information sharing.

Haldin-Herrgard (2008a) argues 'a good mentor has a great deal of tacit knowledge' (2008a: 14) and this is particularly important in relation to the work of learning mentoring when they are attempting to identify what I have termed 'invisible issues'. These are problems that pupils may experience that could have an impact on their learning and education, but are not apparent to observers or manifesting themselves through changes in behaviour or outward appearance. As part of the interview process members of the Pupil

Support team were asked to identify the areas of concern that were particularly difficult to recognise in pupils. As a consequence of this exploration the following invisible issues were identified.

6.3.1 Invisible issues

Young people acting as carers, either for siblings, parents or other relatives. This may be a short term situation, as the result of a temporary medical condition, or recovery from an operation, however for some children and young people this is an on-going situation. Acting as a young carer may involve meeting the basic personal needs of the person they are looking after, and carrying out a range of household tasks and other duties. Regardless of the period of time a child may act as a young carer, it can impact on many aspects of their lives including school.

According to the Princes Royal Trust for Young Carers (2010), young people can be concerned if school staff are aware of their individual circumstances, because they are worried that they will interfere in their home life, talk about them to other people, not listen to or help them and show them up in front of their friends. Therefore, the approach required to assist young carers requires sensitivity and consideration and the support given should be tailored to meet the individual circumstances of that child. Examples of practices within St Anthony's have included extra time to hand in work; access to phones to allow calls home during the school day; help with making suitable parents evening appointments; and referrals to CAF panels.

Hidden Harm refers to those children and young people with a parent, parents or other guardians whose drug or alcohol use has serious negative consequences for themselves and those around them. It is estimated that there are between 250,000-350,000 children of problem drug users in the UK (ACMD, 2003) and up to 1.3 million children in the UK are affected by parental alcohol problems (Prime Minister's Strategy Unit, 2004). The Advisory Council on the Misuse of Drugs in their inquiry into the needs of children of problem drug users identified, 'The adverse consequences for children are typically multiple and cumulative' (ACMD, 2003:2).

According to the Advisory Council, schools are in a position to offer help and support and can act as a safe haven for children of problem drug users by offering routine and certainty, often the only place where there is a pattern and structure to their lives. The same can be said of those children whose parents or carers misuse alcohol. However, the exact circumstances for each child will be different and it is important to consider their needs along with those of their family. Any approach to offer support to children and young people needs to be conducted with understanding and compassion, due to the potential stigmatisation of issues related to alcohol and particularly drug misuse. In St Anthony's where appropriate, individuals can be referred to an external agency to receive more specialist help and support.

Self-Harm is a broad term used to describe how an individual expresses very deep distress, and it 'covers a variety of behaviours, with a multitude of different functions and a wide range of intensions' (Swales, 2012:1). Self-harm can take numerous forms that can be very hard to detect, including: cutting, scratching, burning, participating in risky behaviour, developing an eating disorder, and neglecting personal physical and emotional needs. The reasons underpinning different forms of self-harm are complex, with those involved often conceal rather than drawing attention to what they have done. Due to the covert nature of self-harm the extent of the issue is difficult to determine, however Hawton *et al* (2002) estimate 6.9% of a school population of 15-16 year olds engage in deliberate self-harm. In St Anthony's this represents approximately 26 pupils, the size of a typical class in a secondary school. Schools can play an important part in the prevention of self-harm through the creation of a supportive environment, which is focused on 'building self-esteem and encouraging positive peer relationships' (Community Children's Health Partnership, 11:6).

Parents and family members in prison can be a difficult issue to detect amongst children and young people. According to Lewis *et al* (2005) the majority of the children who have parents/carers in prison, estimated to be 162,000, are not officially recorded, and therefore will not necessarily come into contact with services to support them. Children and young people may also be reluctant to discuss issues relating to their parent/carer's imprisonment, due to stigma associated with such issues. Lewis *et al* (2008) argue having a parent in prison can potentially have an adverse effect on a child in terms of: poverty; poor educational attainment; behavioural problems; social exclusion; mental health issues

including anxiety, eating and sleeping disorders; and truancy. Lewis *et al* (2008) argue due to the lack of a formal system to identify the children and young people with parents in prison, ‘the importance of schools and the role they play in this process cannot be underestimated’ (2008:34). Further, Lewis *et al* (2008) identify training and awareness-raising as vital, as often it is behavioural changes that are the first indication of a parent being in prison. Once identified the nature of the support offered to individual children and young people, will vary depending on need and circumstances surrounding each case and this may include input from learning mentors.

Substance and Alcohol Misuse amongst pupils and young people can also be hard to detect. Activity in this area can result in permanent exclusion as indicated in St Anthony’s policy when responding to drug related incidents

- (i) Any pupil who **supplies** an illegal substance (drug) to another pupil during the course of the college day, on a college organised activity or at any other time when the authority of the college pertains, will be permanently excluded (expelled).
- (ii) Any pupil who has **used** an illegal substance (drug) during the course of the college day on a college organised activity or at any other time when the authority of the college pertains, may be permanently excluded (expelled).
- (iii) Any pupil who is in **possession** of an illegal substance (drug) during the course of the college day, on a college-organised activity or at any time when the authority of the college pertains, may be permanently excluded (expelled) from the college, subject to the relevant procedures.

(St Anthony’s School Drugs Policy, 2011)

In 2009/10 it was estimated that in England there were 5740 permanent exclusions from primary, secondary and all special schools (DfE, 2011a:1). The effects of exclusion can be far reaching, and this is reflected in research evidence, (Parsons *et al*, 1994; Brodie and Berridge, 1997; Macrae *et al* 2003) where it has been identified that overwhelmingly excluded children (including permanent and fixed term) come from families who are under stress, experiencing unemployment difficulties and suffer from multiple disadvantages, including social and emotional disruptions.

Exclusion from school can have long term effects on those concerned and is strongly associated with not only with poor academic performance and progress, but other long term social issues including, unemployment, teenage pregnancy, homelessness and offending behaviour (Macrae *et al*, 2003), thus school exclusion can be a significant contributory factor to the broader concept of social exclusion. Therefore, when working with young people at risk of substance misuse themselves, consideration is not only given to the short term implications of their actions, such as risky or reckless behaviour and medical issues, but also longer term implications that could impact on their lives.

6.3.2 Is all intervention helpful?

Whilst learning mentors undertake a wide variety of activities to support the needs of individual pupils to facilitate learning and participation, this action however is not without significant reflection by the mentors themselves. Concerns were expressed amongst the Pupil Support team in terms of how they ‘helped’ pupils and if such intervention always produced positive results, as reflected in the following comments

I think we have created a ‘pencil case culture’. By that I mean you know in the exams if they forget a piece of equipment, we just provide them with one of the exam pencil cases. So they know they will be bailed out, we are always providing a solution to fulfil an immediate need, but I’m not sure if that teaches them anything in the long run. If they know there is someone there who will always fix things for them, they have no incentive to use their own initiative.

(Charlie, Pupil Support Team, St Antony’s)

This concern is shared by Ecclestone and Hayes (2009) who argue in school there has developed a climate of ‘new sensibility’ (2009:128) resulting in the dangerous rise of ‘therapeutic education’ in schools, in which learning mentors play a role. Ecclestone and Hayes (2009) are most critical of the lowering of expectations that such an environment generates for pupils and others, by diminishing the impact of human potential, resilience and ability to act autonomously combined with the unnecessary interference of state prescribed management of emotions. In accepting the potential for such issues to occur, the role of learning mentors is one of ‘getting the balance right’ (Pupil Support, St Anthony’s) between support and encouraging and developing empowerment.

6.4 Becoming a Specialist – Consulting Role

One of the major concerns regarding workforce re-modelling that took place in the first decade of this century was the de-skilling of teachers, through the removal of the pastoral dimension of their work, which in many schools was then managed by support workers (Andrews, 2006) However, in the case study school the pastoral organisation has remained the preserve of qualified teachers, so instead of teachers being de-skilled because of the removal of functions, there is evidence that learning mentors and the Pupil Support team have become increasingly specialised in particular areas, offering advice and guidance to others in the pastoral team. The effect being not so much the de-skilling of teachers, but removal of the opportunity for them to enrich their own pastoral positions, through for example, training which support staff are encouraged to attend, as this avoids teachers being taken away from the core task of teaching. This view is supported in the comments of one of the pastoral leaders who remarks

I think ...when you've got a pupil who needs help, I haven't got the skills to be able to do that quite a lot of the time and it needs someone who has better training than I do.

(Sam, Pastoral Leader, St Anthony's)

Further, the 'consulting role' is of particular importance to those who are new to the pastoral team a point reflected in the comments of one of the pastoral leaders who remarks

The responsibility for behaviour and progress and attainment I think is more for the Head of House, and certainly we get pushed more and there is the team management side with the head of house, running the group of tutors, making sure the tutors are following the school policy, those kind of things fall under the head of house. I know a lot of what I've done this year has been about referring pupils on to a place where they are getting the right support and ask for something to be put in place. I know I've seen Pupil Support a lot, especially in the beginning to see what we can do for this person – that was invaluable.

(George, Pastoral Leader, St Anthony's)

This comment also confirms the role of pastoral leaders in developing an overview of the requirements of those in their 'house,' with learning mentors not only acting as a point of referral for further action, but also a source of information and guidance, thereby establishing themselves in a consulting role.

6.5 Interaction with Other Agencies

A key feature associated with the introduction of learning mentors into schools was the creation of a resource to ‘develop and maintain a comprehensive network of support agencies, individuals and opportunities which can assist children and young people’ (Sauvé Bell, 2003:12). The professional identity of learning mentors is not only shaped by the interaction with colleagues within schools but also those from outside agencies and organisations. As evident from the case file review (RM3) within St Anthony’s the sharing of expertise and combined working that involves learning mentors takes a number of different forms:

Support to internal services Outside agencies are used to support particular activities such as education welfare provision. Such support is in the form of legal advice and consultation including guidance relating to children missing from education, as well as training and networking opportunities.

Service provision in school A number of services are provided in the school to support individuals and groups of pupils and these include: the school nurse service, careers advice, and specialist support relating to substance misuse. Whilst there is an opportunity for pupils to self-refer, much of the caseload of these services is determined by knowledge of the staff especially learning mentors. Further, much of the follow up work generated as a result of consultations with these services is managed by the learning mentors and Pupil Support team.

Consultation and advisory role Provision exists within St Anthony’s through external agencies such as the Child and Adolescent Mental Health Service (CAMHS) to provide advice and guidance relating to specific individuals and the appropriate course of action required to help support the young person concerned.

Specialist Support for individual pupils For those pupils identified with specific needs, liaison takes place with specialist services such as the hearing impairment team and social services. Whilst some of this provision is associated with specific educational needs,

liaison with such services also facilitates the school in providing a more holistic approach to offer support to young people who may have complex needs.

Child Protection Issues Safe guarding is the responsibility of all those working with children, with the statutory responsibilities and arrangements detailed in Section 11 of the Children Act 2004. Providing early help to children and their families is deemed to be more effective than reacting later when problems have already emerged (HM Government 2013). Early intervention relies on local agencies working together to identify and assess those who would benefit from help. Indeed, under section 10 of the Children Act 2004, local authorities have the responsibility to promote inter-agency working and cooperation to support the needs of children and young people. Learning mentors are uniquely placed to raise issues concerning child protection and wellbeing due to the nature of the relationships forged with pupils and their families and as a consequence they work with other agencies to provide support.

Part of a team to support individual need Learning mentors can form part of a multi-agency team to support individual pupils. The formation of such teams can be as consequence of child protection issues (Level 1, Figure 3.1), or as a result of broader intervention work (Levels 2-4, Figure 3.1) such as through a Common Assessment Framework (CAF) panels, where representatives from different organisations combine to offer help and support to children and their families.

The exact nature of how pupils and their families work with outside organisations and agencies varies depending on the needs of those concerned and this variety is reflected in the learning mentor case files. Just over a quarter of the learning mentor cases (26%) (RM3) involved working with other organisations, with the duration and nature of the input being different for each case. For those cases with the greatest complexity, the organisations working with an individual may be multiple, and as such this requires co-ordination which may fall to the school to arrange, with learning mentors, in several of the cases in the review, acting as ‘lead professionals’. The lead professional ‘takes a primary role to ensure front line services are co-ordinated, coherent and achieving intended outcomes (DfE, 2013:1). Lead professionals act as a single point of contact both for other services as well as for the families and children involved, with the aim to reduce the overlap and inconsistency of provision and co-ordinate the delivery of interactions and

actions. The role requires the establishment of good relationships and communication skills. The use of learning mentors to fulfil this temporary role, usually for the duration of the case, illustrates the expansion of their professional identity beyond the boundaries of the school which is shaped by the evolving nature of the cases that are involved.

6.6 Background of Mentors

The professional identity of learning mentors according to White *et al* (2011) is

“co-constructed” as individuals engage in social activities, receive feedback, learn to navigate the social dynamic of the environments in which they work, and describe their experience to others’

(White *et al*, 2011:18)

However, unlike other professionals such as those in teaching, nursing and medicine, that have a highly structured educational process to help develop growing professional awareness, such a foundation is lacking in relation to learning mentors (Sullivan and Black, 2008). Indeed, it is argued that one of the strengths of learning mentors is the fact that they come from a variety of backgrounds and as a consequence bring a wealth of experience to the position (Roberts and Constable, 2003; Wood, 2005; Ofsted, 2003a). Such diversity, however, can also be interpreted as learning mentors being less skilled than other educational professionals, as there are no specific requirements for mentors to possess in the form of academic qualifications and training before commencement of their position, as illustrated in the comments of Ofsted

Some [learning mentors] have a background in teaching or youth work, experience of social work or of raising their own children.

(Ofsted, 2003a:16)

This contrast in relation to other professionals is also evident in the case study school in the comments made by one of the inclusion team, who remarked about the nature of pastoral care and mentoring, describing it as looking after

the needs of humanity, so that if a child is upset, we tend to that need, and know how to do that, because it comes as second nature.

(Alex, Pupil Support Team, St Anthony’s)

Such comments imply the intuitive nature of mentoring and pastoral support, aspects of the role that cannot be formally taught, but develop over time, in other words ‘natural caring’ (Noddings 2002). Noddings (2002) argues ‘this is a form of caring that does not require an

ethical effort to motivate it' (2002: 11), but is very much a moral attitude, based on 'a longing for goodness that arises out of the experience or memory of being cared for' (Flinders, 2001:211). However, I would argue from my own perspective that a 'lack or deficit of care' can also result in the desire to help others.

Those working in the Pupil Support team, have not always worked in the field of education, with two of the team having had previous commercial careers, with another having worked for a department outside of education but within the same local authority. As a consequence of these previous careers, the Pupil Support team can be considered as being late entrants to the field of education and as such 'think' about it differently (Ball *et al* 2012:54). Further, Ball *et al* (2012) identify a specific type of individual, known as 'entrepreneurs' who are brought into schools to 'originate or champion and represent particular policies or principles of integration.' (Ball *et al*, 2012:53). Described as having 'persuasive personalities,' entrepreneurs are 'forceful agents of change who are personally invested in and identified with policy ideas and their enactment' (Ball *et al*, 2012:53). Unlike many other non-teaching roles in schools, learning mentors were brought into schools under a specific policy initiative, with the precise details of their roles being shaped by individual schools dependent on the perceived need at the time. Thus, learning mentors, particularly those brought in at the start of the programme in schools, like myself, could be described as 'entrepreneurial' in nature, adopting varied and creative approaches towards the role. However, this entrepreneurial aspect of the role of learning mentors is one that does not go unchecked. The power to influence and implement ideas can be curtailed due to a variety of factors, including the availability of resources, conflict with other policy areas and the ethos of the school.

According to Social Identity Theory (detailed in Chapter 2) (Tajfel and Turner, 1986; Turner and Oakes, 1986; Ashforth and Mael; 1989), an individual will classify themselves according to perceived membership in a relevant social group. However, due to the diversity in the background of learning mentors and the absence of a highly structured educational process to access the role, the development of such groups is more tortuous. Mentors have multiple social identities and group memberships as do mentees. This is reflected in situations where mentees self-refer to learning mentors, as one of the Pupil Support team comments

We all have different strengths and I think the children naturally gravitate to one or other of us. I'm not sure why but they somehow or other seem to identify who they prefer to work with. I think it's how they respond to us and in turn how we respond to them... I think they like the fact that we take time to listen to them, which they may not get amongst their peer group or friends or sometimes with their families.

(Charlie, Pupil Support Team, St Anthony's)

Thus, the diversity of the background of learning mentors can in part shape who individuals work with and this in turn shapes not only their identity, but also allows them to define themselves in terms of the social environment. It therefore can be suggested that learning mentors do not exist as a single autonomous group but as a combination of individuals bringing their own unique experiences to the role which are then matched with the needs of the pupils concerned.

6.7 Training

One of the factors that contributes to the successful implementation of a learning mentor programme is adequate training (Golden *et al*, 2002; Sullivan and Black, 2008). In the case study school the learning mentors attended the 5 day National Training Programme (Greenwich Council, 2013). The training was considered beneficial by the participants from St Anthony's not only in terms of the course content, but also the networking opportunities with other learning mentors that such courses provide. This aspect of the training was particularly important at the start of the initiative when learning mentors were first introduced into schools. The training provided opportunities for mentors to start to develop 'communities of practice' (Lave and Wenger, 1991) and learn from the experiences of fellow mentors in establishing this newly formed role in schools. The value of this training is reflected in the comments of one of the learning mentors who remarked

We did [receive training], because it was the start of the initiative, it was the second phase of Excellence in Cities. As a group of learning mentors across the city we did a lot of training together and that was brilliant.

(Ellis, Learning Mentor, St Anthony's)

In addition to the National Training programme (Chapter 2, Section 2.4.3), learning mentors can complete a National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) evidencing competence and underlying knowledge in the 7 modules detailed in Table 2.1. The introduction of such

qualifications provides mentors with the opportunity for reflection, to consider aspects of their role in more detail, to recognise the complexity surrounding mentoring activity through a more formalised mechanism. The introduction of a learning mentor qualification can be considered as an example of policy in action. The acquisition of qualifications has been viewed as a key driver of competitive advantage in an era of globalisation, both by New Labour and Coalition governments, as a deficit is seen as a block towards prosperity and social equality (Leitch, 2006; UKCES, 2009; Stasz, 2011). Stasz, (2011) argues however, the type of qualification used to indicate learning mentor competence through performance, ‘downplays the learning process’...as it is not based on a curriculum or programme of instruction’ (Stasz, 2011:8) but the accumulation of evidence through an assessment portfolio. Further, it is debatable if the acquisition of such qualifications can be regarded as a proxy for skills, instead, it represents the meeting of a benchmark rather than an indicator of quality.

In my own pursuit of a vocational qualification associated with learning mentors, it was not as a result of a requirement sought by my employer, or even as a ‘positional good’ to progress in my own role; instead it was undertaken for a sense of accomplishment and my own personal satisfaction to confirm my progress in relation to understanding aspects of mentoring (Unwin *et al*, 2008).

6.8 Career Structure

Hayward (2001) identified a number of barriers affecting the implementation of good practice regarding the role of learning mentors, one of these factors was the ‘lack of career structure and access to professional development time’ (Hayward, 2001:8). The lack of a formalised career structure is however not surprising, due to the fledgling nature of the occupation, the fluid and flexible nature of the role (Gardiner, 2008) and the cessation of centralised support and supervision offered to learning mentors through the Excellence In Cities (EiC) programme.

The term ‘career’ in the context of the workplace can be seen most simply as the sequence of work experiences an employee may have over time. Work experiences may involve moving from one job to another, but also the changing nature of work within a single job and the experiences of working on varied projects. Career moves in organisations are very often sideways

rather than upwards, and may cross-departmental, geographical or functional boundaries.

(Hirsh, 2007:2)

Evidence from the document mapping exercise (RM2) and field notes (RM7) indicates within St Anthony's the career structure of learning mentors has been developed through the addition of extra responsibilities, including areas such as: education welfare activities which involves the monitoring of attendance in St Anthony's, as well as in off-site provision used by the school, such as in hospital education and Pupil Referral Units (PRUs), prosecutions and attendance meetings; careers education, including the organisation of careers fairs, interview days, guest speakers, educational visits and conducting one to one interviews; higher education awareness activities; and the organisation of work experience for all pupils in Year 10 to help them gain a better understanding of the world of work. As a consequence of these additional areas of responsibility, the learning mentors in St Anthony's can be described as 'holistic' (Miller, 2002). This term refers to a mentor who

...deploys a wide range of interpersonal skills, befriending, counselling, coaching and tutoring, to help the mentee reach a range of academic, work-related and personal goals... they need to understand the complex linkages between a student's knowledge, skills and attitudes, academic performance and personal life, motivation, classroom performance and achievement and career aspirations, self-esteem and self-confidence.

(Gardiner, 2008:31)

This holistic approach concurs with the idea of social pedagogy concerned with the promotion of the well-being of the whole person (Cannan *et al* 1992; Lorenz 1994, Smith, 1999; Cruddas, 2005). Cruddas (2005) argues

Learning mentoring has strong competence links with social pedagogy in that its focus on an education function, social activity and a holistic approach to children and young people that promotes well-being.

(Cruddas, 2005:25)

The development of this more 'holistic' approach towards learning mentoring has developed a culture of flexibility within St Anthony's. As a consequence of this adaptability the form and content of the occupational roles of learning mentors has become emergent and dynamic shaped by a process of negotiation and social interaction (Rothman, 1979). The nature of the interaction that takes place involves a process of bargaining, and accommodation, not only through overt social control but also via more subtle manipulation, the outcome of which is 'ultimately determined by the power that exists

amongst groups' (Rothman,1979:496) and their control of resources. Included amongst these resources is the 'capability to enhance or inhibit careers' (Rothman: 1979: 497) and the development of a sense of autonomy. Freidson (1970) argues

Autonomy is the prize sought after by virtually all occupational groups, for it represents freedom from direction from others, freedom to perform one's work, the way one desires

(Freidson, 1970:368)

However, due to the flexibility demanded of learning mentors within St Anthony's, such autonomy is difficult to achieve, reflected in the comments of one of the Pupil Support team

...we are not in a position to refuse. If anyone from upstairs calls [senior management team] there is an expectation that we are always available, always on call. That makes it very difficult to plan your day. You never know what you are going to do each day. There is also the expectation that you can turn your hand to anything, often without having all the information. Sometimes we end up dealing with a pupil and we just have to feel our way along, we have to make an educated guess about what is wrong, but at the same time you need to be careful that you don't put your foot in it, say something that may actually make matters worse.

(Charlie, Pupil Support Team, St Anthony's)

Unlike many pedagogic practices taking place in the classroom, the demands of mentoring requires a fluidity of approach, not only in terms of catering for the needs of individual pupils but through the interaction with others both within the school and beyond, creating temporary networks. Consequently the career structure for mentors reflects this fluidity with no clear career path in place. Such flexibility however is argued by Cruddas (2005) to offer the possibility of joining a 'community development framework' (Cruddas, 2005:26), which Cannan and Warren (1997:1) refers to as 'social action' to

... find ways of working together to promote environments in which children can flourish and ...develop forms of public life that are friendly to children, young people and their parents.

(Cannan and Warren, 1997:1)

As a consequence this provides mentors with the opportunity to demonstrate 'competence links with long standing professional groups' (Cruddas, 2005:26) for example social services and explore the theories underpinning and informing social pedagogic practice.

6.9 The Nature of Mentoring Relationships and Professionalism

The notion of flexibility and working alliances influences the nature of the relationships that are developed through the process of mentoring. Egan (2010) explores the collaborative nature of helping, undertaken by professional groups such as mentors, considering the relationship that develops as an opportunity for learning, re-learning and relationship flexibility. Egan's 'helping model' detailed in Chapter 2 (Section 2.2.3) explores the cognitive, affective, and behavioural characteristics displayed by individuals, in other words how people, think, feel, express emotions and act (Egan, 2010). Although important to take past issues and problems into consideration, the skill of mentors and others helping pupils to succeed is to encourage 'different ways of thinking, managing emotions and acting' (Egan, 2010: x). Those Egan (2010) describes as competent helpers, are those who appreciate individuality, but also recognise everyone's need for some form of community. In St Anthony's the need for young people to be supported in changing their outlook was recognised before the implementation of the learning mentor programme and help was put in place due to

...the realisation that children did like to come out and talk about what was going on, to say their side of the story, if they had been in trouble with teachers and members of staff and they were open to thinking through ideas and strategies to try and improve their lot and improve their lives in school and get on better with people.

(Francis, Pupil Support, St Anthony's)

According to Egan (2010) 'values play a critical role in the helping process' (2010:40) as they are not simply ideas, but the practical criteria that informs decision making, becoming the 'fundamental drivers of professional behaviour' (Cruddas, 2005: 99). Egan identifies four key 'values in action,' to not only assist in the establishment of professional boundaries but also the development of ethical practice. The four key values in action identified by Egan (2010) are namely: respect as a foundation value; empathy as a primary orientation value; genuineness as a professional value; and client empowerment as an outcome value, all of which are evident in the work of learning mentors and Pupil Support team at St Anthony's.

The first of these values considers the notion of respect which is legitimised amongst learning mentors through training, including child protection guidance, to ensure the welfare of young people is kept paramount. Egan (2010) highlights the importance of the ‘helper’ being there for the ‘client’, however for mentors this can create tensions as the notion of ‘client’ is not always clear, as consideration needs to be given not only to the young person concerned, but also their family and the school in which they operate.

Empathy, the second of the values in action, is referred to by Cruddas (2005) as a

...commitment to understand the young person from their point of view in the context of their lives and the dissonance between their point of view and reality.

(Cruddas, 2005: 96)

Consequently, mentors develop relationships that are often subtly different from other significant adults in the lives of young people. This is reflected in the comments from one of the Pupil Support team who suggests

I think they see you as someone who is more on their side, you will not be telling them off – well not in the same way as a teacher might. You could even say the same things as another teacher or even their parent, but they will often listen to us when they won’t with someone else. I think it is how we talk to them that’s important, they all need boundaries and structure and that’s what we offer them. We talk to them in a way that helps preserve their dignity and that’s why they will come back to us.

(Charlie, Pupil Support Team, St Anthony’s)

Both Egan (2010) and Cruddas (2005) both highlight the need to understand the broad characteristics, needs and behaviours of the groups concerned in mentoring, but at the same time consider young people as individuals and not simply label them in particular categories. As Egan (2010) remarks, ‘category traits can destroy understanding as well as facilitate it’ (2010: 51). Consequently understanding a mentoring caseload is an important consideration to check if certain groups are over or under represented and the targeting of mentoring provision is reaching those requiring support.

The third value in action concerns the notion of genuineness which impacts on attitudes as well as behaviours (Egan, 2010). For mentoring relationships to work successfully they need to be authentic and offer substance, and as one pastoral leader from St Anthony’s remarked ‘pupils know if you care’ a point reflected in the comments of one of the Pupil Support team who said

I would like to think I help the children in the same way as if one of my own children was asking for help. I would like to think someone in school would treat them kindly and try and help them.

(Charlie, Pupil Support Team, St Anthony's)

Cruddas (2005) also argues 'Boundaries help to maintain the genuineness or realness of the working alliance' (2005:97) as well as providing a structure to keep mentoring relationships on a professional footing. The challenge of establishing boundaries has not been without issue

I think there are some that think we have adopted them, one of them one day even called me mum. Again I think that comes back to boundaries, they know where they stand with us, we offer them the chance to be listened to.

(Charlie, Pupil Support Team, St Anthony's)

The last of the values in action identified by Egan (2010) refers to client empowerment. As already mentioned earlier in this chapter (see section 6.4) concerns were expressed by the Pupil Support team that there is a danger of creating a culture of dependency by always coming up with solutions, as opposed to empowering young people to make positive choices for themselves. Further, such empowerment does not operate in isolation but relates to the underlying institutional purposes for which learning mentoring is used (Cruddas: 2005). As a consequence, mentors are having to negotiate institutional goals as well as instilling notions of emancipation amongst the young people with whom they work.

6.10 Conclusion

The professional identity of learning mentors in St Anthony's is complex, as it is shaped by a continually evolving arrangement of factors including, organisational elements involving the boundaries of mentoring work, especially in relation to other aspects of pastoral care provision; the nature of activities undertaken by mentors and the development of a more specialist role to support other members of staff. The professional identity of the role is not limited to the confines of the school but extends beyond, to a wider community of practice through multi-agency work and liaison with other mentors through training. Further, the professional identity of learning mentors is shaped by the creation of temporary networks of interaction generated to support the needs of individual pupils both within the school and beyond. Indeed, it is through the wider formulation of context, environment and social

interaction shaping the professional identity of learning mentors that is considered in the next chapter, by exploring the influence of policy enactment at an institutional level on the role of learning mentors.

CHAPTER 7: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS RELATING TO POLICY AND LEARNING MENTORS

7.1 Introduction

The existence of learning mentors in schools today can be traced back to a specific policy enactment, as they were introduced through the EiC programme in 1999 (DfEE, 1999). However, the nature of this enactment, in this instance to be explored through case study research, is likely to have been shaped by the ‘nuances of local context [as they can] cumulatively make a considerable difference to school processes and student achievement’ (Thrupp and Lupton, 2006:309). The observations of Thrupp and Lupton (2006) reinforce the comments of Ball *et al* (2012) who argue ‘policy creates context, but context precedes policy’ (2012:19). Gillies *et al* (2010) in their study of learning disengagement also recognised the importance of looking beyond the individual to the wider formulation of context, environment and social interactions. Thus, Ball *et al* (2012) argue that

Policies - new and old - are set against and alongside existing commitments, values and forms of experience. In other words, a framework for policy enactments will need to consider a set of objective conditions in relation to a set of subjective ‘interpretational’ dynamics. Thus the material, structural and relational needs to be incorporated into policy analysis in order to make better sense of policy enactments at the institutional level.

(Ball *et al*, 2012:21)

In attempting to understand how developments in policy have influenced the role of learning mentors, consideration has been focused on how schools enact policy, rather than simply considering how it has been implemented. Therefore, using data gathered from a variety of sources (RM1-RM7) , this chapter begins by exploring the dynamics of context and its inter-relationships using the contextual dimensions identified by Ball *et al* (2012), namely: situated contexts, professional cultures, material and external contexts.

7.1.1 Situated context

Ball *et al* (2012) define situational factors as those relating to the locale, history and intake of the school concerned. Although the local context of St Anthony’s has already been outlined in Chapter 3 (Section, 3.2), the situational factors as described by Ball *et al* (2012)

extend beyond this. Despite its ‘relatively modern’ appearance, St Anthony’s prides itself on its ‘traditional’ ethos, as evidenced by an array of artefacts including: pictures of the annual prize giving ceremony with staff in academic gowns displayed in the reception area; the wooden honours board headed ‘In Novitate Vitae’(in newness of life) displaying the names of former head boys and girls; numerous photographs of past pupils at the time of their university graduation and the use of the word ‘Arete’ (from the Greek meaning ‘excellence’) on posters to promote the school sixth form. The creation of a ‘traditional’ ethos influences a number of policy areas within St Anthony’s, for example curriculum decisions, sixth form development, and enrichment activities.

Ball *et al* (2012) in their study of policy enactment in secondary schools argue ‘schools can become defined by their intake, but they also define themselves by it’ (Ball *et al*, 2012:22). The management of a school’s intake, through the development of a positive reputation, influences an array of policy activities, for example, liaison with partner primary schools where the majority of the pupils attending St Anthony’s come from, sporting events, the hosting of cultural activities, information evenings and parent consultation meetings. With an increasing choice of schooling options for parents, the pressure to create a positive image becomes increasingly important to sustain intake levels. The concept of reputation management is further examined in more detail in section 7.7 of this chapter.

7.1.2 Professional cultures

Professional cultures refer to the ethos, staff values and commitments operating in the school and how this impacts on policy enactments (Ball *et al*, 2012).

Most schools have distinct sets of professional cultures, outlooks and attitudes that have evolved over time and that inflect policy responses in particular ways.

(Ball *et al*, 2012:27)

From interview evidence (RM1), the culture and ethos of St Anthony’s focuses very much on care and support for the individual pupil and this approach is encapsulated in the following comment by one of the Pupil Support team

I would say now there is an expectation from everybody, from tutors through to heads of house and senior management, with the importance of acknowledging the emotional literacy needs of a child and how that effects their learning, and whether it impacts positively or negatively on their learning. And that aspect of a child is always thought about and catered for

when they are considering that child as a whole.... I would say that there is a great deal of team work in this school, um...a lot of people can be involved with a child , all of them working towards getting the optimum situation for them to learn. It's all about getting them to learn and perform academically, but there is a great understanding this will only happen if their emotional needs are met.

(Francis, Pupil Support, St Anthony's)

The above comment supports the notion that within St Anthony's pupils are not just helped to function to learn, but to function generally, a point reinforced in the comments of one pastoral leaders

... our kids here they enjoy coming into school, because they have that good support, that good network, the ethos.

(Nick, Pastoral Leader, St Anthony's)

The culture and ethos within St Anthony's not only provides support for individual pupils, but acts as a guiding influence in how staff conduct their own approach to their roles, illustrated by the remarks on one pastoral leader

I don't know if it became natural, it just became part of what I did. And I think that's possibly to with the ethos and the nature of the school, but it is that caring community and that's even before I was a head of house, I would still have, I haven't changed in why and what I do.

(George, Pastoral Leader, St Anthony's)

Evidence gathered through interviews (RM1) and from field notes (RM7) indicates care and support within St Anthony's is delivered via a team approach involving pastoral, tutor, academic and pupil support interventions. The focus of these teams extends beyond purely academic activity, as consideration is given to the wider needs of each young person and more holistic approach is adopted. However, the contribution of some staff towards a caring and supportive ethos is more apparent, principally as a result of their role within the school, for example learning mentors.

7.1.3 Material context

Material context refers to the physical environment of a school including: the buildings, their layout, grounds and settings, staffing levels, information technology and infrastructure in general (Ball *et al*, 2012). St Anthony's has a mix of old and new buildings with separate ICT facilities in one block. The building of a new technology block has created the opportunity for the location of faculties to be grouped together, allowing

ease of communication for staff within departments. This has increased the tendency for teaching staff to now spend break and some lunchtimes within their own departmental areas rather than going to the 'more traditional' staffroom, possibly resulting in 'less interaction with colleagues from other departments' (Ball *et al*, 2012:30). Learning mentors help to facilitate communication between departments, as they will often visit staff at break and lunchtimes in their faculty areas to discuss issues relating to particular individuals or groups.

The Pupil Support Department in which the learning mentors work is located in the 'heart of the school' as described by one member of the teaching staff (a comment recorded in field notes RM7). Yet despite it being in a central location, the office where the learning mentors work is however anonymised, with no signage, no reference made on the school map or mention made in the school prospectus. The lack of signposting to the department relates to concerns regarding pupil confidentiality and the potentially sensitive nature of the issues being discussed, together with the potential for pupils to be stigmatised. Awareness of the department is however raised by the Pupil Support team including learning mentors being on duty close to their base, each break and lunchtime, and this is reflected in the number of young people and staff who visit the department during the day, typically in excess of 60. The reasons why staff and pupils visit the department varies, ranging from issues to deal with attendance; social and emotional problems; and work related learning including careers, work experience and post 16 options enquiries; as a consequence, the profile of the pupils accessing the department is variable and is more extensive than reflected in the case file review(RM3). Pupils therefore develop knowledge of the activities and functions of the Pupil Support department through experience rather than through a proactive campaign to specifically inform them of the details.

7.1.4 External context

According to Ball *et al*, (2012) external contexts refer to 'pressure and expectations generated by wider local and national policy frameworks' (Ball *et al*, 2012:36), and these aspects are considered in more detail in the following sections.

7.2 Legislative Framework

The legal requirement underpinning the work of learning mentors and more broadly pastoral care is contained in the 1988 Education Reform Act (Section 1) which states

The whole school curriculum entitles every pupil to a broad and balanced curriculum which

- a) promotes the spiritual, moral, cultural, mental and physical development of pupils at the school and of society; and
- b) prepares such pupils for the opportunities, responsibilities and experiences of adult life.

Both the work of learning mentors and pastoral care provided in school contributes to this entitlement. According to Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools (DES: 1989) this entitlement is achieved through the promotion of a pupils' personal and social development and the fostering of positive attitudes through:

- specific pastoral structures and support systems
- the quality of teaching and learning
- the nature of relationships amongst pupils, teachers and adults other than teachers
- arrangements for monitoring pupil's overall progress, academic, personal and social

(DES, 1989:3)

Other legislation impacting on the work of learning mentors is related to inclusion, for example, the Special Educational Needs and Disability Act (2001) and the Equality Act 2010. In addition to the legislative support for inclusion in schools, it is also a national curriculum requirement. The National Curriculum Statutory Statement says the curriculum should provide relevant, challenging learning to all children according to three principles:

- setting suitable learning challenges
- responding to pupils' diverse learning needs
- overcoming potential barriers to learning

(DfE, 2011:1)

The third of these principles links closely with the ideologies underpinning the work of learning mentors and this is evident in the connection between inclusion and learning mentoring in St Anthony's. Such an association has been facilitated by the appointment of

an Inclusion Manager, drawing together the work of learning mentors and those supporting children identified as having special educational needs. However, the nature of the links created between these two functions is temporary in nature and comparable with the notion of ‘destatisation’ (Jessop, 2002: Ball, 2012) as discussed in Chapter 5 (see Section 5.2), as it is dependent on the requirements of individual children. For those pupils with the most complex needs, they may not only require input in the classroom, linking the academic structure of the school and special educational needs provision, but also additional assistance to cope with social, emotional, economic and health issues provided through the pastoral care and learning mentor structures. I therefore propose that due to the position of learning mentors working at the interface between the academic and pastoral functions already detailed in Chapter 5 (see Section 5.2), when special needs provision is required, learning mentors can act as the conduit linking academic, pastoral and inclusion areas together, thereby creating a new model for how learning mentoring is understood in schools.

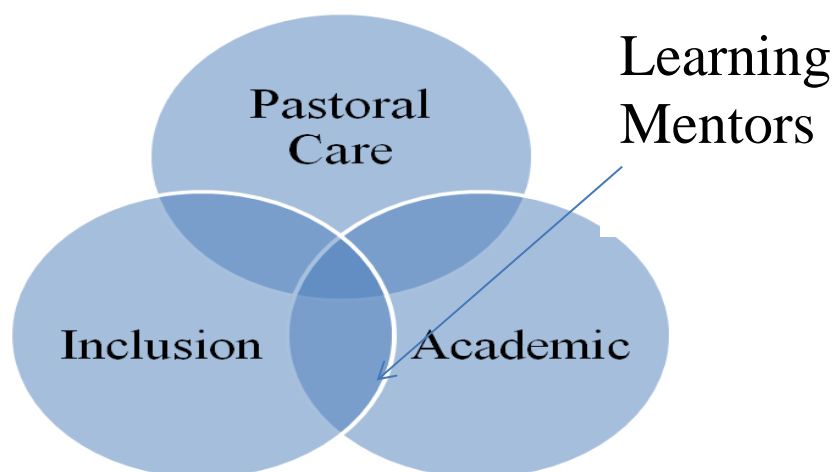


Figure 7.1 Link between inclusion, pastoral care, academic structure and learning mentors in St Anthony’s

An inclusion register has been established in St Anthony’s to identify those pupils who may have additional needs and require support, this not only includes those young people with specific special educational needs identified under the code of practice, but also other issues that may impact on their learning and access to the curriculum. The Code of Practice relating to Special Educational Needs covers 3 categories (DfES, 2001): i) those pupils with a Statement of Special Educational Need, where the provision made is statutory in line with the requirements of the individual; ii) school action plus refers to those pupils requiring support that is additional and different to the rest of the year group and requires

input from an outside agency; iii) and school action refers to those pupils requiring extra and differentiated help in comparison with their peers. Of the 102 pupils identified on the inclusion register (2011-12) representing approximately 9 % of the school population at St Anthony's, 45 pupils were identified at the school action code of practice, 18 pupils at school action plus, and 12 pupils who were recorded as statemented. Learning mentors had worked with 54 of the pupils, representing almost 53% of the young people on the inclusion register, not all of whom would have been identified as having special educational needs on the code of practice. The nature of the work with the individuals varied, as evident for the case file review (RM3) depending on the unique requirements of the young person concerned including activities such as: applications for additional funding, to support pupils gaining extra equipment and resources as well as attending school trips; monitoring pupils at break and lunchtimes; providing supervision for young people needing to self-medicate; and working with pupils on a 1:1 basis to deal with social, emotional and academic problems. Further it should also be noted that not all the pupils that learning mentors work with and recorded in their files will be represented on the inclusion register.

Although the main focus of Ofsted inspections is essentially about teaching and learning, the principles of inclusion impacting on the work of learning mentors is not ignored, a point confirmed in the *Schools Inspection Handbook* (2013) which states

Inspectors should focus on the effectiveness of leadership and management at all levels in promoting improvements within the context of the school. They evaluate the extent to which the school enables all pupils to overcome specific barriers to learning.

(Ofsted, 2013: 42)

However, the notion of the barriers to learning in relation to Ofsted inspections should be treated with caution, as a narrower interpretation of this term is implied elsewhere in inspection guidelines, where a specific focus is placed on key performance indicators, as reflected in the statement concerning the effectiveness of governance using

... the pupil premium and other resources to overcome barriers to learning, including reading, writing and mathematics.

(Ofsted, 2013:44)

Indeed, the Ofsted inspection framework has been reduced from 27 different categories to 5 separate areas that schools are now graded upon: overall effectiveness; pupil

achievement; quality of teaching; pupil behaviour and safety, and leadership and management. With schools naturally focusing attention on those areas which they will be inspected on, concerns have emerged that the wider well-being of children and young people, including child protection issues will suffer as a consequence (Stewart, 2012).

7.3 Child Protection

The link between learning mentoring and child protection has been established since the inception of the Excellence in Cities programme in 1999. Included in the ‘Common Core of Skills and Knowledge for the Children’s Workforce (DfES, 2005a) is the ‘Safeguarding and promoting the welfare of children and young people’ (CWDC, 2010:2). This particular skill focuses on keeping young children safe and identifying issues of harm or neglect. However, it also covers the broader notion of recognising when young people are not achieving their developmental potential and they and their families require support to ensure their well-being and quality of life.

Child protection training is included as the initial 5 day National Training Programme for learning mentors and in the case of St Anthony’s it forms part of whole school training for all staff which is refreshed each year. Indeed, being familiar with school procedures and protocols is highlighted as a key factor in assisting practitioners working together to promote child welfare and safeguard from harm (CWDC, 2010). The child protection officer within an organisation takes the lead regarding child protection issues which involves the support of staff as well as liaison and information sharing with other agencies, principally social services. To increase the robustness of child protection measures in a school, the designation of a deputy child protection officer is encouraged, and in the case of St Anthony’s this role has been filled by a learning mentor. Due to the nature of the work of learning mentors, particularly in situations where they work one to one with pupils, the chances of disclosure may be higher than with other members of school staff. Therefore the awareness of learning mentors regarding the issues surrounding child protection is extremely important, as they are likely to need to enact procedures and policies that are applicable according to national guidelines, such as detailed in Section 47 of the Children

Act 1989, concerning core assessments, or local arrangements such as those regarding the ‘First Response’ service for reporting child protection issues.

7.4 Every Child Matters

A significant policy area that has shaped the work of learning mentors is that of Every Child Matters (see Chapter 3, Section 3.4.3). Each of the main and sub themes identified in the case file review (RM3) can be compared to the 5 main outcomes of ECM, the details of which are shown in Table 7.1., demonstrating an example of policy in action. The ECM outcomes shown in bold in Table 7.1 are those which are directly comparable with evidence of the types of issues encountered by young people from the files along with the measures and interventions put in place to address such difficulties. For the other ECM outcomes shown in Table 7.1, (non-bold) the link is less substantiated, in particular those associated with the often more complex main themes of relationships, social and emotional issues and the home environment. In particular it is the ECM outcome ‘making a positive contribution’ and the associated aim of ‘dealing with significant life changes and challenges’ that are most problematic when compared to the case file review. The phrasing of this outcome and the aim underpinning it suggests that it is the responsibility of the individual concerned to overcome particular challenges, however as evidence from the files suggests, many of these issues are beyond the control of the young person concerned and to a greater or lesser extent their families. This particular ECM outcome and associated aim also represents an example of how individuals are encouraged themselves to become increasingly responsible for dealing with the problems and uncertainties associated with a continuously changing and unstable environment (Bauman, 2005) (see Chapter 3, Section 3.3.5).

In situations where needs are complex and support for young people is required from a number of agencies and organisations, the role of learning mentors in schools may be to help minimise the impact of issues adversely affecting learning, rather than attempting to solve the problems outright. Further, the apparent ‘mismatch’ of the problems identified in the case file review and the descriptors used regarding ECM outcomes may also occur due to lack of identification of the ‘wider range of need’ Butterfield (2012:9) associated

Main themes from learning mentor case files	Sub-themes from learning mentor case files	ECM Outcome
Attendance	Non Attendance	Enjoy and Achieve
	Attendance Missing Education	Enjoy and Achieve/Stay Safe
	Lateness/ getting up	Enjoy and Achieve
Learning	Attitude and Motivation	Enjoy and Achieve
	Behaviour in Class	Enjoy and Achieve
	Education - Off Site	Enjoy and Achieve
	Academic Support	Enjoy and Achieve
	Transition	Enjoy and Achieve
	Lack of Organisation	Enjoy and Achieve
Medical	Medical Condition	Be Healthy
Mental Health	Mental Health Concerns	Be Healthy
	Eating Dis-order concerns	Be Healthy/Stay Safe
	Self-Harm	Be Healthy/Stay Safe
Home Environment	Family Medical Conditions/Illness	Make a Positive Contribution
	Young Carers	Make a Positive Contribution
	Family Alcohol Misuse	Make a Positive Contribution/ Stay Safe
	Teenage Pregnancy	Be Healthy / Achieve Economic Well-being
	Financial Issues	Achieve Economic Wellbeing
	Excessive Computer Game Playing	Be Healthy/ Make a Positive Contribution
	Domestic Violence in the home	Stay Safe/ Make a Positive Contribution
Relationships	Friendship Issues	Stay Safe/ Make a Positive Contribution
	Parental Relationships	Stay Safe/ Make a Positive Contribution
	Family breakup/Separation	Stay Safe/ Make a Positive Contribution
	Divorce/ Separation Issues	Stay Safe/ Make a Positive Contribution
	Parenting Issues	Stay Safe/ Make a Positive Contribution
Crime	Youth Offending/ Crime – Police Concerns	Make a Positive Contribution
	Victim of Crime	Stay Safe
Social and Emotional	School Policy Compliance	Enjoy and Achieve
	Anger Management	Enjoy and Achieve/ Make a Positive Contribution
	Effects of Bereavement of family member	Make a Positive Contribution
	Self Esteem	Make a Positive Contribution
Bullying	Bullying Victim	Stay Safe
	Bullying Perpetrator	Make a Positive Contribution
	Bullying Cyber	Stay Safe/ Make a Positive Contribution

Table 7.1 A comparison of the themes from learning mentor case files with, Every Child Matters core outcomes and sub themes

with social and emotional issues in particular, underplaying the challenges some young people face, for example when acting as young carers. In relation to the work of learning mentors a more accurate and appropriate representation may be the creation of a 'sixth' namely the 'building of resilience' which may involve working with other agencies beyond the boundaries of the school.

7.5 Building of Resilience

The notion of 'educational resilience' is not a fixed attribute, but one that can be influenced by several 'alterable' factors such as problem solving skills, a sense of purpose, social competence and autonomy Bernard (1993). Waxman *et al* (2003) acknowledge that whilst educators are not in a position to control factors such as 'community demographics and family conditions, they can change educational policies and practices to ensure that they address the specific needs of students at a risk of academic failure' (Waxman *et al*, 2003:2). Waxman *et al* (2003) argue that resilience is built in schools by creating an environment of caring and positive relationships; facilitated by educators with a 'resiliency-building attitude' – described by Benard (1997) as 'turnaround teachers' – a term I believe is equally applicable to learning mentors.

As mentioned in Chapter 6 (Section 6.9) 'pupils know if you care' (Pastoral Leader, St Anthony's) and it is through this genuine support that resilience is developed. Individuals are helped by giving them time; listening to their concerns; and developing a culture of respect and understanding (Higgins, 1994; Meier, 1995) in which resilience is developed. It is an environment where pupil behaviour is not taken personally (Benard, 1997), a point reflected in the comments of one of the pastoral leaders at St Anthony's who remarked

...it's providing that environment that they feel rightly or wrongly they can actually let off steam or whatever they need to do in that way. They get reprimanded for it but, nobody's going to think any differently, nobody's going to hold it against them.

(Nick, Pastoral Leader, St Anthony's)

Learning mentors were described by a member of the teaching staff in St Anthony's as 'relentlessly optimistic' when working with pupils, particularly in pursuit of academic

achievement and this is reflected in the phrases used by the Pupil Support team when working with the pupils to help encourage and motivate them, with examples including:

... we don't do less than a 'C' in this department [encouraging pupils to aim for higher grades] (Charlie)

We won't let you fail (Ellis)

Don't worry you have lots of time to turn things around (Ellis)

We can't solve everything, but we can help you to improve the situation (Francis)

(Pupil Support Team, St Anthony's)

Whilst it is not possible for learning mentors to promise improvement for every child, evidence from the case files (RM3) and supported by published examination results suggests intervention has been successful in a number of cases. However, it should also be noted it is not possible to isolate the impact of learning mentor work with individuals and any improvement may be attributed to a combination of factors, such as extra lessons.

The focus on support for academic achievement by learning mentors in St Anthony's is not only an example of a results driven culture existing within schools, but a change in focus from

...a deficit position that only considers crisis, difficulties and risks, to a position that assumes that young people bring strengths and unused potential to the helping process.

(Cruddas, 2005:91)

Thus the role of learning mentors as expressed in the comments above is to help open up a world of possibilities, which as Egan remarks is 'a question of not of what is going wrong but of what could be better' (Egan, 2010:5).

Another aspect of the 'turnaround' role as described by Benard (1997) concerns their impact on over-whelmed families, which at the most extreme is represented in Coalition policy as 'helping troubled families turn their lives around' (Department for Communities and Local government, 2013:1). Taking into account the wider needs of the families has formally become embedded in the work of learning mentors through the Common Assessment Framework (CAF) process (See Chapter 3, Section 3.2.2). The CAF process has facilitated multi agency working through the adoption of a standardised approach used by different practitioners within the children's workforce to assess the needs of children, young people and their families. Learning mentors have become instrumental in the CAF system as they have received specific training in conducting this process. In St Anthony's,

this involvement has not only taken the form of making referrals concerning young people and their families, but also helping to facilitate the process by sitting on CAF panels, to help assess the needs of other children from different organisations. The different stages of the CAF process, from the initial completion of the referral form to reaching the panel stage, help to generate a sense of reflection, not only for practitioners but also families as well, a point illustrated by the comments of a member of the Pupil Support team, who started the process of referral completion, but did not send the case to panel because

It was felt by filling in the form we had uncovered quite a bit about what was causing the problems – it just encouraged them [the family] to talk about the issues and they felt they could deal with it without sending the form on to the panel.

(Ellis, Pupil Support Team, St Anthony's)

Indeed, the CAF process creates a learning opportunity for practitioners, not only in terms of bringing their own cases to panel, when trying to summarise the salient features of a particular situation, but also through the consideration of other sets of circumstances concerning young people and their families outside of their own jurisdiction when acting as panel members. The CAF process involves a form of monitoring known as 'distance travelled', a subjective judgement to consider the extent of improvement or deterioration in identified interventions from the perspective of the family. Such monitoring helps those involved focus resources and identify areas of challenge. It is also an example of the culture of targeting and monitoring, a feature of New Labour social investment, to provide evidence of successful provision in areas of perceived dividend.

The involvement of learning mentors and indeed other school staff in the CAF process raises the question of the role of schools beyond aspects of teaching and learning, a concern expressed by a member of the Inclusion Team who remarked

I think there's more and more pressure on schools to be the ... the be all and end all for every issue. Because there's this...you know...when you've got...there's this attitude that schools are best placed to "deliver", because the child is there for 25 hours per week: and schools are best placed to deliver speech and language therapy... schools are best placed to deliver education around drugs etc... and you often hear that being the case. I think schools are expected to do more and more... and education is often the whipping boy for various different issues and those Daily Mail headlines where you know "Our children can't read and write – what are our schools doing about it?" That's the kind of issue, often in the same way as for those social things. But schools are not always the best place to deliver that because we cannot mitigate for everything else that impacts on that child outside of school gates. And I think that's where the tension can lie, we can do a lot, we can only do so much.

(Alex, Pupil Support Team, St Anthony's)

However, the expansion of the work of schools beyond classroom pedagogic practice, facilitated by roles such as learning mentors, reflects a model of learning that is not, according to Cruddas

...a narrowly set of prescribed outcomes, but what Vygotsky defined as the space between actual development and potential development.

(Cruddas, 2005:100)

This wider view of learning and the corresponding role of schools was pre-empted in St Anthony's through the development of the Pupil Support Programme of which learning mentors when appointed became a part. The origins of this programme can be found in the recognition by the head teacher of the need to put in place intervention to try to avert the trajectory of permanent exclusion that some pupils were facing. When initially set up the programme was exploratory in nature, a point reflected in the comments of one of the Pupil Support Team

It was to begin with a temporary agreement and it was an experiment. [The head teacher] felt it was to support children at the edge of exclusion, those children who had been in a lot of trouble and were really in danger of losing their place at St Anthony's. The head wanted to give them something positive, to help them overcome some difficulties that they were facing. [The head teacher] recognised at the time that often there was something behind their disaffection, their feelings of anger etc. wanted to give them a chance to explore why they were angry and try and learn some strategies to deal with their anger. That's how it initially started. It was an experiment to see if it would improve children's time at St Anthony's and really whether we could save them from being excluded. In fact it was more than that, it was not just exclusion, it was permanent exclusion.

(Francis, Pupil Support Team, St Anthony's)

The focus on measures to avoid exclusion and understand the problems underpinning the behaviour contributing to the likelihood of this sanction, reflects an environment in which the long term implications of such action are considered and recognised (see Chapter 6, Section 6.3.1). It became apparent that for such interventions to have any chance of success, they needed to be proactive rather than reactive, a point reflected in the comments of a member of the Pupil Support team

But what we realised was we needed to get in earlier to work with the children who were disaffected and very quickly the Deputy started to pass over children to me, who were nowhere near the edge of exclusion or permanent exclusion, but were showing signs of anger and were not even perhaps angry children but were misbehaving and when it came to it, when

we started talking about their misbehaviour, it turned out they were angry individuals. And that's how the role developed really.

(Francis, Pupil Support Team, St Anthony's)

The introduction of intervention for those pupils at risk of exclusion in St Anthony's helped to create an environment in which collaborative activity has supported 'enhanced self- reflection and metacognitive development' (Daniels, 2001:45), providing an example of externalism. Further, the creation of an intervention programme in St Anthony's prior to the introduction of learning mentors into the school, helped to pave the way for this type of activity to take place, producing an adaptation of Mercer's classroom pedagogic practices, including how pupils solve problems and make sense of experience, as well as treating learning as a social and communicative process (Mercer, 2000).

However, the long term existence for the Every Child Matters (ECM) agenda and the CAF process remains uncertain. Whilst the Coalition government has not abandoned the ECM outcomes, it has developed 'a narrower focus on educational achievement over 'the whole child' (Stewart, 2012:1). The CAF process too is under review, with the introduction of a telephone based support service to replace the CAF panel meetings, by creating teams of professionals centrally based to actively manage pathways how people access services and how they are assessed. Part of the rationalisation behind this reform is not only to increase capacity to meet rising demand, but also to manage this support provision more efficiently in a period of budget cuts. With an increasing focus on academic outcomes, and the financial constraints facing schools and wider support services which help to meet the needs of young people and their families, those working in educational establishments are increasingly placed in difficult positions, as potentially the wider well-being issues surrounding children are becoming increasingly overlooked. Such a challenge is greater in circumstances where provision and resources are being taken away as opposed to not existing in the first place. Such an environment can create a sense of frustration amongst school staff, including learning mentors, where a need for a child has been recognised, but the services to meet such a requirement are no longer available, as evidenced in field notes (RM7). The same sense of frustration can be applied to situations where the school is working with more than one Local Authority, as with St Anthony's, where the access to support services is dependent on where the child and their family live.

There is an argument that ECM was ‘spreading schools’ resources too thin...taking responsibility for every aspect of children’s lives, much of which they have no direct control over’ (Stewart, 2012:1). However, the removal of provision to support children and young people may result in schools being put under more pressure to meet the wider needs of their pupils, creating a site of conflict and tension, especially for roles such as learning mentors who operate at the interface of academic and pastoral support.

7.6 Competitive Environment

Learning mentors are working in increasingly competitive environments, due not only to the publication of school performance tables, but extensions to parental choice for schooling (Telhaj *et al*, 2009). The emphasis on achievement and results, can create an atmosphere of tension as ‘teachers in less effective departments will continually face pressures to raise their own relative performance by...increasing their levels of effort and effectiveness (Telhaj *et al*, 2009:4). As a consequence this can impact on the workload of learning mentors, with some staff viewing the role as key in supporting the academic success of individual pupils; whilst others express concern that mentoring intervention impacts on their lessons and as such are reluctant to allow pupils to attend. The potential for conflict is most noticeable in St Anthony’s for those pupils in the final year of their GCSE studies, when the pressure to achieve academic success both from the perspective of the pupil as well as the teacher is at its zenith. Learning mentors as a result have to ‘find a way between institutional goals and the personal goals of the pupils with whom they work’ (Cruddas, 2005:127). The potential tension created in the working environment of learning mentors is reflected in the comments of a member of the Pupil Support team

I would say some really value, and really get the job, they really value the fact you are working as part of a team to meet the needs of a child, they’re focusing on what goes on in the classroom. We’re meeting at the interface between that to make sure and looking at why say their homework is not coming in, why they’re not coming into school, is there an issue going on in the classroom, so we work together. I don’t think that is the case for all staff, and I’m not just talking about new staff who maybe are unfamiliar with the role, and it might work differently in different schools. I would say there are some that see the role very much as mothering the children and I think it that’s probably one of the things that gripes the most. I just think that isn’t that type of role at all, we handle the pupils in a very, and I think professional way. And we will do it in a way that we get the best out of the

children. Now that may be a different way than the teacher might approach to them, and also we may have to play a different role with the pupil, we might be their advocate with the teacher. So we act as an interface; and I think sometimes that may cause confusion because we are having to play different roles at different times with people.

(Charlie, Pupil Support, St Anthony's)

The tension as expressed in the comments above, not only relates to the pressure of working in a competitive environment to produce acceptable levels of academic performance, but also the lack of professional identity perceived by learning mentors amongst some colleagues and the differences in the role learning mentors play in achieving organisational goals. Further, the impact of an increasingly competitive environment in schools extends beyond simply the drive towards academic success but also the establishment of a strong and positive reputation.

7.7 Reputation

Reputation is a perceptual measure of an organisation and is inherently subjective (Roberts, 2009:3), as it is based upon interpretations of past actions and future prospects. Reputation is important to schools as it can impact on future pupil intake, which in turn affects the funding and ultimately the long term sustainability and viability of the school. The building of a reputation is a cumulative process of how real-life situations are dealt with as opposed to simply the declaration of aspirations or intentions (Roberts, 2009). Reputation is based on actions, as well as the judgement or experience of third parties or stakeholders. It is these stakeholders that not only shape the reputation of an organisation but are also influenced by it (Roberts, 2009). Thus, according to Roberts (2009)

Reputation is the umbrella construct, referring to the cumulative impressions of internal and external stakeholders.

(Roberts, 2009:6)

Based on school documentation and online resources (RM2), the stakeholders impacting on the development and maintenance of reputation in St Anthony's are detailed in Table 7.2.

External Stakeholders:
Diocese, Partner Primary Schools, Local Authority, Department of Education, Partner Sixth Form college, Local Councillors, Parishes, Parents, Further Education providers Outside Agencies, Local Community, National Bodies, Ofsted, Digital Community
Internal Stakeholders:
Staff, Pupils

Table 7.2 The Internal and external stakeholders influencing reputation in St Anthony's

The extent to which learning mentors help to shape the reputation of the school depends on the nature of their interaction with internal and external stakeholders. With mentors adopting a typically solution focussed approach, the majority of interaction serves to enhance the school's reputation.

For schools, league table positions both locally and nationally create not only a 'constant backdrop to policy accounts' (Ball *et al*, 2012: 36) but also provide the cornerstone for the creation of a reputation. According to Ball *et al* (2012) both performance and reputation are created and maintained locally and form part of 'the network of policy enactment' (Ball *et al*, 2012: 36). However, reputation is not based solely on academic achievement, but is also behaviour and discipline in schools, which becomes a shared responsibility of the staff. As Ball *et al* (2012) explains

Amongst the key professionals 'doing' behaviour in schools – not just teachers and senior management, but also TAs and LSAs, learning mentors, behaviour attendance officers, etc. – power dynamics and hierarchies remain, but practice and pragmatics can sometimes blur some distinctions.
(Ball *et al*, 2012: 98)

Implementation of behaviour policy in schools however is subject to the vagaries of different patterns of enactment and is shaped by 'time, place and policy actors with different professional backgrounds, perspectives and practical tactics' (Ball *et al*, 2012:98). Indeed, differences in the interpretation and enactment of behaviour policies can create frustration as illustrated by the comments of a Pastoral Leader at St Anthony's who remarks

Having set guidelines for things ...um...because there are so many different factors that you could argue are a good thing to be taken into account with students depending on what the problem is. There's always a different solution, or a different punishment depending on the child. We don't have if this has been done or that, there's no set procedure, there's no boundaries. It's taking on everybody's different circumstances, which sometimes makes

the job harder...um...not necessarily saying that's a bad thing, it just makes the job harder.

(Pastoral Leader, St Anthony's)

According to Ball *et al* (2012) 'most schools are concerned with behaviour as it affects learning and outcomes' (Ball *et al*, 2012:101), however within St Anthony's, a broader perspective has been adopted to explore the underlying causes of behavioural issues and put in place a variety of intervention measures, as evidenced by the introduction of the Pupil Support Programme discussed earlier in this chapter. Aspects of the behavioural work of the learning mentors and Pupil Support Team can be described as preventative in nature, through specific targeted strategies to help particular individuals, which may include: placing them on 'report' to help monitor progress against pre-agreed targets; one to one support to help manage anger issues and reflect upon past behaviours, as well as considering strategies to avoid issues becoming sites of conflict. The catalyst for disagreements can appear relatively minor, however it is often addressing the apparently trivial issues that can avoid further behavioural problems, a point confirmed in the comments of one of the Pupil Support Team who remarked

If they forgot their PE kit and we can do something to help them, I think we should, because in the long run it might avoid further problems for that child such as the teacher having a go at them for forgetting their kit. But if they keep forgetting their kit or they keep wanting a timetable printed off, then the appropriate staff should deal with them accordingly.

(Charlie, Pupil Support Team, St Anthony's)

Learning mentors and those working as part of the Pupil Support team consider behavioural issues not simply in terms of disruptive or challenging behaviour, but also in terms of changes exhibited by individuals that may indicate other problems or difficulties (See Chapter 6, Section 6.3). Further concerns were expressed by members of the Pastoral team that the focus on behaviour tends to be concentrated in terms of problems and difficulties, rather than opportunities to praise, a point reinforced by one of the Pastoral Leaders who remarked

I don't get much opportunity to praise unless I make a point of finding out about something or meeting with the kids that have got good reviews or reports.

(Sam, Pastoral Leader, St Anthony's)

The lack of opportunity to praise individuals is associated with concerns that certain individuals take up a disproportionate amount of time and resources to deal with their disruptive behaviour and this in turn can cause frustration

...the amount of time you spend looking after that one child you could be looking after the 299 other pupils in your house. And you are spending 90% your time meeting or waiting for them to turn up for you in the morning or dealing with what's gone on with them. Wouldn't it be nice to just walk into a tutor group and say how well you've done but, sorry I haven't got time because I'm still dealing with someone whose on a PSP [Pupil Support Plan – a mechanism within St Anthony's to clearly set out a behavioural support plan of action to assist pupils and ensure consistency of amongst staff].

(Sam, Pastoral Leader, St Anthony's)

The construction, development and management of behaviour policy is not confined to the boundaries of the school, but operates inside and outside of local policy networks (Ball *et al*, 2012). Figure 7.2 identifies the range of positions within St Anthony's with responsibility for the implementation of behaviour policies (shown in the centre of the diagram) and the range of agencies impacting on this particular agenda. In St Anthony's, learning mentors play a key role in liaising with outside organisations concerning behaviour and this is reflected in the case file review. The pupils with the most complex needs and thus requiring significant levels of intervention, as is evident from the case file review (RM3), necessitates learning mentors with other staff to liaise with a network of agencies to support the needs of the young person concerned.



Figure 7.2 Local behaviour policy network for St Anthony's

7.8 Conclusion

Although learning mentors were introduced as part of a single policy initiative, their work as evidenced in St Anthony's is not only influenced by policy itself but also contributes to policy enactments both within the school and beyond its boundaries. The role of learning mentors within St Anthony's has not only contributed to the academic success of the pupils which impacts on the performance and audit mechanisms by which schools are judged but the building of and maintenance of a positive reputation. Further, learning mentors within St Anthony's have become embedded in the practices which support child protection and wider issues of welfare identified through the Every Child Matters agenda and Common Assessment Framework processes. Learning mentors have become established as part of the caring ethos within St Anthony's, supporting colleagues as well as the young people with whom they work. However, learning mentors are faced with the 'challenges of opaque and sometimes contradictory policy demands' (Ball *et al*, 2012:142).

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

In this final chapter I present and discuss the conclusions of the research by highlighting what has been shown and reflecting on the work as a whole. This study was developed to consider learning mentoring in relation to how the practice has evolved; the formulation of the professional identity of those undertaking this role and the continuing impact of policy in shaping such provision. This chapter begins by considering the originality of the study in terms of the overall theme and research methods used. The key findings of the study are then reviewed in relation to the original research questions. As with any piece of research limitations exist in terms of how the study was constructed and carried out. These issues are explored, with particular reference to the difficulties associated with practitioner research. I conclude the chapter with recommendations for further research in this field.

8.2 Originality of the Study

Whilst there is extensive literature relating to mentoring in general, comparatively little has been written about learning mentoring in schools (Wood, 2005), especially in the period following the cessation of the Excellence in Cities initiative and the end of central government funding for such posts in 2006. However, learning mentors have continued to work in schools although little is known about how this role has subsequently developed. I believe this is an original piece of research that adds to present knowledge regarding how the role of learning mentors has evolved using evidence obtained from the case study school as an example of practice.

The originality of this research can also be considered not only in relation to the subject of the study, but also through my choice of research methods and procedures. The decision to adopt a case study approach contributes to the originality of the research by creating a structure that facilitates the exploration and understanding of complex issues in a particular context (Soy, 2006). By drawing upon multiple sources of information and techniques as part of the data gathering process for the case study, it creates a unique combination of

resources to draw upon and the opportunity to triangulate the evidence. Further, the uniqueness of the study is enhanced through the adoption of an inductive approach with general inferences induced from particular instances. Specific research methods were also developed as part of this study, in particular the photographic exercise (RM5) and the case file review (RM3) contributed to the uniqueness of approach to the research.

The originality of the study can also be explored in the nature of the findings generated by the research activity that has taken place. To consider these findings in more detail the research questions identified earlier are revisited in the following section.

8.3 Key findings

How has the role of learning mentors developed in practice within the case study school?

In attempting to understand how learning mentor practice has developed in the case study school a number of key themes and sub themes were identified and explored. Indeed, a thematic approach was used to present and discuss the findings of the research in an attempt to pull together the underlying story generated from the different data sources and collection methods used.

The practice of learning mentors within the case study school is shaped by their position within the organisational structure of the school. Learning mentors operate in a 'third space environment' (Whitchurch, 2008 and Gordon and Whitchurch, 2010), neither fully part of the academic or pastoral structures, but acting as a conduit between the two areas. The emergence of a structure at the interface between pastoral and academic functions can involve the redrawing of partnerships within the organisation, although these are predominantly temporary in nature, shaped by the demands of the individual cases involving the learning mentors. The nature of such partnerships can also extend beyond the boundaries of the school involving liaison with a variety of external agencies and organisations.

Much of the learning mentor activity in the school was generated through informal communication, with no structured referral process in place to alert learning mentors of the needs of particular pupils. Whilst this generated the potential for the needs of some pupils to go unmet, more typically it involved the overlapping of input, especially concerning the pastoral leaders within the school. For learning mentoring to be both effective and integrated into all aspects of school practice, 'the role needs to be recognised and understood by the whole school and wider community' (Learning Trust, 2009:12) and thus the boundaries of the work need to be clear, whilst retaining elements of flexibility and creativity to meet the needs of young people.

Although no formal referral process was in evidence in St Anthony's, learning mentors received information regarding concerns for pupils in a variety of different ways, including feedback from members of staff, pupil data, outside agencies and peer concerns. The nature of these sources also indicated that learning mentors may also work with pupils in ways they perceive as 'non-mentoring' activities, for example through the organisation of work experience or the administration of tests which are universal activities for particular year groups, rather than targeted personalised intervention.

Further, due to the lack of formal criteria upon which referrals are considered, learning mentors within the school feel that they cannot turn a case down, consequently diminishing any sense of power associated with the role. The notion of power is also identified as important in shaping the nature of the interaction that takes place between the mentor and the mentee, as it involves a process of bargaining and negotiation (Rothman 1979). Such a process can in itself create tensions as the needs of the mentor, mentee and the school may not always be compatible.

The role of learning mentors within the case study school has also been shaped by the types of need presented by pupils. By exploring the contents of the learning mentor case files it was possible to identify 34 different categories of problems and issues experienced by young people within the school. It was also evident that the frequency and severity of issues experienced by young people varied, this being assessed using a scoring process. Over half the cases dealt with by learning mentors related to single issues, however, it was also evident that some pupils experience an extensive range of problems that required substantial mentoring input.

The mentoring activities taking place within St Anthony's can be predominantly categorised into two main groups - academic and pastoral interventions. The clear distinction between academic and pastoral support found in St Anthony's upholds the findings of Bishop (2011) who argues 'learning mentors define and organise their role around two different types of intervention' (2011:33). However, the role of the learning mentor that emerges differs depending on the context in which it operates, thus mentoring can be considered not as one single role, but made up of a multitude of separate components supporting academic and pastoral issues alike, in other words a 'situational competence' (Clutterbuck and Lane, 2004).

What factors have shaped the professional identities of those working as learning mentors?

In exploring the professional identity of learning mentors within the case study school, the boundaries of work were considered, with a particular focus on the demarcation between teaching and other roles within the school. Similarities emerged in the role definitions put forward by learning mentors and pastoral leaders, however, a greater emphasis was placed by pastoral leaders on the broader needs of young people in their care and the development of a 'bigger picture' of academic and pastoral issues.

The importance of knowing the pupils was highlighted by all the pastoral leaders through the interview research process however, it was recognised that they rely on the observations and feedback of staff including learning mentors regarding the needs of pupils. Following the photo identification exercise (RM5), a significant difference in the identification and naming of pupils was recorded by members of teaching staff. Whilst differences in the recognition rate in itself may not be a problem, however if only a relatively few members of staff know an individual, that relationship becomes increasingly important in identifying potential issues and problems facing a young person, especially in circumstances where there has been a high turnover of staff who work with that particular pupil. In such circumstances the knowledge of the young people gained by learning mentors can prove increasingly important.

Evidence taken from the interviews (RM1) indicated the sharing of particular functions not only created the potential for duplication and a lack of clarity between roles, but also added capacity of pastoral leaders, as they could refer cases and issues to learning mentors. Importantly, such referrals were considered as sideways moves, suggesting an element of parity between pastoral leaders and learning mentors within the case study school.

The number of pupils who engage with learning mentors increases as they progress through the school. This increase can be attributed to a number of reasons, including; pupil awareness of the role of learning mentors, the nature of the problems and difficulties encountered by pupils, and the phasing out of the transition activities that takes place when pupils first join the school.

Within the case study school a number of different types of mentoring activity take place. However, learning mentors are in a unique position, being the only 'professional' mentors within the school whose primary responsibility is mentoring. This role can itself create tension, particularly in environments that are target and performance driven, as learning mentors not only have a responsibility towards the children and families with whom they work, but also towards their employers, a point reinforced by Cruddas (2005).

Not all of the activities undertaken by learning mentors can be described as specialised, but are concerned with helping pupils to function generally, for example, with assistance in organisational skills. Much of this support is based on the development of tacit knowledge associated with supporting young people. However, the development of tacit knowledge is of particular significance in the identification of what I have termed invisible issues which are problems that are difficult to detect amongst young people, for example cases of hidden harm and young people acting as carers.

Ethical issues were raised by learning mentors concerning the nature of the intervention taking place, questioning if all forms of support are really helpful and if they are becoming instrumental in developing a culture of dependency rather than help.

The professional identity of learning mentors in the case study school at times is becoming one of a specialist consulting role by providing advice and guidance to others in the pastoral team. This has been facilitated by the availability of learning mentors to attend

specialist training courses and the length of service of the mentoring team within St Anthony's. Further, evidence from the case files suggests learning mentors play a significant role in liaising with outside agencies in a variety of different ways including, specialist support for individual pupils and child protection related issues.

It is argued that one of the strengths of learning mentors is the fact that they come from a variety of backgrounds and as a consequence bring a wealth of experience to the position (Roberts and Constable, 2003; Wood, 2005; Ofsted, 2003a). However, such diversity, can be also be interpreted as learning mentors being less skilled than other educational professionals, as there are no specific requirements for mentors to possess in the form of academic qualifications and training before commencement of their position. Due to the diversity of backgrounds, learning mentors cannot be described as a homogenous group, but instead they possess multiple social identities which impact upon how they and others perceive the role.

Training not only provided learning mentors with the opportunity to increase their skills, but also to participate in a community of practice, which was especially important in the early days of the learning mentor programme. Although formal qualifications exist to evidence competence and underlying knowledge of learning mentors, they are not a prerequisite to commence a learning mentor position or form part of a formalised career structure. The lack of a formalised career structure for learning mentors within St Anthony's is not surprising, due to the fledgling nature of the occupation, and the fluid and flexible nature of the role (Gardiner, 2008). Evidence from the document mapping exercise (RM2) and field notes (RM7) indicates, within St Anthony's the career structure of learning mentors has been developed through the addition of extra responsibilities including, areas such as education welfare activities, thus creating a more holistic approach towards meeting the needs of individual pupils. This holistic approach concurs with the idea of social pedagogy concerned with the promotion of the well-being of the whole person (Cannan *et al* 1992; Lorenz 1994, Smith, 1999; Cruddas, 2005).

The professional identity of learning mentors is also shaped by the nature of the relationships that have developed. These are often subtly different from other significant adults in the lives of young people, reflecting the unique position that learning mentors occupy in the case study school.

How have the developments in policy and practice influenced the role of learning mentors within the case study school?

In answering this research question a focus was placed on how policy was enacted, rather than simply considering how it has been implemented. The policy context for this study has been extremely important, not only because learning mentors were brought into schools through a policy initiative, but also they represent an example of wider reforms brought in by New Labour relating to welfare, equality, and inclusion.

By studying the situated, professional and material contexts of the case study school, it is possible to build up a picture of policy enactment that has impacted on the work of learning mentors. Emphasis is placed by the school on academic achievement, accompanied by support provision for pupils through pastoral care and learning mentors. However, whilst the academic profile of the school is high, the presence of learning mentor provision is less obvious, attributed to issues involving pupil confidentiality and the nature of the intervention taking place.

There are a number of legislative requirements that underpin the work of learning mentors. One of the most significant areas relates to the role of learning mentors in relation to inclusion and support of children with special educational needs. In situations where children with special educational needs are identified as requiring additional support outside the classroom, learning mentors are increasingly used to link academic, pastoral and inclusion areas together.

Other areas of policy influencing the work of learning mentors have been those associated with child protection, Every Child Matters and the Common Assessment Frameworks which provide structures to support the wider needs of children and their families.

Due to the competitive environment that exists in many schools, including St Anthony's, in relation to performance tables, maintaining pupil numbers and the promotion of a positive reputation, learning mentors often have to balance institutional and mentee requirements, which can create potential conflict, exacerbated in situations where the mentor's professional identity is not acknowledged.

8.4 Limitations of this Research

8.4.1 Researching within my own professional environment

In choosing the location of this research to be within my own place of work, I was aware from the outset that this may produce an array of issues that needed to be addressed and considered. Due to my own direct involvement and connection with the research setting, this raises a number of concerns regarding the concept of validity associated with this study.

8.4.2 Colleague involvement with the research

There is potential, especially with practitioner research, that the researcher's relationship with the subjects can have an impact both positive and negative. I was aware of the general willingness of participants to help with the research process, for example through the completion of questionnaires and taking part in interviews. I did not want to feel I had exploited my colleagues in any way in terms of their time, feeling obligated to take part in the study and the subsequent processing of the data gathered. I did stress before any activities that involved participation from colleagues that process was entirely voluntary, indeed, I feel I emphasised this aspect potentially more than I would have if I had conducted research with participants external to my own practice. The majority of the data collection activities were conducted at the convenience of participants. In other situations where data were collected from a group of colleagues, for example, during staff meetings, activities were designed to be quick to administer, explain and conduct without compromising the integrity of the process involved.

Further, I became aware of a sense of trust colleagues had placed in me in terms of the information they had shared as part of the research process. Consequently I felt that I had a moral as well as an ethical responsibility to ensure due care was taken in relation to the processing of findings, without compromising the integrity of the results. Thus interview participants were given the opportunity to view the transcripts produced from the audio recordings made during interviews, to check for accuracy and indicate any alterations or extractions required to avoid the possibility of misrepresentation.

8.4.3 Tacit knowledge of the researcher

Whilst practitioner researchers may have the advantage of extensive knowledge to draw upon that an outsider is not privy to (Tedlock, 2000), a major concern with insider research relates to the use of tacit knowledge which may potentially lead to the misinterpretation of data, the development of false assumptions, as well as overlooking important information, all of which may impact on claims of validity associated with the research. I needed to become disciplined in repeatedly checking that I explored what the data were indicating, rather than using the data to fit assumptions I had made. Evidence of this process is demonstrated through finding the unexpected, for example, the recognition by pastoral leaders of the more specialist and skilled role performed by learning mentors. Further, the use of multiple data sources and collection methods was also used to increase the credibility of any findings produced, by facilitating the triangulation of data. Continuing with the example of the specialist role of learning mentors highlighted from this research, evidence to support this finding was also found within the case file review.

8.4.4 Researcher loyalties and politics

Throughout this study I have tried to be explicit about the values that I have brought to the research process. Indeed the very activity of conducting this research has resulted in me considering how my own values have been shaped and influenced over time and how they have impacted on my work as a practitioner and more laterally my role as a researcher. One of the greatest challenges of the research process has been to step back and reflect on issues from different perspective and to question previously taken for granted assumptions. By researching in my own environment I have maintained a sense of loyalty to my colleagues in terms of trying to fairly and accurately represent their contributions and opinions.

8.4.5 Lack of rigour

A criticism often cited in relation to case study research concerns the degree of rigour associated with the process (Yin, 1984). Therefore an important feature of this research has been to ensure that data collection activities and the subsequent analysis and evaluations of

findings have taken this factor into account. The use of a thematic approach was decided early in the design of this study, and as a consequence this has facilitated the triangulation of data through the comparison of multiple sources and the establishment of a ‘chain of evidence that links parts together’ Burns (2000:476).

8.4.6 Pupil involvement in the research process

The limitations of this study have also been shaped by ethical considerations and concerns regarding a potential conflict of interest. I decided that due to my professional duty of care covering pupils both past and present, I did not want to involve them directly with the research process, as this may have blurred the boundaries between my role as a researcher and that of a practitioner. Further, due to the nature of the work involved in mentoring and the potential vulnerability of those being mentored, I wanted to ensure there was no pressure or sense of obligation placed on current or former pupils to participate. Consequently, the understanding of the role of learning mentors developed through this research process has been considered through a particular ‘lens’, namely the viewpoint of the professionals, who work either in the role itself or alongside learning mentors in other pastoral and academic functions.

8.4.7 Issues of generalisation

The issue of generalisation can prove problematic to educational researchers, regardless of the scale of the study involved. Mejía (2013) argues ‘generalisations are produced in all sorts of research, including accounts of single cases’ (2013:1). Generalisations can be considered in terms of what can be learnt from a study that can be applied in other settings (Loftland and Loftland, 1995). Indeed even a single case can ‘help other practitioners see their own cases reflected and judge for themselves what is applicable in their own practice’ Mejía (2013:1). Since this research is carried in one location, it can be described as ‘institution-specific’ (Farmery, 2008) and open to the criticisms of being isolated and subjective (Black, 2002) in terms of being able to produce generalisations. However, the use of case study research arguably creates a paradox when considering the notion of generalisations due to its singularity, a point argued by Simons (1996) when commenting

One of the advantages cited for case study research is its uniqueness, its capacity for understanding complexity in particular contexts. A

corresponding disadvantage often cited is **the difficulty of generalising from a single case**. Such an observation assumes a polarity and stems from a particular view of research. Looked at differently, from within a holistic perspective and direct perception, there is no disjunction. What we have is a paradox, which if acknowledged and explored in depth, yields both unique and universal understanding.

(Simons, 1996: 225)

However, similarly to Farmery (2008) I would argue that the findings of this study are ‘transferable to other schools’ (Farmery, 2008:283) as the key themes of identity, policy and practice can be adapted and considered for other settings.

8.5 Further Research

I believe that interest in the role of learning mentors will continue, due to the rationale underpinning this research which calls for ‘those working in schools to take a much broader view of the needs of young people’ (Ritchie and Deakin Crick, 2007:11) and the long term ‘plateauing’ of educational outcomes described by Otero and West-Burnham (2007). As a consequence further research into mentoring practices in other institutions including primary schools to add to the body of knowledge concerning the role of learning mentors would be welcomed to allow for comparison of the findings for this and other future studies to be made.

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APPENDIX

1

Organisational

Staff Lists
School Calendar
Exam Regulation Booklet
Staff Handbook
Admissions Policy
Letters to/from Parents
Behaviour Policy
Attendance printout
Reports
Referrals
Round Robins
Registers:
Class
Tutor
G&T Register
Child Protection
Documentation
Free School meals/Pupil
Premium List
Accident Book
Medical Records
Merits
Reviews
Consent Forms
Pupil Support Plan
Personal Accounts
Contact Details
Employment Permits
Diary
File notes
Mock interview feedback
Survey results

Meetings

Relating to staff,
departmental,
academic and pastoral
meetings:
Agendas
Minutes
Hand-outs

External

Prospectus
Newsletter
Webpages
Principal's Welcome Letter
Inspection reports (Ofsted and
Diocese)
Photo Galleries
House Pages

Outside Agency Information

Reports from:
Police
Educational Psychologists
Health Visitors
GPs
Social Services
CAMHS
Specialist Services, e.g. sensory
impaired, looked after children
services
School Nurse
Drugs Counsellor

Documentation Sources in St Anthony's

Electronic

Emails
Texts

Transfer Information

Application Forms
Primary School Visits
Key Stage 2 Information
Statementing Information
Previous Schools (both primary
and secondary)
Previous Attendance Data

Pupil Data

Attendance Data
Examination
Results
Assessment Data
SIMS
SATs levels
CATS/NFER
FFT predictions
SISRA predictions

Academic Feedback

Homework
Levelled Assessments
Exam results inc. GCSEs
Classwork
Homework
Homework Diary
Exam Scripts
Cause for Concern Reviews

APPENDIX 2

Transcription of Interview with Pastoral Leader 19/07/2012

Transcript	Code	Notes
<p>Lesley:</p> <p>George, thank you very much for agreeing to be interviewed and I appreciate this, because this is your last day at St Anthony's. The area I would really like to explore with you is the role of the head of house, because it is one of the key roles in the school, where the purpose is to look after the welfare and pastoral needs of young people.</p> <p>First of all, can you describe how long you have been in the role and what you feel the role involves?</p>		<p>Introductory question and scene setting.</p>
<p>George:</p> <p>This is my first year as head of house. I took over at the very end of the summer term last year and the role involves all sorts of different things: there's the monitoring of pupil progress in terms of the levels they're making in KS3; the grades they are getting at GCSE; and making sure you're inputting extra support or putting in extra encouragement in whatever terms that needs to be for those people. So there is an educational attainment side to it. But I've found this year, what I've really enjoyed, what I've got most out of is working with pupils regarding their emotional and social needs: supporting those who come to you with difficulties; trying to identify potential problems; putting strategies in place to help them;</p>	<p>A MI BM PN</p>	<p>List of key activities given with a focus on academic input and other supportive activity.</p> <p>Difference identified between academic input and the social and emotional</p>

<p>getting to know the whole child is what I've really enjoyed, working with pupils in that respect. There are wider responsibilities. I've been responsible for Year 8, for things like: fire drills; the Year 8 options process; working with the GCSE group in particular – this is because it was my first year – I really wanted to focus in on those in Year 11 and make sure I got those spot on because I knew the other groups much more.</p>	<p>A I A MRP CE</p>	<p>needs of pupils. Own background/ area of interest may shape nature of input to support individual pupils.</p> <p>Other general activities identified as part of the head of house role.</p> <p>Identification of the potential increased needs of Year 11 pupils, possibly a reflection of the pressure for this group to achieve academic success.</p> <p>Relationship with some pupils stronger than others.</p>
<p>Lesley: Right...OK...What about the behaviour element as well?</p>		<p>Clarification of key areas</p>
<p>George: That does come in. I've been very lucky in that I've had very few serious behaviour incidents. In fact a couple of months ago someone asked "what happens next?" and I said "I don't know. I've never had this level of behaviour to deal with beforehand." There's a big role in that, but I think it is also about the expectations you make of the pupils. I didn't want to just spend the year fire-</p>	<p>A T MRP</p>	<p>Confirmation that behaviour management part of head of house role.</p> <p>Potential lack of training/ experience of a particular issue.</p> <p>Although not a mentoring relationship, the issue of</p>

<p>fighting, so you deal with that and because I follow through on things, that has helped with the pupils. So they know if they do that, there will be a detention, they will get a detention. I don't mind giving my time up for that. I was doing a detention yesterday on the second from last day of term for something that happened two weeks beforehand and it needed to be followed up before the end of the year. So that comes into it, but I really have tried to make sure I am preventing behaviour issues where possible, rather than waiting for things to explode...if that makes sense?</p>	<p>I A PN I</p>	<p>expectations key in supporting pupils. Nature of intervention work and the importance of consistency. Comment indicates activity carried out by head of house. Identification of pupil need important in putting in intervention measures.</p>
<p>Lesley: Yeah...How do you know what to do a head of house?</p>		<p>Question to help identify how the boundaries of the work of the head of house are established. How heads of house are informed of what they should do.</p>
<p>George: A lot of this has come through the advice of others - the other heads of house have been great at working with me. I've sought advice from those who held the post in the past and also from SLT [Senior Leadership Team]. Some of it has just been by feel - you have to make that judgement. Is it something I should deal with? Is it something I should kick back to the tutors? And I think just by doing it on a day to day basis, I've got better at that. In the same way that when I started teaching,</p>	<p>C OS T</p>	<p>Development of communities of practice. Development of tacit knowledge rather than specific training. Possible lack of clarity regarding pastoral care structure. Development of experience key to the role of head of house.</p>

<p>I found the first time I had to deal with an incident there was uncertainty – how do I deal with this?</p> <p>And by the time this is third or fourth time you’ve dealt with it you know what to do, you know the responses and that’s what I’ve done this year.</p> <p>Where I’ve been uncertain I’ve sought help, in the first term in particular I’ve checked the decisions I’ve made with others really until I felt I got that confidence and I got the judgement correct.</p>	<p>C</p>	<p>Support of a community of practice, although informal in nature</p>
<p>Lesley:</p> <p>Do you see you see yourself as primarily a teacher, or primarily as a head of house or do you feel it is an equal role – how do you view yourself?</p>		<p>Question asked to help understand the priority given to pastoral and academic roles.</p>
<p>George:</p> <p>I wear different hats for different times of the day. I think I view myself as head of house more but that might also be because it is my first year in the job, so it’s something I am very conscious of that I’ve got to try and do these certain things. Once you’ve been doing it for a few more years, perhaps it’s automatic more. Um...I was quite worried about my teaching suffering. A few people had told me in the past, once you take on these extra responsibilities you’ll find your teaching suffers. I don’t feel that it has, I think I perform as well in the classroom, at least I hope I have. There have been additional demands on my time and I’ve found that really difficult to cope with. I’ve tried really hard not to let the head of house to get in the way of my teaching. But anytime I’m not in</p>	<p>A OS</p>	<p>Identification of different aspects of the role and professional identity of head of house</p> <p>Tension created to balance pastoral and academic responsibilities. Greater focused placed on pastoral role, however this may be the result of this being a new appointment.</p>

<p>lessons, then I'm head of house, if that makes sense? My free hours are not used for subject work; it has always been used for head of house work.</p>		
<p>Lesley: In terms of how the role develops, there are members of staff in the school, you have pupil support teachers, learning mentors, you have outside agencies that come in and you have tutors themselves, how do you feel the workload is divided between them?</p>		<p>Question asked to help identify how the pastoral workload is divided amongst the different</p>
<p>George: I would say it is not clear how the work load is divided between these groups. Sometimes you happen to be the person that was there when something happens, then you deal with it. I know I've passed an awful lot your way [Pupil Support Team] this year because there are things you guys are much better at than I am, and occasionally for instance there were a group of girls that had fallen out, and I knew I was busy every morning and every lunchtime that week, so I didn't have time to deal with it so I asked you guys to deal with it, go through that. I don't think the lines are particularly clear about who deals exactly with what, but I know that everyone I have spoken to and asked for advice has been very helpful and I wouldn't be afraid of going to see you or going to someone else and saying "Who do I see? What happens next?"</p>	<p>OS BNW A S C</p>	<p>Lack of clarity in boundaries between different aspects of pastoral provision and lack of a formal structure. Responses to the needs of individual pupils may evolve</p> <p>Comments indicate more of a specialist role for learning mentors and added capacity to head of house provision. Comments also suggest a spirit of co-operation and the development of a community of practice.</p>

<p>Lesley:</p> <p>Do you think it works?</p>		<p>Question asked to investigate if the flexibility in responding to pupil needs can cause problems.</p>
<p>George:</p> <p>I think it works in the majority of cases because we do have that communication, but I do think it's an informal route of communication.</p>	<p>OS BMW</p>	<p>Confirmation of a lack of formal structure to communication.</p>
<p>Lesley:</p> <p>Do you have any fear that some children may be missed?</p>		<p>Question asked to enquire if the needs of all pupils are met and if there are likely to be gaps.</p>
<p>George:</p> <p>No. I think what we tend to do is overlap. So I might see a pupil and wish to have something put in place for them, and then I go to talk to someone about it, perhaps you have already gone to talk to them about it, or somebody else, so I think we do overlap and that can cause more work for ourselves sometimes. But because they have so many different options for somebody to go to for support, they know they've got Pupil Support, they got Mrs M , they know they've got the heads of house, they've got their tutors, I know some even go up to see Mrs E and Mr P and things like that. I think we are pretty good at covering those gaps – I mean someone could fall through, someone could not feel confident enough to see any of those, we got bully mentors as well within the pupils, so I would hope very much we are covered, but I do</p>	<p>OS PN I BMW</p>	<p>Confirmation of the overlap of input, with no set structure as to who carries out particular pastoral activities.</p> <p>Some intervention based on the actions of the pupils in terms of who they approach or contact.</p> <p>A variety of different options relating to are available to pupils, including peer support.</p> <p>Comments suggest a systematic approach has not been adopted in the identification and support of</p>

think we overlap a lot.		pupil needs.
<p>Lesley:</p> <p>How would you say the roles of pupil support differ from heads of house roles?</p>		<p>Further clarification required to identify the differences in the roles of those in pupil support including learning mentors and heads of house.</p>
<p>George:</p> <p>The responsibility for behaviour and progress and attainment I think is more for the head of house, and certainly we get pushed more in that direction. And there is the team management side with the head of house, running the group of tutors, making sure the tutors are following the school policy - those kind of things fall under the head of house. I know a lot of what I've done this year has been about referring pupils on to a place where they are getting the right support and ask for something to be put in place. I know I've seen you guys a lot [Pupil Support], especially in the beginning to see what we can do for this person – that was invaluable.</p>	<p>A OS</p> <p>PN IOA I</p>	<p>Identification of additional aspects of the head of house role that can be considered to distinguish it in comparison with other pupil support and mentoring provision.</p> <p>Following the identification of need by heads of house referrals to other support may be made.</p>
<p>Lesley:</p> <p>What about the information sharing? When there is sensitivity relating to particular issues to a child and their family, do you feel the balance is right in sharing that information or do you feel there is something that can be improved there?</p>		<p>Question asked to investigate information sharing amongst the pastoral team.</p>
<p>George:</p> <p>I think it is an area we can improve. I think that we</p>	OS	Although some information

<p>do well in some cases and I understand the sensitivity of the information around children, what some children are going through, is something that does need to be kept fairly private, but I also think teachers need to be aware where there may be issues ...um...and that's class teachers as well as heads of house, pupil support, anyone else involved in the school, they don't need to know the details, but they may not need to know the details, but they may need to know this person is going through a tough time at the moment, they may for example find it difficult to complete their home learning because of things happening at home, and I think this kind of information can be shared more.</p>	<p>I PN</p>	<p>about pupil need and the circumstances appears to be shared, some improvement is called for. There is recognition that the sharing of such information may be difficult and the extent to which it is conveyed will vary.</p>
<p>Lesley: Right...in your team meetings do you have discussions in terms of particular children or scenarios?</p>		<p>Question asked to investigate information sharing procedures and the identification of pupil need.</p>
<p>George: At the end of every meeting, in the second part of the agenda, there's an item about pupil concerns. I ask each tutor, we go around in turn and we talk about any pupils we are concerned about: it could be that they've started to collect referrals or the number of referrals has grown; it could be comments passed on to them from other teachers; it could be friendship issues that they've noticed; it could be concerns about eating and weight and also for the positives. Which ones are doing really well, which ones have turned around so each tutor</p>	<p>OS PN MI</p>	<p>Meetings with head of house and tutors used to facilitate information sharing and identification of pupil need. Creation of communities of practice.</p>

<p>shares that within the team – and this has been quite useful. For example, there’s a boy in one of my year 8 tutor groups, that I’ve never taught ...um...but it came out in one of our tutor meetings that a lot of the teachers there found his behaviour quite difficult and quite challenging within that class, as a result of that, as a team we came up with some targets for him, he then went on report with the targets the team had come up with and performed really well and managed to get some really positive feedback which helped turn him around a little bit. And that is something I would not have been aware of because I did not teach him, if we hadn’t have done that sharing of information in the meeting.</p>	<p>A C</p>	<p>Needs of pupils discussed and sharing of approaches to help meet the needs of the pupils concerned. Importance of feedback highlighted.</p>
<p>Lesley: That structure you’ve got there with your team, do you know if that is replicated by the other heads of house?</p>		<p>Question asked to check for consistency of approach in other houses.</p>
<p>George: I would imagine it is certainly something that has always happened in all the house meetings I’ve been to before when I was a tutor ,which is why I always kept it on my agenda but I would imagine so, but I’m not sure I haven’t seen their agendas.</p>	<p>OS</p>	<p>Uncertainty about consistency of approach and the sharing of information.</p>
<p>Lesley: Do you feel the level of communication about pupil needs is adequate beyond the meetings you have with you tutors?</p>		<p>Question to investigate information sharing at different levels within the organisation.</p>

<p>George:</p> <p>Possibly, I mean if something comes out of the house meeting about the people that I believe other staff need to be aware of, then I will email out. So often that has been one of the actions that has come out of the meetings. I will email out to make staff aware of concerns about a particular pupil, perhaps you need to keep an eye on this boy for a fortnight, any concerns report back to me. So in that sense it does go from the house meeting to the wider school community. In terms of sharing information across the houses I think that's what the other heads of house do as well. I've certainly had contact with the others where there's been a case where we need to share that.</p>	<p>OS A PN</p>	<p>Recognition that the act of information sharing can in itself constitute support. Comments demonstrate the two way process of information sharing. Creation of communities of practice not only within the house system but beyond to the wider school community.</p>
<p>Lesley:</p> <p>If you start to deal with a pupil who is experiencing difficulties that you have not dealt with before, is there a mechanism where the heads of house discuss approaches jointly?</p>		<p>Question asked to explore the consistency of approach to meet pupil needs and the formalisation of approaches.</p>
<p>George:</p> <p>Certainly but they would be informal...um...we make ourselves available to each other whenever we need to be. I wouldn't imagine that taking place at head of house meetings for example, I think that's used for different things. But we see each other a lot, we are in communication a lot, so if we ever did, there have been points spoken to the other heads of house and said "This is something I've got... how would you have dealt with this in the past?" and they've shared that</p>	<p>OS C</p>	<p>Comments indicate an informal approach through contact with other heads of house as required. Formal meetings such as the heads of house meeting not perceived to be the correct forum to discuss pupil need and support.</p>

information there.		
<p>Lesley:</p> <p>What about the challenges and problems of our mixed house system? [Years 8-11]</p>		<p>Question asked to investigate how issues are addressed that involves pupils from more than one house.</p>
<p>George:</p> <p>That can be frustrating, particularly when it's something within a year group, that tends to crop up, most of it's a group of children within a year, that happens more...um...we...sometimes it's whoever's there deals with it, normally it's whoever is the perpetrator, if that makes sense, whoever's house has the perpetrator tend to do most of the investigation, it can be the victim as well, so whoever tends to find out about it, will then find out the information and communicate that with the others; and we tend to be involved in the discipline of the children within our house, rather than the ones beyond. But I have had meetings with pupils and the other heads of house, we have got them altogether as a group instead of separate houses.</p>	<p>OS C</p>	<p>No formalised system set up to deal with issues that cut across the different houses. Actions prioritised depending on the nature of the incident.</p> <p>Comments also indicate a joint approach when required and appropriate.</p>
<p>Lesley:</p> <p>Do you think it's clear to the staff where each role starts and finishes, the role of tutor for example or pupil support, and would the differences be assisted through more support and training input?</p>		<p>Question asked to explore the boundaries of different pastoral roles within the school.</p>
<p>George:</p> <p>But they do get it, but it is definitely something we</p>	<p>T</p>	<p>Confirmation some training</p>

<p>need to talk about the importance of the role of the tutor, because, that has changed a lot. Um...I think that while I've been here, I remember when I first had a tutor group, M's group were leaving and she came to watch me with mine, because she wanted to know more about what Vision Works [tutor programme] was and what kind of things we did. She came out and said it was like planning a lesson, now planning tutor time it takes that much. You've got to have activities, you've got to have this and this and this, and so she was quite surprised at how much we were doing in tutor. Whereas for me, that was normal, that's what I had been taught to do and I'm not sure if that change, those expectations had filtered across to everyone yet. I think the head of Year 7 has had a really important role doing that with the Year 7 tutors and the work they do.</p>	A	<p>received.</p> <p>Nature of the role of the tutor has changed over time. Possibly all staff not aware of changes and this may lead to inconsistencies.</p> <p>Possible conflict of time, with tutors having to plan more of their tutor time, this possibly may be at the expense of other intervention work.</p> <p>Needs of specific groups of pastoral workers may vary due to the specific group they work with and this may impact on training requirements.</p>
<p>Lesley:</p> <p>I am interested that you mentioned we have overlaps ...um...some of the mechanisms are quite informal and they developed over time. I was just interested if someone was to parachute in from the outside, who does what, the structure and the overlap does not make it very clear. I just wonder whether you agree with that or not?</p>		<p>Question asked to help clarify the structure of the pastoral care system, if there is any overlap between functions that in turn create problems.</p>
<p>George:</p> <p>I would agree that it is something that I found</p>	OS	<p>Confirmation of a lack of</p>

<p>confusing at the very beginning ...um... of doing this job. I definitely found there were times when I didn't know who I should see about what particular thing and I got round that just by asking, not being afraid to go "I don't know this, can someone tell me what to do in this particular situation". But I do agree there is a lot of overlap, I would say the tutors should know their tutees, that's the biggest part of that relationship, if they understand their tutees and they know what's going on with them and they have that really close relationship and I would say from the head of house point of view the big picture is the overview of those. You might not know those children as well, but you will know some of the particularly well and you will be able to pick up any that need to go above the tutor. But a lot of what I do is making sure, where I can getting the right support in place for pupils and that often means referring them on to pupil support [learning mentors]...which I've done an awful lot this year. So sometimes the tutors pass things to me, sometimes things come directly to me and a lot of what comes up to me ends up sending on to get support.</p>	<p>T OS PN OS PN BMW</p>	<p>clarity and formal organisational structure. Informal support, consultation with other professionals to seek answers to pastoral problems.</p> <p>Confirmation of overlap between roles.</p> <p>Tutor knowing their pupils identified as the key aspect of their role.</p> <p>Heads of House expected to have an over view.</p> <p>Head s of House will have knowledge about some of pupils in their house more than others.</p> <p>Pupil Support identified as a place to receive additional support other than that provided by head of house or tutor.</p> <p>Recognition of a significant number of referral on to Pupil Support.</p>
<p>Lesley: Other than tutors who else or how else are you made aware of issues with individuals?</p>		<p>Question asked to identify different communication routes.</p>

<p>George: SLT, the Head, pupils themselves will often come and see me if they've got issues or they are worried about a friend or they've seen something happen that they think is wrong, they're very good at doing that, other pupils coming in</p>	PN	<p>List of different sources of information to help identify the needs of individuals. Peer referral identified as a strength</p>
<p>Lesley: ...and parents as well?</p>		<p>Clarification sought regarding parental involvement.</p>
<p>George: ...parents as well, by email, phone, letter - a lot of that.</p>	PN	<p>Method of communication also confirmed.</p>
<p>Lesley: Does it surprise you, the nature of the issues that children are dealing with, and coping with here? And was it something...</p>		<p>Question asked to check if the variety of issues experienced by pupils was surprising or not.</p>
<p>George: Yes and no, because I had previously been an LSA and support worker in a school in Hartlepool. We dealt with similar cases and in some respects and I had worked very closely with the children who were going through some very difficult times then. So I was aware of how difficult it can be. I was certainly saddened by many of the cases I had heard about this year and I think that this is one of the things I found most difficult about the head of house role, was feeling that responsibility for those children and the emotional drain of understanding</p>	PN I	<p>Previous experience of Head of House in other pastoral and educational role prepared them for the variety of issues pupils face. Emotional aspect of the role important to head of house and the sense of responsibility this generates.</p>

<p>what they are going through on a day to day basis, even just to learn about it yourself.</p>		
<p>Lesley: Do you take the problems home?</p>		<p>Question asked to see if the boundaries of pastoral care extends beyond the professional life of interviewee.</p>
<p>George: Um...sometimes, more often than not when there hasn't been a quick resolution. I do my very best to deal with things as they happen. I don't like leaving things to drag over for another day and that is not always within my power to deal with it. So if you go home knowing you're going to have to deal with something else the next day or follow up, or so and so is coming in for a meeting and you know it's going to be difficult, I do find it hard to switch off from that. As with general teaching there is always more you could be doing...you always feel like...you wake up at 3 o'clock in the morning and think oh I meant to do that and this should happen.</p>	<p>I</p>	<p>Comments indicate the nature of intervention and sometimes the boundaries of the work extend beyond the boundaries of the school. Preference for the resolution of issues as they occur.</p>
<p>Lesley: And you're coming to the end of your role now, what support, advice or preparation would you like for the next person, what do you think you would like to pass on to the next person, what do you think would benefit them?</p>		<p>Question asked to seek greater understanding and key aspects of the role.</p>
<p>George:</p>		

<p>I would tell them to ask , if you are not sure ask. I think to some extent there is an assumption that once you get this job you know how to deal with everything that happens and that is what you are meant to do, you are meant to deal with it. But there is no shame in asking for help until you find your feet. I think you've got to do that ...um... and I think you have to engage with the pupils, you have to make sure they know you care, that they feel they will come and see you and it will be sorted. If they don't think you will deal with their issues they will not come and see you.</p>	<p>PN MRP</p>	<p>Aspects of the job would appear to be based on tacit knowledge. Sharing of information and communication perceived to be key. The sense that pupils feel cared for perceived by the interviewee to be key to pastoral relationships.</p>
<p>Lesley: Do you see it as quite an intuitive role?</p>		<p>Question asked to explore further the nature of the role.</p>
<p>George: Sometimes... um... I think ...but I think I mean I'm quite a people person anyway. A lot of my teaching is about getting to know the children and so I think I've taken that approach to the head of house role. I think that's just the way I am.</p>	<p>I</p>	<p>Nature of intervention partly dependent on personality of those involved and the extent to how well pupils are known.</p>
<p>Lesley: But the skill set required to be a good head of house is quite board, you've got to be ...how can I say ...</p>		<p>Comment made to explore the range of the skill set required for this role.</p>
<p>George: ...you've got to be well organised, work with data, work with a lot of different people to try and</p>	<p>A PN</p>	<p>Qualities as well as actions identified. Importance of</p>

<p>maintain enthusiasm. One of the things I've really focussed on in my house is trying to reward people and praise them more, so that if you are doing a good job and chugging along get the praise that they deserve for that I've been able to do a little bit more this year and I'm really pleased with that.</p>	I	praise and encouragement also recognised.
<p>Lesley: As a result of all that do you know your house well?</p>		Question asked to investigate the extent to how well pupils are known.
<p>George: I know certain individuals within my house very well and I think I know the feel of those tutor groups, the atmosphere you get there, if that makes sense, less so with the year 7's, they've only been with the house for a few weeks...um...and so I am aware the year 7's I know the least well, but I think I could probably name every other one of the children in my house.</p>	PN	Significant number of pupils known by name. Pupils in Year 7 know less well due to amount of time they have been in the house as first year in the school spent under the direction of the Head of Year 7.
<p>Lesley: So you think you could name all the children?</p>		Further clarification of the extent pupils are known.
<p>George: I think so, I know my year 8's, my year 9's, my year 10's in terms I had a tutor group so I know that year particularly well. I spend my time trying to know the children. I may not know much more than their names and if they are smartly dressed in the corridor...but I am trying.</p>	PN	Comments indicate the extent to which pupils are known to the head of house.

<p>Lesley: Thank you George for giving up your time and participating in this study.</p>		<p>Comment added to thank interviewee for their participation.</p>

Coding key:

- OS Organisational Structure of Schools
- I Intervention
- PN Identification of Pupil Need
- MI Mentoring and Inclusion
- BMW Boundaries of Mentoring Work
- A Types of Activity
- S Becoming a Specialist
- IOA Interaction with Other Agencies
- BM Background of Mentors
- T Training
- MRP The Nature of Mentoring Relationships and Professionalism
- C Context
- ECM Every Child Matters
- CE Competitive Environment

APPENDIX 3: Interview Schedule

All the interviews involved in this study were semi-structured in nature and as a consequence the content and structure developed through questioning as the dialogue progressed. However, key themes were considered for each interview and these are detailed in the schedule below, along with notes, expected areas of discussion and potential follow up questions identified. Each of the interviews followed the same introductory format:

- Welcome interviewee and thank them for their participation
- Introduce myself in my role as a researcher
- Outline the purpose of the research
- Check with the interviewee if they are happy to be recorded using a digital recorder.
- Ethical considerations regarding participation and anonymity are outlined both verbally and through the participant information sheet (Appendix 5) given to the interviewees.

Interview 1 Pastoral Leader

Main Question	Notes, expected areas of discussion and potential follow up questions.
How long have you been a head of house/pastoral leader and what does the role involve?	Outline of key areas of responsibility. Areas of focus for the role. Explore areas of enjoyment/specialism.
How do you know what to do in your role?	Consider areas of training/tacit knowledge. Explore areas of support i.e. learning mentors or other pastoral leaders/staff.
Do you consider yourself primarily as a subject teacher or pastoral leader or equally divided between the two roles?	Consider if this is a constant perception or something that changes over time or even within parts of the day.
Taking into account the range of services to support children, both available within school and externally – how is the workload divided?	If a lack of clarity is expressed in what form does it take and how is it resolved?

Do you think the pastoral system works effectively within the school?	Ask for clarification.
Do you think the needs of any children are missed under the existing pastoral system?	Is there a possibility of overlapping input? Explore range of people supporting pupils.
How do you think the role of mentors differs from the Heads of House role?	Consider different aspects of the role in comparison with learning mentors.
Do you feel the information regarding pupils is shared effectively?	Ask for examples of good practice or when it is not so effective. How do you use your tutor team to information share?
Is the communication structure operating in your house replicated in other houses?	Is the information sharing between houses comparable with Year 7. Explore tacit knowledge sharing between houses.
What are the challenges of the mixed house system, i.e. mixed age groups?	Consider pros and cons.
Do you think the role of different member so the pastoral team is clear cut?	Consider the different roles and level of clarity. Explore interviewee ideas how this could be examined further.
From an external perspective do you think the pastoral structure is clear to understand?	Explore point of view and examples to illustrate understanding.
Other than tutors, how are you made aware of individual pupils experiencing difficulties?	List of different sources expected.
Are you surprised by the range of problems experienced by pupils?	Explore background and present understanding.
Do you take the problems beyond the confines of the school?	General comments sought. Nature of problems that may be of longer term concern.
What advice would you offer anyone taking over the role?	Expect list of key aspects of the role and information sharing.

	What would you consider the main skill set?
Do you consider you know the pupils in your house well?	General comment sought. Comment on the extent some pupils are known.

Conclusion of interview process

Each interview was concluded by thanking the participants for their time and involvement in the study. Participants were reminded about the availability of a transcript of the interview to allow them to check for accuracy and indicate any alterations or extractions required to avoid the possibility of misrepresentation.

Interview 2 Pastoral Leader

Main Question	Notes, expected areas of discussion and potential follow up questions.
Introductory question asking about their professional background as a head of house and work in other schools.	General comments expected. List of different roles and aspects of different jobs. Consideration of other roles within the school and how these may have impacted on their preparation for the head of house role.
How do you think the roles of the heads of house and learning mentors compare?	Identification of differences and similarities. Areas where roles overlap/duplicate.
What interaction takes place between the Head of Faculty (academic) and the Heads of House (pastoral) to support individuals and is this successful?	Expect areas of interaction to be identified. Identification of situations when it works well and less successfully. Possible examples of communities of practice. Identification of differences in priority amongst different age groups. Comments re target setting, effort and achievement.
Do you consider yourself as a subject teacher or as a head of house first and foremost?	Reflections on the variety associated with each role. Comment on the ability to plan and the

	routine aspects of the role.
Do you see the Head of House role predominately associated with problems rather than positives?	Comment on how pupils are recognised for praise and achievement fairly. Links with faculties.
Do you think there are any 'invisible' pupils in the school.	Comment on recognising issues and amount of time available to look after the needs of individuals.
Do you feel there is a consistency of approach within the pastoral system, especially in relation to different houses.	Identification of similarities, differences and inconsistencies. Development of communities of practice amongst pastoral leadership and tutor teams. Consideration for the needs /circumstances of individual pupils.
What do you consider is the role of learning mentors within the school and how do they operate at the interface with heads of house?	Consider areas of specialism – seek examples. Improvements to capacity. Consider organisational structure.
How good is the communication between heads of house and learning mentors?	Identify different forms of communication. Ask for examples when communication appears successful and not.
To what extent do you feel the pastoral system has developed formally within the school?	Reflection on the nature of different practices within the school including the development of tacit knowledge, formal structure including reporting and procedures. Consider areas of consistency and university.
If you could change something about the job – what aspect would it be?	Identification of possible areas for improvement/change and reasoning behind suggestion(s).

Interview 3 Pastoral Leader

Main Question	Notes, expected areas of discussion and potential follow up questions.
Introductory question to ask about background and extent of time they had been a pastoral leader.	General comments. Time scale – autobiographical, details of career.
How does the role of a head of house compared to that of a tutor?	Comments regarding the extent of the role compared to tutors. List of the features of different aspects of the role. Consistency amongst tutors.
How do you start to investigate change amongst your tutor team.	Examples of key tasks tutors are required to do. Exploration regarding the process of consultation with tutor teams. Development of communities of practice.
How would you describe the role of the head of house?	Listings of the main components including links with academic monitoring and pupil progress.
How would you try to get to know the pupils in your house?	Discussion regarding points of contact and circumstances both positive and negative. Types of documentation used.
Can you estimate the proportion of your time you spend doing particular aspects of your role?	Consider proportion of time between positive and negative interaction with pupils.
How would you see the role of heads of house interacts with other pastoral areas such as learning mentors?	Identification of areas of interaction. Consider impact of pupil perception, timing of events, communication, information sharing. Awareness of each other's roles.
Do you think it is made explicit within the school how children can access help – in pastoral terms?	Comments on type of help available and how pupils access it. Discussion regarding those pupils who do

	not or choose not to access different form of help.
Do you consider yourself primarily as a subject teacher or pastoral leader or equally divided between the two roles?	Consider if this is a constant perception or something that changes over time or even within parts of a day.
Do you take the problems beyond the confines of the school?	General comments sought. Nature of problems that may be of longer term concern.
If you could change something about the job – what aspect would it be?	Identification of possible areas for improvement/change and reasoning behind suggestion(s).
Do you consider the other pastoral roles that exist within the school as well as outside agencies - as specialists to supplement what you do or as sources of information?	Expect areas of specialist support to be identified and areas where consultation is required to support individuals.
How would you describe how the heads of house and learning mentors work together?	Identification of areas of co-operation, consultation and communication. Potential to draw attention to areas of overlap. Development of communities of practice. Development of tacit knowledge.
How do you know what to do in your role?	Consider areas of training/tacit knowledge. Explore areas of support i.e. learning mentors or other pastoral leaders/staff.
Do you think the pastoral structure within the school facilitates good practice?	Comments regarding formal and informal aspects of the pastoral structure. Range and variety of support. Unpredictable nature of the role.
When issues occur, involving pupils in more than one house, how is this dealt with by you and other heads of house?	Comments on areas of communication and how issues are prioritised. Development of a consistency of approach.
What has surprised you most about the role?	Identification of key aspects of the role. Role of others in pastoral system.

	Issues faced by pupils.
How would you describe the pastoral ethos in the school?	Identification of key features. Description of atmosphere and approach towards pastoral care.

Interview 4 Pastoral Leader

Main Question	Notes, expected areas of discussion and potential follow up questions.
Please could you describe your role as a pastoral leader and its primary functions?	General comments regarding key features of the role.
When do you feel your role commences?	Discussion of outreach work. Connections beyond the boundaries of the school.
How do you introduce your role to different groups including pupils and parents?	List of key events likely including, parent's evenings, outreach work and meeting with the pupils.
With teaching commitments, do you find it challenging to meet the demands of both roles?	Identification of key points in the year when there are pressure points in terms of capacity. Day to day issues. Ask about areas of potential conflict and how resolved.
How do you get to know the background information about individual pupils?	List of activities including documentation, meetings, liaison with staff and other professionals, parents and pupils. Issues regarding lack of information, potential problem area.
What are the limitations concerning obtaining information about pupils?	Discussion concerning, legal, ethical and official limitations. Procedural limitations. Resource availability.
To what extent do you receive feedback from parents?	General comment regarding circumstances – examples of typical issues.

Is there any additional information you would like to receive to support the needs of individual pupils?	Discussion regarding formulation of approach and the sharing of good practice. Identification of what type of information used on a regular basis.
What do you consider the main role of the tutor in the pastoral system?	Comments regarding differences in approach – levels of consistency. List of key activities. Transition from primary school.
How is communication between pastoral leaders facilitated at key transition points e.g. from years 7-8.	General comments about feedback to staff. Issues relating to communication. Consistency of approach.
If you could improve any aspects of the job what would they be?	List of key activities with possible areas of focus including communication, consistency. The development of communities of practice. Increases in capacity. Timetable of activities.

Interview 5 Pupil Support Team

Main Question	Notes, expected areas of discussion and potential follow up questions.
Introductory questioning asking about professional background.	General comments about professional career leading to current position.
How did your pastoral role develop within the school?	Back ground behind current role. The rationale underpinning the development of the role. Comments about types and timing of intervention. Levels of success.
When your pastoral role was introduced what were the main challenges?	Comments regarding the need for earlier intervention. Recognition of issues facing pupils.

	Key features of behaviour amongst disaffected pupils.
How did your role fit into the existing pastoral structure?	List of key factors including: Adding to capacity. Introduction of emotional literacy. Gave pupils the opportunity to access help previously not available.
How do you feel the pastoral care provision in school has changed over time?	Expectations changing from reactive to proactive provision. Comments regarding emotional literacy amongst staff and pupils. Ask about exploration behind problems and issues involved.
How has the pastoral work you have undertaken linked to the learning outcomes of pupils?	Exploration about the social and emotional aspects of learning (SEAL). Comments regarding the extent this has been embedded in school.
In comparison with other schools in which you work, how would you compare the pastoral system in the school?	List of strengths and weaknesses. The highlighting the importance of encouraging pupils not just to function to learn but to function generally.
How has the introduction on learning mentors impacted on the pastoral system?	Likely comments about increased capacity and improvements in the quality of support for individuals along with what this might look like in practice. Possible development of lead professional roles. Comparison of organisational structures.
If you could change something about the pastoral system what aspect would it be?	Consider examples of where pastoral support and intervention has work well and try and identify the elements that have contributed.

Interview 6 Pupil Support Team

Main Question	Notes, expected areas of discussion and potential follow up questions.
What would you consider to be the differences between inclusion and pastoral care?	Production of working definitions of both inclusion and pastoral care. Identification of the differences and similarities.
What extent do you consider inclusion and pastoral care as politically driven?	Explore examples and consider changes in practice and the reasons behind such developments.
Do you feel schools are best placed to meet both the inclusion and pastoral needs of individuals?	Extent to which inclusion needs require specialism – in terms of resources. Potential of pastoral care to be considered less specialised in comparison.
Do you feel there is a more explicit agenda to address the social needs of pupils in schools now?	Discussion regarding clarification of social needs and has this definition changed over time and if so how? Exploration placed on schools and implications for success and failure. Prevention hard to prove – economic implications.
Can you tell me about your background that has led to your current role in education?	Biographical details including non-teaching roles.
What changes if any would you like to see to the pastoral care and inclusion provision in the school?	Comments regarding training resources and communication.

Interview 7 Pupil Support Team (Joint Interview). Unless stated otherwise each question is asked of each individual, where separate questions are asked these are distinguished using letters A and B.

Main Question	Notes, expected areas of discussion and potential follow up questions.
Please could you each tell me what your job title is and a brief description about your role?	Comments including job titles and key aspects of each role. Liaison with other departments and agencies.
How are the elements of your job split in terms of time? (A)	Identification of key elements of the job that must be conducted for legal and procedural reasons which impacts on the timing available for other aspects of the role.
How does the distribution of tasks within your role compare to those in a similar position in other schools? (A)	Likely to be shaped by availability of resources and the notion of shared responsibility. How dependent is your role on the performance and co-operation of others including staff, parents and children?
What would you consider as being the greatest challenges of your role? (A)	List of key factors including: Resources, individual and complex needs of pupils and their families.
How do you determine which member of the pupil support team will work with an individual pupil? (B)	Identification of areas of expertise and personality traits. Referral procedure and level of formality Consider the availability of support not available elsewhere.
Do you consider the input of learning mentors always helpful? (B)	Consideration of the potential to develop a culture of dependency or expectation and the removal of agency. Discussion of helpful to whom. Examples of different levels of help and the consequences.

	Consideration of how individuals deal with problems and the impact of the types and nature of intervention.
Do you think the type and nature of intervention conflicts with your own personal values? (B)	Discussion about autonomy over actions, takes and other aspects of the role. Issues of power. Professional approach. Reactive elements of the role.
What does the role of learning mentoring mean to you and how does it compare with other aspects of the pastoral care available in the school?	Discussion of the perception of by pupils of a different approached offered. Consideration of the role of non-teachers. Availability of support.
Do you feel that sometimes the role of learning mentors becomes that of a parent? (B)	Setting of boundaries Identification of professional role. Provision of the opportunity for support.
Do you feel the efforts of learning mentors are always recognised by staff, parents and pupils?	Issue of those not in school who occupy considerable resources. Lack of a formalised career structure and recognition. Confidential nature of work involved impacts on communication and sharing of information and the development of communities of practice.
Do you enjoy your role? (A)	Levels of autonomy. Pressure due to levels of flexibility. Variety associated with the role.
Do you belong to any professional associations or a union? (A)	Details of professional networking opportunities. Discussion of union support and representation.
Do you feel there is a natural fit of activities conducted by learning mentors and other roles such as attendance officers? (A)	Use of attendance as indicator of other problems as well as being an issue in its own right.

	Links with work with other groups including outside agencies – creation of communities of practice.
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APPENDIX 4 Reception Questionnaire

Thank you for taking part in this questionnaire. The results will be treated in the strictest confidence and will be used to inform my research as part of my Educational Doctorate at the University of the West of England. Thank you for your support –
Lesley O’Hagan

Below are a number of enquiries that you could expect to receive when working in reception.

Please read each of the statements and decide what course(s) of action you would take

1. “I would like to report an absence” (Year 7 girl)

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

2. “I’m ringing from the Young Offender team and I would like to see X (boy in Year 10) tomorrow in school for a meeting”

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

3. “My child in Year 8 is being bullied and I want to speak to someone”

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

4. “I am not satisfied with my child’s progress and I want to speak to the principal”
(Year 8 girl)

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

5. “I’ve given my child a note regarding his shoes, as it will have to wait until payday before I can get another pair” (Year 11 boy)

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

6. “I’m not sure who I need to speak to – We’re having real trouble getting x (Year 9 boy) up in the morning and they are reluctant to come to school”

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

7. “Last night my daughter (Year 9 girl) received 3 anonymous texts threatening her – and we think it could be someone from school”

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

8. “Someone from one of your school buses threw a stone and it hit my car!”

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

9. “X (boy Year 7) has not brought their PE Kit home this term, and he now tells me he has lost it and he’s worried he will get into trouble – he seems so disorganised”

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

10. “My daughter in Year 7 does not appear to be very happy since starting school in September and I’m really worried about her.”

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

11. "I think this rule about nose studs is ridiculous I want to speak to someone, as I think my daughter is being unfairly targeted!" (Year 11 girl)

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

12. "We're having a problem with our son (boy Year 10) – he seems to spend all his time on his computer, he does not seem to be going out anymore or seeing his friends and does very little if any homework."

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

13. "I wanted to let you know I would be going into hospital for a week for an operation and x (year 8 girl) will be staying with her grandmother for a couple of weeks"

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

14. "My son is sat next to me in the car right outside and he does not want to come into school, I don't know what the matter is with him, he won't tell me anything" (Year 8 boy)

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

15. "X (Year 10 girl) has brought in her asthma medication with her today – it seems to be flaring up especially at moment, although she has had it since she was a toddler"

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

16. “Is there someone my son can speak to? He seems to have really gone off his food recently – and has become really fussy about the food is eating- insisting it is all healthy stuff but it’s not enough to keep a boy of his age going.” (Year 8)

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

- 17 “ My father has been taken ill and we’re going to have to take our 2 children out of school for a while but I don’t know how long for – we’ll let you know” (Year 7 girl, Year 10 boy)

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

18. “Our daughter is in Year 11 and I can tell she is getting really stressed out by the exam coming up – is there anything we can do – or is there anyone to speak to?”

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

19. “I called to let you know my husband and I have split up and our son in Year 8 will be staying with him, whilst my daughter in Year 10 is staying with me”

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

20. “This is the Court Liaison Officer X (Year 11 girl) was due to attend court today as a witness but has not turned up”

Take a message (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call (if so for whom) _____
Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____
Deal with issue in reception _____
Other (please give details) _____

21. "I'm at my wits end – I don't seem able to get through to her – she does her own thing - I send her to school, she doesn't up. I don't want to get in to trouble but I've tried everything, what can I do?"

Take a message (if so for whom) _____

Transfer call (if so for whom) _____

Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____

Deal with issue in reception _____

Other (please give details) _____

22. "Just to let you know the boy's grandmother died last night (Years 8 and 10), they're in school, we thought it would keep their mind off it if they were with their friends as they seemed to be coping with the news well. Call us if there is a problem"

Take a message (if so for whom) _____

Transfer call (if so for whom) _____

Transfer call if first person not available (if so to whom) _____

Deal with issue in reception _____

Other (please give details) _____

APPENDIX 5 Participant Information Sheet

Dear Participant

I am currently studying for a Doctorate in Education with the University of the West of England and I am carrying out research into different aspects of the role of learning mentors in St Anthony's. You are invited to participate in this research study; however your involvement is entirely voluntary.

All responses are treated in the strictest confidence and contributions are anonymised, used only for the purposes of this study.

In the case of interviews, these will be recorded and transcribed. Participants will have the opportunity to view these transcripts and request any amendments as necessary.

Thank you for your participation in this research.

Lesley O'Hagan

APPENDIX: 6

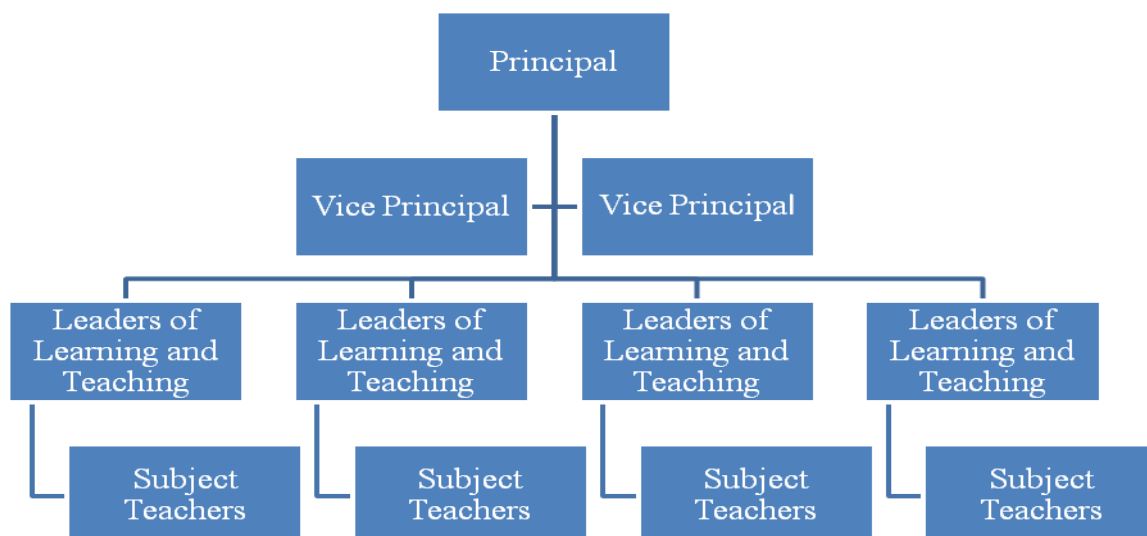


Figure 1 Academic Organisation

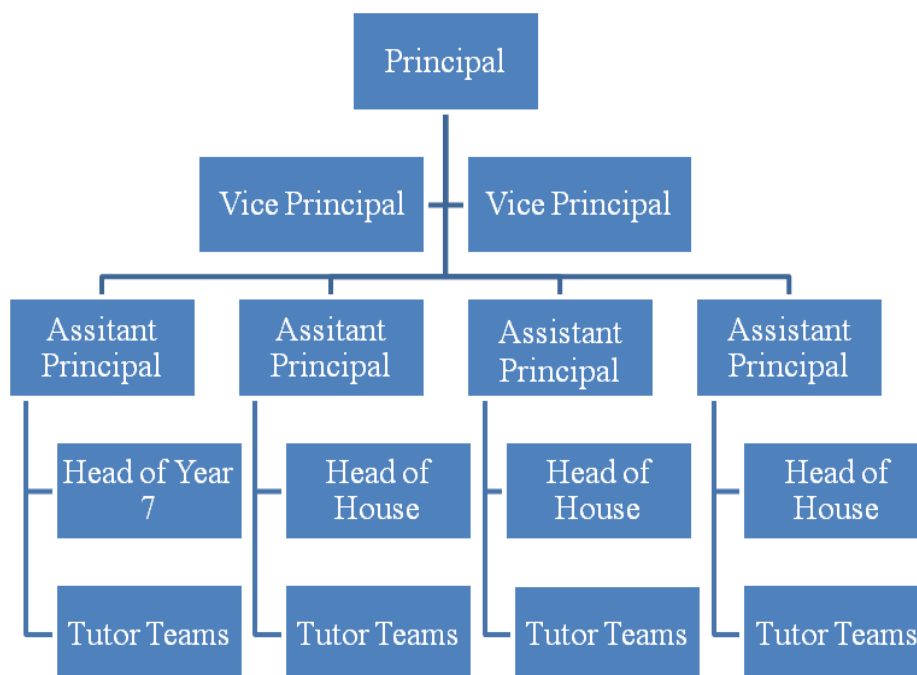


Figure 2 Pastoral Organisation

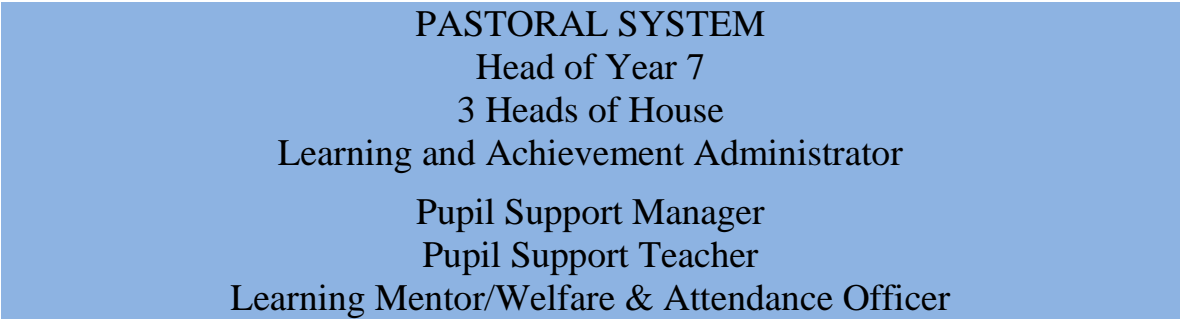


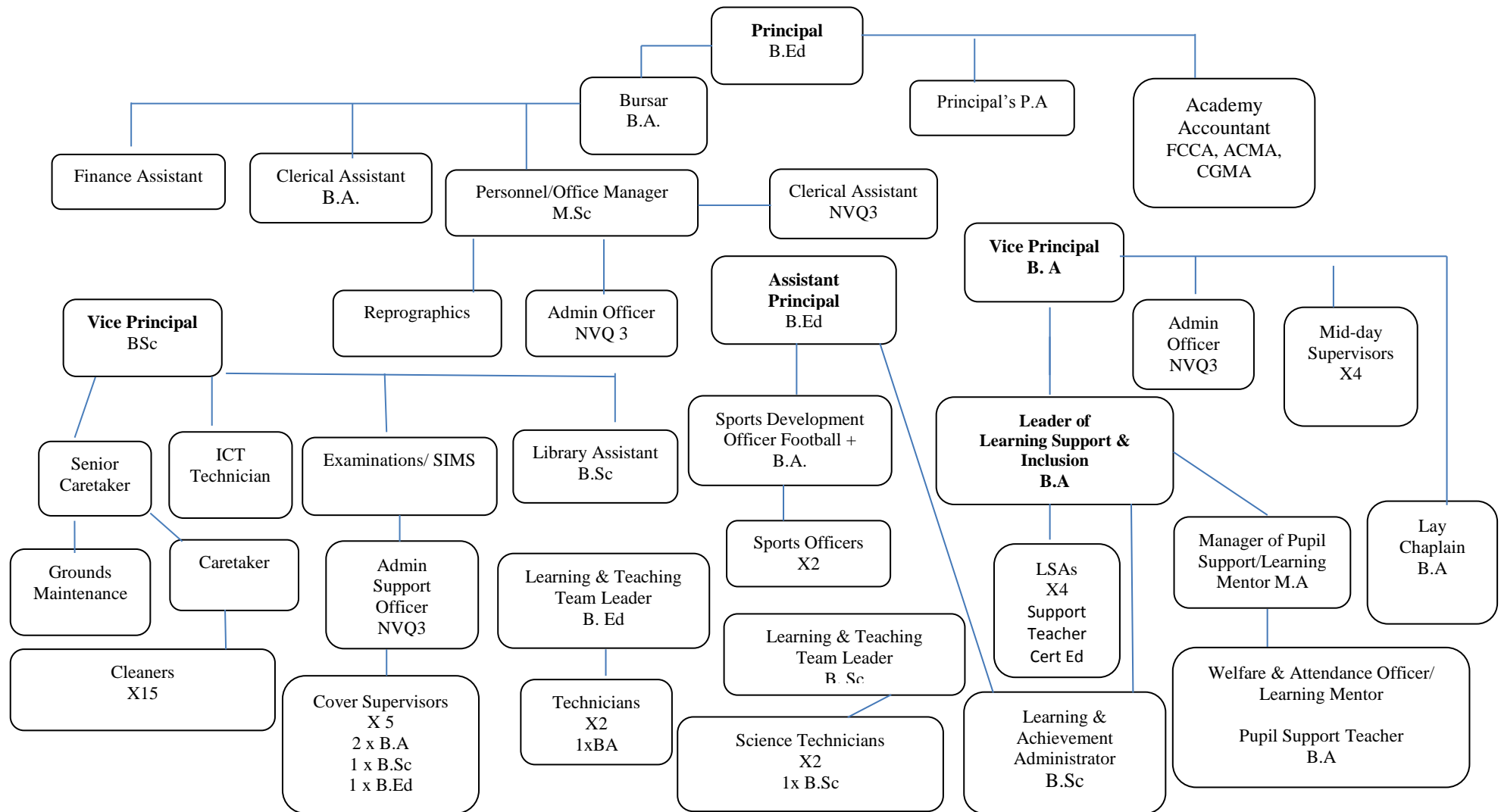
Figure 3 General Pastoral System (taken from school documentation)

Year 7	Head of Year		
	Two Tutor groups	Three Tutor groups	Two Tutor groups
Year 8	Red House	Blue House	Green House
Year 9			
Year 10	Two Tutor groups in years 8, 10 & 11 and three in year 9.	Two Tutor groups in years 8, 9 & 11 and three in year 10.	Two Tutor groups in years 9 & 10 and three in years 8 and 11.
Year 11	Head of House	Head of House	Head of House

Table 1 Pastoral Structure (taken from school documentation)

APPENDIX: 7

SUPPORT STAFF – St Anthony’s



APPENDIX: 8

Reception Questionnaire Results

Issue	First Referral	Subsequent Referral
Report an absence	6 x Attendance Officer	None
Youth Offending Team	2 x Pupil Support 4 x Vice Principal	1x Pupil Support 1x Vice Principal
Bullying victim	2 x Tutor 2 x Pupil Support 1 x Head of House 1 x Vice Principal	2 Pupil Support
Child's academic progress	6x Head of House	1x Vice Principal 1xPupil Support
Financial difficulties	2x Head of House and Vice Principal 1x Tutor 1x Head of House 1 x Pupil Support 1 x Vice Principal	1x Vice Principal 1x Pupil Support
School refuse at home	5 x Pupil Support 1 x Head of House	None
Threatening text	3 x Head of House 2 x Vice Principal 1 x Pupil Support	1 x Head of House 2x Pupil Support
Stones thrown at bus	6 x Vice Principal	None
Lost PE Kit	1 x PE Teacher 1 x Head of Year 7 3 x Pupil Support 1 x Tutor	2x Pupil Support
Year 7 unhappy	5 x Head of Year 7 1 x Pupil Support	None
School policy complaint	3 x Vice Principal 3x Head of House	None
Child becoming withdrawn	2 x Head of House 4 x Pupil Support	1 x Pupil Support
Parent in hospital	3 x Pupil Support 1 x Pupil Support and Head of House 1 x Tutor	None

Issue	First Referral	Subsequent Referral
	1 x Head of House and Tutor	
School refuser outside school	1 x Head of House 5 x Pupil Support	1 x Assistant Head of House
Medication	2 x Pupil Support 1 x Reception 3 x First Aiders	1 x Reception
Eating issues	6 x Pupil Support	None
Family Illness	2 x Vice Principal 2 x Pupil Support 1 x Tutor/Head of House 1 x Pupil Support and Head of House	3 x Head of House
Exam Stress	6 x Pupil Support	2x Head of House
Family Breakdown	3 x Pupil Support 1 x Tutor and Head of House 1 x Head of House and Vice Principal	1 x Head of House
Court Liaison	4 x Vice Principal 2 x Pupil Support	1 x Vice Principal
Disaffection	6 x Pupil Support	None
Bereavement	1 x Pupil Support and Head of House 3 x Pupil Support 1 x Reception, Pupil Support and Tutor 1 x Pupil Support and Head of House	1 x Head of House 1x Tutor

APPENDIX: 9

Issue: Attendance

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	3	0	3	0.00	100.00	2	1	0
8	19	10	9	52.63	47.37	12	6	1
9	23	8	15	34.78	65.22	21	1	1
10	29	14	15	48.28	51.72	19	3	7
11	39	20	19	51.28	48.72	16	9	14
Total number of pupils	113	52	61	46.02	53.98	70	20	23
Average Score						2.46	6.3	7.85

Issue: Attendance (Child Missing Education)

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	1	0	1	0	100.00	0	0	1
10	1	1	0	100.00	0	0	0	1
11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total number of pupils	2	1	1	50.00	50.00	0	0	2
Average Score						0	0	9

Note that due to the potential severity of this category it is automatically flagged at the red intervention level

APPENDIX: 10

Issue: Attitude and Motivation

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	2	0	2	0.00	100.00	1	1	0
10	5	2	3	40.00	60.00	0	2	3
11	8	3	5	37.50	62.50	0	1	7
Total number of pupils	15	5	10	33.33	66.67	1	4	10
Average Score						4	5	8.5

Issue: Medical Condition (excluding mental health)

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	2	0	2	0.00	100.00	1	1	0
9	7	5	2	71.43	28.57	6	1	0
10	5	1	4	20.00	80.00	3	0	2
11	7	4	3	57.14	42.86	3	1	3
Total number of pupils	21	10	11	47.62	52.38	13	3	5
Average Score						4.69	5	7

Issue: Medical Mental Health Concerns

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	4	1	3	25.00	75.00	1	2	1
9	3	2	1	66.67	33.33	1	0	2
10	5	2	3	40.00	60.00	1	1	3
11	9	4	5	44.44	55.56	0	3	6
Total number of pupils	21	9	12	42.86	57.14	3	6	12
Average Score						1.67	6.67	7.33

Issue: Friendship

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	1	1	0	100.00	0.00	1	0	0
9	4	1	3	25.00	75.00	0	2	2
10	6	1	5	16.67	83.33	1	0	5
11	4	1	3	25.00	75.00	1	0	3
Total number of pupils	15	4	11	26.67	73.33	3	2	10
Average Score						2.33	6.50	7.60

Issue: Bullying (Victim)

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	1	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	2	0	2	0.00	100.00	0	0	2
10	3	0	3	0.00	100.00	1	0	2
11	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
Total number of pupils	6	0	6	0.00	100.00	0	0	0
Average Score						1	2	5.75

Issue: Bullying (Perpetrator)

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	2	1	1	50.00	50.00	0	1	1
10	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	0	1
11	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
Total number of pupils	3	1	2	33.33	66.67	0	1	2
Average Score						0	4	4

Issue: Bullying (Cyber)

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
10	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
11	1	1	0	100.00	0.00	1	0	0
Total	1	1	0	100.00	0.00	1	0	0
Average Score						4	0	0

Issue: Family Medical Condition/Illness

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	1	0	0
10	2	2	0	100.00	0.00	1	1	0
11	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
Total	3	2	1	66.67	33.33	2	1	0
Average Score						2.5	9	0

Issue: Lack of Organisation

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	1	1	0	100.00	0.00	0	0	1
10	2	2	0	100.00	0.00	0	0	2
11	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
Total	3	3	0	100.00	0.00	0	0	3
Average Score						0	0	9

Issue: Parenting Problems

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	1	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	2	1	1	50.00	50.00	0	1	1
10	7	3	4	42.86	57.14	0	1	6
11	8	4	4	0.00	0.00	0	2	6
Total	18	8	10	44.44	55.56	0	5	13
Average Score						0	4.6	7.38

Issues: Lateness

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	1	1	0	100.00	0.00	0	0	1
10	3	1	2	33.33	66.67	0	0	3
11	3	0	3	0.00	100.00	0	1	2
Total	7	2	5	28.57	71.43	0	1	6
Average Score						0	9	7.5

Issue: Domestic Violence

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
10	2	1	1	50.00	50.00	1	0	1
11	2	1	1	50.00	50.00	0	1	1
Total	4	2	2	50.00	50.00	0	0	0
Average Score						1	3	5

Issue: Victim of Crime

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	0	1
10	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
11	1	1	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
Total	2	1	1	50.00	50.00	1	0	0
Average Score						3	0	9

Issue: Excessive Computer Usage/Game Playing

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	1	1	0	100.00	0.00	0	0	1
10	3	3	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	3
11	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	0	1
Total	5	4	1	80.00	20.00	0	0	5
Average Score						0	0	9

Self Harm based on Pupil Support File Information

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
10	1	1	0	100.00	0.00	0	0	1
11	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
Total	1	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	1
Average Score						0	0	2

Issues: Financial Issues

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	2	0	2	0.00	100.00	1	1	0
9	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
10	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	0	1
11	2	1	1	50.00	50.00	0	0	2
Total	5	1	4	20.00	80.00	1	2	3
Average Score						2	6	9

Issues: Effects of bereavement family member/friend

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	1	0
9	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	0	1
10	1	1	0	100.00	0.00	0	0	1
11	4	1	3	25.00	75.00	1	1	2
Total	7	2	5	28.57	71.43	1	2	4
Average Score						6	3	5.25

Issue: Transition between primary and secondary based on Pupil Support File Information

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	2	0	0
8	1	1	0	100.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
10	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
11	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
Total	2	1	1	50.00	50.00	0	0	0
Average Score						1.5	0	0

Issue: Divorce/Separation Issues based on Pupil Support File Information

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
10	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	1	0	0
11	4	2	2	50.00	50.00	0	1	3
Total	5	2	3	40.00	60.00	1	1	3
Average Score						3	9	4.33

Issue: Family Breakup/Separation based on Pupil Support File Information

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	0	0	1	0.00	0.00	0	1	0
10	1	1	1	100.00	100.00	2	0	0
11	3	2	1	66.67	33.33	0	1	2
Total	6	3	3	50.00	50.00	2	2	2
Average Score						2.5	5	9

Issue: Pregnant/Teenage Parent

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
10	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
11	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	0	1
Total	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	0	1
Average Score						0	0	9

Issue: Eating Disorder

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	2	0	2	0.00	100.00	0	1	1
9	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
10	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
11	2	0	2	0.00	100.00	1	1	0
Total	4	0	4	0.00	100.00	1	2	1
Average Score						1	3	9

Issue: Academic Support

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
10	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
11	4	3	1	75.00	25.00	0	0	0
Total	9	5	4	55.56	44.44	1	2	6
Average Score						4	5	6.83

Issue: Self Esteem

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	2	0	2	0.00	0.00	1	1	0
9	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
10	4	0	1	0.00	0.00	0	1	4
11	9	4	1	44.44	11.11	1	2	5
Total	15	5	4	33.33	26.67	2	4	9
Average Score						2	6	7.8

Issue: Family Drug and Alcohol Misuse

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	1	0	0
9	1	1	0	100.00	0.00	0	1	0
10	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
11	2	2	0	100.00	0.00	0	0	0
Total	4	3	1	75.00	25.00	0	0	2
Average Score						3	9	9

Issue: Young Carer

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	1	1	0	100.00	0.00	0	0	1
10	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	0	1
11	1	1	0	100.00	0.00	0	0	1
Total	3	2	1	66.67	33.33	0	0	3
Average Score						0	0	2.33

Issue: Anger Management

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	2	1	1	50.00	50.00	0	2	0
9	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
10	4	2	2	50.00	50.00	0	1	3
11	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	0	1
Total	7	3	4	42.86	57.14	0	3	4
Average Score						0	7	7.5

Issues: Parental Relationship

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	1	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	1	0
10	3	1	2	33.33	66.67	0	0	3
11	4	0	4	0.00	100.00	0	2	1
Total	8	1	7	12.50	87.50	1	3	4
Average Score						4	7.33	9

Issue: Youth Offending

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
10	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
11	2	1	1	50.00	50.00	0	0	2
Total	2	1	1	50.00	50.00	0	0	2
Average Score						0	0	2.5

Issue: Pupils attending off site provision

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
10	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	0	0
11	2	0	2	0.00	100.00	0	0	0
Total	3	0	3	0.00	100.00	1	0	2
Average Score						1	0	9

Issue: Behaviour in Class

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
10	2	2	0	100.00	0.00	0	0	0
11	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	2	1
Total	3	2	1	66.67	33.33	0	2	1
Average Score						0	6.5	9

Issue: Compliance with school policy

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
10	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
11	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	0	0
Total	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	0	1
Average Score						0	0	9

APPENDIX 11

Special Needs/ Inclusion Register Pupils

38 Pupils are on the Inclusion Register who have files with the Pupil Support Department. This represents 25.5% of the Pupil Support case files and 4.1% of the school pupil population

Pupils on the Inclusion Register, but not classified as SEN

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	2	0	2	0.00	100	0	2	0
9	3	0	3	0.00	100	3	0	0
10	0	0	0	0.00	0	0	0	0
11	2	2	0	100.00	0	1	0	1
Total	7	2	5	28.57	71.43	4	2	1

Pupils on the Inclusion Register and classified as School Action

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level (Green)	Intervention Level (Amber)	Intervention Level (Red)
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	2	1	1	50.00	50.00	1	1	0
9	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	0	1
10	6	2	4	33.33	66.67	0	2	4
11	15	7	8	46.67	53.33	2	4	9
Total	24	10	14	41.67	58.33	3	7	14

Pupils on the Inclusion Register and classified as School Action Plus

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level	Intervention Level	Intervention Level
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	1	0
9	1	1	0	100.00	0.00	0	0	1
10	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	0	1
11	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
Total	3	1	2	33.33	66.67	0	1	2

Pupils in the Inclusion Register and classified as Statemented

Year Group	Total	Male	Female	% Male	% Female	Intervention Level	Intervention Level	Intervention Level
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
9	3	1	2	33.33	66.67	2	1	0
10	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0	0	0
11	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0	0	1
Total	4	1	3	25.00	75.00	2	1	1

Total number of pupils on the Inclusion Register by intervention level	9	11	18
% of pupils on the Inclusion Register by intervention level	23%	29%	47%

APPENDIX 12

Photo Identification Exercise Results – St Anthony’s

Name	Pupil Category	House	Number of teachers who recognised pupil	% of teachers who recognised pupil	Number of teachers who worked with pupil	% of teachers who did work with pupil	Number of teachers who did not work with pupil	% of teachers who did not work with pupil
Martin John	1	Green	46	98	23	50	23	50
Julie Smith	1	Green	43	91	21	49	22	51
Michael Burton	1	Red	35	74	23	66	12	34
Michelle Spain	1	Red	34	72	20	59	14	41
Maddie Green	2	Green	32	68	18	56	14	44
Paul Robbins	2	Red	31	66	17	55	14	45
Karolina Kaminska	1	Blue	29	62	16	55	13	45
Arthur Brown	1	Blue	29	62	22	76	7	24
Francesca Archer	2	Red	29	62	16	55	13	45
Chris Johnson	2	Green	28	60	20	71	8	29
Hannah Marshfield	2	Blue	25	53	17	68	8	22
Gavin Shreeve	3	Blue	24	51	15	63	9	37
Kevin Kelly	2	Blue	22	47	18*	77	5	23
George Raven	3	Red	22	47	16	73	6	27
Molly Baxter	3	Blue	20	43	17**	75	5	25
Robert Jordan	3	Green	18	38	13	72	5	28
Rachel Webster	3	Green	17	36	14	82	3	18
Lauren McDonald	3	Red	17	36	15	88	2	12

Total number of responses 47

* one teacher had taught this pupil but could not name them

** two teachers had taught this pupil but could not name them

Group 1 pupils identified as ‘characters’; Group 2 middle band pupils; Group 3 ‘invisible pupils’
Pupil names have been changed to protect pupil identity