

**A Study Investigating the Role of the Teacher Pupil
Relationship in Affecting Pupils' Self-Esteem and Exploring
Pupil Perceptions of a Good Teacher Pupil Relationship.**

Wendy Jackson

047122530

Doctorate in Applied Educational Psychology

School of Education Communication and Language Sciences

August 2011

Acknowledgement

I would like to thank my supervisors Elaine Hall and Dr Simon Gibbs for their ongoing support throughout this piece of work. I would also like to thank my colleague Amelia Davis for her assistance in analysing qualitative data used in the systematic literature review.

Table of Contents

Abstract.....	2
1. What helps to raise the self-esteem of pupils in key stages three and four, with regards to the role of the teacher?.....	3
Abstract	3
1.1 Introduction.....	3
1.1.1 Self-esteem.....	3
1.1.2 Self-esteem and education	5
1.1.3 The focus of this review	6
1.2 Method	7
1.2.1 Systematic method	7
1.2.2 The literature search and screening	8
1.2.3 Critical appraisal	10
1.3 Results	11
1.3.1 General descriptive characteristics	11
1.3.2 Methodological characteristics.....	12
1.3.3 Outcomes and effectiveness of quantitative studies	19
1.3.4 Outcomes and effectiveness of qualitative studies	24
1.4 Conclusions and Recommendations	26
1.4.1 Conclusions of the review	26
1.4.2 Limitations of the review	27
1.4.3 Recommendations for further research and practice	27
2. An Exploration of Pupil Perceptions of a Good Teacher Pupil Relationship	29
Abstract	29
2.1. Introduction.....	30
2.1.1 Emotional wellbeing in the current political climate	30
2.1.2 Self-esteem and the role of the teacher.....	31
2.1.3 Whole school approach	32
2.1.4 Research question	34
2.2 Method	34
2.2.1 Approach	34
2.2.2 Participants	35
2.2.3 Procedures	36
2.3 Results	38
2.3.1 Focus group	38
2.3.2 Online survey.....	40
2.4 Discussion	43
2.4.1 Humanist qualities.....	43
2.4.2 Balance of responsibility and power	45
2.4.3 Working relationship	46
2.4.4 Enjoyment.....	47
2.4.5 Communication.....	48
2.5 Conclusions.....	49
Appendix A	51
Appendix B	52
References.....	54

List of Tables and Figures

Table 1.1 Systematic Literature Review Stages	8
Table 1.2 Terms used in the literature search.....	8
Table 1.3 Descriptive details of the quantitative studies, including effect sizes and confidence intervals.....	13
Table 1.4 Descriptive details of the qualitative studies, including themes occurring in the papers.....	15
Table 1.5 Weight of evidence and types of studies considered.....	17
Table 1.6 Effect sizes when considering studies with different weights of evidence.....	19
Table 1.7 Table showing the effects statistics and study numbers used in figure 1.....	20
Figure 1.1 Scatter plot showing the effect statistics of the studies used and their confidence intervals.....	21
Table 1.8 Effect statistics, when considering either an element of the teacher's role or an intervention.....	22
Table 1.9 Effect statistics, when considering studies which measure either general self-esteem or aspects of self-esteem.....	23
Table 2.1 Themes identified in the written responses given by the focus group.....	38
Table 2.2 Focus group's written responses grouped according to Rogers and Freiberg's (1994) teacher qualities.....	38
Table 2.3 Percentage of responses to the open ended question relating teachers, pupils or both.....	39
Table 2.4 Responses given to the online survey, compared to the views of the focus group.....	40
Table 2.5 Themes identified in the responses to the open ended question of the online survey.....	41
Table 2.6 Responses to the open ended question in the online survey, grouped according to Rogers and Freiberg's (1994) teacher qualities.....	42
Table 2.7 Table showing the percentage of responses to the open ended question relating teachers, pupils or both.....	42
Figure 2.1 Model of an effective teacher pupil relationship.....	49

Abstract

Teachers are expected to positively impact on the emotional wellbeing of their pupils and raise their self esteem as an outcome of this impact. It has been shown that teachers can contribute to raising the self-esteem of their pupils through different aspects of their role. An element which has been shown to have a significant impact on the self-esteem of pupils is the relationship between the teacher and pupil.

Exploration of what a group of year 10 pupils perceive a good teacher pupil relationship to be revealed a number of factors. There were commonalities with the humanist approach to education in that, teacher qualities such as genuineness, prizing, acceptance and trust were identified as being involved in a good relationship. An emphasis was placed on the relationship being a working relationship, involving quality pedagogy and facilitating learning. In addition to this a need for communication was identified as being a key feature of the relationship. It was concluded that it would be beneficial to strike a balance between therapeutic underpinnings and quality pedagogy, to develop a good relationship between the teacher and their pupils. It is proposed that a good working relationships could facilitate learning and also impact positively on a pupil's self-esteem and hence their overall emotional wellbeing.

1. What helps to raise the self-esteem of pupils in key stages three and four, with regards to the role of the teacher?

Abstract

Introduction: The emotional wellbeing of pupils is a priority for staff working in education (DCSF, 2007b). Teachers are responsible for raising the self-esteem of pupils as part of this priority.

Methodology: This systematic literature review focused on the role of the teacher in raising their pupils' self esteem, using 9 studies. All results were analysed, giving consideration to the variation in quality of the studies and the types of study used.

Results: The 7 studies where effect sizes were available all showed effect sizes greater than 0.4 which is the typical effect of the teacher (Hattie, 2009). Those with a greater effect, along with the qualitative information in the studies demonstrate that the relationship between the teacher and the pupil has a significant positive effect on the self-esteem of the pupils.

Conclusions: Following the review, conclusions were drawn that a good relationship between the teacher and the pupil helps to raise the pupils' self-esteem. It is suggested that further consideration needs to be given to what exactly about the teacher's relationship with the pupil impacts on self-esteem and also what dimensions of self-esteem it impacts on.

1.1 Introduction

1.1.1 Self-esteem

Self-Esteem has been viewed as an important concept in the field of social sciences (Campbell & Lavallee, 1993; Marsh, 2006; Owens & Stryker, 2001). Despite this prevalence of self-esteem, there remains a lack of consistency in research findings regarding its benefits (Brown & Marshall, 2006; Covington, 2006) and a certain degree of confusion as to the definition of self-esteem (Marsh, 2006; Mruk, 2006). Initially this paper will consider some differences in the way the term self-esteem is used and understood. It is beyond the scope of this paper to evaluate all possible constructs of the term self-esteem, so this introduction cannot be fully comprehensive. In addition to the lack of clarity

about what self-esteem is, a variety of terms are used in relation to the concept, for example self-esteem (James, 1890/1963; Rosenberg, 1965), self concept (Marsh, 2006; Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976) and self worth (Covington, 2001; Harter, 1993). For the purpose of this paper the term self-esteem will be used as an umbrella term for the concept, encompassing the other terms.

William James is reportedly the first person to use the term self-esteem in his writing (Mruk, 2006; Owens & Stryker, 2001). He defined it as an evaluation of the self based on a ratio between a person's achievements and their goals and ambitions (James, 1890/1963). James saw self-esteem as a changeable construct which would grow as a person achieved more of their goals, or diminish if they failed to achieve them. Considering both a person's achievements and their evaluation of themselves based on these achievements, is a concept that remains relevant in more modern work in the area of self-esteem (Harter, 1993; Marsh, 2006; Mruk, 2006).

One of the most recognised names with regards to self-esteem is that of Morris Rosenberg (Owens & Stryker, 2001). Rosenberg saw self-esteem as a stable and general construct. As a Cognitive Social Psychologist he discussed self-esteem in terms of a schema to aid the processing of information about the self (Elliott, 2001). Rosenberg (1965) viewed the use of this schema as central to a person's evaluation of themselves, leading to a positive or negative attitude towards the self. It has been argued that viewing self-esteem in this way can lead to interventions being focused on making people feel better about themselves, without considering whether they have achieved anything to deserve this good feeling (Mruk, 2006). Similarly, focussing on the internal aspect of making somebody feel good, would not incorporate the approval of others in self-esteem (Harter, 1993). Both of these arguments suggest that viewing self-esteem as an internal process influenced by a schema, could potentially ignore external factors.

Both James and Rosenberg viewed self-esteem as a general overarching construct of only one dimension. More recently it has been argued that self-esteem is a multidimensional construct, which varies depending on what aspect of the self is being considered (Marsh & Shavelson, 1985; Shavelson, et al.,

1976). In this view the multiple dimensions of self-esteem feed into a general overarching concept of self-esteem (Marsh, 2006). It has been argued that if self-esteem is not measured in a multidimensional way, then it is difficult to pinpoint which dimension of the self-esteem is impacted on by an intervention and indeed the results of an intervention's impact on that particular dimension of self-esteem could be diluted by using a more general measure of self-esteem (O'Mara, Marsh, Craven, & Debus, 2006). Furthermore using a multidimensional measure of self-esteem can help to identify which dimension specifically requires intervention rather than using a blanket intervention which is aimed at self-esteem in general (O'Mara, et al., 2006).

Whilst the constructs of self-esteem discussed have been from different times in theoretical work on self-esteem, this is not to say that one approach has replaced the other over time. Indeed James' work continues to be influential (Harter, 1993; Mruk, 2006), as does Rosenberg's (Owens, Stryker, & Goodman, 2001). However the multidimensional approach of Marsh and Shavelson (1985) is debatably now more widely accepted in the areas of Educational Psychology, Sports Psychology, Developmental Psychology, Personality research and Social Psychology (Marsh, 2006).

1.1.2 Self-esteem and education

In the United Kingdom, those working in education are expected to promote the welfare of all children. The Children Act 2004 placed an emphasis on promoting the welfare of the child, in universal services accessed by children. This Act underpins the government green paper Every Child Matters (DfES, 2003), which is a framework based on improved outcomes for children, emphasising the responsibility of all sectors of children's services, including education. The Education and Inspections Act 2006 and other government publications have identified the role of the school in promoting emotional wellbeing (DCSF, 2007b; DCSF & DH, 2010) stressing the importance of raising self-esteem (DCSF, 2007a, 2008; DfES, 2003). It should be noted that there are some controversial arguments as to whether the focus on emotional wellbeing is beneficial or potentially damaging to those in education (Ecclestone & Hayes, 2009). However, there are well documented arguments that high self-

esteem is an important concept and has educational benefits (O'Mara, et al., 2006).

The DCSF currently give guidance to schools, regarding how to develop children's social and emotional skills, in the form of Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) publications (DfES, 2005, 2007). These publications were developed following a report on 'What Works in Developing Children's Emotional and Social Competence and Wellbeing' (Weare & Gray, 2003). This report identified some key considerations in this area including the need for a shared understanding of the terminology used and a need for evidence based practice. As there remains confusion about what self-esteem is (Marsh, 2006; Mruk, 2006) and what the benefits of raising self-esteem are (Brown & Marshall, 2006; Covington, 2006), both of these considerations are particularly pertinent with regards to the concept of self-esteem. Despite the call for common terminology, the SEAL primary and secondary guidance booklets (DfES, 2005, 2007) use a variety of terms regarding the self. The publications primarily refer to self-awareness and gives information about what this concept involves, however they include the terms self-concept, self-esteem and self-worth with little explanation as to what these concepts involve. As Weare & Gray (2003) recommend the use of evidence based practice, then most recent evidence regarding self-esteem should be influencing the guidance given on SEAL. However self-esteem is referred to in it's general sense and there is no reference made to the possibility of multiple dimensions of self-esteem.

1.1.3 The focus of this review

With such an emphasis being placed on staff in children's services having a responsibility to promote emotional wellbeing, this is a relevant topic in any local authority in the country at present. This is certainly the case in the local authority where the author of this paper works and will be undertaking research following this review. In this local authority children's plan there is an additional outcome to those stated in the Every Child Matters Agenda (DfES, 2003). This outcome involves, amongst other things, providing children with opportunities and experiences which would lead to raised self-esteem. In light of Weare and

Grey's (2003) report, these opportunities and experiences should be based on evidence and so it is of some importance to identify what works, with regards to raising self-esteem.

As teachers are the frontline staff who are expected to implement the guidance from programmes such as SEAL (DfES, 2005, 2007) and the National Healthy School Standard (DCSF & DH, 2010), this review will focus on the teacher. The role of the teacher differs somewhat from primary to secondary school with the former tending to have one main teacher and the latter tending to have several subject teachers. Due to this variation in role this study will focus on the role of the teacher in only one of these settings, this will be the secondary school.

Initially it was the intention that the review would focus on interventions delivered by the teacher, however as the search of the literature began it became clear that there were articles which focused on other aspects of teaching and the teacher's role and so the search was widened to include any aspect of the role of the teacher or intervention delivered by them.

Considering all of the above aspects, the question asked in this review is, 'What helps to raise the self-esteem of pupils in key stages three and four, with regards to the role of the teacher?'

1.2 Method

1.2.1 Systematic method

This review was carried out using the systematic method suggested by Petticrew and Roberts (2006). The method consists of 7 stages, as shown below in table 1.1. Stage one was considered in the previous section. Stage two was not required in this review. It was decided that due to diversity of information sought about the teacher's role, any type of study could be relevant. Details of stages three to six follow.

1. Clearly define the question that the review is setting out to answer, or the hypothesis that the review will test, in conclusion with anticipated users.
2. Determine the types of studies that need to be located in order to answer your question.
3. Carry out comprehensive literature search to locate those studies.
4. Screen the results of that search (that is, sift through the retrieved studies, deciding which ones look as if they fully meet inclusion criteria, and thus need more detailed examination, and which do not).
5. Critically appraise the included studies
6. Synthesise the studies and assess heterogeneity among the study findings
7. Disseminate the findings of the review

Table 1.1: Systematic Literature Review Stages (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006)

1.2.2 The literature search and screening

In order to search the literature the terms shown in table 1.2 were used. The online Encarta Thesaurus (2010) was used to identify additional search terms and improve the sensitivity of the search. Searches were carried out using the following electronic databases: Australian Education Index, British Education Index, CAB Abstracts, CSA Illumina, EBM, EBSCO, EMBASE, ERIC, MedLine, PSYCIInfo and Web of Knowledge.

Intervention Search Terms teacher* or (teacher* ADJ role)
Outcome Search Terms (self ADJ esteem) or self-esteem or (self ADJ worth) or (self ADJ concept) or self-concept or self ADJ aware* or self-aware* or self-worth or (self ADJ confiden*) or self-confiden* or (self ADJ accept*) or self-accept* or (self ADJ respect) or self-respect or (self ADJ regard) or self-regard or (self ADJ assurance) or self-assurance
Target Population Search Terms teenage* or adolescent* or (key ADJ stage ADJ 3) or (key ADJ stage ADJ three) or (key ADJ stage ADJ 4) or (key ADJ stage ADJ four) or (secondary ADJ school) or (high ADJ school) or (school ADJ child*) or student or pupil

Table 1.2: Terms used in the literature search (* is used when multiple word endings should be included in the search results)

Petticrew and Roberts (2006) suggest that inclusion criteria in general are details about the types of study, intervention, population and outcomes that are eligible for the in depth review. They allow the review to exclude any irrelevant studies when considering the results of the searches. For the purpose of this review only articles written in English were considered, as this is the author's language. Only studies from the last decade were included in this review, as there have been many changes in recent years to what is expected in education with regards to emotional wellbeing (DCSF, 2007a, 2007b, 2008; DfES, 2003, 2005). This review considered teacher delivered interventions and aspects of the teacher's role which may impact on self-esteem. Because of the variety of information required, it was not appropriate to limit the studies considered to randomised control trials. Due to this the type of study was not used in the inclusion criteria and so a variety of both qualitative and quantitative studies were used. Inclusion criteria were applied to the intervention and only articles which considered the direct involvement of the teacher were included. Further inclusion criteria were applied to the population leading to the exclusion of any study where the participants were known to be outside of the required age range. Further to this any studies which focused on specific groups of people within the relevant participants were disregarded (e.g. pupils with suicidal tendencies or pupils with specific illnesses). Finally inclusion criteria regarding the outcome of the studies lead to the exclusion of any studies which did not focus, at least in part, on self-esteem. All inclusion criteria were first applied to the titles of the articles shown as a result of the database searches. The results from all types of publications were considered, including unpublished literature in an effort to avoid bias.

A total of fifty nine studies, which were potentially relevant, were found during this search whilst applying the inclusion criteria. Hand searches were then carried out in the journals 'Educational Psychology in Practice' and 'Educational and Child Psychology'. No further relevant studies were identified during the hand search.

The title and abstract of the fifty nine studies were read and inclusion criteria were applied once again. Eighteen of the fifty nine studies matched the

inclusion criteria when the title and abstract were considered. A more in depth consideration was then given to these eighteen studies and the inclusion criteria were applied to the whole text. This reduced the number of relevant studies to nine. A citation search was carried out on these nine studies and one further relevant study was identified, leading to a final list of 10 relevant studies. One of the ten studies was unobtainable at the time of writing this paper, as it was a thesis held in Australia (Lee, 2002).

1.2.3 Critical appraisal

All nine obtainable studies were examined to consider the weight of evidence which they provide. This process involves systematically appraising the methodology of each study. The findings of the studies were reported in various ways, therefore different tools were required to appraise them. Tools from the Critical Appraisal Skills Programme (CASP, 2004, 2006a, 2006b) were used with each study to ensure a consistent approach. A judgement was then made using these tools and the EPPI-Centre Weight of Evidence tool (EPPI, 2009) to ascertain whether the weight of evidence for each study was high, medium or low.

In order to draw comparisons between the findings, effect sizes were calculated using Cohen's d (Cohen, 1988). Formulas from Nakagawa and Cuthill (2007) and Thalheimer and Cook (2002) were used to find Cohen's d effect sizes and confidence intervals for seven articles. The formula selected depended on whether the method of statistical analysis focused on: comparisons between independent groups, repeated measures for dependent groups, F tests or correlation calculations. One effect size was unobtainable due to the nature of the information provided and one article reported only qualitative information.

Two articles used a mixture of qualitative and quantitative methods and so these results were appraised separately. The qualitative sections of these two papers, and the one paper which was purely qualitative, were analysed separately by the author and a colleague using thematic analysis. The researchers then compared the themes which they identified and produced a combined set of themes arising from the papers.

1.3 Results

1.3.1 General descriptive characteristics

The papers included in the review contained a mixture of qualitative and quantitative information. Two separate synthesis tables were created in order to analyse the information separately. Both tables summarise the characteristics and findings of the studies with table 1.3 detailing the quantitative information and table 1.4 detailing the qualitative information.

Pupils participating in all studies were aged between 11 and 18 and all studies gathered their information from school settings. The qualitative study used gave consideration to information regarding both secondary and primary schools, however the resulting conclusions were related to both types of schools and hence were still relevant to this review. In the other studies five were conducted in secondary schools (or the equivalent in that country) and three were conducted in middle schools (or the equivalent in that country). The number of pupil participants in the studies varied substantially, from 67 to 3450. In two studies information was gathered from adults who work in the school, rather than the pupils themselves. Of the nine studies four were conducted in the USA, two in Australia, one in Canada, one in England and one in both the USA and Russia.

Descriptive information regarding the participants was not given consistently. All studies reported the number of male and female participants and overall 49.12% of the participants were male and 50.88% of the participants were female. The ethnic origin of the participants was not consistently reported with only 5 studies giving detailed information. In these five studies it is known that 76.37% of participants were white, 13.43% of participants were of African descent, 1.45% of participants were of Asian descent, 2.77% of participants were descendent of the countries native race, 4.28% of participants were of Latin or Hispanic descent, 1.13% of participants were of other ethnic origin and 0.57% of participants did not report their ethnicity. The only information reported by other studies regarding the ethnicity of the participants was that they spoke 70-80 different languages (Wallace, 2008) and they were representative of the population (Sonnenburg, 2007).

The socio-economic status of the participants was not consistently reported and so no summary of this information is possible. One study considers the income of the participants' parents, another considers the percentage of participants receiving free school meals; a further study considers the education level of the participants' parents and another considers the participants in terms of coming from inner city urban schools.

1.3.2 Methodological characteristics

Two of the nine studies contained mixed methods and the qualitative and quantitative elements of the studies were considered separately. This lead to the nine studies effectively being treated as eleven separate studies, which is how they were referred to in this review. From the eleven studies included in the review there were various types of studies. Three were control studies, comparing the impact of a strategy or intervention with a control group. Two of these control studies consisted of randomly selected groups, the third did not randomly allocate participants to the experimental and control groups. Three different studies were cohort studies; one of which compared results from two cohorts and the other two compared results of the same cohort over time. Two further studies were uncontrolled, where one-off measures were taken from participants. Another study contained purely qualitative information gathered from case studies. Two other aspects of studies, which were carried out as part of a mixed methods approach, gathered qualitative information from interviews.

Study	Age group	N	Country of study	Type of Study	Treatment Group	Comparison Group (if used)	Dependent measure	Effect Size	Confidence Intervals
2003 Reddy et al	11-13	2585	USA	Cohort Study	Longitudinal study of same group in 6 th , 7 th and 8 th grade.		Self-esteem, dependent on perceived teacher support	0.49	0.45, 0.54
2000 O'Dea and Abraham	11-14.5	470	Australia	Randomised Control Study	Received educational programme.	Received regular school curriculum.	Importance of social acceptance after 3 months.	-0.15	-0.33, 0.03
							Importance of social acceptance after 12 months.	-0.16	-0.34, 0.02
							Importance of physical appearance after 3 months.	-0.14	-0.32, 0.05
							Importance of physical appearance after 12 months.	-0.43	-0.61, -0.24
							Importance of athletic competence after 3 months.	0	-0.18, 0.18
							Importance of athletic competence after 12 months.	0.12	-0.06, 0.31
							Importance of close friendships after 3 months.	0	-0.18, 0.18
							Importance of close friendships after 12 months.	0.15	-0.03, 0.33
2007 Martin et al.	12-18	3450	Australia	Uncontrolled study	One off measures, no comparison made.		Self-esteem dependent on teacher student relationship	1.19	1.15, 1.23
2001 Covell and Howe	13-15	89	Canada	Randomised Control Study	Received children's rights curriculum in addition to regular curriculum	Received regular curriculum	Self-esteem	0.85	0.49, 1.21

Table 1.3: Descriptive details of the quantitative studies, including effect sizes and confidence intervals

Study	Age group	N	Country of study	Type of Study	Treatment Group	Comparison Group (if used)	Dependent measure	Effect Size	Confidence Intervals
2001 Chirkov and Ryan	14-19 (Russian 14-16/ USA 17-19)	236 (R=120/ USA=116)	One cohort from Russia and one from USA	Cohort Study	Comparing perceived teacher autonomy support as opposed to control in Russia and USA. Identifying its impact on wellbeing.		Self-esteem dependent on perceived teacher autonomy support in the Russia	0.43	0.2, 0.66
							Self-esteem dependent on perceived teacher autonomy support in the USA	0.37	0.13, 0.61
2008 Sonnenburg	11 years + info taken from adults	58	USA	Uncontrolled study	Survey of school administrators (A), teachers (T) and counsellors (C) to gather their perceptions.		School staff's perception of improved self-esteem, dependent on the type of transition strategy used	Not obtainable	
2009 Gerdes and Stromwall	11-14	67	USA	Control Study	Teachers made aware of children's conative abilities and used this in their teaching and learning strategies.	Teachers not aware of children's conative abilities and did not use special strategies.	Self-esteem within the control group.	-0.15	-0.64, 0.33
							Self-esteem within the intervention group	0.13	-0.33, 0.59
2003 Colarossi & Eccles	15-18	217 M=92 F=125	USA	Cohort Study	Self-esteem measured at time 1 and 2 correlated against teacher social support		Self-esteem against teacher social support (Male)	0.41	0.14, 0.68
							Self-esteem against teacher social support (Female)	0.37	0.14, 0.60

Table 1.3 (cont): Descriptive details of the quantitative studies, including effect sizes and confidence intervals

Study	Age Group	Number	Country of study	Results	Findings about teachers	Themes which occur in more than one paper
2009 Gerdes and Stromwall (Mixed Methods)	11-14? Not made clear journal says 'middle school' (U.S.)	67	USA	Open ended responses on a questionnaire from teachers.	Teacher understanding of their and pupils problem solving strengths Teacher's change of perspective when considering pupils. Problem Solving Curriculum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teachers' knowledge of their own and pupils' strengths Teacher's change of perspective when considering pupils. Problem Solving Curriculum Recognition of students strengths and achievements
2008 Sonnenburg (Mixed Methods)	11 years + (information taken from adults)	15 schools, 23 Administrator, 14 Counsellor, 21 Teacher.	USA	Open ended responses on a questionnaire from teachers, counsellors and administrators.	Providing the opportunity to belong/develop talents Recognition of students strengths and achievements	
2008 Wallace	12 schools, 6 primary, 6 secondary	Primary and secondary schools rather than individual participants	England	Case studies – Reviewing school policies, interviewing teachers, pupils and parents and observing lessons.	Pupil / community voice Pupil ownership Teacher understanding of their / pupil strengths Problem Solving Curriculum High expectations Recognition of pupils' strengths Teachers change of perspective when considering pupils.	

Table 1.4: Descriptive details of the qualitative studies, including themes occurring in the papers

The detail of the types of studies used is shown in table 1.5 alongside the judgements made regarding weight of evidence. The weight of evidence judgements were made using the methods described earlier in the Critical Appraisal section of the Method. Eleven weight of evidence judgements were made as the qualitative and quantitative sections of the mixed methods studies were again considered separately.

The weight of evidence for the two mixed methods studies was affected by the appropriateness of the study design to this review. Both qualitative aspects, of the mixed methods studies, relied on staff perceptions of what raised self-esteem in pupils. This lead to the judgement that the trustworthiness of the result was only medium, as the studies did not connect the staff's perceptions with evidence of raised self-esteem. This reliance on staff perceptions also occurred in the quantitative section of one mixed methods study (Sonnenburg, 2007), leading again to a judgement of only medium trustworthiness of the results. Due to this reliance on staff perceptions, both aspects of one mixed methods study (Sonnenburg, 2007) and the qualitative aspect of the other mixed methods study (Gerdes & Stromwall, 2009), were judged to have a design which was of low appropriateness for the review in question. The one purely qualitative study (Wallace, 2008) was judged to be of medium appropriateness of design, despite also using staff perception. This judgement was made, as the study also included a wide variety of further qualitative information in support of the staff perceptions. The appropriateness was not judged to be high however, as again there was no link to any evidence to show raised self-esteem.

One randomised control study (O'Dea, 2000) was judged to have a focus which was of low appropriateness to the review as the focus was very narrow. The study primarily focused on aspects of self-esteem which were influenced by a programme considering body image and eating attitudes. Whilst this was delivered by teachers in school, the aspects of self-esteem measured were only a narrow part of the outcomes considered. As the study also focused on other outcomes of the intervention, the study design was judged to be of low appropriateness for the purpose of this review.

	A: Trustworthiness of the Result	B: Appropriateness of the study design to the review	C: Appropriateness of focus to the review	D: Overall weight
Randomised Control Studies				
O'Dea and Abraham 2000	High	Low	Low	Medium/Low
Covell and Howe 2001	High	High	High	High
Control Studies				
Gerdes and Stromwall 2009 (mixed methods)	High/Medium	High	High	High
Cohort Studies				
Reddy et al 2003	High	High	High	High
Chirkov and Ryan 2001	High	Medium	Medium	High/Medium
Colarossi and Eccles 2003	High	High	High	High
Uncontrolled Studies				
Martin et al 2007	High/Medium	Medium	High	High/Medium
Sonnenburg 2007 (mixed methods)	Medium	Low	Medium	Medium/Low
Qualitative Studies and Qualitative Sections of Mixed Methods Study				
Wallace 2008	Medium	Medium	High	High/Medium
Gerdes and Stromwall 2009 (mixed methods)	Medium	Low	Low	Medium/Low
Sonnenburg 2007 (mixed methods)	Medium	Low	Medium	Medium/Low

Table 1.5: Weight of evidence and types of studies considered

The design of a cohort study (Chirkov & Ryan, 2001) was judged to have only medium appropriateness and the focus of the study was judged to have medium appropriateness, primarily because the purpose of the study was to compare cohorts from different cultures. As the purpose of the study was to find differences between the two cultures, it was not totally appropriate to this review which aims to identify what would be successful for all participants. As there was no combined measure for both cultures this study design and focus could not be judged to be highly appropriate.

One uncontrolled study (Martin, Marsh, McInerney, Green, & Dowson, 2007) was judged to have high to medium trustworthiness due to the way which comparisons were made in the study. The measures were taken from different

aged cohorts and then conclusions were drawn about changes over time, without the consideration of confounding factors impacting on the different groups. More accurate conclusions could be drawn by considering the same cohort over time (Bryant, Willits, & Hason, 2009). All other studies were judged to have a high weight of evidence in all areas and therefore a high overall weight of evidence for the purpose of this review.

1.3.3 Outcomes and effectiveness of quantitative studies

The effect sizes used in the following analyses incorporate all studies with enough information to calculate effect sizes. An effect size could not be calculated for Sonnenburg (2007) as the results reported were percentages of people who rate a strategy highly with regards to its impact on improving self-esteem.

Gerdes & Stromwall (2009) report a significant difference between the control group and the experimental group pre test measures. For this reason the effect size for the experimental group only is used and not the effect size which draws comparisons between the experimental and control group. O'Dea and Abraham (2000) report results after both 3 months and 12 months. For the purpose of the following analysis only the 12 month effect sizes will be considered, as these show the longer term effects of the intervention. Negative effect sizes in O'Dea & Abraham (2000) were converted to positive ones for the purpose of the following analyses, as the effect on the participants was a positive one with regards to the aspect of self-esteem considered.

In the analysis effect sizes were grouped in different ways and a mean effect size calculated for the groups, in order to draw comparisons. Table 1.6 shows that the mean effect size for studies which were of medium/low weight of evidence were low (0.22), whilst the mean effect size for studies which are high/medium or high weight of evidence, is medium (0.66 and 0.51 respectively). It is shown that removing the effect sizes from O'Dea and Abraham (2000), the only quantitative study with medium/low weight of evidence, changes the overall mean effect size from a small one (0.47), to a medium one (0.56). Hence this study does make a difference to the overall

results of this review. Therefore, for each mean effect size calculated in the following analysis, an additional calculation was carried out excluding the effect sizes from O'Dea and Abraham (2000).

Weight of Evidence	Relevant outcome measure	Details	Study	Effect size
High	Self-esteem	Dependent on perceived teacher support	2003 Reddy et al	0.49
	Self-esteem	Pupils receive a rights curriculum	2001 Covell & Howe	0.85
	Rate of change of self-esteem	Dependent on perceived teacher support	2003 Reddy et al	0.43
	Self-esteem	Dependent of teacher social support for males	2003 Colarossi & Eccles	0.41
	Self-esteem	Dependent of teacher social support for females	2003 Colarossi & Eccles	0.37
	Self-esteem	Dependent on teachers awareness of pupils' conative abilities (intervention group)	2009 Gerdes & Stromwall	0.53
Mean effect size for studies with high weight of evidence				0.51
High/Medium	Self-esteem	Dependent on teacher student relationship	2007 Martin et al	1.19
	Self-esteem	Perceived teacher autonomy support (pupils in Russia)	2001 Chirkov & Ryan	0.43
	Self-esteem	Perceived teacher autonomy support (pupils in USA)	2001 Chirkov & Ryan	0.37
Mean effect size for studies with high/medium weight of evidence				0.66
	Importance of social acceptance (S.A.)	After receiving educational programme	2000 O'Dea	0.16
	Importance of physical appearance (P.A.)	After receiving educational programme	2000 O'Dea	0.43
	Importance of athletic competence (A.C.)	After receiving educational programme	2000 O'Dea	0.12
	Importance of close friendships (C.F.)	After receiving educational programme	2000 O'Dea	0.15
Mean effect size for studies with medium/low weight of evidence				0.22
Overall mean effect size				0.47
Overall mean effect size, excluding those with medium/low weight of evidence				0.56

Table 1.6: Effect sizes when considering studies with different weights of evidence

Figure 1.1 shows that once confidence intervals are applied, the true value of some of the effect statistics could fall below 0.2, hence showing no definite effect (Hattie, 2009). There are five results which have a definite effect, demonstrated by the confidence intervals lying above 0.2. Of these five studies, two are intervention studies and the remaining three consider elements of the teacher's role. If, as suggested earlier, O'Dea and Abraham (2000) was not considered, then this would leave only one intervention study, Covell and Howe

(2001). The four remaining studies which show a definite effect and have at least a medium weight of evidence are Covell & Howe (2001), Martin et al (2007), Reddy et al (2003) and Chirkov & Ryan (2001). It should be noted that the definite effect shown in Chirkov and Ryan (2001) results from the Russian cohort of the study. The cohort from the USA does not show as significant an effect, hence this effect could be mediated by cultural difference. This should be remembered when considering this result as the culture in Russia is very different to that in the other countries represented in these studies.

The intervention delivered to the participants in Covell & Howe (2001) is also shown to have a significant positive effect on pupils' perceived peer support, perceived teacher support, support for adults' rights and support for children's rights. Covell and Howe (2001) state in their discussion of the results, that the effect on self-esteem may be mediated by other factors occurring as a result of the curriculum. The intervention in this study was a rights curriculum, based on the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child. As Covell and Howe (2001) point out in their paper the delivery of a rights curriculum consists of more than just the content of the curriculum, it also requires the teachers to model the rights and to demonstrate them in their general teaching. So this intervention actually required a change in the teachers approach to teaching and to their pupils.

study name	effect statistic	study number
Covell & Howe 2001	0.85	1
Colarossi & Eccles 2003 (females)	0.37	2
Colarossi & Eccles 2003 (males)	0.41	3
O'Dea & Abraham 2000 (S.A.)	0.15	4
O'Dea & Abraham 2000 (P.A.)	0.12	5
O'Dea & Abraham 2000 (A.C.)	0.43	6
O'Dea & Abraham 2000 (C.F.)	0.16	7
Gerdes & Stromwall 2009	0.53	8
Chirkov & Ryan 2001 Russia	0.43	9
Chirkov & Ryan 2001 USA	0.37	10
Martin et al 2007	1.19	11
Reddy et al 2003	0.49	12

Table 1.7: Table showing the effects statistics and study numbers used in figure 1

There are two studies showing a high effect size, however they have very different confidence intervals. The study by Martin and colleagues (2007)

showed a high effect size and a very small confidence interval, indicating the true value of the effect statistic will fall in the high range. Alternatively Covell & Howe (2001) has a high effect size and a very wide confidence interval, indicating that the true value of this effect statistic could lie anywhere between 0.49 (low) and 1.21 (high).

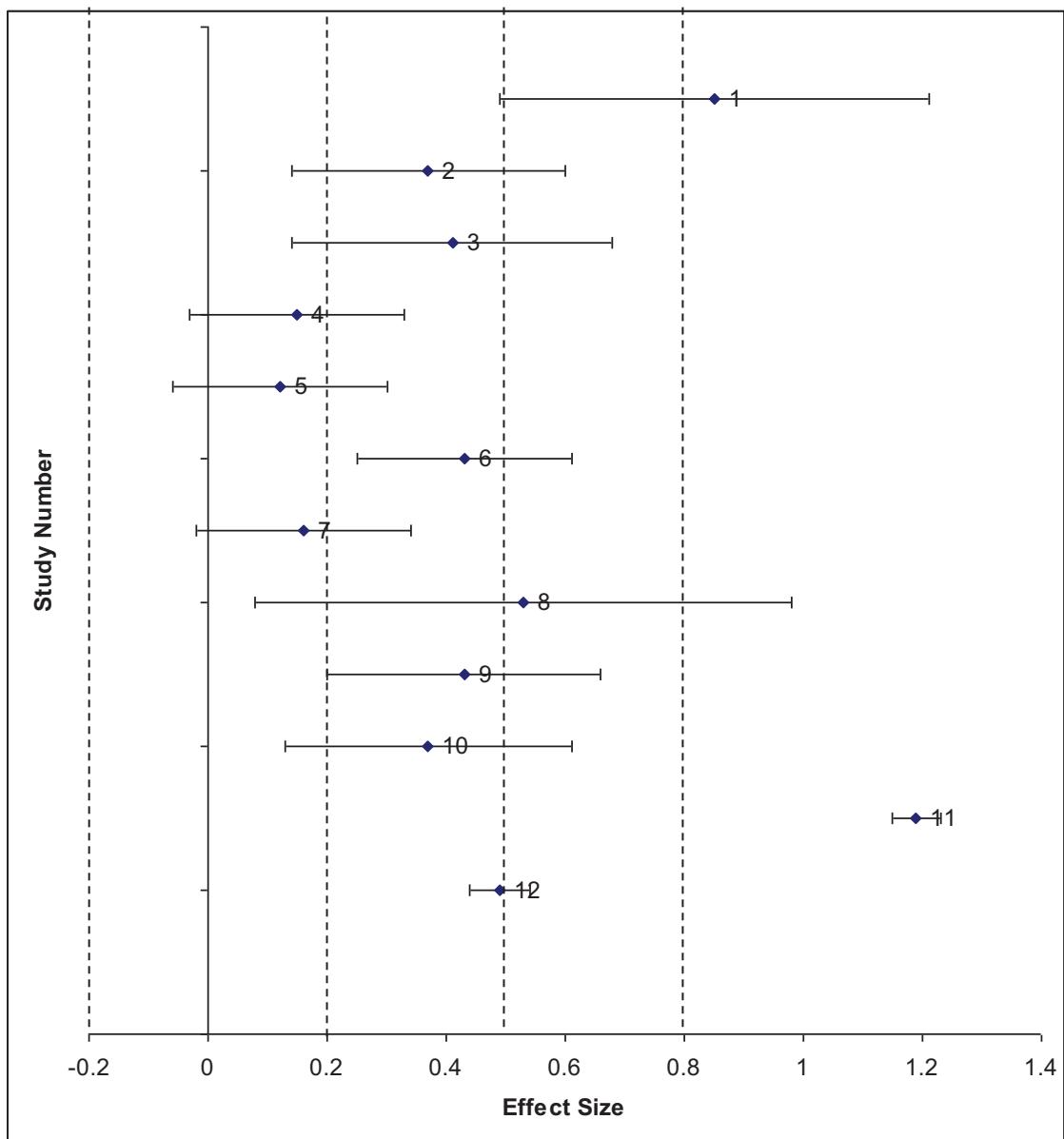


Figure 1.1 Scatter plot showing the effect statistics of the studies used and their confidence intervals. Studies are identified by a number and broken lines mark the position of low effect size (-0.2, 0.2), medium effect size (0.5) and high effect size (0.8).

For the effect size to demonstrate more than just the effect of having any teacher present it would need to be greater than 0.4 (Hattie, 2009).

Considering this and taking into account confidence intervals only three studies

fall firmly above this 0.4 effect size. These studies are Reddy et al (2003), Martin et al (2007) and Covell and Howe (2001).

Table 1.8 shows the results grouped by their focus on either an element of the teachers' role or a specific intervention. When considering what impacts on the self-esteem of participants, the role of the teacher has a mean effect statistic of medium size (0.54) and interventions have a mean effect statistic which is small (0.34). It should be considered that removing O'Dea and Abraham (2000) would make a considerable difference, leaving only one remaining intervention study, which has a large effect statistic of 0.85. However, it should be noted that there are only two intervention studies and so it would be difficult to generalise these results, particularly if one study were excluded.

Focus area	Relevant outcome measure	Details	Study	Effect statistic
Element of teacher role	Self-esteem	Dependent on perceived teacher support	2003 Reddy et al	0.49
	Self-esteem	Dependent on teacher student relationship	2007 Martin et al	1.19
	Self-esteem	Perceived teacher autonomy support (pupils in Russia)	2001 Chirkov & Ryan	0.43
	Self-esteem	Perceived teacher autonomy support (pupils in USA)	2001 Chirkov & Ryan	0.37
	Self-esteem	Dependent on teachers awareness of pupils' conative abilities	2009 Gerdes & Stromwall	0.53
	Self-esteem	Dependent of teacher social support for males	2003 Colarossi & Eccles	0.41
	Self-esteem	Dependent of teacher social support for females	2003 Colarossi & Eccles	0.37
Mean effect statistic for element of teacher role				0.54
Intervention	Self-esteem	Pupils receive a rights curriculum	2001 Covell & Howe	0.85
	Importance of social acceptance	After receiving educational programme	2000 O'Dea & Abraham	0.16
	Importance of physical appearance	After receiving educational programme	2000 O'Dea & Abraham	0.43
	Importance of athletic competence	After receiving educational programme	2000 O'Dea & Abraham	0.12
	Importance of close friendships	After receiving educational programme	2000 O'Dea & Abraham	0.15
Mean effect statistic for interventions				0.34
Mean effect statistic for interventions (excluding studies of medium/low weight of evidence)				0.85

Table 1.8: Effect statistics, when considering either an element of the teacher's role or an intervention.

Table 1.9 shows the effect statistics for the only study which considered different dimensions of self-esteem. A low effect size is demonstrated in one aspect (0.43), but not in the others. It is shown that if the mean of these dimensions is taken to give a more general measure of self-esteem then the effect size is reduced. Whilst it still gives a low effect size it should be considered that the confidence intervals will now lie below 0.2. Despite this study having a medium/low weight of evidence with regards to this review, the impact of combining the different dimensions to create one measure of self-esteem is still very relevant. This supports the argument made by O'Mara et al (2006) that using a general combined measure of self-esteem would not highlight any effects in specific areas. In this case it would mask this effect and it would appear that the intervention has no effect on the participants' self-esteem.

Relevant outcome measure	Details	Study	Effect statistic	
Importance of social acceptance	After receiving educational programme	2000 O'Dea	0.16	No effect
Importance of physical appearance	After receiving educational programme	2000 O'Dea	0.43	Low
Importance of athletic competence	After receiving educational programme	2000 O'Dea	0.12	No effect
Importance of close friendships	After receiving educational programme	2000 O'Dea	0.15	No effect
Mean effect statistic giving an overall measure of self-esteem.				0.22
				Low

Table 1.9: Effect statistics, when considering studies which measure either general self-esteem or aspects of self-esteem.

1.3.4 Outcomes and effectiveness of qualitative studies

As shown in table 1.4 there are four main themes identified as occurring in more than one paper. Those four themes are expanded upon below, using details given in the papers to clarify the themes.

The theme of teachers' understanding of their own and pupils' strengths involves two areas, one being the teachers' strengths and the other being the pupils'. The teachers' understanding of their own strengths was said to come from professional development, reflection and review of practice and also from an understanding of their own conation. The teachers' understanding of the pupils' strengths was said to come from consideration of pupils' feedback about

learning, active consideration and development of pupils' conation and learning skills and looking beyond quantitative assessment to more qualitative information.

The theme of teachers change of perspective when considering pupils, was identified in two papers as developing from an improved understanding of the pupils. For example it was said in one paper that teachers' changed their views of pupils' behaviours when they had a better understanding of the conation of both themselves and pupils (Gerdes & Stromwall, 2009). It was said in another paper that a consideration of pupils as individual learners, taking into account a broad perspective of learning informed by qualitative as well as quantitative information, lead to teachers considering pupils in a different way (Wallace, 2008).

A problem solving curriculum was identified in two papers as being an important factor (Gerdes & Stromwall, 2009; Wallace, 2008). This curriculum was said to involve problem solving or enquiry based learning skills (Wallace, 2008) and draws on the teachers' knowledge of the individual pupils.

The theme of recognition of pupils' strengths and achievements primarily involves the teachers' awareness of the pupils' strengths. This awareness is developed by the sharing of information and up to date collection of information (Wallace, 2008). The strengths are recognised either by the teacher individually, by sharing them with others (Wallace, 2008) or by rewarding them in both academic and non academic assemblies (Sonnenburg, 2007).

There is an overarching element in all four themes of teachers viewing their pupils as individuals and having a broad knowledge of these individuals. Without this they could not know their pupils' strengths, change their perspective of pupils based on this knowledge, plan a suitable curriculum or recognise the strengths and achievements of pupils. The papers considered suggest that a teacher is required to have an understanding and knowledge of their pupils as individuals, in order for them to impact on the pupils' self-esteem.

1.4 Conclusions and Recommendations

1.4.1 Conclusions of the review

Some tentative conclusions can be drawn from the literature about the role of the teacher in raising the self-esteem of pupils. All studies included in the review showed some effect on self-esteem. Those which showed a significant effect all identified an element of the teacher's role. The elements identified were perceived teacher support, teacher student relationship, perceived teacher autonomy support, teachers' awareness of pupils' conative ability, and teacher social support. Included in this is the significant effect which was shown following an intervention (Covell & Howe, 2001). Covell & Howe (2001) identified that an increase in perceived teacher support, among other things, was a mediating factor of the effect size shown in their study. In all of the studies which show a significant effect there is a focus on how the teacher relates to the pupil in some way or another. This is also true of the qualitative studies, where there is an overarching theme of the teachers relating to their pupils and viewing them as individuals.

The three studies which stand out as having a definite effect demonstrated by both the effect size and the confidence intervals are Reddy et al (2003), Martin et al (2007) and Covell and Howe (2001). These studies focus on perceived teacher support (Reddy, et al., 2003), teacher pupil relationship (Martin, et al., 2007) and the delivery of a curriculum which focuses on moral rights (Covell & Howe, 2001). It is known that the delivery of the rights curriculum also has an effect on perceived teacher support. These studies demonstrate that teacher support and a good relationship between the teacher and pupil, can have a significant positive effect on self-esteem of pupils.

It is not clear from the studies whether the impact of the teacher on pupils' self-esteem is sustained over time. No studies follow the pupils after they have left school and few studies follow the same cohort over more than a year. Those who do, report that the effect is evident over time (Colarossi & Eccles, 2003; Reddy, et al., 2003).

Only one study considered different dimensions of self-esteem (O'Dea, 2000), despite this being reported as a widely accepted approach in many areas of

psychology (Marsh, 2006). Combining the dimensions of self-esteem to give a general self-esteem measure masked the effects on separate dimensions in this study. Supporting the argument made by O'Mara et al (2006) that the different dimensions should be considered separately.

1.4.2 Limitations of the review

Whilst every effort has been made to ensure that this review was undertaken in a systematic way which is transparent and replicable there are some elements of the review which are limited. The weight of evidence judgements, whilst made using a framework, are subjective judgements. The coding of the information both qualitative and quantitative is also subjective. The qualitative studies were coded by two researchers in an effort to counteract this limitation, however it should be considered that this remains a somewhat subjective judgement.

Whilst inclusion and exclusion criteria were applied to ensure the relevance of the studies there was variation in the focus of the studies and the way in which self-esteem was measured. It follows from this that any generalisations about the results of this review should be made with caution

Unpublished literature was used in this study in an effort to avoid bias (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006). Despite this there was an unpublished study which was inaccessible at the time of writing (Lee, 2002). Studies tend to be published if they have significant results and so there may well be more unpublished studies which are not shown on a database search.

1.4.3 Recommendations for further research and practice

The elements of the teacher's role which have a significant effect on pupils' self-esteem can all be related to the relationship between the teacher and student. It would seem from the studies considered in this review, that teachers need to have good relationships with their pupils in order to raise their self-esteem. This is an idea which is widely supported (Pollard, 2001). Whilst this is a clear conclusion, what is not clear is what exactly about the teacher student relationship helps to raise self-esteem. Some different aspects were identified

by studies in this review, however different aspects of the relationship were not considered simultaneously in any study. Whilst teachers may be aware that they should have good relationships with their pupils, are they aware of which aspects of the relationship are most important? This is something which needs further exploration in order to identify what it is about the relationship that has a significant impact on self-esteem.

It is thought that a multidimensional approach to self-esteem is widely accepted in many areas of psychology (Marsh, 2006), however this was not evident in this review. Further research is needed into which dimensions of self-esteem are raised in school and particularly, in the case of this review, by teachers. Further research concentrating on the different dimensions of self-esteem would pinpoint specific areas which are impacted by the teacher and any areas which may need further attention.

In conclusion this review has shown that the relationship between a teacher and pupil may have a significant effect on the self-esteem of the pupil. However it is not clear what it is about this relationship which has the effect or what dimensions of self-esteem this effect is acting on.

Word count 5456

2. An Exploration of Pupil Perceptions of a Good Teacher Pupil Relationship

Abstract

Introduction: The self-esteem of secondary and high school pupils can be positively influenced, when the pupils believe that they have a good relationship with their teachers (Colarossi & Eccles, 2003; Martin, et al., 2007; Reddy, et al., 2003). It has been shown that good teacher pupil relationships can be developed using a learner centred, humanist approach to education (Cornelius-White, 2007; Rogers & Freiberg, 1994). This paper explored pupils' perceptions of a good teacher pupil relationship and considered whether these were congruent with the teacher pupil relationships described in the humanist approach to education.

Methodology: A focus group and survey were used to explore the perceptions of year 10 pupils in a high school. Thematic analysis was used to identify significant themes in the data gathered.

Results: Themes identified included 'friendliness, school work, knowing the pupil, personal qualities of the teacher, communication and fun'. The pupils perceived the good relationship as one involving both work and personal elements. The pupils' perceptions involved the qualities of realness, prizing, acceptance and trust as identified in the humanist approach to education. In addition to this communication and enjoyment was identified as important in a good relationship. The pupils primarily identified the teachers' role in developing a good relationship and made little reference to their own role.

Conclusions: Pupils' perceptions of a good teacher-pupil relationship have much in common with the humanist approach to education. Elements of this approach to education, alongside good communication and enjoyment of learning may have a positive impact on the emotional wellbeing of pupils. In order for this approach to be effective, teachers and pupils would need to communicate well, enabling them to develop their working and personal relationships and teachers would need to provide good quality pedagogy, to engage the pupils and enable them to enjoy learning.

2.1. Introduction

2.1.1 *Emotional wellbeing in the current political climate*

For some time the emotional wellbeing of children and young people has been high on many political agendas (DCSF, 2007a; DfES, 2003). Those working in education have previously been identified as being well placed to promote emotional wellbeing (DCSF, 2007b; DCSF & DH, 2010) and this continues to be the case under the current government (Department for Education, 2011; National Advisory Council for Children's Mental Health and Psychological Wellbeing, 2010; Statham & Chase, 2010). More recently however, the introduction of the English Baccalaureate and the review of the National Curriculum demonstrate the current government's value of an academic emphasis in education. It has been argued that the emphasis on therapeutic approaches in education, to promote emotional wellbeing, can be at the expense of pedagogy (Ecclestone & Hayes, 2009). With this in mind, a balance of successfully promoting emotional wellbeing and ensuring academic achievement in education would be appropriate in the current political climate.

A call for evidence-based practice, with regards to the promotion of emotional wellbeing in education (Weare & Gray, 2003), led to the development of the Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) materials (DfES, 2007) for both primary and secondary schools. An evaluation of the secondary SEAL materials has found that the outcomes for pupils in schools using the SEAL materials were not significantly different to the outcomes for pupils in schools who did not use the SEAL materials (Humphrey, Lendrum, & Wigelsworth, 2010). The Tellus surveys were an annual survey delivered by the previous government between 2007 and 2010, to gather the views of children and young people with regards to their life, school and their local area. When comparisons were made between the Tellus4 survey and the Tellus3 survey, it was found that there had been a 'clear decline in emotional health and wellbeing' across the country (Statham & Chase, 2010).

The evaluation also identified a difficulty in implementing the secondary SEAL materials, due to problems sustaining the energy and effort required to deliver them in light of competing pressures (Humphrey, et al., 2010). In view of this perceived difficulty and a lack of evidence to support the use of the secondary

SEAL materials, this thesis aims to explore what pupils perceive has promoted an aspect of emotional wellbeing in secondary education and what has been the role of teachers. It will also consider if this can be balanced with the government's focus on academic achievement.

2.1.2 Self-esteem and the role of the teacher

As the whole topic of emotional wellbeing would be too large to consider in this piece of writing, the paper will focus on 'self-esteem'. This study was undertaken in a local authority where raised self-esteem, for children and young people, was viewed as a desirable outcome. The promotion of emotional wellbeing in schools in this authority was expected to lead to raised self-esteem.

The term 'self-esteem' can be somewhat ambiguous (Marsh, 2006; Mruk, 2006), however the term was selected as it was widely used within the local authority, as opposed to alternatives such as 'self-concept' and 'self-worth'. For the purpose of this paper the definition of self-esteem used was, 'a person's self-perceptions that are formed through experience with - and the interpretations of - one's environment'. (Marsh, 2006, p. 182)

It is a recommendation of the evaluation of the secondary SEAL materials, that:

A greater emphasis needs to be given to the rigorous collection and use of evidence to inform developments in policy and practice in this area; in particular there should be proper trialling of initiatives like SEAL before they are rolled out on a national level. (Humphrey, et al., 2010, p. 3)

The emphasis on evidence based practice in this area, requires critical consideration of what has been shown to be effective. As self-esteem is the focus of this paper, critical consideration was given to the evidence base in this area.

A meta-analysis of studies has shown that interventions and approaches have had a positive impact on the self-esteem of children and young people (Marsh, 2006). When considering studies specific to secondary school aged pupils, it

was evident that some studies which had demonstrated a significant positive impact on self-esteem, had identified an element of the teacher's role as being linked to a higher measure of self-esteem (Chirkov & Ryan, 2001; Colarossi & Eccles, 2003; Gerdes & Stromwall, 2009; Martin, et al., 2007; Reddy, et al., 2003). The measures used in many of these studies relied on the pupils' perceptions of their relationships with teachers (Martin, et al., 2007), including the level of support given (Chirkov & Ryan, 2001; Colarossi & Eccles, 2003; Reddy, et al., 2003). In another study, an intervention which was aimed at impacting on self-esteem, also impacted positively on the pupil's perception of their relationship with their teachers (Covell & Howe, 2001). With evidence that pupil's self-esteem is enhanced when they perceive that they have a good relationship with their teacher, it should be considered what the pupils perceive a good relationship to be? This study aimed to explore this question.

2.1.3 Whole school approach

A good relationship between the teacher and the pupil would not be viewed as a specific intervention but more as an approach to teaching and learning. It has been suggested that work in the area of emotional wellbeing should be part of an embedded whole school approach to education (Humphrey, et al., 2010; Weare & Gray, 2003). Approaches to education which address emotional wellbeing have been both promoted (Rogers & Freiberg, 1994) and criticised (Ecclestone & Hayes, 2009). The focus on emotional elements such as self-esteem has lead to claims that education is becoming too 'therapeutic' at the expense of pedagogy (Ecclestone & Hayes, 2009). Alternatively it has been claimed that providing an approach to education which is underpinned by therapeutic principles and is person centred, can give pupils the freedom to learn (Rogers & Freiberg, 1994). These counterarguments raise valid points in light of the evaluation of the secondary SEAL materials. Teachers feel competing pressure when trying to deliver the SEAL materials (Humphrey, et al., 2010) and so Ecclestone & Hayes' (2009) argument that this could be at the expense of pedagogy is possibly valid. However as it has been suggested that a more embedded whole school approach to promoting emotional wellbeing would be effective (Humphrey, et al., 2010; Weare & Gray, 2003) Rogers and Freiberg's argument is also possibly valid. Whilst Ecclestone & Hayes (2009)

promote a more pedagogical focus in education and less focus on emotions, there remains a required focus on the promotion of emotional wellbeing (Department for Education, 2011). Hence an approach which does not require additional ‘therapeutic’ interventions focusing solely on emotional wellbeing, but allows for learning to take place in an environment underpinned by therapeutic principles, would seem like an appropriate solution.

Rogers and Freiberg’s (1994) humanist, person centred approach to education might be appropriate in the current political climate and current emphasis on evidence based practice. After years of practice, this approach has an evidence base, demonstrating positive outcomes for young people (Cornelius-White, 2007; Rogers & Freiberg, 1994). It recognises the importance of certain qualities in the teachers, which contribute to the development of a good teacher-pupil relationship that facilitates learning (Rogers & Freiberg, 1994). It has been argued that humanistic psychology focuses primarily on the individual and that this is at the expense of the wider society (Prilleltensky, 1992). This argument asserts that those concerned with ‘human welfare’ should consider the societal status quo. Whilst it was beyond the scope of this thesis to consider the society in which the pupils live, it considered the societal impact on the individual at the level of the school, specifically focusing on the relationship between the teachers and pupils. It should be noted that this approach has been shown to facilitate learning and lead to positive outcomes for young people (Cornelius-White, 2007; Rogers & Freiberg, 1994), which potentially could influence their role in society and hence affect the status quo.

Rogers and Freiberg (1994) identified the following teacher qualities as central to the interpersonal relationship between teachers and pupils, which facilitates learning:

- Realness – ‘when the facilitator is a real person... entering into a relationship with the learner without presenting a front or a façade’ (Rogers & Freiberg, 1994, p. 154);
- Prizing, Acceptance and Trust – ‘prizing the learner... her feelings...her opinions...her person’, ‘acceptance of this other individual as a separate person who has worth in her own

right', 'a belief that this other person is somehow fundamentally trustworthy' (Rogers & Freiberg, 1994, p. 156); and

- Empathetic Understanding – 'the ability to understand the student's reactions from the inside, ...a sense of awareness of the way the process of education and learning seems to the student.' (Rogers & Freiberg, 1994, p. 157).

In light of criticisms of Humanistic Psychology (Prilleltensky, 1992) and therapeutic approaches to education (Ecclestone & Hayes, 2009), this research aimed to question whether these qualities are congruent with what pupils perceive is needed for a good teacher pupil relationship, in order to facilitate learning and promote emotional wellbeing.

2.1.4 Research question

In an effort to establish what teachers can be doing to raise the self-esteem of their pupils, this study aims to explore pupils' perceptions of a good teacher pupil relationship, consider whether these would be congruent with Rogers and Freiberg's (1994) humanist approach to education, and whether they can be achieved without what Ecclestone and Hayes (2009) describes as the expense of pedagogy. In order to gather data to explore the identified areas, the following question was asked:

What do Year 10 pupils at an English high school perceive a good teacher-pupil relationship to be?

2.2 Method

2.2.1 Approach

A phenomenological approach was taken in this study as the aim was to explore the pupils' perceptions of the phenomenon that was the teacher pupil relationship. It was recognised that people's perceptions of a phenomenon are subjective and can differ. Whilst this has been identified as a limitation of this approach (Bryman, 2008), it is considered that people's experiences of a phenomenon are different and so this study did not aim to establish an objective view of what a teacher pupil relationship is. In addition to this, whilst efforts

were made to verify the author's interpretations with participants, the study involved the author's own subjective interpretation of the participants' perceptions.

The participants were involved as researchers in an effort to focus on the pupils' voice. This is recognised as important (United Nations, 1989) and somewhat underrepresented in the field of education research in the United Kingdom (Clark, 2004). It was known that there are difficulties with this approach in relation to ethics, methodology and power (Clark, 2004). It was difficult to ensure that the participants were fully included as researchers with power over decision making, whilst adhering to ethical guidelines, time scales and the initial aim of the research. For this reason the author maintained oversight of the research, whilst involving the participants wherever possible in the decision making.

2.2.2 Participants

This study was carried out in a high school in the North East of England. The high school is part of a three tier school system with first schools educating children aged 4 to 9, middle schools educating children aged 9 to 13 and high schools educating children aged 13 to 16. The high school has 761 pupils on roll and 167 pupils in year 10. The participants were sampled from the Y10 cohort as they would have had more time to develop their relationships with teachers than the new year 9 cohort. The year 10 cohort would also have a smaller work load than the year 11 cohort and hence a greater availability of time to participate in the study. The head of year 10 was asked to select 10 pupils to participate in a focus group. He was advised to choose students with a variety of academic levels, personalities, behaviour and confidence. It has been suggested that focus groups can be difficult to organise due to lack of participants (Bryman, 2008) and so the author of this study invited more participants than necessary. Of the 10 pupils invited to participate all agreed, however only 6 attended the focus group sessions. Of the 6 focus group participants; 3 pupils were male and 3 were female, 5 pupils were White and 1 was Asian. All students in the year group were subsequently invited to participate in a survey to triangulate the findings of the focus group. The pupils

and staff were briefed about the study during a school assembly and a letter was sent to the pupils and their parents explaining what their participation in the study would involve and asking for parental consent for the pupils to participate. Consent was gathered from the parents of all participants for both the focus group and the survey.

2.2.3 Procedures

A focus group was used to gather pupil's views. As the researcher was taking a phenomenological stance during this study, focus groups enabled the participants to express their own perspectives, whilst jointly constructing their meaning of the concept in their group and identifying important and significant issues relating to the topic (Bagnoli & Clark, 2010; Bryman, 2008). Focus groups are thought to be a useful way of involving the participants as active researchers in the planning process (Bagnoli & Clark, 2010). Focus group discussions are often recorded and transcribed and then the transcriptions are analysed. This can be a limitation of this research method as the transcription of group discussions can be difficult and time consuming (Bryman, 2008). In addition to this, thematic analysis of the transcription requires the researcher to create their own meaning of the discussion and identify themes which they see in the discussion. Due to the phenomenological stance adopted by the researcher, a process which relied less on the researcher's interpretation of the discussion was used. The participants were required to write down their own perspectives on a diagram (Appendix 1), as an alternative to recording and transcribing the discussion. This diagram focussed on teacher pupil relationships, giving space to write about a good relationship which the pupil has, an excellent relationship, defined as the best relationship that they could imagine and a poor relationship, defined as the worst relationship that they could imagine. The diagram also gave space for the pupils to record what would be common to these three relationships.

It has been suggested that another limitation of focus groups is that there may be reluctant speakers or speakers who dominate the conversation (Bryman, 2008). The focus group met with the researcher prior to the research discussion and the research was explained. An open discussion took place to

encourage interactions and conversation between the group members and the researcher, in the hope that the participants would be more likely to engage in later discussions. At this stage the participants were involved in planning the next session as part of the participant researcher role (Clark, 2004). In another effort to avoid missing anybody's views due to reluctance to speak or dominance of another speaker, the participants were asked to record their views individually before entering into the group research discussion and then add to these written views after the discussion. During the discussion the researcher reflected back to the group what they were discussing, using the words and language they used. If the group agreed that what the researcher was saying was an accurate reflection of their views then this was recorded by the researcher on an additional copy of the diagram. Following the discussion the written responses were grouped into themes by the researcher using guidelines outlined by Braun and Clark (2006). Whilst it was recognised that this was not consistent with the phenomenological approach, time constraints meant that the pupils were unable to group the responses themselves. Inductive analysis was initially used by the researcher, who coded the responses and grouped the codes into themes they perceived to be present. The responses were grouped a second time using theoretical analysis. This analysis considered if the responses referred to any of the qualities of a teacher identified by Rogers and Freiberg (1994) in their humanist approach to education.

Following the inductive thematic analysis of the written responses, the 6 participants of the group met again to discuss the identified themes with the greatest number of responses and their content statements. The group were asked to rate the statements on a scale of one to four depending on how much they agreed with them. The highest ranked statements were then used as a basis for the questions to be posed to the rest of their year group. The statements were reworded by the group to form questions, which the group felt that their peers would understand. Four of the statements were negative and five positive and they were ordered randomly to avoid participants giving a pattern of answers. The questions were put together into an online survey, with an additional open question regarding teacher pupil relationships, to allow for other views to be added. The participants were involved in the design of the

survey in an effort to ensure that the research remained representative of their views and experiences (Bagnoli & Clark, 2010). The online survey (Appendix 2) was subsequently made available to the rest of the year 10 cohort using the online resource Survey Monkey. All year 10 pupils, who had parental consent to participate in the study, were offered the opportunity to complete the survey during a tutor group session. The result of the survey were analysed using chi square distribution tests, to ensure that the views identified were not evenly distributed. The responses to the open questions were grouped into themes by the researcher using inductive analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) to enrich the data gathered from the focus group and also grouped into themes using theoretical analysis considering the qualities of a teacher identified by Rogers and Freiberg (1994) in their humanist approach to education.

2.3 Results

2.3.1 *Focus group*

14 themes were identified in the written responses given by the focus group, as outlined in the table below. The number of responses given which were grouped into each theme varied between 1 and 12. Of the 51 written responses given by the focus group, 10 responses were counted in two themes as they related to both categories.

Theme	Number of responses	Examples from the theme
Friendliness	12	friendly; nice; normal; not grumpy; not bossy; kindness
School work	9	pushes you to work harder; encourages you; pitches work at your level
Knowing the pupil	6	knows you well; knows your level of work
Rewards	5	lets you sit with your mates; give rewards
Helpfulness	4	tries to help you; explains work well
Talking	4	chats about work and other stuff; talks to you outside of lessons
Fairness	4	fair; doesn't accuse you of things you don't do
Reciprocal relationship	4	mutual respect; mutual kindness
Fun	3	has a laugh; makes things fun
Respect	3	doesn't treat you like a child; respect for each other
Balance of friendly and strict	2	not too nice; not too strict
Combination of lessons and personal	2	about more than just education
Shouting	2	doesn't shout at you
Trust	1	always there to talk to in confidence

Table 2.1: themes identified in the written responses given by the focus group.

Table 2.2 shows how the responses were distributed across the teacher qualities identified in the humanist approach to education (Rogers & Freiberg, 1994). Those responses which did not correspond to any of the three categories were categorised as 'other'.

Teacher qualities	Number of responses
Realness	16
Prizing, Acceptance and Trust	29
Empathy	0
Other	6

Table 2.2: Focus group's written responses grouped according to Rogers and Freiberg's (1994) teacher qualities

It was noticed that many of the written statements referred more to the teacher, than the pupil and so the responses were grouped to see if there was a significant amount relating to the teacher. A chi-square test demonstrated that the difference was highly significant $\chi^2 (2, N=51) = 21.67, p < 0.001$

Who the response relates to	Percentage of responses
Teachers	86%
Pupils	4%
Both	10%

Table 2.3: Percentage of responses to the open ended question relating teachers, pupils or both.

2.3.2 Online survey

Of the 161 students invited to complete the online survey 51 responded, a 32% response rate. The results of the chi square tests demonstrated that the answers were not evenly distributed across the four categories of strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree. All answers were significantly different from an even spread and as outlined in table 2.4 the majority of the responses given by the Y10 cohort surveyed, agreed with the responses given by the focus group, for each question.

Survey statement	Chi-square statistics and significance levels	Percentage agreement / disagreement	Focus Group Response
When a teacher is fair.	χ^2 (3, N=47) =17.38, p<0.001	100% Agree	Agree
When a teacher acts like a normal person.	χ^2 (3, N=47) =11.16, p<0.001	96% Agree	Agree
When a teacher is strict and bossy.	χ^2 (3, N=47) =5.51, p<0.05	76% Disagree	Disagree
When a teacher explains work well.	χ^2 (3, N=47) =7.72, p<0.01	90% Agree	Agree
When a teacher does not give rewards.	χ^2 (3, N=47) =11, p<0.01	84% Disagree	Disagree
When the teacher and pupil show each other respect.	χ^2 (3, N=47) =10.36, p<0.001	96% Agree	Agree
When the teacher doesn't know the pupil well.	χ^2 (3, N=47) =9.97, p<0.01	80% Disagree	Disagree
When the teacher talks to you about work and other stuff.	χ^2 (3, N=47) =13.89, p<0.001	92% Agree	Agree
When the teacher makes you work in silence.	χ^2 (3, N=47) =5.89, p<0.001<0.05	86% Disagree	Disagree

Table 2.4: Responses given to the online survey, compared to the views of the focus group.

10 themes were identified in the responses given to the open ended survey question, as outlined in table 2.5. The number of responses given which were grouped into each theme varied between 1 and 9.

<i>Theme</i>	<i>Number of responses</i>	<i>Examples of the theme</i>
Personal qualities of the teacher	9	calm; nice; fair; laid back
Communication	9	when the pupil can go to the teacher with something to talk about that isn't about anything school wise; listen to each other; I like to talk to them about my family and to have a little chatting session
Fun	8	has a laugh but makes us learn too; the teacher has to be able to take a joke
Help	7	when a teacher offers help if they know you are struggling; helping you to improve work that is not as good
Rewards	5	sit next to our friends so we can socialise with mates as doing work; them praising
Work	4	when the teacher goes through the work step by step with the class ; the pupil commits to doing their work
Getting along	3	get along with each other; when both the teacher and pupil get on well
Respect	3	a balanced level of respect between both; when they respect your needs
Personal qualities of both teacher and pupil	1	enthusiasm from both teacher and pupil
Personal qualities of pupil	1	discipline from pupils

Table 2.5: Themes identified in the responses to the open ended question of the online survey.

Table 2.6 shows how the responses were distributed across the teacher qualities identified in the humanist approach to education. Those responses

which did not correspond to any of the three categories were categorised as 'other'.

Teacher qualities	Number of responses
Realness	8
Prizing, Acceptance and Trust	24
Empathy	0
Other	18

Table 2.6: Responses to the open ended question in the online survey, grouped according to Rogers and Freiberg's (1994) teacher qualities

Many of the responses to the open question also referred more to the teacher than the pupil, and so the responses were grouped to see if there was a significant proportion relating to the teacher. A chi-square test demonstrated that the difference was significant $\chi^2 (2, N=50) = 9.01$, $p < 0.05$

Who the response relates to	Percentage of responses
Teachers	64%
Pupils	4%
Both	32%

Table 2.7: Table showing the percentage of responses to the open ended question relating teachers, pupils or both.

2.4 Discussion

2.4.1 Humanist qualities

In the themes of friendliness, helpfulness, fairness and personal qualities of the teacher many of the statements related to personal qualities such as being nice, normal and kind. Many of these statements were about the teacher as a person and what Rogers and Freiberg (1994) might call the 'realness' of the teacher. The 'realness' of the teacher was something which was discussed during the focus group. More than a third of the written statements related to 'realness' with the participants stating that the relationships are about 'more than just education' and that the pupils should be able to 'get along with' the teacher.

Whilst this wasn't as prevalent in the open responses of the survey it was still evident and pupils stated that teachers should be 'laid back' and 'friendly'.

The most prevalent theme in the focus group was 'friendliness' and the most prevalent theme in the open ended responses was 'personal qualities of the teacher'. Both of these themes bear similarities to Rogers and Freiberg's (1994) quality of 'realness'. To allow the pupils to see them as a 'normal' person, the class teacher would have to be prepared to show personal qualities to their pupils (Rogers & Freiberg, 1994). Much of the focus group discussion around what a teacher does when they are a 'normal' person, centred on the teacher allowing the pupils to know some minor personal details, such as which football team they supported or what kind of music they liked. Details like these allow pupils to have a glimpse into different elements of the teacher's life and construct a multi faceted view of them as a person, rather than just seeing them as a teacher. Discussing elements of their personal life isn't something that all teachers are comfortable with and there are limits to what a teacher should be expected to reveal about their personal lives (Aultman, Williams-Johnson, & Schutz, 2009). The participants of the focus group were keen to point out that they didn't want to know a lot about the details of their teachers' personal lives, just enough to help them see their teachers as 'human beings'. This would seem to support Aultman et al's (2009) view, that boundaries are important in maintaining effective teacher pupil relationships.

Rogers and Freiberg (1994) identify prizes, accepting and trusting the person as key qualities in developing good teacher pupil relationships. With regards to the focus group discussion, the teacher prizes the person, accepting and trusting them as an individual, is what leads to the teacher taking the time to know them and to meet their needs. Some participants referred to this as 'showing an interest' and 'bothering to care'. Whilst these qualities were particularly evident in the theme of work they were also present when the discussion focused on rewards. The participants discussed how they like to feel valued and that the use of rewards, or the teacher making certain concessions for them, demonstrated this. Participants referred to teachers 'recognising hard work' and allowing them to 'sit with mates'. At times in the discussion participants suggested that 'no homework' and 'more free lessons' would lead

to good teacher pupil relationships. As a result of this a debate ensued as to how pupils would get through all the work needed to get their qualifications and how the teachers had a job to do and followed directions about how much work they had to cover. The participants demonstrated an understanding of the limitations placed on teachers, with regards to making concessions and an appreciation that this would have to happen within the context of conforming to school and parental expectation. Never the less, they were clear that rewards and concessions show that a teacher recognises their achievements and considers their needs, demonstrating prizing, acceptance and trust.

The third quality considered was that of Empathetic Understanding. There were no comments in either the focus groups or the survey responses which specifically referred to the teachers' Empathetic Understanding of the pupil. The pupil's involved placed very little emphasis on the teacher understanding them and responding empathetically to their feelings. It could be argued that this supports the view that an emphasis on emotions and feelings is not required for teachers to relate to the pupils in a way which facilitates learning (Ecclestone & Hayes, 2009).

2.4.2 Balance of responsibility and power

Whilst this paper focused on the pupils' perceptions of their relationships with teachers, it should be noted that these relationships are reciprocal (Aultman, et al., 2009; Schlechty & Atwood, 1977). This is not something which was evident in the pupils' responses. The majority of their responses placed the responsibility for the relationship with the teacher. Some teachers can find this a difficult responsibility to have, whilst maintaining an ethical and professional role (Aultman, et al., 2009; McLaughlin, 1991). A search for teacher pupil relationships on the Times Educational Supplement internet forum, revealed many discussions about the perceived dangers of these relationships and issues regarding the boundaries of them (TES Education Ltd, 2011).

The traditional view of the teacher is one of somebody who holds the power and is in control of the class, somebody who acts in order for the pupils to respond (Schlechty & Atwood, 1977). There are concerns that having a good

relationship with pupils would lead to a lack of control over the class and a shift of power (Aultman, et al., 2009; McLaughlin, 1991). Prilleltensky (1992), when critiquing Humanistic Psychology, argued that it does not challenge the societal status quo as it is too individualistic. It could be argued that by encouraging the reciprocal relationships, Rogers and Frieberg's (1994) approach is changing the traditional power balance between teacher and pupil (McLaughlin, 1991; Schlechty & Atwood, 1977) and hence facilitating change in the classroom. Power shift and interactions are recognised as important factors in learning and change:

'Empowering conditions in organizations and communities serve as the infrastructure for the human interaction needed for change to occur. They are safe holding environments for people to engage in dialogue, learning, action and reflection' (Evans & Loomis, 2009, p. 385)

It would seem that the pupils in this study perceive the responsibility for the relationship as being the teacher's, indicating that they see the power and ability to change the situation, as being with the teacher. This would suggest that the traditional view of the teacher holding the power is held by these pupils.

2.4.3 Working relationship

It may be surprising to some how prevalent work was in the focus group discussion. The relationship between teacher and pupil was clearly regarded as one which had a balance between a working relationship and a personal relationship. The participants in the focus group were clear that one purpose of the relationship was to enable the pupil to make progress academically and engage in learning. This would seem to support Ecclestone and Hayes' (2009) argument that a balance between pedagogy and emotional wellbeing is needed. The discussion focussed on the work being of an appropriate level for pupils and how much effort a teacher would invest. There was a clear sense that the pupils saw the importance of work being pitched at an appropriate level and more specifically the importance of the teacher knowing the pupils to enable this to happen. The participants demonstrated an expectation that teachers should

take the time to get to know the pupils academically, plan the work accordingly and monitor the pupils to ensure that they can engage in the work. The discussion involved the teacher showing an interest in the pupil as an individual and a sense that the teacher prizes the pupil and wants them to succeed. An element of prizes is something central to a relationship as is investing time in the other person (Cornelius-White, 2007; Rogers & Freiberg, 1994).

2.4.4 *Enjoyment*

The pupil's enjoyment of a lesson and the opportunities to have fun with the teacher were prevalent theme across the study. Whilst it is acknowledged that this involves the teacher trusting the pupil there are other elements identified in this theme which has lead to the discussion of this as a separate topic. For example pupils stated that they would like to 'sit next to our friends so we can socialise with mates as doing work'. This involves an element of the teacher trusting the pupils to still do their work but seems to be more about the pupils' enjoyment of the lesson. Whilst the responses would refer to 'having a laugh' the participants also discussed making the lessons fun, enjoyable and interesting. This level of quality pedagogy and teacher support is important and is associated with academic performance (Klem & Connell, 2004; Newmann, Marks, & Gamoran, 1996). The discussion identified the need for a balance of fun and learning, for making the 'lessons more enjoyable but all the while keeping order' and something which is 'a laugh but makes us learn too.' It was evident from the discussion that the participants wanted to find lessons interesting but didn't want to 'work in silence' or 'just write'. Quality pedagogy and a good teacher pupil relationship is believed to contribute to engagement and enjoyment of learning (Klem & Connell, 2004; Newmann, et al., 1996).

The enjoyment of learning also involves the teacher prizes the pupil, knowing what they will enjoy and trusting them to engage appropriately. It is discussed separately in this paper as it relates to the teacher's delivery of the curriculum as well as their relationship with the pupil. There is a drive for teachers to be more creative in their delivery of lessons and make learning an enjoyable experience. This is closely linked to having a good relationship with the pupil as without trust in the pupils, different teaching styles could not be explored. In

addition to this without a prizing and acceptance of the pupil as an individual the teacher would not be able to gauge what would interest the pupil and what they would enjoy.

2.4.5 Communication

Talking and listening were recurring elements in the study. At times the discussion related to getting to know the teacher as a real person, but it mostly related to the pupils having somebody to talk to and the teachers listening to the pupils. A teacher identified by the focus group participants as somebody who they all had a good relationship with, was regularly observed making informal, but meaningful, contact with the pupils between lessons. They would greet the pupils when passing them in the corridor and ask questions which demonstrated a good knowledge of the pupils. Communication is such an intrinsic part of a relationship and it has been identified as a key feature in this study. Having the time to engage in conversations with individual pupils, which aren't work related, may be something of a luxury in teaching, considering the constraints of the timetable. However the approach of the teacher mentioned did not take a great deal of additional time on the part of the teacher, but would have taken an initial effort to gain the knowledge about the pupils, in order to make enquiries when greeting them. It would seem that having the time to communicate creates a forum whereby pupils and teachers can get to know each other. This in turn would create a greater opportunity for the realness of the teacher to be explored and the prizing and acceptance of the pupil to be developed along with a sense of trust. It would seem that communication regarding both learning and more personal issues could hold the key to developing good teacher pupil relationships.

In first schools and primary schools there are more opportunities for teachers to communicate with their pupils and more opportunities to develop relationships. In secondary schools, middle schools and high schools teachers work with more pupils for shorter periods of time and so have more relationships to develop with less time to do so. It follows that it may be more difficult to develop good teacher pupil relationship in these schools than it would be in first schools and primary schools. This study has identified the need for

communication to develop these relationships and so it would seem that there is a need in secondary schools, middle schools and high schools to provide time and space for teachers and pupils to communicate and develop their relationships.

2.5 Conclusions

The perceptions of the pupils in this study, regarding a good teacher pupil relationship, were congruent with some of the teacher qualities identified in the humanist approach to education. In addition to Rogers and Freiberg's (1994) concepts of realness, prizing, acceptance and trust, the pupils recognised the need for this relationship to be a work based relationship as well as a personal one and quality pedagogy and learning were prevalent factors in this study. It was evident that the pupils placed the responsibility for developing the relationship largely with the teacher, indicating a perceived power imbalance.

It should be noted that good teacher pupil relationships have been shown to impact positively on both the emotional wellbeing and the academic outcomes of pupils (Cornelius-White, 2007; Klem & Connell, 2004). Whilst Ecclestone and Hayes (2009) argue that a therapeutic approach to education can be at the expense of pedagogy, this study argues that if an approach incorporates a balance of therapeutic underpinnings and pedagogy it can be effective. It is argued that the therapeutic underpinnings of the humanist approach, alongside communication, can develop a good relationship, but that the addition of quality pedagogy enables this to be a productive working relationship, which facilitates learning. In this respect Ecclestone and Hayes' (2009) concern about the expense of pedagogy and a suitable balance is addressed.

The proposed model of a good teacher pupil relationship (figure 2.1) is based on the pupil perceptions identified in this study. This model suggests that a good working relationship between the teacher and pupil involves the humanist qualities of genuineness, acceptance, prizing and trust, as well as communication and quality pedagogy. It proposes that learning is facilitated by this good working relationship and this will result in the development of academic skills and emotional wellbeing.

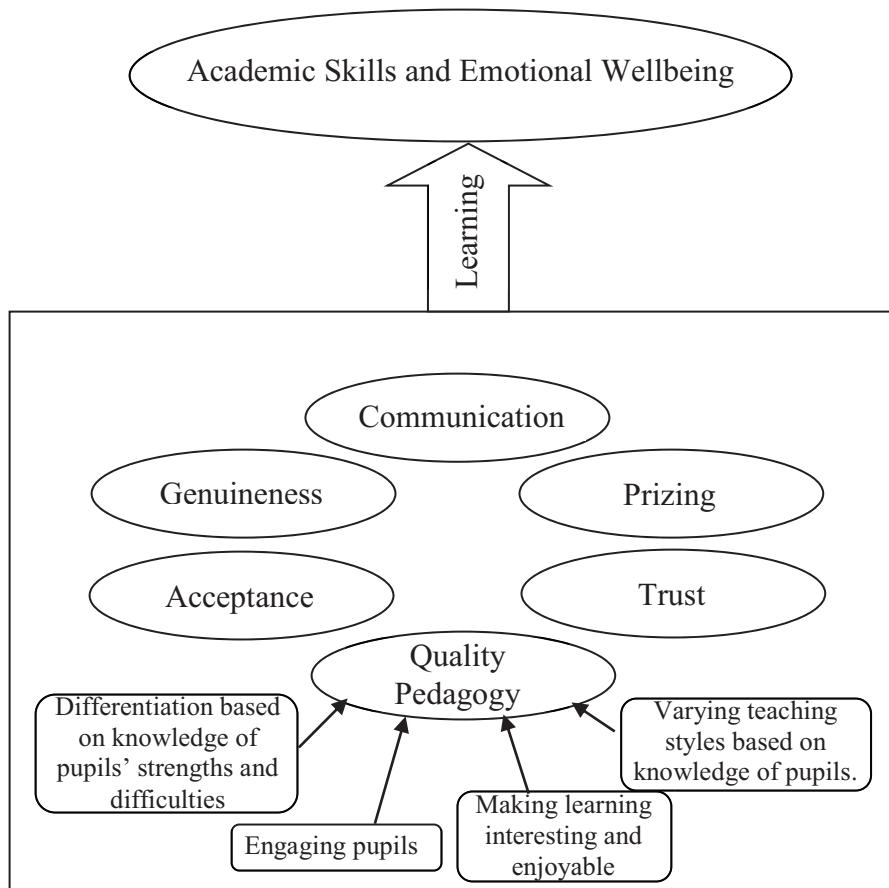


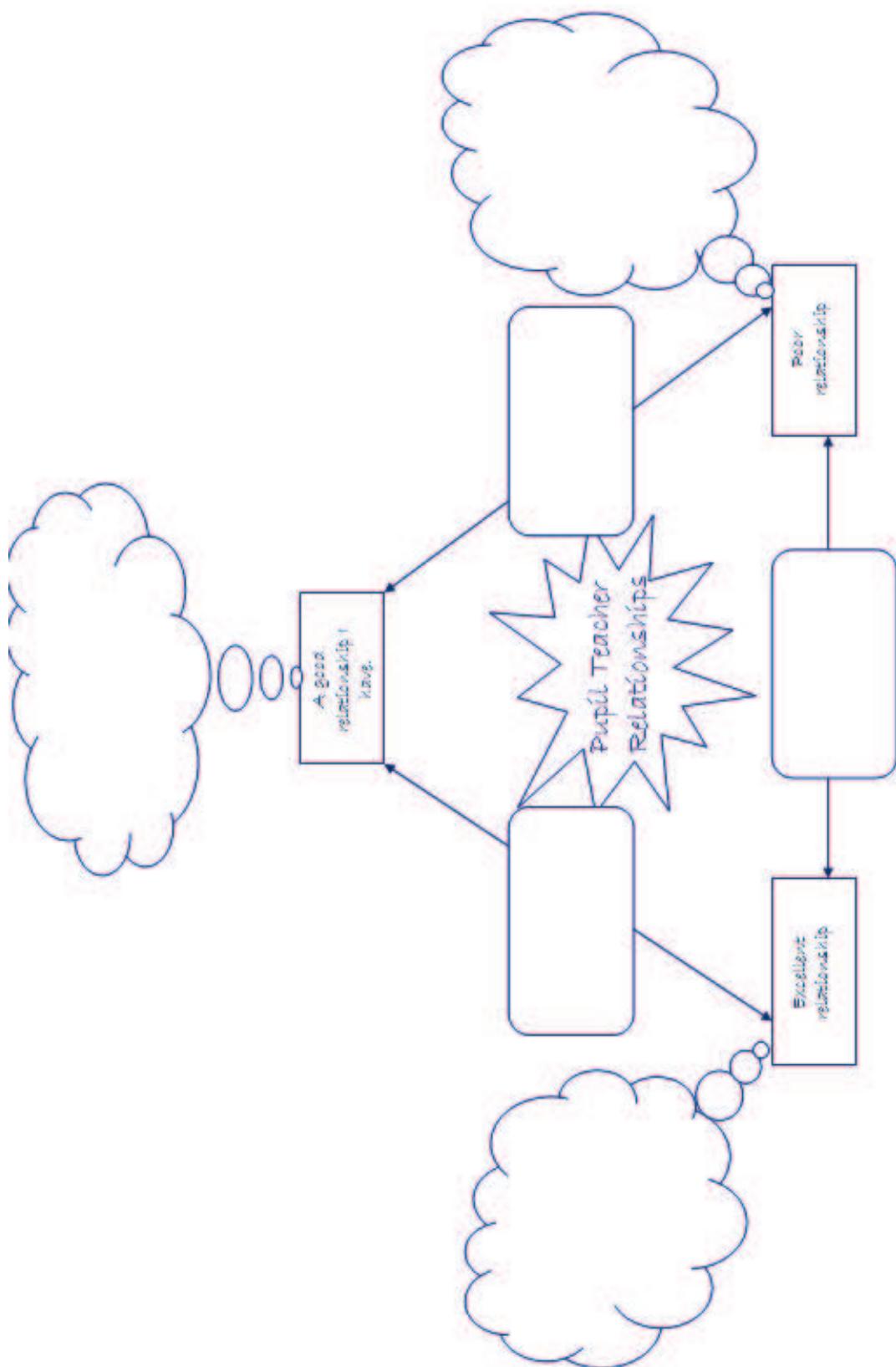
Figure 2.1 Model of an effective teacher pupil relationship.

Further research into what pupils' perceive their role to be in the relationships would be beneficial to gather a more holistic view. As it is recognised that the teachers' voice is somewhat lacking in educational research, in the United Kingdom (Clark, 2004), it would also be beneficial for further research to explore the teachers' perceptions of a good teacher pupil relationship and consider how these compare to the perceptions of the pupils.

Further exploration of the working relationships between pupils and teachers could be beneficial in understanding what facilitates learning and enables pupils to develop holistically. A better understanding amongst education professional of what facilitates learning would enable them to develop their practice and that of others in an effort to become more effective educators.

Word Count 5335

Appendix A



Appendix B

Online Questionnaire

Below are some things which we have identified as being part of teacher - pupil relationships. We want to know whether you agree or disagree that these things help to make a good relationship.

1. When a teacher is fair.

strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree

2. When a teacher acts like a normal person.

strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree

3. When a teacher is strict and bossy.

strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree

4. When a teacher explains work well.

strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree

5. When a teacher does not give rewards.

strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree

6. When the teacher and the pupil show each other respect.

strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree

7. When the teacher doesn't know the pupil well.

strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree

8. When the teacher talks to you about work and other stuff.

strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree

9. When the teacher makes you work in silence.

strongly
agree

agree

disagree

strongly
disagree

10. What else helps to make a good teacher-pupil relationship. This can be anything about the teacher, the pupil or both of them.

References

Aultman, L. P., Williams-Johnson, M. R., & Schutz, P. A. (2009). Boundary dilemas in teacher-student relationships: Struggling with "the line". *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25, 636-646.

Bagnoli, A., & Clark, A. (2010). Focus groups with young people: a participatory approach to research planning. *Journal of Youth Studies*, 13(1), 101-119.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using Thematic Analysis in Psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3.

Brown, J. D., & Marshall, M. A. (2006). The Three Faces of Self-Esteem. In M. H. Kernis (Ed.), *Self-Esteem Issues and Answers: A Source Book of Current Perspectives* (pp. 4-9). New York: Psychology Press.

Bryant, D., Willits, K., & Hason, B. (2009). Principles of Designing a Cohort Study in Orthopaedics. *The Journal of Bone and Joint Surgery*, 91, 10-14.

Bryman, A. (2008). *Social Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Campbell, J. D., & Lavallee, L. F. (1993). Who Am I? The Role of Self-Concept Confusion in Understanding the Behaviour of People With Low Self-Esteem. In R. F. Baumeister (Ed.), *Schools Handbook: a guide to the Healthy Schools Enhancement Model* (pp. 3-20). New York and London: Plenum Press

CASP. (2004). Cohort Study Critical Appraisal Tool. Retrieved 18th December, 2009, from http://www.phru.nhs.uk/Doc_Links/cohort%2012%20questions.pdf

CASP. (2006a). Qualitative Critical Appraisal Tool. Retrieved 18th December, 2009, from http://www.phru.nhs.uk/Doc_Links/Qualitative%20Appraisal%20Tool.pdf

CASP. (2006b). Randomised Control Trial Appraisal Tool. Retrieved 18th December, 2009, from http://www.phru.nhs.uk/Doc_Links/rct%20appraisal%20tool.pdf

Chirkov, V. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2001). Parent and Teacher Autonomy-Support In Russian and U.S. Adolescents: Common Effects on Well-being and Academic Motivation. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 32(5), 618-635.

Clark, J. (2004). Participatory research with children and young people: philosophy, possibilities and perils. *Action Research Expeditions*, 4(November), 1-18.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences*, (2nd edition ed.). Erlbaum: Hillsdale.

Colarossi, L., & Eccles, J. S. (2003). Differential Effects of Support Providers on Adolescents' Mental Health. *Social Work Research*, 27(1), 19-30.

Cornelius-White, J. (2007). Learner-Centre Teacher-Student Relationships Are Effective: A Meta-Analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(113), 113-143.

Covell, K., & Howe, B. R. (2001). Moral education through the 3 Rs: rights, respect and responsibility. *Journal of Moral Education*, 30(1), 29-41.

Covington, M. V. (2001). The Science and Politics of Self-Esteem: Schools Caught in the Middle. In Owens, T., Stryker, S. & Goodman, N. (Eds.), *Extending Self-Esteem Theory and Research* (pp. 351-374). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Covington, M. V. (2006). How Can Optimal Self-Esteem be Facilitated in Children and Adolescents by Parents and Teachers? In M. H. Kernis (Ed.), *Self-Esteem Issues and Answers: A Source Book of Current Perspectives* (pp. 244-250). New York: Psychology Press.

DCSF. (2007a). *Aiming high for young people: a ten year strategy for positive activities*. London: HM Treasury.

DCSF. (2007b). *The Children's Plan: Building Brighter Futures*. Norwich: The Stationery Office.

DCSF. (2008). *Targeted Mental Health in School - Using the evidence to inform your approach: a practical guide for head teachers and commissioners*. Norwich: DSCF Publications.

DCSF & DH. (2010). National Healthy School Programme. Retrieved 8th January, 2010, from <http://home.healthyschools.gov.uk/>

Department for Education. (2011). Healthy Schools Toolkit. Available from <http://www.education.gov.uk/childrenandyoungpeople/healthandwellbeing/a0075278/healthy-schools>

DfES. (2003). *Every Child Matters: Change for Children*. Nottingham: Department for Education and Skills.

DfES. (2005). *Excellence and Enjoyment: Social, Emotional Aspects of Learning - Guidance*. Nottingham: Department for Education and Skills.

DfES. (2007). *Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning for Secondary Schools (SEAL) - Guidance Booklet*. Nottingham: DfES.

Ecclestone, K., & Hayes, D. (2009). *The Dangerous Rise of Therapeutic Education*. Oxon: Routledge.

Elliott, G. C. (2001). The Self as Social Product and Social Force: Morris Rosenberg and the Elaboration of Deceptively Simple Effect. In Owens, T., Stryker, S. &

Goodman, N. (Eds.), *Extending Self-Esteem Theory and Research* (pp. 10-28). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Encarta. (2010). MSN Encarta Thesaurus. Retrieved 24th July, 2010, from http://encarta.msn.com/thesaurus__/thesaurus.html

EPPI. (2009). Quality and Relevance Appraisal. Retrieved 18th December, 2009, from <http://eppi.ioe.ac.uk/cms/Default.aspx?tabid=177>

Evans, S. D., & Loomis, C. (2009). Organizational and Community Change. In Fox, D., Prilleltensky, I., & Austin, S. (Ed.), *Critical Psychology An Introduction* (Second ed.). London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Gerdes, K., & Stromwall, L. (2009). Utilizing a measure of problem-solving strengths to increase students' self-esteem. *School Social Work Journal*, 33(2), 26-43.

Harter, S. (1993). Causes and Consequences of Low Self-Esteem in Children and Adolescents. In Baumeister, R. (Ed.), *Self-Esteem The Puzzle of Low Self-Regard* (pp. 87-116). New York and London: Plenum Press.

Hattie, J. (2009). *Visible Learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analysis relating to achievement*. London and New York: Routledge.

Humphrey, N., Lendrum, A., & Wigelsworth, M. (2010). *Social and emotional aspects of learning (SEAL) programme in secondary schools: national evaluation* (No. DFE-RR049). London: Department for Education.

James, W. (1890/1963). *The principles of psychology*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston (original work published 1890).

Klem, A., & Connell, J. (2004). Relationships Matter: Linking Teacher Support to Student Engagement and Achievement. *Journal of School Health*, 74(4), 262-273.

Lee, L. (2002). *Congruence between student self-evaluation and perceived teacher evaluation : the mediating effect on the relationship between academic achievement and academic self-concept* University of New South Wales, Kensington.

Marsh, H. (2006). *Self-concept theory, measurement and research into practice: The role of self-concept in educational psychology*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Education Section of The British Psychological Society.

Marsh, H., & Shavelson, R. (1985). Self-concept: Its multifaceted, hierarchical structure. *Educational Psychologist*, 20, 107-125.

Martin, J., Marsh, H., McInerney, D. M., Green, J., & Dowson, M. (2007). Getting along with teachers and parents: The yields of good relationships for students'

achievement motivation and self-esteem. *Australian Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, 17(2), 109-125.

McLaughlin, H. J. (1991). Reconciling care and control authority in classroom relationships. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 42(3), 182-195.

Mruk, C. J. (2006). Defining Self-Esteem: An Often Overlooked Issue with Crucial Implications. In Kernis, M. (Ed.), *Self-Esteem Issues and Answers: A Source Book of Current Perspectives* (pp. 10-15). New York: Psychology Press.

Nakagawa, S., & Cuthill., I. (2007). Effect size, confidence interval and statistical significance: a practical guide for biologists. *Biological Reviews*, 82, 591-605.

National Advisory Council for Children's Mental Health and Psychological Wellbeing. (2010). *One Year On: the first report from the National Advisory Council for Children's Mental Health and Psychological Wellbeing*. Nottingham: DCSF Publications.

Newmann, F., Marks, H., & Gamoran, A. (1996). Authentic Pedagogy and Student Performance. *American Journal of Education*, 104(4), 280-312.

O'Dea, J. & Abraham, S. (2000). Improving the body image, eating attitudes and behaviours of young male and female adolescents: a new educational approach that focuses on self-esteem. *International Journal of Eating Disorders*, 28(1), 43-57.

O'Mara, A. J., Marsh, H., Craven, R. G., & Debus, R. L. (2006). Do Self-Concept Interventions Make a Difference? A Synergistic Blend of Construct Validation and Meta-Analysis. *Educational Psychologist*, 41(3), 181-206.

Owens, T., & Stryker, S. (2001). The Future of Self-Esteem: An Introduction. In Owens, T., Stryker, S. & Goodman, N. (Eds.), *Extending Self-Esteem Theory and Research* (pp. 1-9). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Owens, T., Stryker, S., & Goodman, N. (2001). *Extending Self-Esteem Theory and Research*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Petticrew, M., & Roberts, H. (2006). *Systematic Reviews in the Social Sciences: A Practical Guide*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Pollard, A. (2001). *Social World of Children's Learning*. London: Continuum International Publishing Group.

Prilleltensky, I. (1992). Humanistic Psychology, Human Welfare and the Social Order. *The Journal of Mind And Behaviour*, 13(4), 315-327.

Reddy, R., Rhodes, J. E., & Mulhall, P. (2003). The influence of teacher support on students adjustment in the middle school years: a latent growth curve study. *Developmental & Psychopathology, 15*(1), 119-138.

Rogers, C., & Freiberg, H. (1994). *Freedom to Learn* (Third ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent child*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Schlechty, P. C., & Atwood, H. E. (1977). The student-teacer relationship. *Theory into Practice, 16*(4), 285-289.

Shavelson, R. J., Hubner, J. J., & Stanton, G. C. (1976). Validation of construct interpretations. *Review of Educational Research, 46*, 407-441.

Sonnenburg, D. (2007). *A descriptive study of middle-grade transition strategies and structures perceived by middle-grade administrators, counsellors, and teachers to be effective in addressing early adolescents' social learning, identity development, self-esteem, and peer relationship needs*. University of La Verne, California.

Statham, J., & Chase, E. (2010). *Childhood Wellbeing: A Brief Overview*. Retrieved from <http://www.education.gov.uk/publications/RSG/publicationDetail/Page1/Wellbeing-Brief>

TES Education Ltd. (2011). TES Connect, search results for teacher pupil relationships in forum. Retrieved 7th January, 2011, from <http://www.tes.co.uk/searchResults.aspx?area=community&keywords=teacher+pupil+relationships>

Thalheimer, W., & Cook, S. (2002). How to calculate effect sizes from published research: A simplified methodology. Retrieved 8th January, 2010, from http://work-learning.com/effect_sizes.htm.

United Nations. (1989). Convention on the Rights of the Child. Retrieved 24th January 2011 from <http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/crc.htm>

Wallace, B. (2008). Raising the motivation and self-esteem of all learners by creating a climate for all talents to flourish: Developing empowerment for life. *Perspectives in Education, 26*(3 SI), 19-28.

Weare, K., & Gray, G. (2003). *What Works in Developing Children's Emotional and Social Competence and Wellbeing?* Nottingham: DfES.