A comparison of self esteem in single-sex and co-educational secondary educational settings.

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Acknowledgments

To my mum and dad.

It is their dedication, hard work and encouragement that has allowed me to come so far with my education and career.

I would also like to thank my tutors; Jackie Masterson, and Martin Cook, for their support and advice.

1. Abstract

Reviews of research evidence supporting single-sex or co-educational schools reveal mixed findings. The majority of research in this field has addressed academic achievement rather than other aspects of self esteem.

Many factors may lead pupils to having a positive or negative experience of school. This study uses a multidimensional view of self esteem and considers the impact of the type of school a pupil attends on pupils' self esteem.

In the present study, year 8 and 10 pupils from two female single-sex, two male single-sex, and two co-educational schools participated. 1118 pupils completed the Harter Self Perception Profile, looking at seven aspects of self esteem. These were Scholastic Competence, Athletic Competence, Job Competence, Close Friendship, Romantic Appeal, Physical Appearance, Social Acceptance and Behavioural Conduct and Global Self Worth. From this sample, twelve focus groups were held to explore data arising from the questionnaires comparing males and females from single-sex and co-educational schools in order to see which systems work for each gender and how they work in different environments.

The questionnaire data revealed some effects of the type of school; however the most important factor was the gender of the pupil. Males rated themselves in general as higher than females in most of the competences except Close Friendships. Ratings appeared to decrease from year 8 to

year 10 except for Romantic Appeal. Focus groups recognised that the effect of peers and relationships with teachers had an impact on self esteem in school. Pupils identified that providing support for developing social relationships and having access to positive role models were ways to support self esteem in school.

By asking the pupils what they find beneficial and comparing what works for males and for females across different settings, targeted support from Psychology Services and schools will and can be more useful.

<u>Declaration</u>

I hereby declare that, except where explicit attribution is made, the work presented in this thesis is entirely my own.

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2. Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The aim of the current study was to compare and explore self esteem in single-sex (SS) and co-educational (CE) schools taking gender differences and age into consideration. Research in self esteem is both varied and extensive, and many claims have been put forward over the past 50 years on the basis of the research. One claim has been that single-sex schooling has positive benefits for the academic achievement of both sexes. This is supported by the majority of studies that have addressed the issue; however the effects appear more complex and less ambiguous for females than for males. A large number of studies have been conducted in several different countries, however according to Mael (1998), this is problematic as countries differ in terms of 'educational traditions, socialisation patterns, acceptance of change, family and employment structures, and even cultural and religious influences' (pp 118). It is also important to note that this predominance in research compares perceptions of academic achievement across schools rather than self esteem. It was therefore the aim in the current study to investigate and compare self esteem in SS and CE schools.

The current study will be focussing on an investigation of pupils' attitudes and self esteem in relation to school types and in relation to differences between genders. Therefore, in the literature review the researcher will firstly discuss the theories of self esteem that may be relevant to this type of

research. This will be followed by an examination of research in the areas of gender, teacher and pupil interactions, age and CE versus SS schooling, taking academic achievement studies (as previously mentioned) into consideration. Thirdly, the arguments for a multidimensional view of self esteem versus global self esteem scores are discussed. Finally, the role of Educational Psychologists (EP) to self esteem research is considered. As the breadth of EP work develops, what impact can EPs have in secondary settings and how they can best support pupils and schools with social, emotional and behavioural needs?

'I cannot think of a single psychological problem- from anxiety to depression, to underachievement at school or work, to fear of intimacy, happiness or success, to alcohol or drug abuse, to spouse battering or child molestation, to co-dependency and sexual disorders, to passivity and chronic aimlessness, to suicide and crimes of violence- that is not traceable, at least in part, to the problem of deficient self esteem.

Nathanial Branden (1994, pp15).

Eminent philosopher and psychologist.

Taken from Marsh (2005).

Emler (2001) states that within psychology alone, research papers and articles that make some reference to self esteem are appearing at a 'rate of over a thousand each year' (pp 2). Given this interest in self esteem, and the long-lasting effects low self esteem can have, it seems vital that targeted interventions and support should be available early in school.

However, the quote by Emler also identifies the breadth of the research that is available. Issues such as gender interactions between pupils and teachers within classrooms, for example, have been considered with reference to impact on self esteem. The researcher has also considered the role of the family and culture, and the impact of self esteem, however the current review does not allow for an exhaustive review of the literature. Instead, it is the literature most relevant to comparing self esteem of males and females in SS and CE schools that is covered. This will include research looking at competitive schooling, subject choices and the positive and negatives of SS/CE schooling. On the basis of issues arising from this literature, the present study was carried out with a large group of adolescent pupils in both single-sex and co-educational schools, collecting their views on self esteem both via survey and focus group methodology. Details of the study are outlined following the literature review.

2.2 Defining self esteem and considering the associated theories

Coopersmith (1967) defines self esteem as "a personal judgement of worthiness, that is expressed in the attitudes the individual holds towards himself" (pp.5). Rosenberg (1965), one of the most influential writers in the self esteem field, defines self esteem as, 'favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the self' (pp. 15). Self esteem can be displayed through an individual's confidence levels, overall contentment and motivations for new experiences and challenges (Alpay, 2000). For the purposes of this study

'self esteem' is taken to be a broad theme that encompasses self perception and self concept. However, there has been considerable thought into how these concepts have developed. Therefore this section will begin with a critical comparison of how concepts of self esteem differ and have progressed.

A variety of situations and conditions will impact upon the way young people view themselves depending on whether the individual feels they are fitting within the stereotype of a specific group and on their personal characteristics, which can be biological (e.g. genetic traits), individual (e.g. gender), cognitive (e.g. health knowledge) and practical (e.g. coping skills) (Ma, 2006). There are a number of theories that help to explain self esteem research. Theories looking at interactions between individuals and developing a sense of identity through interaction will be of obvious relevance to how pupils in schools may develop a sense of identity and self esteem. Males and females will react to and interact with their environment in different ways meaning their sense of self and coping mechanisms will differ. It will also be important to discuss how individuals attribute failure and success to themselves and to factors in the environment. Therefore following a discussion of the concepts of self esteem will be a discussion of those theories the researcher feels are related to the current research. These include theories concerning interactions, self efficacy and attributions.

2.2.1 Comparing concepts of self esteem

Studies in self esteem use the terms 'self esteem', 'self concept', and 'self worth' to describe what they are investigating; some use the terms interchangeably. However, there are some studies that seek to define and separate the concepts. Self-concept is the cognitive or thinking aspect of self (related to one's self-image) (Huitt, 2009) and generally refers to the dynamic system of learned beliefs, attitudes and opinions that each person holds to be true about his or her personal existence (Purkey, 1988). Self-esteem however, is the affective or emotional aspect of self and generally refers to how we feel about or how we value ourselves. This is often seen as similar to one's self worth. Therefore self esteem is generally considered the evaluative component of the self concept, a broader representation of the self that includes cognitive and behavioural aspects as well as evaluative or affective ones (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991). Self-concept can also refer to the general idea we have of ourselves and self-esteem can refer to particular measures about components of self-concept and how we feel about them.

Harter (1988) felt that adolescents can make more global judgements of their self worth in a more "gestalt-like evaluation" (pp. 4). She suggests that, a global self worth judgement can be tapped into directly and that this is different from those procedures that seek to define self concept as the "sum or average of a child's responses to a large array of items tapping diverse content" (pp. 4) and therefore global self worth is not a measure of global self esteem. Harter compares taking an 'average' self worth score to mean

a global self esteem score, to those that can be found when using tools such as Coopersmith's self esteem measure. Instead, self worth, is not a general measure or a broader index of competence, but is how people think about the global perception of their worth as a person. In fact, Harter reiterates that other aspects of self esteem (as to be discussed in section 2.4) can be antecedents or correlates of global self worth and by separating investigations of these domains of self esteem as well as of global self worth, will help to examine the relationship between them i.e. what do I think about myself as a person, and how does this differ to how I perceive my competence in for example, athletic activities. Therefore this view taken by Harter is adopted through the course of this study.

Self worth (when separate from other aspects of self esteem) therefore, looks at and compares a person's view of themselves in relation to their aspirations of success, as well as looking at a person's view of themselves when comparing to the views and behaviours of significant others. Hence the way in which we interact with significant others will impact our self worth as well as impact on the other aspects of self esteem.

2.2.2 Symbolic interactionism and developing identity

The 'symbolic interactionist' theories of Cooley (1902) and Mead (1934) are based on the idea that the individual develops an internal representation of the self through social interaction. According to this approach, 'the self' is characterised by the capacity to interpret the response that our behaviour invokes in others (Jackson & Warin, 2000). We then use our interpretation

of the response of others to shape our own further conduct. These theories are similar to the Vygotskian (1966) approach to the self, which emphasises the importance of social context in the shaping of self concept. Tajfel (1978) explored how people develop a sense of personal identity. Similar to Cooley and Mead, Tajfel argued that individuals are members of social groups or categories and derive a part of their sense of who they are and their identity from social interaction and in particular, from membership to these groups. The worth or status of the groups to which individuals belong also reflects on their sense of their own personal worth. In other words, social identities are potentially sources of self esteem.

Mael (1998) suggests that identity is best described as constructed, co-constructed and reconstructed by a child through his or her interactions with parents, teachers, peers and others. These dynamic processes include imitation and identification in shared activities, including imaginative role-play (Göncü, 1999). Cultural identity has been described as the feeling of 'belonging together' experienced by a group of people. It embodies the sentiments an individual feels of belonging to, or being influenced by, a group or culture (Brooker & Woodhead, 2008). Self esteem is therefore likely to be directly affected by the way in which young people interact with each other.

2.2.3 Helplessness theory

Doing well at school is highly valued among parents, peers and generally in society. Repeated academic failures may result in self-protective strategies,

in maladaptive motivational styles, like helplessness, and in psychological maladjustment (Valas, 2001).

Seligman, (1964, 1965) in his original 'learned helplessness theory' associated helplessness to cognitive processes. He argued that helplessness is not inherent or genetic, but learned through events. Seligman hypothesises that individuals who attribute negative events to internal, stable and global causes are more disposed towards depression than individuals who make external, unstable and specific attributions.

With regards to helplessness and gender, research suggests that females seem more likely than males to attribute failure, particularly in Mathematics and Science, to internal causes such as low ability (Sohn, 1982). However, Galloway et al. (1995) suggest that males show more helplessness than females and that boys are more likely to develop maladaptive motivational styles than girls in response to failure or to the threat of it (Galloway et al. 1995). However, research evidence both supports and refutes these assertions (Nolen-Hoeksema & Girgus, 1994, Nolen-Hoeksema, Girgus, & Seligman, 1991). Seligman and Peterson (1986) reported a trend for girls to make more internal attributions for negative events than boys. Research has shown that sex differences in adolescent depression are attributable partly to the fact that adolescent females have lower global self esteem than adolescent males (Allgood-Merten, Lewinsohn, & Hops, 1990). It appears that the reasons for why boys develop maladaptive motivational styles is still largely unclear, however, there does appear to be differences

between genders which one could hypothesise as being attributable to factors such as how boys and girls develop their sense of self and identity.

2.2.4 Self efficacy

Bandura's (1986) self efficacy theory centres on the fact that an individual's belief in his or her ability to exercise and maintain some level of control over events is what may affect his or her life choices. 'Efficacy beliefs influence how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave,' (Bandura, 1993, pp. 118). In line with Bandura's thinking on self efficacy, Lynch (2002) suggests that people's beliefs in their capabilities to exercise control over their level of functioning are central to people's actions. Efficacy beliefs influence 'aspirations and strength of commitments to them, the quality of analytic and strategic thinking, level of motivation and perseverance in the face of difficulties and setbacks, resilience to adversity, causal attributions for successes and failures, and vulnerability to stress and depression' (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara and Pastorelli, 2001, pp. 187). Therefore, in terms of the current research, it may be interesting to see whether pupils raise issues of efficacy and whether these differ between school types and gender.

2.2.5 Attribution theory

Attribution theory in education is concerned with how individuals interpret events and how this relates to their thinking and behaviour. Weiner (1974) focused his attribution theory on achievement and motivation. Attribution theory looks at how people try to evaluate and determine why people do

what they do, i.e. attribute causes to behaviour. A person seeking to understand why another person did something may attribute one or more causes to that behavior. A three-stage process underlies an attribution: (1) the person must perceive or observe the behavior, (2) then the person must believe that the behavior was intentionally performed, and (3) then the person must determine if they believe the other person was forced to perform the behavior (in which case the cause is attributed to the situation) or not (in which case the cause is attributed to the other person).

An important assumption of attribution theory is that people will interpret their environment in such a way as to maintain a positive self-image. That is, they will attribute their successes or failures to factors that will enable them to feel as good as possible about themselves, and hence keep their self esteem high. In the current research one can hypothesise therefore that pupils are more likely to attribute low self esteem to environmental rather than personal factors.

A wealth of research has been directed at unpicking self esteem and understanding how it develops in different circumstances and settings. In the following section there will be discussion on some of the most relevant research such as teacher and pupil interactions and competitive schooling, and how these differ based on school types, gender and age.

2.3. Self esteem (SE) research: gender, schooling and age

2.3.1 Gender and self esteem

In this section, three areas of research on gender and self esteem are explored. It will look at whether the reason is biological i.e. through genetic links. Related to this, this section will also look at feminists' perspectives of why they believe the differences exist and why research points to females having lower self esteem than males. As mentioned in the previous section, looking at theories of self esteem, social relationships and interactions are deemed to have a central role in the development of self esteem. It is therefore useful to explore research on same gender and mixed gender interactions both among pupils, and teachers and pupils. Gender interactions will also be highlighted in forthcoming sections looking at the research into SS and CE classrooms in schools.

2.3.1.1 Predictors of self esteem

According to Kamakura, Ando & Ono (2007) the largest single source of variations in self esteem is genetic. Lynch (2002) agrees that now it seems that at least one third of the variation may be attributable to this one factor which will be discussed further in the next sections. Next in importance come the various things that parents do to and with their children, the parents' own educational backgrounds (The Census 2003; Lynch, 2002), and other environmental effects (Kamakura et al. 2007). But these effects do not end with childhood; parents continue to be strong influences into adolescence and beyond (Bandura, 1997; Morrow, 1995; Schneewind,

1995). Other close relationships may in the longer run assume considerable importance but the existence and success of such relationships are quite probably also effects of self esteem, hence showing the reciprocal relationship between self esteem and stated 'effects'.

Ma (2007) argues that gender appears to be the single strongest predictor of self esteem. Research shows that boys typically rate themselves higher on self esteem scales, indicating a positive regard for themselves (Ma, 2007; Hoare, Elton, Greer & Kerley, 1993). Research suggests that males have higher 'global' or overall self esteem than females (Kling, Hyde, Showers & Buswell, 1999), Males also tend to rate themselves higher on most aspects of self esteem or 'domains' except behaviour (Hoare et al. 1993; Pallotta-Chiarolli, 1990; Ireson, Hallam & Plewis, 2001). However, research of this type has not acknowledged how or why males think in this way, or what effect the environment in which they learn (i.e. type of school and experiences of school) and live (e.g. effects of family) has. Comparatively girls are much more likely to worry about physical appearance (Ma, 2007) and have more psychological symptoms such as depression and worry (Macdonaldo, Quarles, Lacey & Thompson, 2008; Marshall, 2007; Zand, Gouwens & Evenson, 2006) as will be discussed in the next section.

2.3.1.2 Feminist theories of body image
As the previous section has shown, research suggests that males are more able to attribute 'failure' and 'success' to external and internal factors

depending on what makes them feel more positive. Males appear more able to express their feelings in this way successfully. Females, as mentioned, develop more psychological symptoms, which are more challenging to explore. It is for this reason that specific research into feminist theories has been developed. One such area of research is that of body image and perceptions. A simple definition of body image can include a 'person's perceptions, thoughts and feelings about his or her body' (Grogan, 1999, pp.1). Research has demonstrated pervasive weight and shape dissatisfaction amongst adolescent females (Levine & Smolak, 2002) which is termed 'normative discontent' (Rodin, Silberstein & Striegal-Moore, 1985). According to feminist theory, normative discontent is a social rather than an individual phenomenon (Rees, 2007). Indeed, men are commonly associated with the mind in western societies and women with the body (McKinley, 2002). McKinley also argues that it is the fact that societies separate the mind and body that can lead to the construction of females as observable objects. She uses the term 'Objectified Body Consciousness' to describe how females come to view their bodies as observable objects through three mechanisms (McKinley, 2002); 1) Body surveillance; 2) The internalisation of cultural body standards leading to body shame; 3) Appearance control beliefs.

Both Spitzack (1990) and McKinley (1999) explain that girls quickly learn that they are appraised by others on the basis of their appearance and, theorise that consequently, girls come to experience their bodies in terms of how they look to others. In contrast, male bodies tend to be judged in terms

of qualities other than aesthetics, such as their functionality. It is therefore of vital importance that not only females' thinking of negative body image should be changed, but males' high perceptions (as will be discussed in section 2.3.1.6) of body language explored or even challenged. It is hoped that through this, a more balanced and realistic level of self esteem is developed in both genders. This is something that psychologists can support young people and schools in developing through training and exploratory workshops about how we view the opposite sex and how this informs our opinions of them. Allied to this, do pupils make assumptions about a person's self esteem based on their appearance and can these assumptions be challenged? This is something that can be further explored within the current study.

Conversely, Sexton (1969) suggests that an anti-feminist argument also exists that states the 'feminised' co-educational environment is bad for boys as they need male teachers as role models, and have different learning styles from girls e.g. more practical subjects and teaching resources as opposed to examinations and 'quiet' learning. This thinking has become newly fashionable due to the moral panic over 'failing boys' (Sullivan, 2009, BBC News, 2006a). The 'feminised' curriculum and teaching can be further explored through acknowledging the differences between teacher and pupil interactions within the classroom, and how these may impact on the self esteem of pupils.

2.3.1.3. Impact of gender on classroom interactions

The effect schools have on body image and more generally on self esteem, may be more a result of individual differences of classroom environments and student lives, as opposed to the condition of single sex or co-educational interactions. Variation in classroom interaction between the single-sex and co-educational settings is likely to be one important factor in success at school and achievement, but perhaps these effects are overshadowed by the potentially strong effects of what schools supply and what resources students bring to a particular type of school (Baker, Riordan & Schaub, 1995). Lee and Bryk (1986) found that SS females had less stereotypical adult sex role attitudes than CE school pupils, were more likely to express internal locus-of-control attitudes; and had higher self concepts.

In relation to attribution theory mentioned in section 2.2.4, Mitchell and Hirom (2002) conducted research using two questionnaires to 500 pupils as well as 80 semi structured interviews. In their study of the underperformance of boys it was found that boys tended to attribute successful outcomes to 'stable characterlogical causes such as their intelligence, whereas girls were more likely to explain their successes with behavioural explanations such as how hard they worked' (pp 5). This gender effect was reversed when explaining academic failure. Girls were much more likely than boys to explain their academic failure with characterlogical causes, with boys in contrast tending to blame their failure on behavioural causes such as not working hard enough. However, all

pupils in the study were from 3 co-educational comprehensive schools in one county of England and results can not therefore be generaliseable to the entire school aged population. However, smaller scale research has shown similar findings. Mitchell and Hirom also state that several studies have suggested that boys more vocal presence in the classroom can have an effect on girls' self esteem. Hence, within a co-educational classroom, it could be assumed, that girls would be more likely to blame themselves for academic or social failures and this blame could be exacerbated by boys' taunts or comparisons as previously mentioned. This highlights the importance of looking at how gender is related to self esteem, and indeed the effect of school on pupil self esteem.

2.3.1.4 Teacher-pupil relationships

Kelly (1988) undertook a meta-analysis of the research on gender differences in teacher–student interactions across all school subjects in 81 studies from the UK, USA, Canada, Australia and Sweden. Results revealed that teachers on average spend 44% of their time with girls and 56% with boys, so that by the end of a school career a girl will receive 30 hours less individual teacher attention than a boy. Kelly also found that girls play a more active part than boys in volunteering (i.e., raising their hands in class) by participating in 52% of these types of interactions. This suggests that girls were willing to participate in lessons but were not being enabled to do so and hence why female self esteem may be lower in co-educational settings.

Kelly's results were reinforced by Howe (1997). Howe was commissioned by the Scottish Council for Research in Education (SCRE) to review the findings of studies in gender and classroom interaction across subjects. Howe, in her detailed review found that studies indicated that boys dominated class interactions and received more feedback, both positive and negative, than girls. Girls received less negative feedback than boys but the feedback they received focused on their work. This type of feedback, it was argued, influenced their expectations of themselves and their perceptions of their abilities negatively. In comparison, and in line with gender related attribution theory, negative feedback for boys was generally about their behaviour and so tended not to influence their expectations of themselves and their abilities. However, Howe adds with her findings the disclaimer that 'virtually all of the classroom interaction research is limited to descriptions of what takes place. Very few studies have related interaction to the measures of academic performance or social attitude that would be needed to support statements about longer term consequences' (pp. 5). However, more recent research continues to support the assertions that Howe discusses.

The way in which self esteem develops within the school environment can also be affected by the staff working with the pupils. Teacher characteristics including gender, age, time engaged in teacher training, number of years of experience in teaching, having specialist teacher knowledge (e.g. in a particular subject), and amount of non-teaching duties (Baker et al. 1995) will all have an impact on the way in which the teacher interacts with the

pupils. Within the classroom, indicators include number of pupils in the classroom, range of ability, specialist teacher knowledge, and teaching styles of the teacher. Hence the more experienced a teacher is of working with different pupils and adapting different teaching styles to meet the needs of individual pupils (learning or other needs), the more likely it is that the pupils will learn from the lessons. It is important to note here, that if teaching of Personal Social Health Education and, self esteem and motivation is to be addressed in schools, careful consideration on how the material is taught and by whom it is taught will be important in order for pupils to gain from the teaching, just as in other curriculum lessons. This is one of the ways in which EPs can support school teaching staff in meeting the varied needs of today's young people; a topic to be further discussed in section 2.5.1.

In addressing and teaching positive self esteem to those most vulnerable, access to same-sex mentors is also as an important factor as same-sex teachers. Noe (1988) asserts that same-sex mentoring has many benefits, and lists a number of barriers to cross-sex mentoring in work organisations, some of which are even more applicable to an academic environment. Miller-Bernal (1993) notes that surprisingly, SS women's colleges have more same-sex teachers, who serve as potential role models and mentors. Sullivan (2009) states that a lack of female teachers in 'masculine' subjects such as mathematics and sciences in CE schools is relevant. Sullivan's study used data and participants from the longitudinal National Child Development Study, from 1958 to 2004 which included over 14,000

participants. The NCDS study included a mixture of academic tests as well as pupil, teacher and parent ratings. The participants were from a mixture of mainly comprehensive (58%) but also some from grammar schools (11%) all together making the study a seemingly methodologically sound piece of research. Based on the views of advocates for SS schooling, Sullivan suggests that we would expect girls' academic self concept to be increased by SS schooling, across subject areas, but especially in stereotypically 'masculine' subjects. She notes that advocates for SS schooling would also say that CE schooling damages boys' self esteem, in part because women teachers cannot act as adequate role models or authority figures for boys. However, it is important to clarify that not all single-sex schools have same gender teachers; hence these differences may also be present in SS schools. Sullivan also points out that those involved in the NCDS had clearly been exposed to different types of curriculum and therefore their perceptions of their learning and self esteem can not be reliably compared and hence highlights that even large scale studies can not be fully relied upon due to the differences in the experiences of pupils from different schools and areas. Sullivan notes that the gender differences found could be explained by 'socialisation by parents, peers, and the media, and gender biases in the curriculum and the way it is delivered' (pp. 281).

Francis (2000) suggests that girls and teachers can be important in the way in which males develop self esteem and personality in the classroom. Francis, using her own experiences in teaching, suggests that a quick-

witted remark can be used towards 'arrogant' boys in a lesson but Francis advises that teachers should think more carefully of the possible implications of such remarks. From the researcher's own experience in various classrooms as an observer, it appears that teachers feel perhaps that boys are more able to accept such comments. In fact, Dweck and Licht (1980) when considering the explanatory style used by teachers when correcting boys and girls explain that these styles can be reflected in the children's own explanatory style when encountering unsolvable problems.

2.3.1.5 Pupil-pupil relationships: how do boys and girls differ?

'Children's experience of both having and being friends plays a critical part in their acquisition of social identity and selfhood' (James, 1993, pp. 201).

Friendships are important when children make progressive transitions from the more or less closed world of their immediate family into the extended family and community, often into group care settings, and then into school (Brooker & Woodhead, 2008). Jackson & Warin (2000) explain that therefore it is essential to consider that gender group membership can be a useful source of sociocultural information, as awareness of one's own gender, and the gender of others, is knowledge that is laid down early on in life. When pupils enter into a context with unfamiliar surroundings such as secondary school, they are likely to rely on those aspects of self concept that are well-established. Hence gender group membership and the relationship with those in that gender group will be helpful to tackle a difficult or new situation.

Jackson (1997) found that both the girls and the boys interviewed during the course of her study of single sex classes within CE schools, indicated gendered social comparison patterns. Both groups indicated a tendency to compare with same-sex others. Jackson also found that girls are cautious of making explicit comparisons with many of the boys within their class. This reluctance appeared to stem from a fear of 'being made fun of' either as a result of scoring high and hence being called 'a swot' or scoring low and being labelled 'stupid'. However, the research was conducted in one inner-city CE school, and although part of a larger study looking at self concept and gender comparisons, its findings are not generaliseable to other populations, but do give some insight into the comparisons made by pupils. Baker et al (1995) suggest that males often dominate social interactions, many school studies assume this causes lower female achievement in mixed-sex classrooms. Trew et al's (1999) study of student's perceptions of physical activity and sport was based in 44 schools in Northern Ireland based on an interview, a self report diary and, selected relevant questions from the Harter Self Perception Profile (discussed in 4.3.2). They found that males prefer competitive situations, due to their stronger preference for ego-oriented goals, whereas females prefer situations which emphasise performance accomplishment, due to their preference for task-oriented goals. Therefore, as suggested before, it would be interesting to see what pupils themselves feel the benefits and disadvantages are of SS and CE schooling with regards to self esteem.

Lawrence, Ashford and Dent (2006) in their study looked at the coping strategies adopted by pupils in further education (18-20 years old) and by using a series of questionnaires, found significant differences between males and females in terms of engagement in coping strategies and academic attainment. Specifically, males exhibited greater ability to detach themselves from the emotions of a situation; were more inclined to demonstrate emotional inhibition or 'bottling up' of emotions; reported higher self esteem (Lawrence et al. 2006) and gave higher estimates of their intelligence than women (Sullivan, 2009; Neto et al. 2008). In addition Ptacek, Smith and Dodge (1994) in their study of adults coping strategies, found there were gender differences in the selection of coping strategies identified, with males adopting more problem-focused strategies and females adopting a more emotion-focused approach. Ptacek et al. suggest that the findings were consistent with the notion that men and women learn to cope with stress in different ways depending on their socialisation. Lawrence and Cropley (2004) note in their study of the impact of school examinations on self esteem in secondary schools, that females displayed significantly greater levels of anxiety and distress before an examination. In contrast, males consistently reported higher positive affect and self esteem as well as scoring lower on the measures of depression and anxiety, even within the week prior to their examinations. Hence the above research highlights perhaps boys' better ability to be emotionally resilient than girls, and perhaps better able to cope with stressors within both SS and CE environments.

2.3.1.6 Can there be 'too much' self esteem?

Mitchell & Hirom, (2002) suggest that boys' more optimistic personal profile in relation to academic performance might be explained by extra-curricular factors: popularity, male bonding, sporting prowess or even the fact that they are not female. It could also be the case that males actively maintain high self esteem, and in order to do so it is at the expense of academic effort. The desire of males to "show off" was noted by Francis (2000). It was suggested that the target of this showing off is often girls. A boys' school would be easier because then there would be no-one to show off to, Francis (2000) suggests.

However, perhaps there is such a thing as 'too much' self esteem. Self esteem may also influence coping responses that seek to deal with or avoid stressors. Lawrence et al. (2006) suggest that avoidance generates negative self evaluations leading to undesirable qualities of this behaviour, which create bad feelings and failure to obtain personal growth. In turn this may mean that individuals with low self esteem could stop engaging in assertive and adaptive coping behaviours to combat stress. If boys are better able to ignore negative self evaluations than girls, this may lead to boys failing to develop appropriate ways to combat stress and difficult situations.

Neto, Ruiz and Furnham (2008) note that some researchers seem concerned to study and help females who are seen to be biased in favour of modesty and low self concept, others believe it is more important to

examine male biases and the potentially negative consequences of exaggerated self esteem.

Davies (2007), a journalist on health and family issues supported by Patricia Farell, a health psychologist, states in her article on 'too much' self esteem, that in fact high self esteem can lead to problems, including narcissism, bullying, increased drug and alcohol use, and more teenage sex, not less. By the same token, low self esteem does not lead to as many risky behaviours as previously thought (to be discussed in forthcoming sections). Reviews of empirical findings on violence and its relation to self esteem also say that violence appears to be most commonly a result of threatened egotism and highly favourable views of self that are disputed by some person or circumstance (Salmivalli, 2001; Baumeister, Smart & Boden, 1996). This alternative view of effects of self esteem further encourages more research on the subject to find how to support those with self esteem issues. Whether 'too much' or 'too little', self esteem appears to have an important effect on a person's life and wider society in both males and females. It will now be important to focus on how attending a SS or CE school may affect one's self esteem development.

2.3.2 Research looking at CE vs. SS schooling

Internationally secondary schools were more likely than primary schools to be single-sex and served as agents of socialisation into the more sex-segregated workplace (Hansot & Tyack, 1988). Single-sex schooling was widespread prior to the introduction of the comprehensive system, and also

prior to initiatives to combat gender-related educational problems (Jackson & Smith, 2000).

Wide-ranging research in the 1960s and 1970s suggest that CE schools had friendlier and more relaxed atmospheres, with more opportunities for enjoyable social contact (Dale, 1971, 1974; Hyde, 1971). Dale (1974) concluded that co-education probably helped boys and did not harm girls. Arguments against this early work suggest that these studies must be taken in context. Thinking at that time was that school discipline was harsh and 'not conducive to learning' (Mael, 1998, pp. 114). In addition, Bone (1983) noted that Dale's research covered particular schools during a particular time; primarily British grammar schools between 1947 and 1967.

Sullivan (2009) suggests in line with feminist theories, that expectations of women's socio-economic role have had a substantial impact on schooling since the 1950s. Also, due to the introduction of the National Curriculum in 1988, both single-sex and co-educational schools now provide a much less gendered curriculum to boys and girls, at least up to the age of 14. For this reason Bone (1983) argued that new research was needed that "takes up the theme where Dale left it and responds to newly-phrased questions about single and mixed-sex schools that people are asking today" (pp. 10). Sullivan (2009) notes that it is vital that "contemporary research" investigating gender and schooling is carried out (pp. 282).

Mael, Alonso, Gibson, Rogers & Smith (2005) carried out a review of single-sex (SS) versus co-educational (CE) schooling. Their report consisted of a three phase process to gain a systematic review of the literature. This included searching over 2000 electronic journals for studies using students enrolled in full time education in SS or CE schools, and then excluding those studies with weak methodological considerations, followed by evaluation and coding of the remaining articles. The review reported that most studies observed positive effects on all subject achievement tests for SS schools. Relating to self concept; some studies that were looked at showed positive effects for SS schools and some showed no differences at all. They concluded that CE schooling only has positive impact on the self esteem of males. The results of the studies seem inconsistent and do not seem to look at the variables of school type, achievement, self esteem and gender. The majority of research had been conducted in Catholic SS schools (e.g. Lee & Bryk, 1986) which are separated by gender only on entering secondary school (in the USA this is around year 9, aged 13 to 14). Mael et al. state that there has been little opportunity to study middle and lower secondary schools especially in the public sector.

SS and CE schooling continues to be of interest in the UK media, with article titles including 'Single sex schooling irrelevant' (BBC News, 2006a) and 'Girls do better in single-sex schools' (The Telegraph newspaper, 2009). What continues to be evident is disagreement in the findings of studies within this field. It is important to note that not all of the research can be deemed valuable, due to the tools used to investigate self esteem

and the reliability of the evaluation methods used; matters to be discussed in forthcoming sections.

The majority of studies comparing SS and CE education have taken place in Australia (Branson & Miller, 1979) and Mael (1998) noted that in the USA there was a virtual non-existence of public SS high schools and a paucity of public SS colleges. This meant that SS schools used for comparison were often private schools (pp. 106). These schools largely drew their students from families of higher socioeconomic status or were parochial schools, which may have been more religiously homogeneous than public schools. The vast majority of studies in the 1990s in the UK were conducted in religious schools; therefore their ethos would have been very different from that of a mainstream CE school. Marsh (1991) and Marsh et al (1989) state CE-SS differences have been confounded with Catholic school-public school differences and that this is the prime differentiator rather than the CE-SS difference. Marsh (1989) says that for these reasons, simple CE-SS comparisons are invalid. Therefore the current study aimed to consider background factors, such as demographics of the local area and percentage of free school meals (FSM), as ways to make the data collected, more valid.

2.3.2.1 Achievement and gender

As discussed, the majority of self esteem research in education studies self esteem and achievement as the primary concern. In Britain, the educational achievement of boys has become a focus of longstanding concern with the

publication of national test results. The results reveal girls outperforming boys at ages 7, 11 and 14 in National Curriculum assessments in English and Mathematics, with more boys scoring at the extremes (DfEE, 1996, 1997). More recently girls have improved Science scores (overtaking those scores of boys) but Mathematics scores have dropped slightly behind their male counterparts (DCSF, 2007, 2008). Girls are also more successful than boys at every level in the GCSE examinations (OFSTED/ EOC, 1996, DCSF, 2007), although boys' Science results beat those of the girls by 1 percent last year, (DCSF 2008).

It is important to note that it is not possible to decide whether lower levels of self esteem lead to lower success in school, or whether lower success leads to lower self esteem. Hence, just as professionals support academic achievement in schools and those who have learning difficulties, we must also support those who may appear to have lower self esteem.

2.3.2.2 Subject choices

A meta-analysis of studies in the USA regarding gender differences in attitudes toward Mathematics concluded that high-school-age females do not hold intrinsically negative views. Rather, male students and instructors convey to their female classmates and students their stereotypical views that Mathematics is unfeminine (Hyde et al. 1990).

In Foon's (1988) study of 1,675 Australian tenth graders, SS schools were more tolerant of students taking courses traditionally associated with the

opposite sex, and the students were more likely to take non-traditional courses. Stables' (1990) study of English pupils in year 7 and year 8, found that CE schools had more sex-stereotypic polarisation of attitudes regarding school subjects than SS schools, and that boys were affected by these attitudes even more than were girls.

The Girlguiding group as part of their research with BEAT (2007) found that girls identified wearing of 'skimpy or unflattering gym kits' as a reason why they chose not to pursue sports in schools. This is something that schools can readily change if they were more aware of the detrimental effects of uniform rules. Allied with this it is also important to discuss ways in which the education system has attempted to break down sex stereotypes with subject choices. Co-educational gym classes and sports programmes are the required norm in CE schools (sometimes dependent on the type of school and the school's foci). Although these programs have been hailed as producing youth less bound by gender stereotypes and increasing female opportunities, in fact what may occur is exacerbation of the unfounded student and teacher stereotypes. The fact that some lessons are indeed segregated means that a stereotype will form as to what sports are more suitable for men than women, leading to girls dropping out of sports such as rugby and cricket, and boys refraining from typical 'female sports' such as badminton and netball. In fact research has shown that children learn athletic and sports skills faster in same-sex groupings (Grunewald, as cited in Monagan, 1983) and that boys and girls have different styles of play

(Lever, 1978) and very different idealized self-images which cross with their athletic participation.

There are studies which indicate that boys have higher self esteem than girls in subjects such as Mathematics (Lawrence & Winschal, 1973; Marsh, Byrne & Shavelson, 1988). Others found no statistically significant differences between boys' and girls' Mathematics self esteem (Stevenson & Newman, 1986). Girls have been found to have higher self concepts in reading than boys in some studies (Marsh, Parker & Barnes, 1985). Marsh's work on self concept and self esteem indicates small gender effects in favour of boys for total self concept measures. It gives some support to the hypothesis that boys and girls may score differently on a global measure of self esteem (Marsh, 1989). This finding indicates that teachers need to be aware of children's self esteem levels as it is now recognised that this is an important factor in determining success in school work and confidence as a person.

2.3.2.3 Competitive schooling

Academic self concept is determined by students' frame of reference, such that students with high-attaining peers will be more likely to consider themselves 'below average' than students of the same prior ability who are surrounded by lower-attaining peers (Sullivan, 2009). Marsh and Hau (2003) call this the 'Big-Fish-Little-Pond' (BFLP) effect. Marsh (2005) suggests therefore that selective schooling and 'gifted and talented' programmes could deflate the academic self concepts of the selected

students. SS schools are currently competitive institutions for pupils. Pupils attending a SS school are likely to have taken some sort of entrance examination to secure their place at the school. Hence, it may be that since most of the pupils within the school will be high achievers, pupils are likely to compare themselves to fellow high achieving pupils and relate their relative failures to real failure. This is likely to have strong effects on self esteem. Hence, there may be a huge range of self esteem scores within a SS school, even though research suggests that self esteem in SS schools is higher, perhaps on average, than in CE schools. It may also be true that perhaps academic competence may be higher in SS schools, whereas other domains of self esteem may be lower. An alternative hypothesis would suggest that being accepted to an academically selective school means that the child is labelled as academically able, while being rejected means the child is labelled as academically inferior. "If students internalise these labels, students at academically selective schools should have inflated self concepts" (Sullivan, 2009, pp 263). However, it should be noted that there will be a difference in a pupil having an inflated self concept when first being accepted into the school, and having the reputation as attending a selective school, but this will be very different from a day-to-day basis where all pupils are labelled as 'high achieving'.

Marsh and Lau (2004) also suggest that pupils have an internal frame of reference and use the term 'Internal/External frame of reference model', to describe this. This model explains how pupils use knowledge about

themselves in one area to compare themselves positively or negatively to a different area of skill.

2.3.2.4 Does research suggest single-sex or co-educational schools are better for nurturing self esteem in males and females?

Dale (1974) noted that 'the average co-educational grammar school is a happier community for both staff and pupils than the average single-sex school' (Dale, 1974, pp. 273). Dale argued that not only were CE schools happier environments for both boys and girls, but that this happiness was not at the expense of academic progress. However as previously discussed, it is important to note that although Dale's pioneering 26 year study was valuable at the time; its results may not be transferable to the current co-educational school organisation and climate. There is also some support to the hypothesis that CE schools and classes have a positive influence on self image. Kovacs, Parker and Hoffman (1996) add to this view, noting one of the benefits of working with peers of the opposite sex included being more socially skilled and popular.

There is now more literature supporting the hypothesis that CE schools are 'bad' for girls and 'good' for boys (Jackson & Smith, 2000). These ideas have arisen from work that suggests that in mixed-sex classes and schools boys get more attention than girls (Spender, 1982) (as discussed earlier). Research also suggests that girls are sexually harassed by boys (Mahoney, 1985) and that subjects are more 'polarised' towards males than females (Lawrie & Brown, 1992, Stables, 1990). There is evidence to suggest that

females' achievement in stereotypically male subjects, such as Science, is enhanced at SS schools (Harding, 1981). Kniveton (2006) also notes that girls and boys have different learning styles, which SS schooling allows to be taken into account. Warington and Young (2002) found that addition to this, a gender-specific motivational structure is more possible in SS schools.

Many studies perceive CE schools as actively detrimental to women (Arnot, 1983; Chafetz, 1990; Kauermann-Walter et al. 1990). Mael (1997) suggests this could be because females in such schools are pressured to not outshine males, to obsess about clothes and hair, and to adopt a silly or silent demeanour. The issue of whether co-education reduces gender stereotypes or fosters gender confusion is a central point of contention between CE and SS advocates (Kenway & Willis, 1986; Lee, Marks, & Byrd, 1994). Mael (1998) states that in an SS school there is a greater likelihood of having same-sex peers pursuing serious academic and leadership roles and more opportunity to have accomplished female teachers and role models (Finn, 1980; Lee & Bryk, 1986).

Evidence also exists that suggests that single-sex schools are advantageous for both girls and boys (Kelly, 1996). Jackson and Smith (2000) found that there were clear gender differences with regards to pupil perceptions of the benefits of single-sex schooling. However, their research was conducted in a single secondary school where single-sex Mathematics classes were introduced and therefore the results should not be taken as

conclusive although they do highlight the importance of getting pupil perspectives.

Kelly (1996) found that girls in SS schools achieved better results than girls in CE schools in a number of subjects. The most prominent effects were found in foreign languages, but there were also effects in Sciences, Mathematics, English and History, although Kelly noted that the SS advantage was smaller for the boys than for girls. There is also evidence suggesting that SS schools promote greater enjoyment of, and a greater uptake of, curriculum subjects traditionally viewed as gender inappropriate. Lawrie & Brown (1992) examined students' perceptions of enjoyment and difficulty of school subjects and the A-level choices of 14 and 15-year-old pupils in CE and SS schools. Their study which looked at selective schools also supports Stable's (1990) research which showed that there were less stereotypical subject choices in SS than CE schools. Lawrie & Brown (1992) noted for example, that more girls in SS schools chose Mathematics A-level, while more girls in CE schools chose English. Boys from single-sex schools chose A-level languages, while more boys from co-educational schools chose Physics.

In contrast to the primary concern about females during high school, much of the critique of co-education for males focuses on primary aged schooling (Mael, 1998). A review of research into the positives of SS education by Riesman (1991), states that CE schools do not allow for the structure needed by males given that they are more likely to be restless and

aggressive. A more serious concern is for males from disadvantaged backgrounds (Hamilton, 1986; Whitehead, 1994) and those desperately needing male role models (Hanson, 1959; Sexton, 1969), who do not thrive in the CE environment dominated by female teachers.

Now, in addition to the discussion on the value of SS and CE schooling, there is also a relatively new debate as to whether single-sex *classes* within co-educational schools enhance pupil learning (Jackson & Smith, 2000). Meanwhile, continuing research on the question of whether SS schooling or CE schooling is better for girls and boys is still being debated and is left under discussion.

2.3.2.5 Can CE schools better prepare young people for the wider world?
The claim according to Mael (1998) is that without male classmates, females have lower, more traditional aspirations and are more often shunted into stereotypical occupations. Conversely, separating girls from boys to provide them with more opportunities to move into stereotypically male-dominated roles is seen by some feminists as a capitulation to dominant male values such as competitiveness and individualism rather than as an attempt to improve male-female equity in either school or the subsequent workplace (Kenway & Willis, 1986). It is also suggested CE schools reflect real-world social interactions, that better prepare youth for cross-gender interactions and integration into society (Dale, 1971, 1974) and may reduce sex stereotypes (Harris, 1986).

We have now discussed literature in relation to self esteem in SS and CE schools and self esteem in relation to each gender within and between each type of setting. What is also important to consider is that although most individuals pass through the adolescent developmental stage without excessively high levels of 'storm and stress' (Hall, 1904), many individuals experience significant difficulties. These difficulties can occur at different stages of development and most likely will change with age. In fact self esteem and emotional well-being is likely to change well into mature adult life. However, there is discord amongst researchers as to at what age, and why these changes occur.

2.3.3 Self esteem in relation to age

Several longitudinal studies (Bergman & Scott, 2001; Block & Robins, 1993; Chubb et al. 1997) found that self esteem levels remained constant with increased age. However, others have found that the opposite occurred in that self esteem decreased with age (Hirsch & Rapkin, 1987; Wigfield et al. 1991). Hence research looking at this variable seems inconsistent (Connor et al. 2004).

The majority of research suggests that self esteem decreases with age and drops significantly in adolescence (Connor, 2004; Valas, 2001; Alpay, 2000; Hoare et al. 1993). It is important to consider that it is at adolescence when young people begin to consider their physical appearance with more scrutiny. It is also around this time where puberty and hormonal changes

will also have an effect on self esteem with regards to physical appearance and attractiveness to others.

Nolen-Hoeksema et al (1991) reported that young girls consistently reported more depressive symptoms than boys, noting however that these results are not shown amongst adults. Brage & Meredith (1994) also found that girls reported more depressive symptoms than boys. Nolen-Hoeksema (1990) asserts that a switch in the direction of the gender differences in depression occurs in middle to late adolescence.

Nicholls (1978) notes that children's ideas of ability become more differentiated with age and it is only when reaching early adolescence that young people begin to make associations between effort and ability, realising that increased effort does not necessarily mean higher success or ability. Hence, it is important to look at the views of pupils at an age where they have a better, or a more mature understanding, of how to be more successful or what the barriers are to achieving success (with regards to achievement or otherwise). Hence, older students could be expected to attribute failure to internal, stable and uncontrollable factors (Valas, 1991) more often than younger primary aged students. This may mean that self esteem and psychological adjustment are more likely to be a serious issue in secondary aged pupils.

2.4 Arguments in SE research: global or multidimensional?

So far in this literature review we have discussed what self esteem is and relevant theoretical principles of self esteem, how it differs between the genders and how it differs between education settings. As briefly mentioned, historically self esteem was thought of as a global construct. Debate between psychologists in the 1980s allowed certain schools of thought to expand moving away from a uni-dimensional view, to a multidimensional view. In this section, we review the path of research culminating in current perspectives.

2.4.1 Global/Uni-dimensional perspectives

One question which has been debated over the years is related to the structure of the self. Is it uni-dimensional or is it multidimensional in nature? Several 'self theorists', primarily from the fields of personality and clinical psychology have preferred the unified aspect of the self (Vallerand, Pelletier, & Gagne, 1991). According to this position, the self represents a core, unified central structure in personality, assumed to be stable and independent of changing contexts and an individual's life and to a general feeling of self-worth (Coopersmith, 1967). Historically, self concept research has been dominated by a unidimensional perspective in which self concept was represented by a single score referred to as 'general self concept, total self concept, global self-worth, or self esteem' score (Marsh, 2005). It is in the researcher's opinion that viewing self esteem in this way, not only validates claims that self esteem is internal and not influenced by external

factors, but it was and still sometimes is beneficial to not only the researcher, but to the participant.

The majority of researchers rely on face valid self-report scales. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE) (Rosenberg, 1965) is by far the most widely used (Robbins, Hendin & Trzseniewski, 2001, Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991). Robbins et al (2001) argue that a single-item measure would be advantageous in large-scale surveys, pre-screening packets (e.g. to select participants who are high vs. low in self esteem), longitudinal studies, experience sampling studies, and other research contexts in which time constraints limit the number of items that can be administered. They also suggest that a single-item measure would eliminate item redundancy and therefore reduce the fatigue, frustration, and boredom associated with answering highly similar questions repeatedly. These are all valid reasons to choose a measure looking at a single self esteem score. However, as this literature review has discussed, there are several other factors that influence the way in which self esteem is established. Not only this, one can have different feelings of self esteem for different aspects of the self. For example as discussed earlier, one may feel their self-worth is higher towards academic competence and this may or may not be different to their thoughts on their physical appearance. It is clear, that the self is an intricate mix of beliefs and feelings, and in the researcher's view, cannot be narrowed down to one global all-encompassing score.

2.4.2 The multidimensional view

As explored above, self esteem was initially conceived as a global construct, but the conceptualisation has expanded into one that is multidimensional (Harter, 1982, Maiano et al. 2004). Marsh and Craven (1997, pp 191) argued that if the 'role of self concept research is to better understand the complexity of self in different contexts, to predict a wide variety of behaviours, to provide outcome measures for diverse interventions, and to relate self concept to other constructs', then the separate domains of self concept will be far more useful than a global domain. Facets of self esteem (e.g. judgement of physical abilities) contribute to global self esteem to the extent that the attributes under consideration are important to a sense of self (Fox, 2000).

Harter (1988) specifies that a person's self image can be affected by perceived competence in one of many domains. In adolescents these include Scholastic Competence, Athletic Competence, Job Competence, Close Friendship, Romantic Appeal, Physical Appearance, Social Acceptance and Behavioural Conduct. When thinking about body image for example more than one of the above domains will be affected. Negative body image may in turn lead to de-motivation in engaging with education and peer groups for example. Rosenberg (1979) found that not all adolescents cared equally about being likeable. In contrast, concern with appearance is, according to Harter (1993), just about universal. Hence it is the researcher's belief that investigations in education should focus on how

we can support other areas of self esteem and not just ratings of academic/scholastic competence.

Research on self esteem has particularly highlighted 'girls' as those young people who are more likely to come across issues with their self esteem. Girls' happiness, well-being and confidence are said to be intrinsically linked with having strong and supportive friendship groups. Some researchers assert that emotional and body image issues should be directly taught and discussed (Rees, 2007) with young people, as it appears to be an important concern identified by young people. This identifies that academic achievement is not the only important aspect of self esteem to consider in a young person's school life.

Many researchers agree that females tend to pay more attention to body image and social acceptance than males. Media images are influential sources of comparison for today's youth, particularly among girls. Research has shown that girls often make comparisons of themselves to "media peers," which can lead to negative self-evaluations (Arganbright, 2008). However, a growing body of research and a public spotlight on males with eating disorders (BEAT 2009, BBCb, 2006) and low self esteem shows that both genders and their needs must be considered with equal importance. The increasing number of television programmes, magazines and documentaries on healthy eating may in fact help to create cultural definitions of beauty and attractiveness that are often acknowledged as

being among those factors contributing to the rise of eating disorders (EDAP, 1999).

Fox (1997) in her review of research in this field found that attractive children are more popular, both with classmates and teachers. Teachers gave higher evaluations to the work of attractive children and have higher expectations of them (which was shown to improve performance). Fox also found that female dissatisfaction with appearance and poor body image begins at a very early age. In one American survey, 81% of ten-year-old girls had already dieted at least once. A Swedish study found that 25% of 7 year old girls had dieted to lose weight; they were already suffering from 'body-image distortion' or 'body dysphoria', and estimating themselves to be larger than they really were. Similar studies in Japan have found that 41% of elementary school girls (some as young as 6) thought they were too fat (Fox, 1997). However, some ethnic groups show different perspectives. In a study of British and Ugandan students' evaluation of body-shapes, the Ugandans rated an 'obese' female figure much more attractive than the British (they were also more tolerant of too-skinny males) (Furnham & Baguma, 1994). Another British study showed that Asian-British women were more content with their body size than White British women, despite the fact that the Asians' ideal body size was as slim as that of the white women, suggesting that the Asian-British women were less concerned about matching the ideal than the White women (Wardle et al. 1993). Therefore, in summary, it is likely that different women and men will have differing feelings about aspects of their self esteem based on several of the

factors touched on above e.g., gender, culture, peer groups etc. Not all their feelings will be equal for the different domains, but all domains should, in the researcher's opinion have equal importance amongst those working with young people.

2.5 The role of Educational Psychologists in supporting self esteem in secondary schools.

The role of an educational psychologist is one that is currently under heavy scrutiny. Educational psychologists work in the field of education with children and young people who have a range of educational and psychological needs (CWDC, 2009). Educational psychologists work with individual children, other professionals, families and whole schools. It is hoped that over the next few years the role of EPs will widen, to not only include statutory assessment of special educational needs and school based work, but wider community focused work including early intervention with young children. The age range with which EPs work is also extending so that now EPs may work with babies from birth up to adults up to 25 years old.

The work of an EP takes into consideration the five outcomes of the Every Child Matters Agenda; stay safe, be healthy, enjoy and achieve, achieve economic wellbeing and make a positive contribution. It is the belief that EPs can help to support children, their schools and their families to achieve all five of these outcomes. For example, to be healthy, young people will

need advice and support on how to stay emotionally and mentally healthy, and by doing so, and feeling well supported they are more likely to make positive contributions within their own school or cultural communities. By supporting pupils with developing self esteem in schools, it is likely to have wider implications on the pupil's life.

2.5.1 Self esteem in relation to other outcomes

Emler (2001) identifies that those who possess high self esteem are less likely to abuse drugs; commit crimes; fail to benefit from education; suffer from stress; perpetrate acts of racism or child abuse or violence towards their partners and become chronically dependent on the state for financial support; amongst other concerns. Emler identifies that low self esteem is a particular risk factor for teenage pregnancy and unprotected sexual contact (including risks of carrying a sexually transmitted disease), eating disorders, suicide attempts (whether successful or not) and low earnings and extended unemployment (for males in particular). All of these issues have been part of the researcher's work as an Educational Psychologist in training, either with the pupil's themselves or their families. Therefore, this highlights the importance of the EP role, and the relevance of this research to EP work.

There is also a wide range of evidence suggesting that girls express lower self esteem than boys (Valas, 2001, Renshaw & Brown, 1991) and research suggesting that there is a profound link between self esteem and depression (Valas & Sletta, 1993) as mentioned previously. In light of this

research it would be important to highlight that perhaps this may also mean an association between depression and gender, if even through consideration of self esteem and therefore the need to monitor risk factors within schools.

Emler (2001) identifies that children, are now growing up with a sense that they have no value, and that their damaged sense of their own worth in turn causes them to do violence to themselves and others. Therefore it is of prime importance that we make efforts to repair and support the self esteem of vulnerable young people and take whatever measures we can to ensure no further damage of this kind is done. There is also increasing pressure at early ages from, for example, school examinations as well as social pressures from the media (Miller & Lavin, 2007; Locker & Cropley, 2004). It is therefore necessary to emphasise the need for greater awareness of the distress that may be experienced by young children and adolescents as a result and implement provision for early interventions.

It is not just people from within education that seek to learn more about self esteem. Doctors, nurses, social workers, and even those working within business seek to improve the self esteem of those they work with, reaping rewards in doing so. For example, a patient who has higher self esteem is more likely to take their medicines and be honest about their health with medical professionals. In turn, the medic feels as if they are more able to do their job properly and successfully hence enhancing their own self esteem. Hence, raising the self esteem of one individual is likely to have wider

implications on society (Emler, 2001), and as an EP one can make a contribution that could have a positive effect on an entire community.

Feedback from peers, parents and other adults is the strongest influence on how girls cope with external pressures about their appearance (Girlguiding, 2007; Miller & Lavin, 2007). When participants in the Girlguiding (2007) study were asked about what they felt made a person happy, girls said that being 'healthy, eating well, drinking plenty of water, being physically active and looking slim' were all things that contributed to this (pp.8). As part of the Every Child Matters (2004) agenda, the five outcomes highlight some of these factors identified by the pupils, valuing that indeed they are important to young people themselves, or that young people have learnt that these are important from their education at school or at home. The move to making Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) compulsory at secondary school will also help to educate pupils about why it is important to maintain a healthy lifestyle (mind and body) and what to do to help this. It may also be a useful time to discuss self esteem openly and share stories to help each other.

Strong overlaps between academic achievement, Special Educational Needs, anti-social behaviour, behaviour problems in school and self esteem; mean it is important for Educational Psychologists (EPs) to support schools with pupils with low self esteem from an early age (Campbell et al. 1998; Zand, 2006; Ingesson, 2007; Maldonado et al. 2008). One of the core ideas from the Every Child Matters (ECM) paper was the focus on

improving early intervention in schools and with families (ECM, 2004). In particular it was identified that EPs have begun dedicating more time to working within early years settings as well in other multi-agency contexts e.g., CAHMS, social services and BESTs (Farrell et al. 2006). It is therefore pertinent to the work of EPs to have a good understanding of the broader context from which self esteem issues may arise in young people (e.g., SES, role of parents, gender issues and mental health), in order to work more effectively with different professionals and families.

Different professionals (including many psychologists) have underlined that the upheaval of emotions during adolescence often has a substantial impact on global self esteem and the academic and social domains of perceived competence (Maiano, Ninot & Bilard, 2004). Since the mid-1970s, developments of adolescent global self esteem and the domains of perceived competence have been a major concern of educators and researchers, and cross-sectional and longitudinal studies on this topic now form a considerable body of literature.

EPs can support teachers who 'want to support the socio-emotional processes that will help the child to develop a secure sense of self' (Jackson & Warin, 2000, pp 388). By doing so teachers are more likely to be able to support and educate pupils on gender equality in the classroom and in the wider world. On a wider level, EPs may also be able to support schools in putting the right interventions in place to tackle issues of self esteem. Emler (2001) suggests that effects of interventions are modest but

they are distinctly stronger if the intervention was specifically intended to raise self esteem and not to produce some other change. Therefore that they work best for those identified with a relevant problem, and less well as preventative measures. In other words, if the participants have relatively low self esteem at the outset, their self esteem is more likely to be raised than if their self esteem is already at an average level. Hence, an EP is likely to be able to support the school in identifying those who have self esteem issues so that interventions will be of most value to the school.

The aim of this study is to identify where there are issues of low self esteem within secondary schools and which domains of self esteem require nurturing from professionals. Alongside this, it will be valuable to be aware of and better understand gender and school difference. From this knowledge, EPs will be more able to deliver specific services (e.g., interventions, training for teachers and parents, and therapy) that will better meet the needs of young people, their schools and their families, and in turn benefit the community in which they live.

3. Research questions

3.1 Introduction to the research questions

So far it has been identified that a number of factors will contribute to the development of self esteem in adolescents in SS and CE schools. Although much research exists, there is limited research on self esteem in relation to domains other than academic achievement, which have direct effects on attainment, self-worth and school engagement. The plethora of research on self esteem in secondary schools has meant researchers are able to pick and choose studies that best fit their hypotheses. It is the intention of this study to find creditable and contemporary results within a particular area of England.

The purpose of the study is to examine self esteem in Secondary schools to see whether there are distinct differences between students from single-sex (SS) schools in comparison to co-educational (CE) schools. It was considered important to see what aspects of self esteem, other than achievement, might differ between SS and CE schools. With this as the focus, it is of most importance to the Educational Psychology Service to increase the academic and professional knowledge of EPs to better meet the needs of young people.

As this research is part of the Professional Educational Psychology doctoral course, an additional aim of the current study is to add to the knowledge

and to the role Educational Psychologists have when working with young people with issues relating to self esteem and self concept in secondary schools.

3.2 Research questions

The following are the research questions underlying the current research aims.

1) Is global self esteem (SE) higher in single-sex (SS) schools than co-educational (CE) schools?

2) Is SE higher for girls/boys in SS schools compared to girls/boys in CE schools?

3) What aspects of SE are higher in SS schools than in CE schools?

4) Do self esteem scores decrease with age?

5) What do pupils believe are the benefits of SS or CE schooling?

6) What support do young people feel they need to raise self esteem in secondary schools? Does the type of support required differ between SS and CE schools?

4. Methodology

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter highlights the limited amount of research comparing aspects of self esteem (other than academic/scholastic competence) in males and females and differences between single-sex and co-educational schools. There is wide ranging research on issues such as classroom and school resources as well as pupil and teacher interactions in schools, however, more detailed investigations into how aspects of self esteem differ between gender and schools is not so well documented. This is in spite of amassing evidence for the link between self esteem and future mental health (OfSTED, 2008, 1995). It would seem that collecting young pupils' views on how to support self esteem and emotional wellbeing is pivotal in increasing our knowledge of this field and creating targeted support.

In the following section, the rationale for the research design and methods employed to complete the research will be presented. There will be detail about the materials used and why they were the most appropriate tools. This section will also include the researcher's ethical considerations when choosing to complete, and then completing the research activities in schools.

4.2 Research Approach and Justifications

The current study aimed to explore differences in aspects of self esteem between males and females in single-sex and co-educational settings. The methods involved comparing data across the settings using questionnaires. In addition individual and group perspectives and experiences of how self esteem is affected in schools were sought using focus groups. The study therefore relied on participants' personal outlook and experiences and their views of self esteem in others.

Taking into account the chosen methods for research, it would be most appropriate to consider Mixed Methods as the epistemological position taken by the researcher. That is, the research is part positivist, in that it involves a motivated comparison of male/female questionnaire responses according to school type, in the first phase of data collection. The second phase of the research can be considered post-modern and relativistic, as the individual subjective experience of the participants in the semi-structured group discussions was the focus.

It was felt that the Mixed Methods research approach was most appropriate to answer the research questions of this study. The emergence of Mixed Methods research was in response to the limitations of the sole use of quantitative or qualitative methods and is now considered by many a legitimate alternative to these two traditions (Doyle, Brady & Byrne, 2009). This type of research provides a rationale for hypotheses, theories, guiding

assumptions and presuppositions to compete and provide alternatives (Niaz, 2008). 'According to this principle, researchers should collect multiple data using different strategies, approaches, and methods in such a way that the resulting mixture or combination is likely to result in complementary strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses' (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, pp. 18). Piloting of the current study supported the process of ensuring all research questions were answered (see section 4.6). The first part of the data collection (quantitative) involved gathering as many participant responses as possible in order to make reliable comparisons between gender and school types (co-educational vs. single-sex). The second part of the research looked at answering the additional research questions and probing pupils for their opinions on how they believe self esteem differs across students. Using this, the researcher could then compare opinions across genders and different types of schools.

4.3 Research Design

4.3.1 Choosing the participating schools

The LEA has a small number of SS schools spread over a wide area. Initially, six secondary schools in the researcher's employing LEA were approached to participate in the study. Currently, the LEA is part of the government roll out of the Targeted Mental Health in Schools (TaMHS) project which is a three-year pathfinder programme aimed at supporting the development of innovative models of therapeutic and holistic mental health support in schools for children and young people aged five to 13 at risk of,

and/or experiencing, mental health problems; and their families. As part of this programme, the LEA have set up free training opportunities for a range of interventions in one area of the County for staff of schools, professional support agencies including all Educational Psychologists who are interested, and for parents and carers. Examples of interventions include, a programme aimed at supporting young people with bereavement, counselling skills training, self harm training as well training specifically for some Educational Psychologists to complete the Penn Resiliency training to deliver this to all year 7 pupils in TaMHS schools. This programme is currently operating in one area of the County however it is expected to roll out to the rest to the County in the next 2 years. The schools chosen for participation in the current study were not part of the TaMHS programme; however, one group of schools were in a neighbouring area to where the project is underway and were therefore very aware of the opportunities and positive feedback of interventions looking at mental health in schools. The schools in the other area were also very interested in the project and will be the next area to receive the project. It is in the researcher's opinion therefore, that these chosen schools were more engaged with the current research and its outcomes and therefore more willing to commit.

Schools for the current research were chosen according to the following criterion so that each set of schools (one female SS school, one male SS school and one CE school) were directly comparable (see table 1):

1) Educational attainment - the top three schools in the area for the school type so that all schools had similar academic aims. It was hoped that this

data set will still show what works and does not work to foster high self esteem in pupils but reduce the impact of having differences in the type of educational environment. It is hoped that all schools will find something relevant to them from this study to their school. Firstly this will be in terms of relating self esteem to academic aspirations and achievement i.e. we do not assume a high attaining school necessarily mean that all aspects of self esteem are also high for all pupils; why could this be and if true; how do these schools help or maintain high self esteem and what could other schools learn from these schools? Secondly, the research will be useful and generaliseable to the needs of all male and female pupils in terms of addressing their needs in whichever type of school they attend.

2) Demographics- percentage of Free School Meals as similar as possible. This allowed the researcher to see whether levels of economic wellbeing were similar between schools.

3) Geographically from a similar area – so that the cultures and communities around the school and surrounding infrastructure were similar between each group of schools, as therefore, each school reflected the surrounding community.

The six schools were two single-sex female (SSF) schools, two single-sex male (SSM) schools and two co-educational (CE) schools. The schools were split into two groups from two different areas in the county, so that area 1 had one SSF, one SSM and one CE school, and the same for area 2. This was to help improve the reliability of data collected in one area and improve generalisablity, by seeking whether similar patterns existed in

another area still meeting the above 3 criteria. One co-educational school withdrew from participation during the initial stages of the project and therefore the next highest achieving school in the local demographic area was selected and agreed to participate.

Table 1. Demographic data for the schools

School	GCSE Pass rates 2008	GCSE Pass rates 2007	% Eligibility Free School Meals 2009	% Minority Ethnics
Area 1				
CE	75	85	1.71	22
SSF	96	98	2.38	46
SSM	97	94	2.29	40
Area 2				
CE	86	90	1.26	13.3
SSF	83	85	2.68	7.3
SSM	80	76	2.38	6.9

Table 2. Number of students in samples in complete data set.

		Gender		Year Group		
		Male	Female	10	8	Total
School Type	co – educational	137	168	157	148	305
	single-sex	317	496	385	428	813
	Total	454	664	542	576	1118

All pupils in year 8 and year 10 from six secondary schools were asked to participate. Year 8 and year 10 were chosen in order to compare age whilst considering that in year 7 only a minimal amount of experience of secondary school had occurred, and that in year 11, pupils would be more focussed on examinations and therefore the researcher felt comparing year 8 and year 10 to be most appropriate.

There was a return rate of questionnaires of 68%. Schools had between 5 to 7 classes per year group, of 25-30 pupils. An approximate total of pupils was 1640 (eliminating the second CE school). Therefore approximately 500 questionnaires were either not completed due to absence or choice, or incomplete and therefore rejected. This averages to around 8-9 pupils per class whom I did not receive completed questionnaires from.

4.3.2 Choosing the appropriate research tools

The first stage of the research was conducted using a questionnaire (the Harter Self Perception Profile) and the second via semi structured

interviews in focus groups. This meant a mixed methods or combined research method was used.

4.3.2.1 Quantitative methods: Questionnaire design and use

Emler (2001) identifies that a procedure or instrument that uses a questionnaire must be able, at the very least, to do two things. Firstly, it must be able to detect differences or changes in self esteem. Ideally, it should be sensitive to differences or changes that are quite small. Secondly, it should not be sensitive to changes or variations in other psychological states or qualities. Most of the tools developed to look at self esteem have followed Rosenberg's lead and taken self esteem to be an 'attitude' which can be a 'feeling' or an 'evaluation'. Whereas Coopersmith (1967) suggests that his definition relates to judging the self against criteria, Rosenberg's (1965) scale looks more closely at feelings. Blaskovich and Tomaka, (1991), have suggested that at least 200 different measures of self esteem have been developed; there can be few other concepts except perhaps intelligence, where this can be said. Potentially, Emler (2001) identifies that this could be a problem, as there are many tests which all claim to measure the same thing but perhaps do not. Fortunately only a few tests have been well used, documented and validated.

According to Harter (1988), the operational definition for Global Self-Worth is "the extent to which the adolescent likes oneself as a person, is happy with the way one is leading one's life, and is generally happy with the way one is. Thus it constitutes a "global judgment of one's worth as a person,

rather than domain-specific competence or adequacy" (pp. 3). Harter's definition of Global Self-Worth, and her reasoning for separating self concept into various domains in the Self Perception Profile, is heavily informed by Rosenberg (1979), who postulated that self concept is a cognitive structure comprised of three broad dimensions: "the extant self (how the individual sees himself); the desired self (how he would *like* to see himself); and the presenting self (how he shows himself to others)" (pp. 9).

Harter's Self Perception Profile (1985, 1988) has been well documented in its use with children and with adolescents. It claims to give a comprehensive overview of a young person's self esteem by considering nine domains of self esteem in adolescents (Harter Self-Perceptions Profile for Adolescents-SPPA). This is reflected by the fact that it is a profile, rather than providing just a global score as in Rosenberg's Self Esteem Scale (1965). The SPPA scales involve a series of 45 paired force choices based on oppositely formulated statements which represent degrees of self-perceived competence (e.g. 'Some do very well at all kinds of sport' versus 'others don't feel that they are very good when it comes to sport') (Trew et al., 1999).

The reliability of the Profile has been considered by many with respect to Harter's Profile for Children (Arganbright, 2008; Weiss & Ebbeck, 1996; Cairns, 1990). Studies have shown that scores on the global self worth aspect at age 8 correlate highly with those at age 11 (Granleese & Joseph, 1994). The revised edition of the Self Perception Profile for Adolescents

(SPPA, 1988), appears to have 'better reliability, better convergent validity, and better factorial validity than the original version' (Wichstrom, 1995).

4.3.2.2 Qualitative methods: Semi structured focus group interviews
It was essential to investigate the data arising from the questionnaires in more detail and to answer the research questions. It was felt appropriate to do this by asking pupils themselves about their perceptions of self esteem in schools and therefore using a qualitative research approach.

An interview guide is used during semi structured interviews to provide a prompt for the interviewer using questions and reminders, to ensure that issues considered relevant to the study are explored. Focus group interviews are discussions between a small group of participants with a 'moderator' (Blee & Taylor, 2002, pp. 107). These are a way of observing a small group of people talking about a particular issue. They differ from group interviews where the interviewer or mediator has a more prominent role asking people specific questions. In this the interviewer has a much more central role.

Focus groups have many advantages. These include allowing the researcher to observe the interactions between group members, allowing participants to learn from each other, and, allow the opportunity for the researcher to probe the meaning or interpretation of verbally expressed views, opinions and experiences (Blee & Taylor, 2002). The questions for the interview were developed by the researcher in order to be able to

directly compare perspectives between the groups (closed questioning) and in order to answer the research questions, and, to be able to develop lines of questioning from pupil answers (open ended questioning-semi structured). It was hoped that the group would use the question posed to 'focus' on, but were able to discuss and talk about whatever they felt was relevant, hence placing importance on the interactions within the group. This therefore again differs from group interviews where more planning is required for the structure of the interview so that it is interviewing of a group of people at the same time (Gibbs, 1999). The need to ensure that participants were acclimatised to the interview and group process, and, felt comfortable in their surroundings to speak honestly, was considered. It was decided that all focus groups would be conducted by the researcher in order to reduce the differences in interviewing styles (Goldstein & Hersen, 2000).

Details of how the interview guide was developed follow in the next sections.

4.4 Ethical considerations

4.4.1 Permissions

Permission to carry out the study was sought from the County Council as well as the Institute of Education ethics board.

A letter was sent to parents/carers to 'opt out' of the research (Appendix 1). The letter gave a background to the research proposed as well as information on the involvement of their child within the study.

Students also had the option of 'opting out' after an explanation of the study was given by the class teacher that I had provided in written form. In this, pupils were told the aims of the study in looking at self perceptions and comparing these in different schools. Issues of confidentiality of their questionnaires were explained in the notes to the teacher and pupils, and pupils were given an opportunity to ask questions. They were also informed that they could withdraw from participation at any time and without giving reason. It was important that concerns or queries were alleviated and pupils were reassured about the purpose of the questionnaire. It was assumed that some pupils may have reservations about participating in the study.

The research assumed that the way in which students will interpret the questions asked of them in an interview will be dependent on their subjective reality. It is assumed that this reality is accessible to the student themselves so that it can be explored via questioning by the researcher. It is assumed that the students were able to do this and that no other substantial barrier (e.g. presence of a severe learning difficulty) existed to stop this as this issue was discussed with the school (how participants were selected will be highlighted later in this chapter). It was hoped that other barriers to communication such as shyness of the participant for example,

would be somewhat alleviated during the focus group stage by utilising the researcher's interviewing skills developed through the doctoral training programme for Educational Psychologists. It was felt that having small groups of participants for the focus groups would be useful to aid in creating a comfortable environment. The researcher felt this would help quieter participants to share their experiences when there are other pupils with them that can do the same, as interaction involving all members of a group is more likely in small groups than in large groups (Bossert, Barnett & Filby, 1985; Nasasti & Clements, 1991); and large groupings may diffuse responsibility amongst the group members, which hinders their participation in discussions (Webb, 1989). A group size of 3-4 participants was therefore chosen for the current study.

Those identified as having lower self esteem from the quantitative data analysis and who provided their names, were notified to their school and EP service for further support (students were made aware that this would happen – see further details of administration in section 4.5.1). These pupils were those who had scored 1 out of 4 on all domains of self esteem. School staff still did not have access to the completed questionnaires but instead were made aware that there may be a concern that could be followed up by the school. This of course could only be done if participants had identified themselves on the questionnaire. This issue will be discussed in section 4.5.1.

Parents and pupils were informed that the data (and not individual questionnaires) would only be shared with those directly involved with the study and the school SENCo or Deputy Headteacher at the school (as in Appendix 1). School staff were told that they would not be able to see the questionnaires, but the names of pupils who had raised concerns would be shared with those directly involved. All questionnaires were analysed by the researcher to avoid compromising participants' anonymity, and no names were shared during the recording of the interview. Questionnaires and audio transcripts were stored and filed in a secure location.

4.4.2 Timing

The questionnaires were administered in the second half of the summer term so as to not coincide with pupils' end of year exams. It was discussed with the school that the questionnaires could be given out as part of tutor time, citizenship or part of the Social, Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) programme. The focus groups took place prior to autumn half term and the weeks following it. It was hoped that pupils would not be under significant amounts of pressure from the school at this time. Dates and times for the focus groups were discussed and organised with the SENCo or Deputy Headteacher considering pupil timetables.

4.4.3 Providing a comfortable environment

Focus groups took place in a safe and unthreatening environment, where an environment of warmth was achieved in order for pupils to be most honest. Rooms were quiet and away from other school pupils, so the

groups felt as if their ideas were confidential. One way to help to make pupils feel settled was to provide drinks and snacks for their participation, which pupils appeared to enjoy having as it felt less like an interview and more like a discussion. The piloting procedure also highlighted the need for group-building activities in order for the students to begin discussion, as mentioned in section 4.6.

4.4.4 Researcher's perspectives

As the researcher, I recognise the distinct contribution this research makes to the field of evidence-based self esteem literature. Personal interest, experiences and consideration of what impact the research would have in the LEA at which I work and other LEAs lead me to pursue this topic.

I have been careful not to impose my judgements in the planning of the research and delivery of the questions in the focus groups based on my subjectivity and experiences of both single-sex and co-educational schooling. However, I was aware that my experiences would be similar to those I interviewed and could have been useful for building rapport and giving the rationale for conducting the research to schools and students.

Through experiences with working with pupils with mental health difficulties, I was acutely aware of the widespread effect self esteem can have on many other aspects of life and on the lives of those around the student, therefore motivating me to conduct research in this area. In addition, mental health and emotional wellbeing are priorities in all LEAs through the OfSTED

criteria. They are of particular importance in the LEA in which I work, where long-term investment in targeting mental health issues in schools exists, and also a very active crisis team dealing with teen suicides and other crisis events is present.

Throughout this research process, I have actively involved myself in LEA initiatives and training to further advance my knowledge of this area. This includes being an active part of the Targeted Mental Health in Schools (TaMHS) programme being piloted in my area of work. I have been careful to reflect on all of my experiences through supervision at university and the LEA to monitor the impact of these experiences on the present study.

4.5 Procedures

4.5.1 Questionnaire distribution

The SPPA questionnaires were copied and a code was used to identify which class they were going to. Special Educational Needs Coordinators (SENCo) or Deputy Headteachers were asked to distribute the questionnaires to form tutors. All questionnaires were completed in school premises in class sizes of up to 30 pupils. On each set of questionnaires, detailed instructions were given to the teacher administrating them. These are given in Appendix 2. The instructions were read by the teachers and then read aloud to the class. Pupils were given a maximum of 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Pupils were told that teachers would not be seeing the completed sheets but that the school SENCo would get

feedback on the anonymised results from the questionnaires. Staff were asked to read out the questions if the text in the questionnaires was not accessible to any of the students. No students were identified by the school staff as being unable to answer the questionnaire questions or unable to participate in later focus group activities due to learning issues.

Following the pilot, it was left up to pupils whether they wished to put their name on the questionnaire or be left anonymous. They were also informed that some pupils would be selected to have a discussion with the researcher and therefore a way of identifying them would be useful. It was apparent that one of the SS boys schools and one of the SS girls schools (from different areas) had requested that all pupils identify themselves, perhaps then raising the issue of pupils giving socially desirable responses rather than their own. However, these schools wanted to actively follow up the results of the questionnaire and therefore highlighted its importance to students. After looking at the results there appeared to be no indication that the instruction affected the outcome when comparing results from each of the girls' schools and each of the boys' schools. Pupils were also informed that the names they had given would not be used in the study. However, they were also told that if any serious concerns arose that may indicate significant distress or harm to themselves or to others (as always said to pupils working with EPs during casework), the school SENCo would be informed. This was also said to participants at the focus group stage.

It was left up to the form teachers to administer the tests when they felt it was most appropriate, although it was highlighted in the instructions that pupils should complete these individually in a quiet setting. All questionnaires were handed back to the teacher and sealed in the given envelope and returned to the researcher to analyse.

1118 questionnaires were collected in total from the 6 participating schools.

4.5.2 Semi- structured focus group interviews

Semi- structured interviews with focus groups were held with up to eight students in each school. Participants (data set) were selected from the 'data corpus' (Braun and Clarke, 2006) to form a group (of 3 or 4) in each year group. The researcher formed each group using the data to identify a mixed group of students with relative 'high' and 'low' self esteem. This was completed by identifying pupils who had high rating scores (a score of 3 or 4, out of 4), across a number of domains of self esteem and similarly for low self esteem choosing pupils with low rating scores (a score of 1 or 2, out of 4). After this, the pupil number was tracked back to the questionnaire to find the pupil's name.

The researcher also checked participants' scores in the domains of self esteem to see whether they were in line with the global score before forming the groups. It was initially hoped that there would be separate 'high' self esteem and 'low' self esteem groups for the researcher to compare answers, however, as most students wanted to remain anonymous in the

study, it was not possible to pick out participants in this way and instead the method in the previous paragraph was adopted.

Students were made aware that they had been chosen to help the study based on their questionnaires, but were not told about their self esteem scores.

In Area 1, focus groups in year 8 and 10 were carried out in a SSF, SSM and with males and females in both year groups in the CE school. In Area 2, focus groups were carried out in year 8 and 10 of the SSF and SSM. The CE school in Area 2 withdrew from the study midway through the questionnaire collection stage. At this point it proved too late to recruit a different school. Only some year 10 questionnaires were collected and focus groups were not held in this school.

The SPPA questionnaire answered some of the research questions; however, it was felt appropriate to ask questions in the focus groups in order to provide more detailed responses when comparing answers from different schools. It was useful to start the focus groups with a question that was simple and that most pupils would be able to give an opinion on, in order for them to settle into the discussion.

Questions used in the focus groups were the following:
- What do you think self esteem is?
- Describe a person with low (and then high) self esteem.

- What factors may affect self esteem in school?

- Think of the person you described as having low self esteem, how could we help to increase their self esteem in school?

- How can someone's family help to raise self esteem?

- Who do you think can help to raise self esteem in young people?

- Do you think SS or CE schooling makes a difference to self esteem?

- What difference do you think it makes that you attend a SS/CE school?

- Why do you think some pupils did not want to complete the questionnaire or are unwilling to discuss self esteem?

The above questions were then amended for use after the pilot (as detailed in the next section) and asked to all groups. I also allowed lines of enquiry to follow a response by a member of the group (semi- structured interview). The recordings from the first four focus groups were transcribed by the researcher and then for time efficiency, these were shared and discussed with one of the LEA administrative staff who followed the style and presentation of the transcriptions in transcribing the remainder.

4.6 Piloting

Piloting of the interview guide was developed over a two month period with groups of adolescents (not from the 'test' group) from a CE school known to the researcher with pupils in year 7 to 10. The aim of the piloting procedure was to see whether the phrasing of the questions were appropriate to answer the research questions and allowed for open ended discussions

with pupils of different ages and genders. They were also used to see how much time was required for each of the groups and for the researcher to find out what other aspects of how the groups were conducted, needed to be considered.

The Deputy Headteacher for the school was asked to select a random group of pupils reflecting the mix of pupils within the school who would want to participate in a group discussion with the researcher. It was discussed that this would mean looking at personalities (shy vs. confident) as well as attainment (relatively high to middle, as all schools used in the research were high to middle attaining). These pilots were carried out with year 7 boys and girls (in separate groups) and year 10 boys. These particular groups were not chosen for a purpose by the researcher, but because the school was able to timetable a group discussion with only these groups. Parental consent was sought for these pupils, and from the pupils themselves, via the school. The pilot focus group interviews were recorded and later listened to by the researcher. Accompanying notes written during the groups were also looked at which highlighted the following areas for development in interviewing technique and administration.

Content of focus group interviews:
- Avoidance of leading questions.
- Knowing which questions and responses to pursue further.

- Giving an explanation of what self esteem was (to include the seven aspects of self esteem) so all pupils were aware of this before the description activity.

- Creating an activity near the start of the questions that would encourage discussion between the participants. It was decided the question asking participants to describe a person with low and high self esteem could be done by drawing a person on paper and then describing it together (Appendix 3).

Conduct of focus group interviews:

- Being aware of giving longer pauses, and not filling silences with further questions.

- Use of re-phrasing the same question in different ways to stimulate more discussion

- Awareness that male groups were quieter than female groups and needed more prompting. This may be because of a female researcher conducting the focus groups. Although there was nothing that could be done about this in order to keep questioning consistent and therefore using one interviewer, it was important to be aware of this and try to make participants as comfortable as possible. Ensuring that male groups had a minimum of 4 students was one way the researcher felt this was achieved in order for them to feel comfortable with each other.

- Combining the two questions on SS vs. CE schooling was also done as the answers were repetitive of both questions.

Piloting led to the development of the interview guide to include an opening activity to encourage group discussion and working (describe a person with low and high self esteem was carried out on paper). It was felt that a structured activity to explore participants' perceptions of self esteem would be a useful starter activity.

4.7 Treatment and analysis of results

4.7.1 Stage 1- Questionnaires

All questionnaires were given an ID number manually. The data was then input into SPSS in preparation for analysis. The following steps were taken in the initial stages:

- Participating schools were given a code number from 1 to 6.
- The questionnaire ID number was input into the SPSS spreadsheet for each participant.
- Schools were coded for whether they were a single-sex male, a single-sex female or a co-educational school.
- Participants were given a code for their gender and for their year group.
- The questionnaire coded responses from 1 to 4.

All data was input into SPSS for the 45 questions of the SPPA. The researcher added two extra questions (46 and 47) on the topics of access

to personal and academic support at school to the SPPA. These were yes and no questions and were coded appropriately.

Averages were obtained for each of the eight competences. There were 5 questions for each competence (Scholastic Competence, Athletic Competence, Job Competence, Close Friendship, Romantic Appeal, Physical Appearance, Social Acceptance and Behavioural Conduct) and a further 5 questions to find a Global Self Esteem score.

ANOVAs were used to test for differences between answers from males vs. females from single sex schools and co-educational schools for questions 46 and 47. Analyses also compared year 8 and year 10. Factorial ANOVAs were used to analyse the scores for each of the questionnaire competences. The variables were year group, gender and school type.

4.7.2 Stage 2- Focus group interviews (Thematic Analysis)

Twelve focus groups were held and were transcribed. The transcriptions were analysed using thematic analysis as outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006). This is a flexible qualitative approach used specifically in psychology and outlined as a useful tool for those early on in a "qualitative research career" (pp. 81).

The aim of the focus groups was to explore participants' perceptions of what self esteem is, and how it can be supported at school and home, and whether differences exist in perceptions between year groups and genders.

Themes or patterns within the data can be identified in both an inductive, and 'bottom up' way or by a theoretical, 'top down' way (Braun & Clarke, 2006, pp. 83). Theoretical analysis is a process of coding the data trying to fit it into a pre existing frame or using the researchers "analytic preconceptions" (pp. 83), or fitting to pre-existing questions, as in this study. Thematic analysis provides both of these in the coding process and therefore felt like the most appropriate tool. It is also important to note that qualitative analyses are less rich when only working in a theory driven way (Braun & Clarke, 2006). It was therefore useful to use a tool that allowed for flexibility in analysis styles as stated by Braun and Clarke (2006).

This tool for analysis also allows the researcher to find generaliseable trends in the data that could be further explored in the future. It allows for the exploration of themes across a whole data set whilst also allowing for important individual perceptions to be identified.

4.7.2.1 Analysing the focus group transcriptions
During the focus groups, notes were kept alongside the interview schedule to identify key points raised and any questions or topics that were repeated across the interview, or questions that evoked emotional responses in any group members.

During the transcription process, reflections on the content of the focus groups were noted as well as possible connections between the groups' responses. All transcripts were read through twice before beginning the

coding process. A 'top down' process was pursued for the most part where the analysis was based on the questions asked.

After familiarisation with each transcript, they were analysed line by line but allowing for meaning to be spread further than per line. Codes were written alongside the text in the margin, and again connections between transcripts were identified in note form with reference to inter-relationships among answers to particular questions.

Once all the transcripts were coded, they were re-read to look for overlap between codes, and all codes were written out. The codes were then grouped and examined in relation to the research questions. Sub-themes and themes then emerged from the grouping of codes. Transcripts were re-read to ensure all relevant codes and meaningful units were represented in the themes.

The themes that were developed were discussed during supervision to help to clarify the themes. A validity check was also conducted with a fellow Trainee Educational Psychologist who read sections of particular transcripts and coded them themselves (see Appendix 15). We then together, examined the codes for each sub-theme and an agreement was reached.

This process was used to recognise that each researcher will bring different perspectives to an analysis, but these perspectives can be regarded with equal validity. Therefore the aim of the process was not to show that we

both reached the same codes and sub-themes, but to ensure the reasons why the researcher had chosen the particular codes and sub-themes were clearly apparent.

Appendix 4 gives examples of the researcher's coded transcripts.

5. Results

5.1 Introduction

In the first section of this chapter the quantitative data and analyses will be presented followed by the qualitative results. Therefore firstly the findings from the Harter Self Perception Profile for Adolescents (SPPA) questionnaire and the analyses of the different dimensions of self esteem/competence will be presented. Within these analyses, there are summaries of the findings of groups of dimensions in order to make the results easier to follow. The dimensions are grouped into three competences in the order in which they were analysed. After this there will be the qualitative evidence which was collected through focus groups at each school. This encompasses the results of the thematic analysis coding, displayed by use of tables showing examples of codes, sub themes and the over arching themes. The tables also include which of the focus groups suggested the codes (frequency of codes). Further explanations can be found in section 5.3.

Results tables for all the findings of the study are given from appendix 5 onwards.

5.2 Quantitative data analyses

Since an unequal number of SS and CE pupils exists in the data sample, all analyses were repeated with more equal numbers, where only three schools from Area 1 were used in the analyses. When results with the reduced sample differ from those in the larger data set, these will be added in footnotes under the analyses (all other analyses with the smaller data set can be found in the Appendices). To do this only schools in Area 1 have been used for these analyses (one SSF, one SSM, and one CE school). However, even in Area 1, there was a larger sample of SSF pupils than SSM and CE pupils therefore further statistical analyses were run from Area 1 with the number of SSFs reduced by randomly selecting a smaller SSF sample size to further equalise numbers. There were no changes in significance between these results and those using the entire Area 1 data set.

Overall statistics

Questionnaires were collected from co-educational (CE) schools (n = 305) and single-sex (male and female) schools (n = 813). The responses by the SS schools in Area 1 did not differ significantly to the paired SS schools in Area 2, therefore the single sex groups for each gender were combined.

Separate Univariate ANOVAs were used to analyse the questionnaire data for each of the eight competences and for the Global Self Worth

competence. The variables for each ANOVA were year group, gender and school type. T-tests were used to explore any significant interactions.

5.2.1 Scholastic Competence (Appendix 5)

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for Dependent Variable: Scholastic Competence

School Type	Gender	Year Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	2.9219	.58512	64
		Year 10	2.7945	.57540	73
	Female	Year 8	2.8310	.61585	84
		Year 10	2.6714	.70703	84
Single-Sex	Male	Year 8	3.0149	.59205	174
		Year 10	3.0127	.64146	142
	Female	Year 8	2.7526	.62587	253
		Year 10	2.7062	.65360	243

There was a significant main effect of gender, $F_{(1,1109)} = 20.920$, $p = 0.00$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.19$. The main effects of school type ($p = 0.118$) and year group ($p = 0.050$) were not significant. There was a significant interaction between school type and gender, $F_{(1, 1109)} = 4.298$, $p = 0.038$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.004$. [1] The interaction is depicted in Figure 1.

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[1] Please see Appendix 5b.

Figure 1. Interaction between school type and gender for Scholastic

Competence

Estimated Marginal Means of Scholastic_Ave

Ratings of scholastic competence by males and females attending SS

schools differed significantly from each other, t (810) = 6.270, p<0.001

There was also a significant difference in ratings by males attending a SS

school compared to a CE school, t (451)= -2.587, p = 0.01. This was not

true of the comparison between females at SS and CE schools. There was

no significant difference between males and females attending CE schools

(p =0.157).

5.2.2 Social Acceptance (Appendix 6)

Table 4. Descriptive statistics for Dependent Variable: Social Acceptance

School Type	Gender	Year Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	3.0375	.56217	64
		Year 10	3.0027	.46367	73
	Female	Year 8	3.0238	.50863	84
		Year 10	3.0881	.49123	84
Single-Sex	Male	Year 8	3.1126	.56992	174
		Year 10	3.1169	.54068	142
	Female	Year 8	3.0941	.61477	253
		Year 10	2.9844	.53775	243

There were no significant main effects for gender, year group or school type[2]. There were also no significant interactions.

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[2] See Appendix 6b.

5.2.3 Athletic Competence (Appendix 7)

Table 5. Descriptive statistics for Dependent Variable: Athletic Competence

School Type	Gender	Year Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	2.8188	.80453	64
		Year 10	2.5342	.69206	73
	Female	Year 8	2.4714	.76530	84
		Year 10	2.3190	.75737	84
Single-Sex	Male	Year 8	2.8263	.76293	175
		Year 10	2.7620	.78386	142
	Female	Year 8	2.3947	.79797	337
		Year 10	2.2679	.75675	327

There were significant main effects for gender, $F(1,1110) = 53.100$, $p = 0.00$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.046$, and for year group, $F(1, 1110) = 8.708$, $p = 0.003$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.008$[3].

In CE school males rated themselves higher than girls did with respect to athletic competence. In SS a similar pattern emerged.

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[3] See Appendix 7b

5.2.4 Summary 1: Results for Scholastic Competence (SC), Social Acceptance (SA) and Athletic Competence (AC).

There were significant main effects of gender for Scholastic Competence and Athletic Competence where ratings were higher for males than females. There was also a significant effect of year group such that ratings decreased with age for Athletic Competence.

There were no significant interactions for Social Acceptance or Athletic Competence however, there was a significant interaction between school type and gender for Scholastic Competence. This was due to males' perceptions of Scholastic Competence being far higher in SS than in CE schools. The effect was not the same for females.

There were no significant changes between the results of analyses using the smaller and larger data sets.

5.2.5 Physical Appearance (Appendix 8)

Table 6. Descriptive statistics for Dependent Variable: Physical Appearance

School Type	Gender	Year Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	2.7031	.68452	64
		Year 10	2.6027	.54415	73
	Female	Year 8	2.3952	.75473	84
		Year 10	2.3238	.76483	84
Single-Sex	Male	Year 8	2.7691	.69296	175
		Year 10	2.7986	.62000	142
	Female	Year 8	2.4190	.69736	253
		Year 10	2.2593	.66440	243

There was a significant main effect for gender $F(1,1110) = 63.666$, p= 0.00, $\eta_p^2 = 0.054$[4]. There were no significant interactions.

Males rated their self esteem with respect to physical appearance higher than females in CE schools and in SS schools.

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[4] In Area 1, there were significant effects of gender $F(1, 740)= 54.825$, p = 0.00, and for school type, $F(1, 740) = 4.296$, p = 0.039, the η_p^2 was only 0.06. (See Appendix 8b).

5.2.6 Job Competence (Appendix 9)
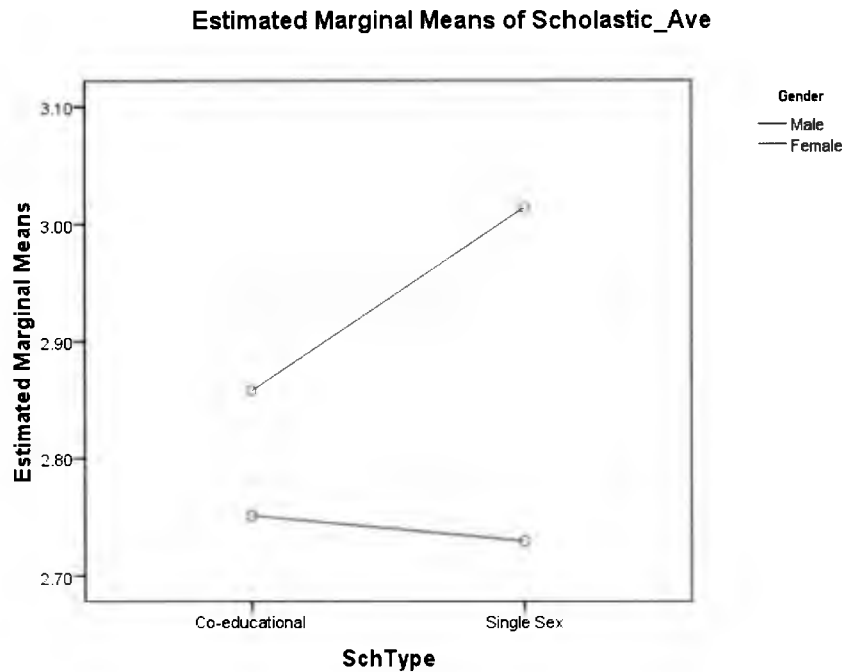
Table 7. Descriptive statistics for Dependent Variable: Job Competence

School Type	Gender	Year Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	2.7031	.68452	64
		Year 10	2.6027	.54415	73
	Female	Year 8	2.3952	.75473	84
		Year 10	2.3238	.76483	84
Single-Sex	Male	Year 8	2.7691	.69296	175
		Year 10	2.7986	.62000	142
	Female	Year 8	2.4190	.69736	253
		Year 10	2.2593	.66440	243

There was a main effect of gender, $F_{(1, 1110)} = 13.414$, $p = 0.00$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.012$, and a significant interaction between gender and year group, $F_{(1, 1110)} = 9.189$, $p = 0.02$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.008$[5].

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[5] See Appendix 9b

Figure 2. Interaction between year group and gender for Job Competence

Estimated Marginal Means of JobComp_Ave
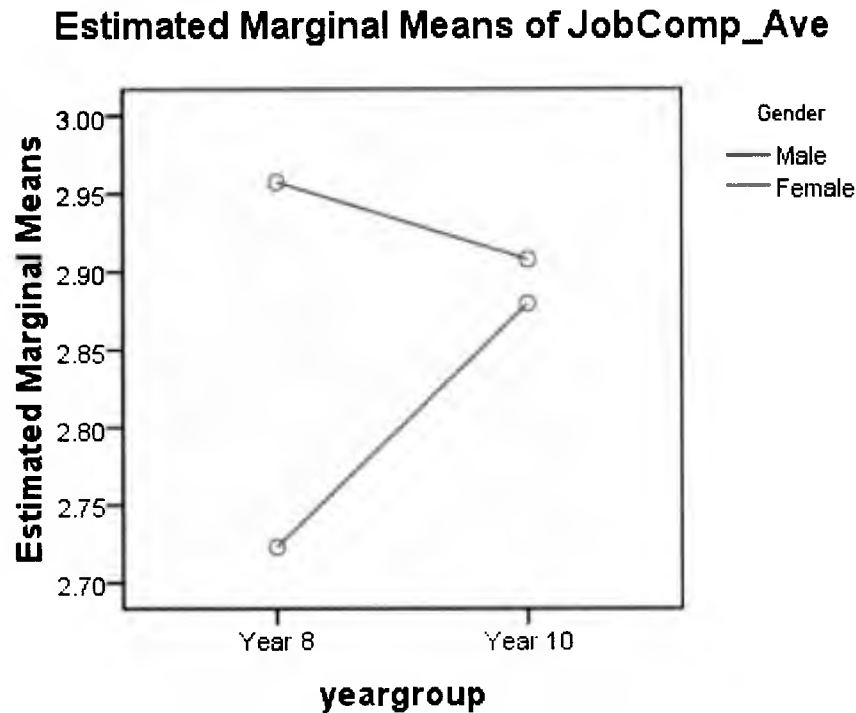
In year 10, there were no significant differences between ratings by females compared to males (p = 0.533). In year 8 however, males rated themselves significantly more competent than females, t (574) = 5.249, p = 0.000. This also shows how female ratings of job competence increase considerably from year 8 to year 10, t (662) = 3.805, p = 0.00, but that male ratings do not change (p = 0.306).

5.2.7 Romantic Appeal (Appendix 10)

Table 8. Descriptive statistics for Dependent Variable: Romantic Appeal

School Type	Gender	Year Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	2.3500	.52855	64
		Year 10	2.5178	.51944	73
	Female	Year 8	2.2952	.48443	84
		Year 10	2.4643	.49979	84
Single-Sex	Male	Year 8	2.6594	.57706	175
		Year 10	2.7268	.61493	142
	Female	Year 8	2.4656	.46765	253
		Year 10	2.4872	.54784	243

There were significant main effects for school type, $F_{(1, 1110)} = 24.040$, $p = 0.00$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.021$, gender, $F_{(1,1110)} = 13.922$, $p = 0.00$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.012$, and for year group, $F_{(1,110)} = 8.605$, $p = 0.003$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.008$. There were also significant interactions for school type and gender, $F_{(1,110)} = 5.014$, $p = 0.025$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.004$[6].

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[6]There were no significant interactions although plots revealed similar patterns to when using the entire data set (see Appendix 10b)

Figure 3. Interaction between school type and gender for Romantic Appeal

Estimated Marginal Means of RomApp_Ave
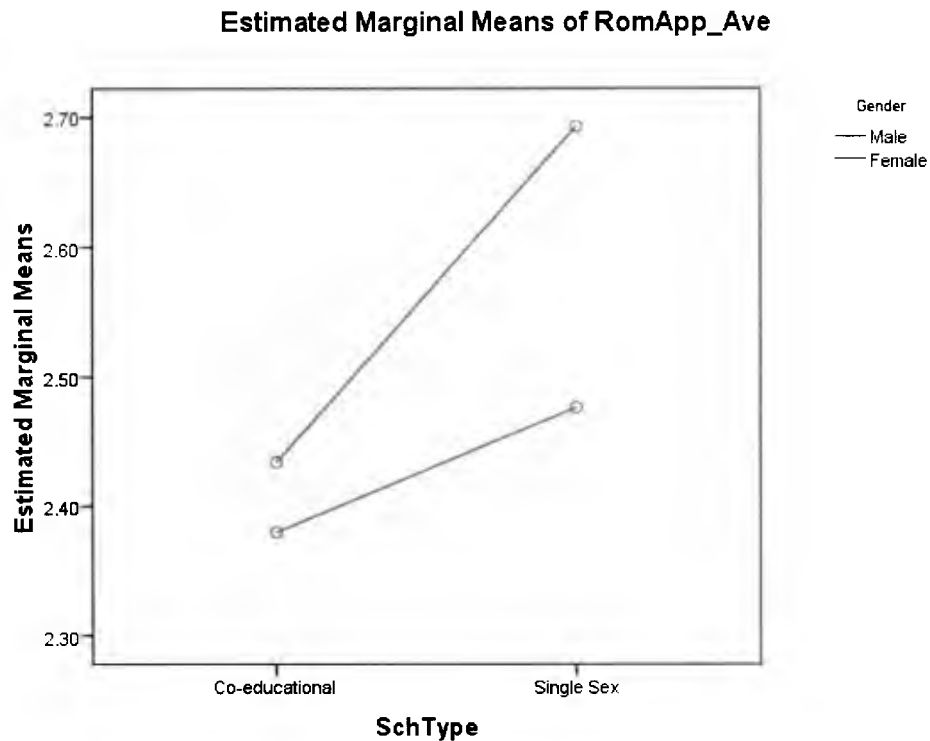
In SS schools males rated their romantic appeal as higher than females, t (811) = 5.462, p = 0.00. The scores of males and females were similar in CE schools (p= 0.312). SS males rated their romantic appeal as significantly higher than males in CE schools, t (452) =-4.253, p = 0.00. SS females rated their romantic appeal as higher than females in CE schools also, t(662) = -2.137, p = 0.033.

5.2.8 Summary 2: Results for Physical Appearance (PA), Job Competence (JC), and Romantic Appeal (RA)

There was a significant main effect of gender for Physical Appearance, Job Competence and Romantic Appeal where males rated themselves higher than females with each dimension of self esteem. Ratings were generally higher in SS schools than in CE schools although these results were not always significant but were for Romantic Appeal. There was also a more complex relationship between year groups for Job Competence. Year 8s rated their Physical Appearance higher than year 10s but this was not significant. However year 10s rated their Romantic Appeal higher than year 8s and this was significant.

When using the smaller data set, there was also a significant main effect of school type for Physical Appearance but this has a very small effect size (0.06). There were no differences using the smaller data set for Job Competence. For Romantic Appeal, all the main effects remained significant however the interaction between school type and gender lost significance, most likely to be as the effect sizes for the interaction results using the entire data set were very small to begin with.

5.2.9 Behavioural Conduct (Appendix 11)

Table 9. Descriptive statistics for Dependent Variable: Behavioural Conduct

School Type	Gender	Year Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	2.8281	.59827	64
		Year 10	2.5644	.54502	73
	Female	Year 8	2.9024	.58536	84
		Year 10	2.6667	.56597	84
Single-Sex	Male	Year 8	2.8971	.57570	175
		Year 10	2.7493	.58319	142
	Female	Year 8	2.8000	.54946	253
		Year 10	2.7259	.61907	243

There was a significant main effect of year group with F(1, 110) =20.916, p = 0.00, ηp^2 =0.018. There were no other significant main effects or interactions[7].

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[7] In Area 1, there was a significant main effect of year group, F (1, 740) = 14.689, p = 0.00. There was a main effect of school type but this was small, F (1, 740) = 3.985, p = 0.049 (see Appendix 11b).

5.2.10 Close friendships (Appendix 12)

Table 10. Descriptive statistics for Dependent Variable: Close Friendships

School Type	Gender	Year Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	3.3094	.49496	64
		Year 10	3.0740	.62138	73
	Female	Year 8	3.5381	.50537	84
		Year 10	3.3571	.66374	84
Single-Sex	Male	Year 8	3.3131	.62385	175
		Year 10	3.1549	.57779	142
	Female	Year 8	3.4474	.67539	253
		Year 10	3.2543	.69924	243

Analyses revealed main effects of gender, $F (1, 1110) = 18.578$, $p = 0.00$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.016$, and of year group, $F (1,1110) = 19.697$, $p = 0.00$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.017$. There were no significant interactions[8].

In CE schools females rated their competence in making Close Friendships higher than males as did females in SS schools. Table 10 also shows that male ratings for Close Friendships are higher in SS schools than in CE schools. For females, it is higher in CE schools than in SS schools.

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[8]See Appendix 12b.

Ratings for making Close Friendships were higher in year 8 than year 10 for both males and females.

5.2.11 Global Self Worth (Appendix 13)

Table 11. Descriptive statistics for Dependent Variable: Global Self Worth

School Type	Gender	Year Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	3.1000	.55891	64
		Year 10	2.8849	.52801	73
	Female	Year 8	2.8738	.58477	84
		Year 10	2.8286	.67245	84
Single-Sex	Male	Year 8	3.0994	.55827	175
		Year 10	2.9845	.58350	142
	Female	Year 8	2.8862	.63721	253
		Year 10	2.7070	.64724	243

Analyses revealed significant main effects of gender, $F(1, 1110) = 21.806$, $p = 0.00$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.019$, and of year group, $F(1, 1110) = 11.207$, $p = 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.010$. There were no significant interactions[9].

Table 11 shows that in SS and CE schools, males rated their Global Self Worth higher than females.

Table 11 also shows males rate their Global Self Worth higher in year 8 than in year 10. The same pattern existed for females.

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[9] See Appendix 13b.

5.2.12 Summary 3: Results for Behavioural Conduct (BC), Close Friendships (CF) and Global Self Worth (GSW)

There were significant main effects of year group for Behavioural Conduct, Close Friendships and Global Self Worth whereby ratings were higher in year 8 than in year 10. For males, ratings of Behavioural Conduct were significantly higher in SS schools than in CE schools. Global Self Worth was also higher for males in SS schools but this was not significant. Ratings for Close Friendships were significantly higher for females than males overall and higher for females in the CE school than in the SS schools.

When the smaller data set was used for analyses of Behavioural Conduct ratings, there was an added significant main effect of school type; however the significance was very small. There were no changes in significant results for Close Friendships and Global Self Worth ratings when using the smaller data set.

5.2.13 Results for Question 46

a) If you needed support with a school issue, do you know which staff you could approach in school?

School Type	Gender	Year Group	YES %	NO %
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	78.1	28.9
		Year 10	69.9	30.1
	Female	Year 8	77.4	22.6
		Year 10	71.4	28.6
Single-sex	Male	Year 8	82.9	17.1
		Year 10	71.8	28.2
	Female	Year 8	74.3	25.7
		Year 10	72.8	27.2

Analyses revealed that year 8 were significantly more likely to approach staff than year 10s, $F(1,1110) = 5.145$, $p = 0.024$ with a small effect size of $\eta_p^2 = 0.005$. There were no differences between the types of schools or genders. Overall it appears the majority of pupils do know who to approach in schools for a school related issue.

b) If you needed support with a school issue would you approach staff in school?

School Type	Gender	Year Group	YES %	NO %
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	64.1	35.9
		Year 10	53.5	46.6
	Female	Year 8	65.4	34.5
		Year 10	50.0	50.0
Single-Sex	Male	Year 8	72.0	28.0
		Year 10	57.0	43.0
	Female	Year 8	63.2	36.8
		Year 10	58.8	41.2

Analyses revealed that year 8 were again significantly more likely to approach staff than year 10s, $F(1,1110) = 11.904$, $p = 0.024$ with effect size of $\eta_p^2 = 0.011$. There were no differences between the types of schools or genders. It appears that there is a larger proportion of pupils wishing not to discuss school issues with school staff. In some cases 50% (or near to) would not speak to a member of staff.

5.2.14 Results for Question 47

a) *If you needed support with a personal issue, do you know which staff you could approach in school?*

School Type	Gender	Year Group	YES %	NO %
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	43.8	56.2
		Year 10	50.7	49.3
	Female	Year 8	53.6	46.4
		Year 10	48.8	51.2
Single-sex	Male	Year 8	52.0	48.0
		Year 10	43.0	57.0
	Female	Year 8	51.8	48.2
		Year 10	56.4	43.6

Analyses revealed that there were no differences between saying yes or no between pupils in different year groups, of different genders and at different types of schools. With this question, a higher proportion of pupils did not know who to contact in school if they had a personal issue to discuss. In fact the table shows that for some of the variables, more pupils did not know who to contact than did.

b) If you needed support with a personal issue would you approach staff in school?

School Type	Gender	Year Group	YES %	NO %
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	17.2	82.8
		Year 10	13.7	86.3
	Female	Year 8	23.8	76.2
		Year 10	14.3	85.7
Single-sex	Male	Year 8	26.9	73.1
		Year 10	14.1	85.9
	Female	Year 8	18.2	81.8
		Year 10	19.8	80.2

Analyses revealed that there was a significant effect of year group, $F(1,1110)= 5.147$, $p = 0.023$, but not of gender or school type. It appears from the table above that year 8s were more likely to approach a member of staff than year 10s. For this question the majority of pupils said that they would not speak to someone in school if they had a personal issue.

5.2.15 Overall Summary

The results show some interesting patterns when comparing gender, year group and type of school. The analyses reveal that males rate themselves as higher with most of the competences except Close Friendships and some aspects of Behavioural Conduct. With respect to year group, there are some surprising findings showing that although most competences seem to decrease with age, this is not true for making Close Friendships and for Romantic Appeal. When comparing school types, a complex array of results are exhibited, changing dependent on year group and gender with each competence. Pupils felt they knew who they could contact for a school based issue but some were not likely to do this. Comparatively, they were less likely to know who to approach if there was a personal issue to discuss and in fact were very unlikely to speak to a member of staff at all. Years 8s were more likely to approach staff than year 10s.

A closer look at these results will be presented in the next chapter.

5.3 Qualitative Data Analyses

5.3.1 Introduction

The following section shows the themes and sub themes that emerged as a result of using Thematic Analysis on the transcriptions for the focus groups. As detailed in the Methodology chapter; section 4.7.2, thematic analysis was chosen as it allows for the exploration of themes across a whole data set. The method also however allows for individual perspectives to be acknowledged and respected. Within the process, the transcriptions were coded and then these codes were grouped across the six focus groups looking for similarities between the codes in different groups. From this, a sub theme was given for the codes in common. Sub themes were then given an overarching theme name which for some questions gives a general answer to the question posed to the focus group, and in others gives a name to the types of topics that were raised in discussion of the question posed to the focus groups.

The themes are presented in question order, in tables, and some accompanying codes are provided to highlight the types of discussions that occurred in the focus group. The frequency of the code being mentioned by different focus groups is also available in the column labelled 'school types'. This column will show whether the code and therefore sub theme, was mentioned by all of the groups (split by year group and school type), or whether an individual raised the issue. This therefore allows importance to be placed on the interesting and unique views of some of the individuals

and groups. Further exploration of these tables and themes can be found in the next chapter.

The full set of transcription codes can be found in Appendix 14.

5.3.2 Question 1: What do you think self esteem is?

THEME	SUB THEME	CODES examples	SCH TYPES (6 groups)
Feelings about yourself	Confidence in self	• Think you can do something • Comfortable with self • How happy you are • Body confidence • How you cope with things • Good at subjects • Motivated	SSF8, SSF8, CEF8, SSM8, SSM8, CEM8,
			SSM10,SSM10, CE10 SSF10, SSF10, CE10,
	Confidence when relating to others	• With relationships • Making friends • Talking to others • Shy/good with people • How easily wound up	CEF10
			SSM8

5.3.3 Question 2A: Describe a person with high self esteem

THEME	SUB THEMES	CODES examples	SCH TYPES (6 groups)
Personal traits	Happy	• Smiling • Laughs a lot	CEF8, SSF8, SSF8, CEM8, SSM8, SSM8
			SSF10, SSF10, CEM10, SSM10
	Attractiveness	• Not concerned with looks	CEF8, SSF8, CEM8
		• Naturally pretty • Thin or curvy • Muscles • Happy with height	CEF10, SSF10, SSM10,
	Educational traits	• Contributes in class • Tries different	SSF8, SSF8, CEM8, SSM8

Traits impacting others		activities • Good at things • Modest • Smart	SSF10, CEM10
	Sociable	• Talkative • Positive body language • Popular • Friendly	CEF8, SSF8, SSF8, CEM8, SSM8, SSM8
			CEF10, SSF10, SSF10, SSM10, CEM10
	Influence of family	• Close family • Older siblings to copy	-
			CE10
Negative attitude to others	Attitude to others	• Bossy • Put others down	SSM8
			CEM10,
	Thoughts about self	• Big headed • Think she is amazing • Arrogant	SSM8
			SSM10

5.3.4 Question 2B: Describe a person with low self esteem

THEME	SUB THEME	CODES examples	SCH TYPES (6 groups)
Negative characteristics	Poor social awareness	• Quiet • Doesn't enjoy attention	CEF8, SSF8, SSF8, SSM8, SSM8
		• Unsociable • (Feels) Unpopular • Thinks she is bullied • No one to talk to	CEF10, SSF10, SSF10,
	Negative body language	• Nervy • Hunched shoulders • Worried • Cries	CEF8, SSF8, SSM8
			SSF10
	Influence of family	• Divorce • Family issues	-
			CEF10, SSM10
	Less attractive to self and others	• Weight issues (fat or underweight) • Hides face • Doesn't take care of self	CEF8, SSF8, SSF8, CEM8, SSM8
			SSF10, CEM10, SSM10, SSM10
	Negative feelings about self	• Low confidence • Not happy being who they are • Pessimistic • Introvert	CEF8, SSF8, SSF8, CEM8, SSM8, SSM8
			SSF10, SSM10
	Negative attitude to work	• Nerdy • Not smart • Not working to highest standard • Doesn't answer questions	CEF8, CEM8, SSM8
			SSF10, SSF10,

5.3.5 Question 3: What factors may affect self esteem in school?

THEME	SUB THEME	CODES examples	SCH TYPES (6 groups)
Effects of peers	Positive friendships	• Having friends • Having people to talk to	CEF8, SSF8, SSF8, CEM8, SSM8
			SSF10, SSF10, SSM10
	Team membership	• Member of sports team	SSF8, SSF8, SSM8
			SSM10, SSM10
	Peer pressure	• Bullying • Comparing self to others • Competition in school (healthy)	SSF8, SSM8
			CEF10, SSF10, SSM10
Effects of school	Motivation	• How hard you work • Contributing in class • Type of school • Success with work • Being given labels e.g. Gifted and Talented.	CEF8, SSF8, SSF8, CEM8
			CEF8, SSF10, CEM10, SSM10
	Relationship with teachers	• Not able to control class • Teachers not choosing you • Being picked on • Teacher's negative comments	CEF8, SSF8, SSM8, SSM8
			CEF10, SSF10, SSF10, SSM10
	Transitions	• First day of secondary school • Move from primary school	SSF8
			-
Effect of family	Family breakdown	• Divorce	-
			CEF10, SSM10

5.3.6 Question 4: How can we help to increase self esteem in schools? Who can help?

THEME	SUB THEME	CODES examples	SCH TYPES (6 groups)
Social Support	Support friendships	• Buddy systems • Having friends to talk to • Speaking to popular pupils	CEF8, SSF8, SSF8, CEM8, SSM8, SSM8
			CEF10, SSF10, SSF10, SSM10
	Group work	• Extra curricular and after school clubs • More leagues or mixed ability clubs open to all • Team building activities- residential trips	SSF8, SSF8, CEM8, SSM8, SSM8
			CEF10,
Access to positive role models	School staff	• Teachers • Counsellors • Form tutors - to listen, praise and support	SSF8, CEM8, SSM10
			CEF10, SSF10, SSM10, SSM10
	Outside speakers	• Idols	CEM8
			SSF10
Teaching	Self esteem	• Direct teaching • Focus on positives of self • Know what you are good at	CEF8, SSF8, SSF8, CEM8, SSM8,
			CEF10, SSF10, SSM10
	Drama	• Help to fit in	CEF8

5.3.7 Question 5: How can someone's family help to raise self esteem?

THEME	SUB THEME	CODES examples	SCH TYPES (6 groups)
Negative impact of family	Family breakdown	• Talking to divorced parents without taking sides • Visiting a parent • Unsupportive siblings	SSF8, SSM8, SSM8
			CEF10, SSF10, SSM10
	Expectations	• Too high • Pushy parents • Parents' own educational background	SSF8
			SSF10, SSM10
	Feelings about them	• Embarrassed • Hard to believe them	CEF8, SSM8
			SSF10, SSM10
Positive impact of family	Showing emotional support	• Encouragement • Feeling OK to mess up • Constructive criticism • Supportive elder siblings • More time with them	CEF8, SSF8, SSF8, CEM8, SSM8, SSM8
			SSF10, SSF10, CEM10, SSM10
	Rewards	• Praise • Positive comments • Free time/holidays • Rewards	SSF8
			SSF10, SSF10, CEM10, SSM10
	Learn social skills	• Socialising with parents' friends • Extended family • Sending you to a club	CEF8, SSF8, SSM8

5.3.8 Question 6: What difference does CE or SS schooling make to self esteem?

THEME	SUB THEME	CODES examples	SCH TYPES (6 groups)
Social effects	Personality differences	• Boys mature quicker in SS • Boys more supportive of girls in CE	CEF8, SSF8
			SSM10
	Behaviour in school better in CE *	• Boys behave better in CE • Less fighting in CE	CEF8, SSF8, CEM8
			SSM10,
	Learning to interact with opposite sex better in CE	• Learn to treat girls better in CE • More confident in CE • Easier to talk to opposite sex out of school • Positive for future job.	CEF8, SSF8, SSF8, CEM8, SSM8, SSM8
			CEF10, CEM10, SSM10, SSM10
Education effects	Positive in SS	• More concentration as less distraction • More confidence	SSF8, CEM8, SSM8
			SSF10, SSF10, SSM10, SSM10
	Negative of SS	• More pressure • More competition	CEF8
			SSF10, SSM10
	Positive in CE	• Different perspectives in class discussions	SSF8
			-
Physical effects	Importance of appearance more in CE	• More into looks if boys there • Less embarrassed if same gender • Stronger feelings towards boys in SS	SSF8, SSM8
			CEF10, SSF10, SSF10, SSM10

* Note: one SSM school suggested that there was more bullying regarding homosexuality in CE schools.

5.3.9 Question 7: Why do you think people did not want to answer the questionnaire or unwilling to discuss self esteem?

THEME	SUB THEME	CODES examples	SCH TYPES (6 groups)
Not wanting to share their feelings	Too personal	• Want to keep thing to self • Self conscious • Embarrassing • Better to speak 1:1 • Don't want to share info • Not wanting to realise they have low SE.	CEF8, SSF8, SSF8, CEM8, SSM8, SSM8
			CEF10, SSF10, SSF10, SSM10
	Confused about self	• Confused about what you think of yourself • Different feelings at different times • Didn't know what to put. • Didn't see point of questionnaire	CEF8, SSF8, CEM8
			CEF10, CEM10, SSM10, SSM10

5.3.10 Summary

The tables above highlight the similarities and differences between the answers of males and females from single-sex and co-educational schools. Some sub-themes were easily extractable due to the number of groups suggesting similar ideas. For example in question 4, all 6 year 8 groups valued the idea of supporting friendships to raise self esteem in school. However, some sub-themes arose as only a few groups mentioned the ideas, but this was still a valued idea. For example, in question 5 only one group of year 8s mentioned expectations of their family as having an impact on self esteem at home. Although only mentioned by one group, this may have been something other groups could also have felt but did not think of at the time of the interview. Therefore it may still be useful for schools when supporting parents of pupils.

In the following chapter, the themes that have arisen and the importance of the frequency in which they were shared by the groups will be discussed.

6. Discussion

6.1 Introduction

Research in the field of self esteem, and in particular single-sex (SS) and co-educational (CE) schooling and the effect on self esteem, has highlighted views for and against educating young people in these settings. The research agrees that there are advantages of both settings for the development and nurturing of self identity and self esteem. The research also indicates that it is important to study self esteem as it has such an impact on so many aspects of the lives of young people, including being a risk factor for teenage pregnancies, eating disorders and extended unemployment (Emler, 2001).

Findings have varied depending on the country where the research was conducted, when the studies were carried out, the types of schools sampled and whether a multidimensional rather than unidimensional tool was used to gauge levels of self esteem. With so many factors having an effect on results, it can be difficult to compare research, and judge its reliability. In the present study it was therefore important to select schools based on demographics of the local population (choosing schools to compare in similar areas), academic achievement (top achieving schools in the area) and socio-economic status (based on similar numbers of Free School Meals), and to obtain a large enough sample to compare SS and CE across year groups (year 8 and year 10). The use of both quantitative and qualitative data enabled a triangulation of some of the outcome data.

The mixed methods approach has also allowed for gaining detailed information about self esteem from the participants, and a deeper understanding of the outcomes of the quantitative results.

The results chapter revealed differences in self esteem, according to gender and SS/CE schooling. The multidimensional measure of self esteem adopted showed that some aspects of self esteem were elevated for males and some for females. There was agreement with previous research, as well as new findings that will be discussed in relation to the existing literature. The results will be presented next, firstly with the quantitative and then the qualitative findings, with the use of quotes from pupils in the focus groups. The findings will then be summarised in relation to the research questions.

6.2 Discussion of quantitative findings

It was found that gender was the most important factor when considering self esteem, where males rated themselves in general as higher than females in most of the competences except Close Friendships. Ratings appeared to decrease from year 8 to year 10 except for romantic appeal.

In this section a detailed discussion of the quantitative findings will be carried out. The analyses of the results have been broken down into the nine competences with accompanying selected quotes from some of the participants from the focus groups. These quotes voice the opinions and

responses that were made by pupils and are a reflection of a common theme amongst the pupils. At times, an important quote may have been selected that may have been unique to the group; in such circumstances this has been stated with the reasons for choosing the quote given.

6.2.1 Scholastic competence

The majority of self esteem research comparing SS and CE schools focuses on the effect on perceptions of academic competence. Several studies identified a positive relationship between academic achievement and self esteem (e.g. Mael et al. 2005). Males typically rate themselves higher on most aspects of self esteem scales including scholastic competence. In the present study, in agreement with previous research, males rated their academic competence as consistently higher than females across settings.

Thinking further about academic self esteem, previous research also indicates that teachers tend to spend more time in classroom interactions with male rather than female students (Kelly, 1998). Reasons put forward for this have been that males dominate discussions for example, by calling out answers rather than waiting to be asked for a response as females tend to do (Baker et al. 1995). This was also highlighted in the results of the current study; there were higher levels of embarrassment evident on the part of females when speaking out in class.

"Like if it was like an answer in class or something you wouldn't want to say it; in case you were wrong.

"I have heard like from mixed schools like the boys do sometimes, like, make fun of the girls and then that kind of like puts them down but here it's like just girls so… in a girl's school, like boys can't disturb you or get on your nerves or anything so people concentrate"

Female SS quotes

Embarrassment in class was one example given of why ratings of academic competence would be higher for females in SS rather than CE schools where they would have the opportunity to discuss their opinions freely in class. In the present study, female ratings of academic competence did not differ between schools as the quotes suggest they might do, perhaps showing that they are able to ignore taunts and comments from boys. In fact some females identified that having males in the classroom can be of benefit to education.

"I think boys, they do kind of have like another kind of way of thinking which is quite useful in education, I mean maybe not all lessons but I think that, especially discussions and stuff, they can always contribute differently"

Female SS

Males ratings of academic competence were however lower in CE schools than in SS schools, highlighting that perhaps being distracted by females and expending energy in showing off was a more important factor (Francis, 2000). The results can be supported by pupils' views from the focus groups. For example:

"Yeah, you probably concentrate more at a single-sex school 'cos like there's no um distraction"

Male SS

Another possible reason discussed for males having lower perceptions of academic competence in CE than in SS schools could be that SS school curriculum is more polarised to giving learning opportunities in the preferred learning styles of males, and teaching can be geared to this (Kniveton, 2006; Warrington & Young, 2002). Therefore CE schools may have the effect of lessening boys' feelings of competence in certain subjects. Foon (1988) identified that CE schools had more sex-stereotypic polarisation of attitudes regarding school subjects than SS schools (Lawrie & Brown, 1992; Stables, 1990), and that boys were affected by these attitudes even more than were girls. Therefore, males in CE schools would be more likely to be less focussed in female gender stereotypical subjects and activities (Marsh, Byrne & Shavelson, 1988; Marsh, Parker & Barnes, 1985; Lawrence & Winschal, 1973)

Males from CE schools were more likely to comment on social relationships with girls rather than the effect on education, perhaps identifying that males in SS schools were more focussed on achievement and therefore perceive their achievement as higher, than males in CE schools. Females, in both SS and CE schools were more likely to talk about social relationships rather than effects on achievement.

6.2.2 Social Acceptance

The social acceptance sub scale taps into the degree to which a young person feels accepted by peers or feels popular. It does not look directly at a pupil's social skills (Harter, 1985). When considering this in relation to the current research, it was found that there were no significant differences between ratings of feelings socially accepted between SS and CE schools. However, a response from the focus group seemed to highlight that a minority of pupils may feel more confident with the same gender:

"she's (in reference to a female peer attending an SS school) always going on about how she'd be walking around and talking to her friends, it's the same sex school and you've all got the same problems, one way or another, and its not the same embarrassment"

Female CE

Social acceptance was higher for boys in SS schools than in CE schools, although this was not statistically significant (Table 4, pp 91). Surprisingly, social acceptance was higher for females in year 10 in the CE school than

in the SS school. One female from the focus group said her reason for this was because boys can make better friends than girls at times and therefore there is more choice in making friends and feeling accepted. Although the results have shown that there was no statistical differences in feelings of social competence in both SS and CE schools, many pupils in the focus groups also referred to the fact that socially, it is better experience for the future to attend a CE school as you are more likely to develop the skills needed to socialise with anyone and therefore feel accepted:

"I think co-educational schools are better cause you're mixing and meeting other people whereas is same sex schools you're just with girls. I wouldn't want to go to a same sex school, I'd kinda get bored a lot of the time, well my mum always says to me girls can be really horrible and boys can be better friends sometimes if you think you cant tell a girl, you can definitely tell a boy, but another way they don't always understand"

Female CE

"I think with single-sex schools when you leave them you're a lot less comfortable around the opposite sex, I mean if I suddenly went to a mixed school, um, I don't think it about me but other people may feel a bit uncomfortable around boys and think they're like these different creatures because they're not used to seeing them"

Female SS

It could be that in trying to achieve social acceptance, one is developing the social skills needed to do so successfully. Therefore, females appear to gain more from having males present, perhaps gaining confidence to speak out and challenge opinions from others and in the process becoming more socially skilled and popular (Kovacs et al. 1996) and therefore feeling more socially accepted. The results from the focus groups show that some males feel more comfortable in same gender schools as they place value on how girls evaluate and judge them (Fischer and Tangney, 1995), and therefore feel more accepted by boys who think and act in similar ways. For example:

"Maybe not like you're trying to impress people, like, if girls were there then you would want to say umm, I'm coolest in the year, and maybe without them there's less of it. I'm not saying it's completely gone but there's less"

Male SS

6.2.3 Athletic Competence

Perceptions of athletic competence have rarely been studied with respect to gender differences and schooling. This competence in the SPPA identifies feelings about sports and outdoor activities. Wide ranging research on gender differences may point to males having higher athletic competence than females, most likely due to biological factors. Scientific research highlights that testosterone levels (which are significantly higher in men) have an impact on muscle growth and bone development (BBC, 2009), making outdoor activities less intensive for males than for females. Of course this is a simplistic and generalised view of the effect of hormones,

and many other factors may play a part in a person's athletic competence. It is important to highlight again at this point however, that the SPPA looks at perceptions of competences rather than the extent of competence. Therefore this sub test in the SPPA is identifying how males and females rate their competence and the results are being compared to see whose perceptions are higher.

In the current study there were main effects of both gender and age but not of school type. Males, as expected rated their athletic competence significantly higher than females in both SS and CE schools. One hypothesis was that males with their higher self confidence would rate their athletic competence as higher in CE schools where they are able to show off their skills in front of the opposite sex (Francis, 2000) however this trend was not found. Previous research has also found that males are likely to be more embarrassed in front of the opposite sex and therefore less likely to feel competent of their athletic skills in CE schools, however this view was also not supported by the results.

Females on the other hand showed higher athletic competence in CE schools than in SS schools (also not statistically significant), perhaps this could be an indication of females feeling more competitive in the presence of males and therefore feeling more competent or that they are less effected by competitive males as they know they are biologically different. One pupil explained this with the following idea:

"it's ok to compare yourself to boys cause they're completely different. Like if a boy is really good at running then you could say 'well he's a boy, he plays football all the time'. But if you compare yourself to girls then, if you're in a school where it's just girls then you find, really, I should be at the same sort of level as her, cause she's a girl, she's in my class, so we should be at the same level 'cause girls and boys are different, as boys are at a different emotional level".

<div align="right">Female SS</div>

Overall however, Athletic Competence did not seem to be effected by the type of school a pupil attended although as highlighted above certain trends were found.

6.2.4 Physical Appearance

Harter (1999) notes that physical appearance correlates most highly with self esteem and asserts that concern with appearance is almost universal. Negative feelings towards body image and appearance for example can have negative effects on other areas of competence, including having the confidence to make friends. The physical appearance sub scale taps into the degree to which a young person is happy with the way he/she looks, including one's height, weight, body, face, hair, and whether he/she feels that he/she is good looking (Harter, 1985). It was once the general trend that females evaluated their appearance more than males. However a growing body of literature identifies males as also assessing their physical appearance with more scrutiny (BEAT, 2009). Despite this, in the present

study, males rated their physical appearance as significantly higher than females in both SS and CE settings.

Male ratings were significantly higher in SS schools than in CE schools (Table 6, pp 94), perhaps again highlighting the effect of having females present. This was a common idea amongst the focus groups for example:

"Wouldn't have to worry about what you look like – like if you have a bad hair day you don't have to worry about it or anything"

Male SS

"I think the fact that we're a single-sex school probably on average probably increases the self esteem because there are not loads of girls around. The majority of men would probably see it as maybe a distraction, you can't quite, if you're not quite as popular or attractive or whatever it is to get a girl then maybe that would most probably lower your self esteem and there's not the competitive nature in that sense although it's probably brought through in other senses, especially sports"

Male SS

Granleese and Joseph (1993) found that with girls in CE schools, appearance was the single best predictor of global self worth. In agreement with this, the results showed a similarity between ratings of Global Self Worth and Physical Appearance. In the current study, females rated their

physical appearance as slightly (but not significantly) higher in CE schools, than in SS schools. Perhaps highlighting that for some pupils receiving feedback from the opposite sex may help to raise self esteem in this area.

"...because if we had boys here it would be more about in to your looks I guess"

Female SS

Therefore in SS schools, as there is less feedback, apart from female friends, one is less likely to feel competent in this area, especially as pupils' identified that to meet the opposite sex, you would need to make a conscious effort to meet out of school which can be stressful.

This is of course all assuming that females value feedback from males, and males value feedback from females with respect to heterosexual relationships. In fact, as some pupils raised, there are different effects if the pupil is homosexual, but comparatively this population is small. As the difference between females in SS and CE schools is so small and not significant, it can also be argued that in fact, females form their perceptions of physical appearance based on factors other than peer feedback. Effects of the media and role models are also important (Arganbright, 2008).

6.2.5 Job Competence

Again perception of job competence is an area with very limited research data. Research in the field of self esteem and job competence mainly

focuses on adults' perceptions of how the job affects them rather than how it affects young people accessing and working towards engaging in employment. Mentoor and Friedrich (2007) when looking at entrepreneurial orientations in students, suggest that all human beings begin life with an initial set of biological as well as sociological characteristics. These characteristics, together with socio-economic circumstances such as employment prospects and education, can influence an individual's attitude towards working. In light of this, if job competence is not nurtured in schools and higher education, positive attitudes towards working will be reduced.

From the researcher's own work in the Educational Psychology field, it has become apparent that in fact encouraging and fostering competence with finding a job is limited in secondary schools. Previous small scale research in a London borough indicated that, although Connexions and careers advisors are available in schools, pupils are not likely to access and use the services provided because they have not even begun to think about what options are available to them, and where or how to get started. In the same study some young people said that they would not know whether they would be eligible for higher education for better job prospects, and some suggested they would not know how to fill out application forms. In most academic schools, able pupils are encouraged to pursue high profile careers, and relatively lower achieving pupils are advised on college courses sometimes that are not even of interest to them. The pupils left in the middle are often supported by family members or those pupils who are motivated will investigate options for themselves. Allen, (2009) found that

adolescent security and parental bond, robustly predicted career and financial competence. Hence, not only is it vital to support young people with their aspirations and career choices at school, it is also vital that the young person feels supported by whomever they are most attached to. The role of the family will be discussed further in 6.3.6.

It has become apparent that schools are geared towards achieving excellent end of school results, but what happens after school life for some pupils is not always acknowledged or supported. It is often quite late in school life when pupils realise that they should be working towards and aspiring towards a certain job or career.

In the current study, the job competence sub scale looks at the degree to which pupils would be able to handle a paying job and review how satisfied they would be at executing a job at the present time. It was apparent that some participants were not thinking about paid employment at this age, perhaps identifying that pupils within the schools chosen were less likely to carry out jobs (other than paid chores within the home) as this may not be expected by the family. It may also be that in fact times have changed to the extent that young people are not able to take on paid jobs at present, as there are fewer jobs available and fewer jobs that are suitable. It is important to note that Harter's SPPA was written in 1988, when the economic climate was different as was legislature for pay and working rights of young people.

The current study shows that male and female ratings do not differ between SS and CE schools. Males rate their job competence as higher than females as can be expected as males have so far in the majority of sub scales rated their competence as higher than females. Job competence was higher in SS schools for both males and females and although not a significant result, this perhaps highlights that pupils feel a competitive and motivated ethos in a SS schools, for example:

Interviewer: ...so do you think single-sex schools are better for self esteem?

"Yes, because you are able to get more confident... like because girls are known for like always competing with each other"

<div align="right">Female SS</div>

"I think that I have to agree it's obviously better, you can see by the grades...and er in like the best schools in the country... and they're single-sex schools...it works"

<div align="right">Male SS</div>

6.2.6 Romantic Appeal

This sub scale in the SPPA looks at teenagers' perceptions that they are romantically attractive to those in whom they are interested, are dating the people they would like to be dating, and feel that they are fun and interesting on a date.

Pines (2001) highlights that evolutionary theory views gender differences in romantic attraction as large, biologically based, and caused by evolutionary forces. Social construction theory, on the other hand, views gender differences in attraction as minor and as being caused primarily by social forces such as norms and stereotypes. It is likely however that romantic appeal would be a result of a balance of both perspectives as a young person is likely to be guided by biological factors but also by other factors that make a person more attractive to one person than another e.g. culture or personality.

In the current study, there were significant main effects of gender and school type. Both males and females perceived their romantic appeal to be higher in SS schools than in CE schools (see Table 8 pp97). Males had significantly higher perceptions of Romantic Appeal than did females, and this difference was more pronounced in SS schools. It appears from this data that single-sex schools are able to foster an environment that supports romantic appeal despite the absence of the opposite sex. This could be that as there are no members of the opposite sex present, pupils feel more confident with this aspect of their self esteem. Conversely in CE schools, as there is a clear presence of the opposite sex that is available to readily pass judgement, romantic appeal is significantly reduced. The results could also mean that SS schools foster perceptions of romantic appeal that are unrealistically high as in the focus groups, male pupils from SS schools were more likely to say attending a SS school would be detrimental to having relationships with females after school.

"if you go to a single-sex school then you think, you don't mix, then when you come out of school and you try and interact with girls then um, maybe they don't like you, you could think 'oh, they don't like me, why don't they like me ?' and then you could have self esteem problems then".

Male SS

The results could also mean that pupils' perceptions of romantic appeal in CE schools are far more reflective of how one would rate their appeal outside of the school setting and therefore more accurate due to the mix of genders. Pupils identified that being part of a CE school meant that one was much more comfortable with the opposite sex. This would mean pupils would be able to get to know about the opposite sex in more detail and find out what they might like or look for in a partner as well as how to appeal to them. For example one male pupil explained his thinking by saying:

"well if I was to leave (an SS) school I would basically have been with boys for 5 or 6 years and maybe they do find it difficult to communicate with girls"

Male CE

6.2.7 Behavioural Conduct

The SPPA sub scale of behavioural conduct taps into the degree to which one likes the way one behaves, does the right thing, acts the way one is supposed to, and avoids getting into trouble. It therefore addresses the

perception of getting into trouble and feelings about getting into trouble rather than frequency of committing unfavourable acts.

Jackson (2002) identifies that for some secondary school boys, the construct of 'laddishness' acts as a self-worth protection strategy—protecting self-worth both from the implications of a lack of ability and from the implications of being seen to be feminine. Valas (2001) identifies that boys may be more likely to develop maladaptive motivational styles than girls in response to failure or the threat of failure and therefore if they feel as if they are failing in some way, they are likely to behave and think negatively. The results of the current study showed no significant difference between behavioural competence in SS and CE schools. However a few males in the focus groups felt that behaviour was likely to be better in SS schools, for example:

"like secondary school, you won't be growing up with the opposite sex so you might not have confidence, for example, talking to them or something. You feel like, in single-sex schools, you're one of the lads...You kind of do things you wouldn't be able to do...Cos I mean there's like, less fights in a single sex school"

Male SS

"You might get a bit more abuse (in a CE school) but at the same time you'd ignore it, so you don't really care"

Perhaps, as academic achievement was higher in SS schools, as a result perceptions of behavioural conduct would be more positive in SS schools as there would be no reason to protect self esteem from lower academic competence i.e. that boys for example, would not need to develop a 'laddish' culture.

The results revealed that perceptions of behavioural conduct were higher in SS schools. Perceptions of this significantly reduced with age. In terms of gender, perceptions of behavioural conduct were higher for males in SS schools than in CE schools. In CE schools, perceptions of behavioural conduct were higher for females than males (not significant- see Table 9).

Of course there will be other factors affecting perceptions of behavioural conduct in secondary schools, such as the school's own behaviour policies and how staff follow these policies with respect to the school ethos. Along with this there will also be the effects of how the pupil is disciplined at home and their family's perceptions of acceptable behaviour.

6.2.8 Close Friendships

It is during adolescence when friendships become important in the development of one's sense of self. In adolescence, we also see the two-to-one gender difference (boys to girls) in depression emerge (Nolen-Hoeksema, 1990). By studying adolescents, we may be better able to determine whether there are gender differences in the perception of close friendships as a measure of self esteem, as well as in the relationship

between self esteem in relation to close friendships (Cambron, Acitelli, Steinberg, 2010).

Friendships facilitate enjoyment in school, but they have the more profound purpose of fostering a sense of community and a sense of identity (Quicke, 1995). Davies (1979), quoted in Pollard (1985) suggests that friends are seen as those who should 'be with you' and who do not pose or 'show off'. They are people who 'don't want everything their own way', and with whom you 'play… and take turns' and with whom you 'share your feelings'. The close friendships sub scale looks at one's ability to make close friends they can share personal thoughts and secrets with. Quicke (1995) found in her study using sociometric questionnaires, that the main criteria for choosing a friend was whether or not you could 'have a laugh with them' closely followed by whether you could 'work well together' with them. In the present study, females rated their ability to make close friendships as significantly higher than males. Crozier, Ray, Rees, Morris-Beattie, and Bellin (1999) found that streaming by achievement groups has some impact upon friendship patterns, but has little impact upon self-esteem. In the context of the present study, one can compare streaming to the situation which exits in SS schools, whereby pupils have no choice but to socialise with the social group given, i.e. if you are a female, even if you are likely to get on better with males than females, you have no choice but to choose female peers or no one at all in the school environment. Perhaps then in this study, females were happier with their ability to make close friendships in CE

schools as they had more choice in who they could make friends with. For example a few pupils' comments were:

"boys lighten the mood so if like, if you've done something wrong then because boys are quite weird they'll come up to you and say 'that's ok' but girls are like the serious ones"

<div align="right">Female CE</div>

"I've got a lot of friends who go to mixed schools and I think they're just, like they'd always see boys as friends but then like some girls in this school, like not everyone, it's a generalisation so say about everyone but, they sort of think of like boys as boyfriends or enemies and stuff like that"

<div align="right">Female SS</div>

Where girls seem to benefit from the behaviour of boys that they describe as 'entertaining', boys alternatively seem to not be affected by the presence of females for the purposes of making friendships and appear to feel more competent in a SS setting. Quike (1995) found that for males in a CE school, there were sexist cultural stereotypes of girls and women and relationships with girlfriends were short-lived affairs. For males, it appears they feel more comfortable with their ability to make close friendships when they are with boys in a SS school. One male suggested this by saying:

"I think it would raise self esteem because you like you don't have to worry about getting like embarrassed in front of people you stay in the same sort of gender"

Male SS

Friendships, and the ability to form close friendships in particular, represent people's first genuine interpersonal relationships and they make a profound contribution to their sense of well-being (Sullivan, 1953). Research shows that individuals with friends experience greater psychological health throughout adulthood than do individuals who lack friendships (e.g. Locker & Cropley, 2004). Friendship quality however, is a better predictor of depression than whether one is popular or accepted by his or her peers, highlighting the importance of research looking into the ability of young people to make close friendships (Cambron et al. 2010). The importance of forming close friendships is also highlighted in the focus groups discussions in the current research, described in section 6.3

6.2.9 Global Self Worth

Fox (2000) emphasises the facets of self esteem contribute to global self esteem. However, a global self worth score can be important for making more overall comparisons or judgements of self esteem across groups of pupils. The global self worth measure looks at the extent to which the young person likes themselves as a person, is happy with the way they are leading their life and generally happy with the way they are. It is therefore a global judgement of 'one's worth as a person' (Harter, 1988).

In the present study, there were effects of gender and year group on global self worth scores. It was found that global self worth was significantly higher in males than in females across SS and CE settings. There were no significant differences between males at SS compared with CE (see Table 11). This finding contradicts Dale's (1974) early self esteem work which concluded that co-education probably helped boys and did not harm girls. In this study we have found that that setting does not significantly affect boys or girls in relation to this unidimensional competence.

6.2.10 Discussion of the effects of age

Conflicting research evidence exists concerning the effect of age on self esteem. Some have found that self esteem levels remained constant with increased age, and therefore increased age was not a significant predictor of self esteem (e.g. Bergman & Scott, 2001). However others have found that the opposite occurred in that self esteem decreased with age (e.g. Hirsch & Rapkin, 1987). Others have found self esteem increasing with age (e.g. Marsh, 1989), from the age of 13 onwards (Maiano et al. 2004).

The current study looked at the effect of age on the different aspects of self esteem, rather than just the global self worth score. It was identified that ratings for Scholastic Competence, Athletic Competence, Behavioral Conduct, Close Friendships and Global Self Worth all decreased from year 8 to year 10, i.e. decreased with age. Some researchers have suggested that this change is a pure coincidence in timing of multiple life changes

(Maiano et al. 2004; Eccles et al., 1993). In some countries it may be due to the impact of changed school environment (from primary to secondary school, or in the UK the change from middle school to upper school), however, in the current sample, this change does not exist. Perhaps therefore it can be attributed to the effects of puberty or to differences in both of these sets of experiences (Maiano et al. 2004).

For Job Competence, there were similar results for males in years 8 and 10, however for females, job competence increased from years 8 to year 10. Perhaps, as females learn more about what is expected from them from jobs, and develop aspirations through experiences at school, their perceptions of job competence also increase. It is unclear why the same pattern does not exist for males. The results are also similar for both genders in year 10 as students prepare to leave school and therefore develop a sense of independence and a need to feel more job competent. Males appear to believe they are job competent in both year 8 and year 10 with no changes between these ages.

Romantic Appeal increased for both genders from year 8 to year 10 perhaps identifying both genders' confidence in approaching and being romantically involved with a partner. This competence is highly likely to be correlated to puberty.

There were near to no changes between year groups for Social Acceptance and for Physical Appearance. The latter was a surprising finding as it would

be expected that as age increases, pupils would be more likely to become aware of their appearance in line with hormonal and therefore biological changes. Barker & Bornstein (2009) identify that body dissatisfaction at age 10 is in fact a predictor of later decrease in self esteem. If however, body confidence is high at 10, self esteem does not decrease.

Variations in results between sub scales perhaps highlight a reason why previous research in this area has given rise to such varying results. It could be that several other variables such as personal differences, family perspectives and demographics of the population tested, are more involved.

6.3 Discussion of qualitative findings

In this section, the qualitative findings will be explored from one CE school and four SS schools. Transcriptions were made from recordings of the groups, and using thematic analysis, key sub themes were found by linking together similar discussions between the focus groups. From these sub themes, key over arching themes were identified in relation to each question posed to the group. Quotes have been chosen to reflect the type of discussions held in the focus group. Again, as in the quantitative analysis, if a certain opinion was felt to be important but unique, it has also been added to reflect pupils' personal opinions and these opinions perhaps could have been more prevalent in the focus groups, if it was prompted by the interviewer. Where opinions were from only one pupil or one group, this has been stated (and can be seen in the tables in section 5).

6.3.1 Question 1: What is self esteem?

From question 1 within the twelve interviews held, the theme that emerged was that of self esteem being 'feelings about yourself'. These feelings in turn were related to confidence in yourself, or confidence when relating to others.

Rosenberg, (1965) defines self esteem as, 'favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the self'. It was apparent that many of the pupils within the sample had developed knowledge of what self esteem was and gave definitions similar to that of Rosenberg. One male SS pupil suggested that it was "how you view yourself...in comparison to others". Another male suggested it was "whether you see yourself as the person you want to be or whether you see yourself as a person you really don't like you kind of feel down". At another male SS school, one pupil said that it was "what do you think of yourself and how good you are at stuff". One female identified that "...self esteem would be more about how you feel about yourself. I mean you can be self confident... but you might not like who you are. But you can be confident you know, if you don't particularly like who you are you might be able to get along with other people. You don't necessarily have to have high self esteem to be able to talk to other people". Pupils were more likely to describe self esteem with reference to the self rather than on the impact of others. Students seem aware of what self esteem is, most likely through direct teaching of the secondary aged Social, Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) materials to the pupils. What level of intervention or

teaching is used however is unknown but is hoped to be clarified over the forthcoming sections.

6.3.2 Question 2A: Describe a person with high self esteem

For this question, participants were asked to draw, annotate and discuss someone with high self esteem. In relation to self esteem research, this will be someone with high levels of competence in the majority of competences of Harter's SPPA (Harter, 1985).

Three key themes emerged. Pupils were likely to use descriptions that identified 'personal traits', 'traits that would impact others' or, a 'negative attitude towards others'. For the first theme, the most common response was that someone with high self esteem would appear happy. In the second theme, pupils highlighted the importance of being sociable, as identified by a number of researchers (e.g., Gutman & Brown, 2008). One male pupil explained that "I think if you've got friends that mix in different circles then you're more likely to be confident around different people. Like if you're friends with the skaters then you'll get on with the skaters and if you're friends with the chavs then you'll get on with them as well, to use a bit of lingo".

The negative effects of high self esteem were discussed by two male groups, hence highlighting that this was not a common idea but an important one. One student said a pupil with high self esteem would 'treat people like dirt'. Another, older pupil said that this person would be

'arrogant' and 'likes being the centre of attention'. Both males and females commented on this person being attractive, females referring to body and facial features, and males focussing on just body image, e.g. presence of muscles.

A few pupils also highlighted that this pupil would be highly motivated. One male from a SS school wrote interestingly that this would be a pupil who 'sets high targets and has the capability to achieve them'.

6.3.3 Question 2B: Describe a person with low self esteem

The main theme arising from this question was that of 'negative characteristics' of the pupil. A wide array of sub-themes stemmed from this including reference to work, family, social skills, and attractiveness. The most common response was that of a 'negative view about self'. Pupils described a person with low self esteem as introverted and with low confidence. Negative body language and the influence of the family were less common responses. A few participants also identified that this pupil may perceive themselves to be unpopular in that they *think* they are bullied, or *feel* unpopular. Participants also said that the pupil's low confidence could be related to embarrassment in front of their peer group. One female pupil said, "they won't like to be asked questions by teachers because they'd be scared that they'd get the questions wrong and they'd have the mick taken out of them by EVERYone and that is quite embarrassing". Both year 10 groups in the SSF schools highlighted that a pupil with low self esteem would have a negative attitude towards work. The two year 8 SSM

groups agreed. Perhaps this highlights, in accordance with the questionnaire data for job competence, that a change in females' perceptions of work attitudes increases with age; whereas males are more aware of this from a younger age but then think less of this with age.

Male participants appeared to identify the more extreme characteristics of a boy with low self esteem in their drawings, suggesting that they may want to self harm, another suggested that the boy with low self esteem could be 'ill' or could be 'poor'.

6.3.4 Question 3: What factors may affect self esteem in school?

This question raised three key themes from the participants' responses. These were the effects of the school itself, the 'effects of peers' and the 'effects of family'.

With respect to peers, the most common sub-theme was the effect of having positive peer relations and having friends in fostering high self esteem. However one female SS pupil also identified the negative effect of having friends, "If you have like quite a lot of friends in one of your lessons you might not concentrate as much as you would if you don't, not if you don't but if you don't like concentrate or something, because then you wouldn't really concentrate on your school work, it could affect you". One male student from a SS school also importantly commented on bullying stating that, "it is not too much bullying really but every now and again it does seem that something is happening… It is probably limited in our

school and we probably get the least bullying but it is probably like depending on who you get on the wrong side of". Due et al (2005) identify that bullying is a precursor for health problems in childhood and that experience of symptoms in childhood may be related to factors that lead into adulthood, therefore highlighting the importance of monitoring and tracking this in schools. When asked what could be done about it, the pupil replied "you can't really can you. It's just a thing that people do", indicating the helplessness in pupils that are bullied. The most common type of bullying is general name calling, followed by being hit, threatened, or having rumours spread about someone. Bullying is thought to be more prevalent among boys and the youngest pupils in a school (Salmon, James & Smith, 1998). Several studies have found however, that bullying is significantly reduced with direct intervention and teaching. Houston and Smith (2009) found that peer-counselling schemes can improve self-esteem of peer supporters, and also impact positively on perceptions of bullying in the school, highlighting and supporting the findings of this study suggesting that having positive peer relations is one of the strongest ways of fostering higher self esteem.

The impact that teachers had was also an important sub theme amongst many of the focus groups. One male SS pupil said that it made a difference to him for example when, "like you can have your hand up and then the whole lesson no-one seems to stop and ask you... you get fed up with putting your hand up like every couple of minutes". Students also mentioned that, "some teachers, well not a lot, but teachers sometimes

cannot control the class and people get like really shouting and stuff" and that what was needed was discipline that was "in between, so that you have got a bit of freedom and so are still learning". A female CE pupil stated that "Miss W used to tell us we were gonna fail our exams and we were all really terrible, and that made us feel terrible...cause she was trying to push us so if we're not working hard enough we were gonna fail, so it did make us feel terrible and in a way it did push us to all do really well. So it kinda worked...so its kind of a proving them wrong...I think um, if there's like a teacher or somebody you don't like, it makes you not want to come to school". Studies support these pupils' feelings that classroom management and teacher attitudes can have impact on students' feelings of self worth and motivation (e.g., Sullivan, 2009, Francis, 2000). Clunies-Ross, Little and Kienhuis (2008) identify that the use of predominantly reactive management strategies which are remedial in nature, have a significant relationship with elevated teacher stress and decreased student on-task behaviour i.e. has a negative effect. Effective use of praise which is informational rather than directive of future performance (Thompson, 1994) and more proactive and preventative measures (Clunies-Ross et al. 2008) are deemed most useful.

One group of boys from a SS school identified the effect of school labels on self esteem stating "well the school say 'gifted and talented' thing which perhaps the best thing to call it... because if you're not in that, then what are you exactly? Are you then ridiculous and stupid?". Another boy added "I don't know, I don't think singling some kids out as gifted and talented and

leaving the rest to whatever else is a particularly beneficial thing for them".

Sullivan (2009) and Marsh (2005) identify that internalising labels given by

schools can have negative effects on self concept. Gifted and Talented

literature by Local Education Authorities identify "by the very definition

'gifted and talented', in schools label pupils and risk isolating them as a

vulnerable cohort" (Hull LEA Statement, pg 4). In fact what this research is

highlighting, is the effects it may have on those without the label rather than

those with it who appear to be content with the effects of the label (Hickey

and Toth, 1990). Little research exists on the effects of not having a label of

Gifted and Talented yet being aware of it. However, investigating such an

issue could have possible ethical dilemmas such as highlighting the label to

those who may not be so aware of it and hence raising the label's profile.

Another sub theme was that of being part of a school sports team. This

theme also emerged as a significant theme in some other questions and it

was apparent that the relationship between participating in a school sport

and self-esteem and school attachment was mediated by the presence of

being part of a sports team (Erkut & Tracy, 2002). In relation to this

question one female SS pupil identified that "I think people can be put down

in like school things, say like not making a team or something, I think that

can knock, I think some people, you know, it can knock their self esteem

and because there's not, if say there's not a lot of chances like that, if it's

like a netball team for the whole year that team, it kind of knocks their self

esteem and they, they have a long time to get it back up again but they kind

of find it hard 'cos they know that they've already not been accepted into whatever it is… yeh 'cos they're not good enough".

Two of the year 10 groups also identified the effect of divorce on a pupil's self esteem. This perhaps highlighted that the year 10s were more able to reflect on the wider impact of such an issue on their lives, in comparison to younger pupils. This will also be discussed in the section related to the effect of family.

Another theme identified by only one female SS school was that of the importance of transition from primary school, saying that it is difficult for "people who find it hard to make first impressions…say when I came to this school um a lot of people who were in my school before, my primary school, they changed loads when they came to this school and I think, it's just to do with like, they, they may have come from like, a different background or something and they just find it, it's completely different to how everything, it's like when we were at our primary school it was like you're living in a bubble and then when you come to secondary school everything's so different but people do end up like not having the self esteem that they had before as such". There is agreement that transition into secondary school can be a challenging and stressful experience (EPPSE Project, 2008) but that most children negotiate the transition without undue difficulty (Nottlemann, 1987). However, it is apparent that this transition will need to be supported by secondary and primary schools not just for those easily identifiable 'vulnerable children' (EPPSE Project, 2008), but for all those pupils daunted by the prospect, and who continue to find

the environment challenging through early secondary education. It is important to highlight that these pupils may not be so easy to identify but that the negative effects of transition can have an important impact into adult life.

6.3.5 Question 4: How can we help to increase self esteem in schools? Who do you think can help?

There were three core themes arising from this question across all twelve focus groups. Pupils identified 'social support', 'access to positive role models', and 'teaching' as factors that if supported would help to increase self esteem in schools.

A process by which friendships could be supported was the most frequently occurring concept, and one which has been raised throughout the qualitative aspect of the study. One female pupil identified that teachers were not always approachable, "Cos like people say oh if you've got a problem go and tell your teacher or your parents but people don't generally do that 'cos they don't, it would just be like oh you have to go there when you're in trouble so to have someone who's like your own age, maybe like comes in from school just to talk to you and you're sort of like, be more confident because no-one really talks to teachers about problems". However, the group also identified that speaking to an outsider may not be beneficial but an older pupil could be, "I don't know I think I'd be embarrassed to talk to a stranger about it...'Cos like if you've just started secondary school you don't have any friends and then you have to go and

talk to year 11 you'd feel like oh I'm scared...Yeah but if you've had one in year 11 who's been nice to you and you don't have any friends it would be... helpful". Buddy systems or peer mentoring are an important aspect of school life useful for improving social skills (Laushey & Heflin, 2000), behaviour (Fo & O'Donnell, 1975) and literacy skills (Cowling & Cowling, 2009). What is highlighted through the current research is that pupils appreciate the introduction of a buddy system when appropriate due to sharing of common experiences, but also value talking to someone who is more experienced, like a counsellor, as long as they are familiar to them. Perhaps therefore, indicating, that school counsellors, are not involved within school life for most pupils and therefore pupils would find it difficult to talk to them for fear of the stigma attached as well as sharing information with someone unknown. It is in the researcher's opinion that this vacuum in schools should and could be filled by a stronger EP presence in schools.

Being part of a team was also highlighted as being an effective way of raising self esteem although it was felt that sporting achievements were sometimes more highly regarded than other achievements, in particular in boys' schools. Instead pupils suggested more variety in the types of teams available. One pupil said, "I think more leagues, so instead of having a team for football or something maybe having a B and C team so you're playing people in your league and not just playing people who are really good". Another said, "playing table tennis... It's not actually like a school activity – you don't have to get changed and everything do you... Like it is a mixed group of people and its so like if they put you on the best table and

you are really rubbish at it then you are going to get low self esteem and think I can't do it I am a failure. Then if you try a lower table then you might be able to do it a bit easier".

Access to supportive teachers or external role models was also highly regarded by the focus groups. One pupil reflected the views of many by saying, "maybe people speaking to you if you have low self esteem, to boost it...could get a speaker, but depends on what people look up to... someone like a music artist, someone who has shown they have got to where they are through working hard... like in business too like I remember hearing something about Sir Alan Sugar who did like and how when he first started he was buying vegetables and selling them on and then they show how he is now". Some students also highlighted sports stars as additional role models, although this was a more common discussion from male rather than female students (Lines, 2001).

Direct teaching of how to raise self esteem was also a prevalent factor. Pupils noted that some pupils would need to learn to focus on their positives and find out what their strengths were which indicates a need for focus on positive psychology within schools as there are in many workplaces for motivating adults (Seligman et al. 2005). One group also mentioned that teachers should be trying to support pupils to mature and 'grow up'. "In secondary school, there's like that point, it's like between year 7 and year 8 where you just grow up and so many things change so normally it's over a summer holiday or something, just like getting your hair

cut, do you know what I mean, and people, and people, and you just think you're a bit older, I think secondary school should encourage that growing up whereas I feel like they're encouraging the whole goody goody two shoes year 7 act, where everybody is still thinking like they did in primary where primary you used to run round the playground and just play 'it' and just laugh at silly things like jokes that weren't even funny um whereas they should encourage that growing up without growing up. It's like they do encourage it but they encourage you to be grown ups, not teenagers".

6.3.6 Question 5: How can someone's family help to raise self esteem?

From this question, participants identified that there would be positive impact of the family, and a theme of negative impact of the family. It can be seen from the table in section 5.3.7, that the positive impact was more common in answers than the negative effects.

Most importantly, pupils sought emotional support from their family. They benefited from encouragement and rewards such as praise and holidays. One female CE student identified with this saying, "oh it's hard because, like if they say 'you're really good at this, you're really good at that', those people probably thinking oh they're my family they're supposed to say that so it's a bit hard for family members to say that. If they unexpectedly say oh 'you're really good at P.E' and they've never really thought about that then they might think that they are good at... they just say 'you're really good at it, but you could improve by doing this or that then...' Studies have found

that information sent from school to parents commending good work and behaviour, or criticising unsatisfactory performance, to be the most, or among the most, effective rewards and sanctions respectively (e.g. Caffyn, 1989). In addition to this, parents also rate information being sent home as the most effective reward for encouraging positive behaviour in school (Miller, Ferguson & Simpson, 1998). From the current study, we can see that pupils would like this work, or the comments sent home to be celebrated or at least acknowledged in some way as a consequence.

Pupils also highlighted the negative impact of the family; in particular family breakdown as a factor affecting self esteem. A longitudinal study by Amato (2001) found that compared with children with continuously married parents, children with divorced parents continue to score significantly lower on measures of 'academic achievement, conduct, psychological adjustment, self-concept, and social relations'. A few pupils in the current study suggested, for example, that visiting a parent one does not like can be challenging, but then having a supportive sibling could help. A few groups also suggested that parental expectations can have detrimental effects. Raty (2006) found that education and gender-bound differences in parental expectations were established before the child entered school, and the relationships between expectations and parents view of their child's competence were also strengthened. One pupil said, "well self esteem is to do with the family 'cos they're like, sometimes they have really high expectations and you really like have to live up to them...and then if you don't you feel bad". Another group suggested, "sometimes, if your parents

aren't quite as academically minded as another people's set of parents, like if they didn't go to university, you know, they went through the system and never really tried and you know didn't sort of go up to the 6th form then that's probably going to have a negative effect on their children who are maybe you know not going to want to try as hard but it's quite important for parents to not be I know one of my friends has, his mum is very very pushy to get good grades, even though he's getting quite good grades already pushy… he's stressed and then he feels that even when he's done something good it's not good enough".

6.3.7 Question 6: What difference does CE or SS schooling make to self esteem?

Pupils identified a number of ways in which the type of schooling may have an impact on pupil self esteem. Three broad themes were established which were; the social effects of attending different school types, the effects on education, and physical effects. Similar themes and discussions were also identified with responses to question 3 in section 6.3.4.

With regard to social effects, pupils felt that attending a SS school allows for gender personality differences and rates of maturity to be supported. One quote reflecting several pupils' opinions by a female said that, "if I was in year 7 I really wouldn't have wanted to be in a mixed school 'cos it's like that age of growing up and girls get more embarrassed… when everybody's like growing up…I'm serious though and we are more self conscious of that, um and I wouldn't have liked to be in a mixed school at

that point in my education because like girls grow up faster and they go through that stage where they are really self conscious of themselves". A male pupil in year 10 also said that, "I've noticed when I came back to like primary school friends that I had matured quite quickly compared to them, they were still year 6s... I was kind of a lot more mature than them". This the pupil attributed to attending a SS school. However it was also mentioned that the presence of the opposite sex can also be positive as one for pupils. For example one female suggested that, "boys lighten the mood so if like, if you've done something wrong then because boys are quite weird they'll come up to you and say 'that's ok' but girls are like the serious ones."

Students felt that behaviour is better in CE schools as there is a need to be better behaved in front of the opposite sex. One male pupil in a CE school explained that, "even though you might not get a girlfriend or something, you'd be friends normally with them and, you wouldn't get into so many fights I think". This could be linked to Attribution theories which state that it is how individuals interpret events and how this relates to their thinking and behaviour that is important (Weiner, 1974). With the opposite sex present, pupils could be more likely to attribute a behaviour to a person rather than a situation. Therefore, the pupil engaged in the negative behaviour may have greater feelings of embarrassment than in front of their own sex, who as pupils and research (e.g. Jackson & Warin, 2000) have identified, they can be more comfortable with. Some male pupils also identified that behaviour is closely monitored in SS schools. It may also be that behaviour

management could be more successful in a SS school as the Behaviour Policy will be more precise in meeting its requirements in a SS school as it is tailored to the needs of the pupils attending the school i.e. male or female.

The most popular response for this question was that CE schools were better for learning to interact with the opposite sex. This would be useful for future heterosexual relationships, and also for working together in a job or as Dale (1974) states 'real world social interactions'. One female SS pupil said for example, "say you have friends who are boys, I think if you are with them in your school like you would find it a lot easier to meet like people from that gender again rather than if you have been like, separated them for like the whole of your school life it's going to be like a really big impact when you go out and like there's like boys and girls". Another pupil who attended a SS school explained that, "in a way it's a good experience (to attend a CE school), as when you're older you're not gonna have a job with just the same sex, but if you're in the different sexes in the school then you're like getting used to being with them"

With regard to the effect on education, the majority agreed, as highlighted throughout this discussion, that education would be better if not more successful in a SS school where pupils are not distracted by the opposite sex and healthy competition supports this. One male pupil said that there is "…no worry about what the opposite sex think of you in a single-sex school. So like you could be, it could sort of help your self esteem 'cos there's no,

no-one really cares what you look like, you're just doing... here for the education". Allied with this, pupils also identified that having boys in the classroom reduces females' confidence in the classroom (Howe, 1997, Maccoby, 1990). One female said that she found, "in mixed schools girls don't, put their hands up and things to answer questions...and I have heard like from mixed schools like the boys do sometimes...make fun of the girls and then that kind of like puts them down". Obviously as also previously mentioned, there is also a negative effect of SS schools whereby competition can be unhealthy and in fact stressful as indicated by Marsh and Hau's 'Big fish-little pond' effect (2003).

Another popular response was that appearance would play a more important role in a CE schools for both females and males. Six out of the twelve groups interviewed mentioned that pupils would be more concerned about their appearance if the opposite sex was present. They would make less effort and be less concerned if they attended a SS sex. However, as can be see from Table 5.3.8, this thought was common in the SS interviews but not so common in the CE interviews, perhaps highlighting that SS pupils were more aware of this than pupils already interacting with the opposite sex at school.

Question 7 which explored the groups' perceptions of why some pupils chose not to participate in this study, will be discussed in the limitations section in 6.5 as it was felt that this question would be useful for knowledge

on how processes could have been changed, or could be changed for the purposes of future research.

6.4 Summary in relation to research questions

In this section the findings from the quantitative as well as qualitative studies will be summarised with reference to the research questions posed in Chapter 3. As can be seen from the research questions, some could not be addressed through questionnaires or focus groups on their own or at all. Therefore this section is aimed to tie together all of the findings in relation to the research questions using data from quantitative and qualitative findings when appropriate.

1) Is global self worth higher in SS schools than CE schools?

There was no significant difference between global self esteem in SS compared with CE schools. Overall it seems that the type of schooling (CE or SS) does not overly impact on global self worth.

2) Is self esteem higher for females/males in SS schools compared to females/males in CE schools?

Males rated their self esteem higher than females in the sub scales of Scholastic Competence, Athletic Competence, Physical Appearance, Job Competence, Romantic Appeal (although the statistical relationship was

more complex), and Global Self Worth. Females rated themselves higher than males in the sub scale of Close Friendships.

3) What aspects of self esteem are higher in SS schools than in CE schools?

For females self esteem is generally no different between SS schools compared with CE schools. For males however, half the sub scales were higher in SS schools. For females when comparing school types, only ratings of Romantic Appeal were significantly higher for females in SS than in CE schooling. There was no difference for the other subscales.

For males, Scholastic Competence, Physical Appearance, Romantic Appeal and Behavioural Conduct were all higher in SS schools. There was no difference for the other subscales.

4) Do self esteem scores decrease with age?

Ratings for scholastic Competence, Athletic Competence, Behavioral Conduct, Close Friendships and Global Self Worth (five out of nine sub scales) all decreased from year 8 to year 10, i.e. decreased with age. Job Competence increased for females from year 8 to year 10 perhaps as they felt more competent with entering employment and being more independent. Males appeared to be just as job competent in both years.

5) What do pupils believe are the benefits of SS or CE schooling?

Students reported through the focus groups that there were social, educational and physical effects of attending different schools. It was felt that behaviour would be better in CE schools, and that pupils would be better able to socialise with the opposite sex after school age (e.g. in future jobs) if they had attended a CE school. However, a large proportion of students also felt that SS schools were more positive for the benefits of education as one was able to concentrate more and develop more confidence, as well as there being a more competitive work environment to encourage learning. It was also felt by some that both males and females would have more of an opportunity to mature comfortably in SS schools.

6) What support do young people feel they need to raise self esteem in secondary schools?

Both CE and SS students in the focus groups agreed that it is important to provide social support to students by supporting friendships and encouraging group work. It was also felt that students should have access to positive role models and that there should be direct teaching of how to increase self esteem in schools.

6.5 Limitations of the study and further research ideas

There were some limitations of the research that reflected procedural and analytical difficulties. Firstly, the original aim was to include six secondary schools; 2 SSM, 2SSF and 2 CE. Using these 6 schools it was felt that the data could be compared between the schools to give valid results. Unfortunately, one school withdrew from participation after the data collection had been started. It was not possible to find an alternative school at such short notice and in fact, so well matched for academic achievement and local area. In order to accommodate for the discrepancy in the number of CE versus SS participants, the statistical analyses for the quantitative data were carried out twice. Once with all available data and a second time with equal numbers of participants of both genders and schools types. A few of the results did change with smaller, comparable group sizes, however the trends remained the same, hence not affecting the overall results. These were for one variable (that differed between competences) for physical appearance, romantic appeal and behavioural conduct.

Secondly, there were some changes to the implementation envisaged by the researcher. It was intended that students would put their names on the questionnaires, in order for the researcher to identify the student for the next stage of data collection; the focus group interviews. It was hoped that in each SS school, 4 groups would be formed. One low self esteem and one high self esteem group for each year group (there would therefore be 8 groups in the CE school). Through the questionnaires, the researcher

would have been able to identify those pupils with low or high scores across the subscales in order to choose a group. With this data, it would have been possible to compare the answers of pupils with high and low self esteem, in order to see what the differences were, and how pupils with higher self esteem felt their self esteem is nurtured. With this information, it may have been possible to see where more individualised targeted support could have been put in place in schools using the views of those pupils who had high self esteem, and taking into consideration what the requests; needs and gaps were of those with lower self esteem. In the current study, some pupils wished to remain anonymous, and therefore could not be contacted for participation in the focus group stage. Although through the current study, some useful ideas for support have emerged, due to the lack of knowledge of self esteem status of the individuals in each group it was not possible to identify to whom these ideas would be most beneficial. It would be useful to have further research into this area to identify possible differences between these groups.

Another limitation of the study was that it was completely reliant on pupil ratings and perspectives. For this reason a number of questionnaires were either not fully completed, or were completed haphazardly. When asked in the focus groups why pupils may not have filled out the questionnaires (focus group question 7), students highlighted that some students had not taken the questionnaires seriously as different teachers had introduced the task differently to classes. Therefore there were inconsistencies to the environment in which the questionnaires were completed. It is hoped

however, that as such a large sample was used, the results would not be confounded by some questionnaires. Some students highlighted that it would have been more useful to have the researcher there to introduce the task and stay whilst they were filled out. However, as the questionnaires were left with the schools to deliver when they felt it was appropriate, it was not possible to administer the questionnaires in this way. Future research should take this into consideration.

Another possible limitation is that the schools selected were in the top attaining schools in the County and therefore some may argue that the results are not generaliseable to the majority of school pupils who may be lower attaining. However although the top schools were chosen, these schools still have an intake that reflects the local community, and therefore the outcomes of the study should be relevant to a number of SS and CE schools especially with regard to gender differences. It will be important to see whether the same results are obtained in lower achieving schools and schools with higher levels of free school meals. Secondly, what has come out from this study is the importance of addressing gender differences and the needs of each gender separately in schools. It would appear that the basic and overarching needs of females and males do not change depending on their levels of attainment, and as reflected in this study, the types of school they attend. Of course the differences and requirements of the local community which serve other schools in other areas will need to be considered when working with other schools.

Another possible limitation when discussing generalisability is the definition and implications of generalisability itself. Being generalisable means whether the results of the research can be applied more generally and more widely than the study itself or whether they are only relevant to the specific context of the current study? This can differ between quantitative and qualitative research. Since qualitative research is dependent on human experience and is therefore subjective, it becomes challenged and more heavily critiqued by some as difficult to generalise to other people and situations. A familiar criticism of qualitative methodology questions the value of its dependence on small samples which is believed to render it incapable of generalising conclusions. This in turn means that research can not be replicated due to the particular participants used. Yin (1989) asserts that general applicability will result from the set of methodological qualities of the study, and the rigor with which the study is constructed. It is in the researcher's belief that using multiple focus groups in the present study and then comparing results across groups allows for stronger generalisablity across the participating schools. It was also found through comparisons of the quantitative data, that the ratings of self esteem did not differ significantly between the singles sex schools in each area (e.g. Area 1 SSF compared to Area 2 SSF). Therefore, it is felt that these ratings and then the focus group overarching themes can be generalised to other single sex schools. Further research using other CE schools will be necessary before generalising findings across CE schools.

Another consideration when thinking about generalisability from research is in situations where different professionals are operating in a range of schools. In this situation findings are again subjective and can depend on the researcher's and therefore EPs personality and style, how the school relates to and trusts the EP, the ethos of the school, the demographics of the school and surrounding community, and person specific characteristics of all those involved (staff, pupils and EP), as well as so many other complex variables. When considering all of these variables, what about the research is being generalised, and can we generalise these findings when they are subject to the researcher's opinion? In the context of the current study, all of these variables will be relevant to the current research situation however, in order for the research to be valuable and relevant for other EPs and schools, one would need to consider the similarities between the possible situations. For example, generalising the importance of self esteem research and interventions will be relevant in all schools, though the contexts may differ. In this example, it will be the role of the school staff and EP to work together to evaluate what of the researcher's findings are relevant to the particular school and which are not, and address these. Therefore it would appear that the main findings of the present study can be generalised to similar school settings i.e. considering differences between school type and gender differences. However, how this information is used will depend on the individual contexts of the setting and the EPs interests and input. As previously mentioned, more research needs to be carried out in different schools, in different areas in order for the results to be more generalisable.

Therefore to support good quality research, it can be said that there needs to be a good balance between generalisability and validity, and room for further repetitions and research. In the current study this meant enhancing generalisability by using broad inclusion criteria, maximising the sample size and undertaking the research in 'typical' SS settings with comparable CE settings. At the same time, the aim was to maintain validity through piloting procedures, using validated measures (i.e. Harter SPPA) and cross-checking the thematic analyses with another professional.

The current study has highlighted several ways in which students can be supported to raise self esteem within schools as it can be seen that some aspects of self esteem can decrease with age. Therefore there must be input with this throughout a student's school life. These ideas have been from the students themselves, and it would be most useful to see what the effect of interventions may be with pre and post testing of the students. For example, what is the effect of working with a role model to foster aspirations? How long will the effects last? Are the effects longer for the teaching of positive psychology? How often should there be input? With the development of the SEAL curriculum in secondary schools it is hoped that self worth and motivation will be addressed. However, to what level schools use and disseminate secondary SEAL materials is currently being evaluated in the research field. It would be useful to see whether certain activities provided within the SEAL materials are more beneficial for longer

term effects, and whether therefore, these should be focussed on by all schools, rather than a variety of less effective teaching and activities.

6.6 Implications for EP practice

The overall aim of this research has been to see how Educational Psychologists can have a greater impact in supporting self esteem issues in schools. It can be suggested that sometimes it can be the Educational Psychologists intention to work systemically within schools, offering training to staff, parents and pupils, however, the intention is not always followed through due to the school's own agenda and aims. Schools in my experience often have misunderstood the role of Educational Psychologists, steering them towards individual case work and assessment. Of course, often it is via Educational Psychology input to individual pupils can access a wider range of resources, and therefore the value from the point of view of the school can be understood. It is usually therefore a compromise between the school and their perception of their needs, and the Educational Psychologists' aims in terms of best meeting the school needs. In order to develop a compromise, Educational Psychologists will often rely on developing good relationships with schools in order for there to be enough trust to work in the chosen ways.

In a similar way, working with schools systemically on mental health and self esteem issues, has historically not taken priority. It is through knowledge of how self esteem can affect all areas of learning and

motivation and a push from government initiatives that schools develop an understanding of the importance of such training and intervention. In section 4.3.1, it was explained that although the schools used within the research were not from the Targeted Mental Health in Schools (TaMHS) project, their knowledge and awareness of the project, the benefits of group level and individual interventions, and opportunities for staff training were apparent to them. Therefore, these schools were more active and engaged with me to help support the study and learn from the outcomes. It therefore reveals an implication for EP practice in that, it is at the authority level that important has to be given to mental health issues. The TaMHS project for example, started by allowing LEAs around the country to apply for funding to be part of the pilot phase. It is these LEAs in the researcher's opinion that have highlighted their engagement with addressing mental health issues and were actively doing something about it. Once this stage has begun, the schools within the authority began to see that value is placed on these issues, before an EP has discussed possible interventions with them. Knowledge of what input an EP or other support services e.g. Behaviour Support Teams, Counselling in Schools Service etc. can offer, is likely to be the next stage, so that schools are aware of all of their options and what best suits the needs of their school. After this stage, EPs and schools can discuss what the needs are within the school and how EPs can support these issues systemically through training and group interventions. As mentioned previously, trust, appears to be a significant factor in allowing this type of work to occur. By LEAs, its support services, schools and the surrounding communities working together, it is hoped that there will be an

understanding of the specific needs, and thinking and action about the next steps. A possibility also arises for some EP research via questionnaires or interviews of schools and families, about what the needs are.

Throughout this research, the input and importance of educational psychology has appeared vital in so many ways. Firstly, as mentioned above, having Educational Psychologists complete research of this type, enables schools, families and other professionals to provide targeted tailored support to those who are most in need. Conducting small scale research also enables schools to evaluate the effectiveness of interventions that they may wish to try in schools that will help to support self esteem in schools e.g. evaluating Circle of Friends (a social skills group) or the Buddy System (for building social relations or evaluating paired reading for example). It is in the researcher's view that EPs can work with schools to use some of their time in this way. Even from this piece of research, a comprehensive list of 'do's and don'ts' from the students' perspectives can be given to schools to help motivation and self esteem in all schools.

Also highlighted within the qualitative study was the importance of transition to feelings of self worth in secondary schools. EPs can and do support transition at different times of a pupil's life with due consideration of the effects of such a change for the young person. EPs could be giving further consideration as to how to support the transition of all pupils, and not just those who are 'vulnerable', within schools.

Pupils identified that it would be useful for them to know what they are good at, and therefore what they could be aiming towards with respect to career aspirations, or nurturing interests. By using skills questionnaires, and identifying key activities that look at pupils skills in a variety of areas (e.g. social, spatial, hands-on activities), teachers could feedback to pupils their areas of strengths and areas to work on providing support for this. Pupils in this study also identified the importance of constructive criticism, also highlighting that perhaps they would like to know what areas of their skills they need to focus on, and what areas they can celebrate.

Educational Psychologists could also have a role in direct teaching of; positive psychological approaches, motivation, and social skills, via direct teaching or therapeutic interventions. Teaching key skills in fostering high aspirations and taking a positive approach to life, can be completed on a large scale, and delivered in an entertaining fashion, as the researcher has already begun in secondary schools. This includes workshops held at female single-sex schools named 'Positive Perceptions' to encourage high self esteem. EPs could also for example take a role in teaching an appreciation of language of discourse and body language for encouraging social skills. Pupils could be shown video recordings of themselves and encouraged to feedback on how, why and to what effect they used certain words, phrases and other aspects of language. They could then be taught to focus on the various conversational tactics they were deploying in small group discussion. These could also be useful for interviews for further education interviews and for future employment interviews. Another

possible area to explore with pupils would be their perceptions of what they feel a person with low or high self esteem looks like. It may be useful to help pupils to challenge these ideas amongst themselves to gain a better understanding of personal differences between people. It will also be a useful way of pupils exploring how they appear to other people and how judgements are made based on their appearance. This type of activity could be discussed with school teachers and be addressed by them or as part of a series of sessions with the EP.

Throughout the research, it became clear to the researcher that very few pupils knew of the EP in the school, and had negative views of counsellors and psychologists and their roles with many young people. It would seem beneficial for EPs to be known to members of the school population, including staff, so that informal as well as formal support can be offered to those who may benefit from it. From the results sections 5.2.13 and 5.2.14, we can see that in fact more pupils were not likely to approach a member of staff with a personal issue if they had one. What emerged from the current qualitative study was that in fact students would value an outside, qualified adult to speak to rather than a school teacher. Therefore it would seem important to raise the EP profile in schools by increasing the presence of them in schools. This could include small steps such as introductions at school assemblies, or presentations or training for parents during school hours or after school. Drop-in sessions have also been shown to be useful where pupils or parents can come to meet the EP at an allotted time to discuss whatever they would like without leaving a name; hence

maintaining confidentiality, but being able to speak to someone adequately qualified but external to the schools, just as students identified in this study. This will also have the benefit of reaching out to a wider range of pupils with additional social, emotional and behavioural needs, whilst still continuing with EP work with school staff and parents with serious concerns with pupils with more severe needs.

6.7 Conclusions

Central to this research was the importance of hearing and exploring pupil views. This study has demonstrated that not only is it possible to gain pupils' views of a sensitive subject, but that young people are able to offer valuable insight into the factors that impact on self esteem, and that impact on the methodology of a study looking at self esteem. The ideas that arose from the focus group interviews were also those that have been supported by previous research findings, showing that young people have the ability to think of relevant and feasible interventions and strategies.

The research has identified that there are some differences between the self esteem of those attending single-sex compared to co-educational schools, taking into consideration that other environmental and situational factors will play a part e.g. the effect of family. What this study does find is that single-sex schooling does enable higher levels of self esteem across some of the subscales, primarily on scholastic competence, highlighting and placing value on their existence. What is also apparent is that pupils with high self esteem can also be found in co-educational schools, and

therefore our attention should be focussed on how to encourage and increase numbers of these types of pupils in these schools and decrease the gender divide. Whether this may be through single-sex classes within co-educational schools, is a matter that is still being investigated.

Overall, self esteem does not seem to be affected by the type of school a pupil attends. However, there was a strong gender difference which needs to be addressed when working on self esteem issues in schools. This is so that targeted support is useful for both males and females separately, in meeting their needs. What is also important is that there are a large number of ways that the skills of an Educational Psychologist can be utilised within schools to the advantage of all pupils and not just those who have severe needs, which in the researcher's view is extending the role of Educational Psychologists in school and raising their profile.

This research has added to the limited research on the effect of schooling on different aspects of self esteem. It has provided both further knowledge into how self esteem differs among school settings and between genders, and provided pupils' views on what support is most useful. By seeing where issues of self esteem exist, EPs can work with schools and families to put in the support pupils need, want and find most useful.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. Consent letter to parents

IOE
**Leading education
and social research**
Institute of Education
University of London

___ April 2009

Dear parents and carers,

_____ School has been asked to participate in a study looking at pupils' self confidence and achievement within Secondary schools.

 The research has been commissioned by   County Council together with the Institute of Education, and hopes to gather information that may improve the services offered to schools by the Multi Agency Psychology Service.

As part of the study, pupils in years 8 and 10 will be asked to complete a questionnaire in school during the second half of the Summer Term. This should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Some pupils may also be asked to join a discussion group in which their ideas and comments can be explored further. All information collected will be kept confidentially and will only be shared with those directly involved with the study.

If you do not wish your child to participate in this research please fill in the slip below and return to the school office by the 9th of June 2009. Please feel free to contact me at sanchita.chowdhury@   .gov.uk if you have any further queries.

Yours faithfully,

Sanchita Chowdhury
Multi Agency Psychology Service
West 1
              County Council
_____

I would not like my child to participate in the study being conducted in school.

Name of pupil: .... Year group: ....

Signed: .... (parent/carer)

Appendix 2. Instructions to teachers and students

<u>Administration instructions and script</u>

- The survey should not take longer than 20 minutes (including instructions)
- Pupils should complete the survey independently/quietly

Instructions to the class:

- The survey is interested in what each of you is like and what kind of person you are.
- It is part of some research looking at young people in secondary schools. Only those directly involved with the study will see your answers. Your name will only be passed on if there is a serious concern for the safety and wellbeing of yourself or others.
- Following on from this questionnaire you may be asked to participate in a group discussion for your opinions on the topic of self esteem. You may withdraw participation at any point, but your input is highly valued and is confidential.
- This is a survey and <u>not</u> a test
- There are no right or wrong answers.
- The survey was written in the USA and therefore some words you will recognise as different to the way we say it. For example, the survey refers to young people as 'teenagers'.
- Since teenagers are very different from one another, each of you will be putting down something different for your answers.
- Some questions may appear to be similar, but don't leave any out.

Here is how the questions work:

- There is a sample question at the top marked 'a'. I'll read it out loud and you can follow along with me.
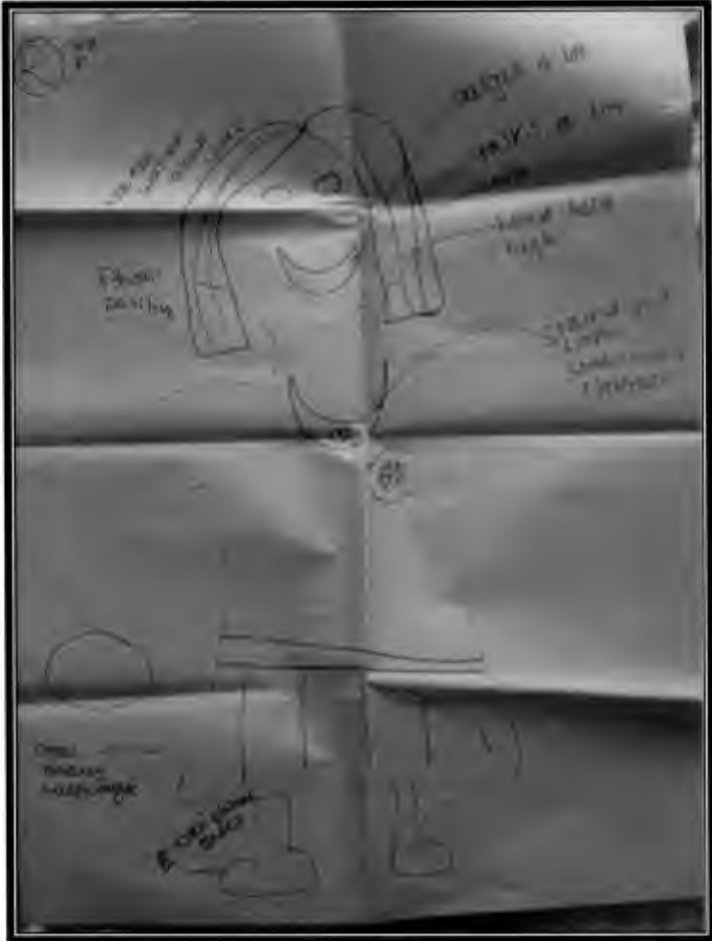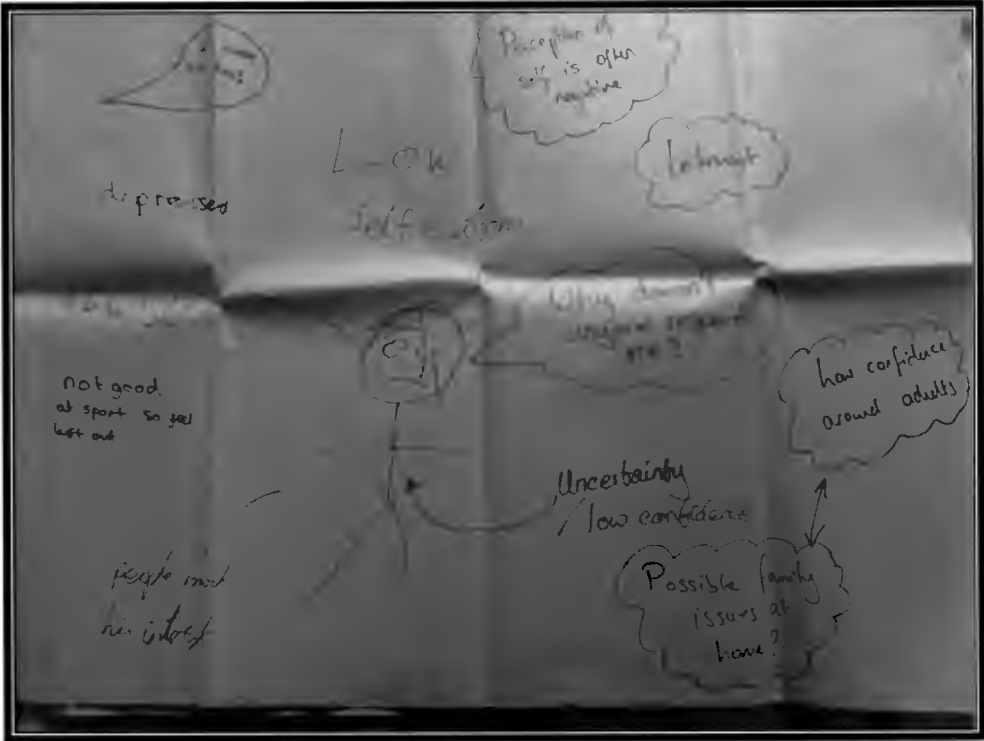Sample question:
'*Some teenagers like to go to movies in their spare time, but, other teenagers would rather go to sports events*'

- The question talks about two kinds of teenagers, and we want to know which teenagers are <u>most like you</u>

- So first, you need to decide whether you are like the teenager on the left who would prefer the movies, or, like the teenager on the right who would rather go to a sports event. Don't mark anything yet, just decide which teenager is most like you and go to that side of the sentence.
- Now that you have picked the teenager most like you, you need to decide if it is only *sort of true* for you, or *really true* for you. Put an X in the box depending on whether it is sort of true, or really true.
- For each sentence/question, you only need to mark <u>one</u> box out of the four possible boxes. Sometimes your X will be on one side of the page and sometimes it will be on the other, but you don't mark both sides for the same question.

- Some questions may ask things you may not have considered yet, but try to pick the box that is <u>most</u> like you
- Try not to spend too long on each question, just choose the box that best represents you.
- Continue with the questions at your own pace
- You have about 15 minutes to complete 44 questions.

Note to teachers: if possible please monitor whether pupils are ticking one box whilst completing the survey.
Pupils are requested to write their names so that the school may identify them for further support in the future (following on from this study). Some pupils do not want to do this. Pupils may write their initials or their school pupil number instead so I can contact them for the next steps, or if pupils show they are uncomfortable, they may leave the name blank. Their names *will not* be used/needed in the study!

Appendix 3- Example photographs of pupil responses to Focus Group interview question 2.
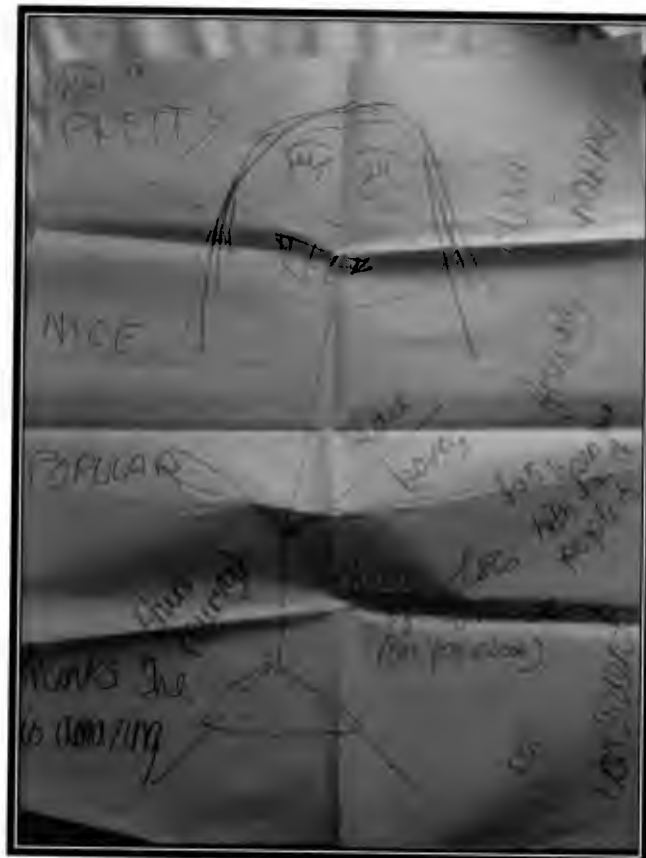
Appendix 4. Example of coded transcript

1
2
3 S. Okay, so my first question is what do you think self esteem is, like a definition ?

4 - How you view yourself kind of in comparison to others sometimes um like in maths if

5 you've got good self esteem you're more likely to put your hand up and that's just how

6 you view yourself

7 S Anything else ?

8 - Er a motivation to do more so something to aim for and to, kind of, something like

9 that

10 S Any way else you can describe self esteem ? You don't have to

11 - Um, whether you see yourself as the person you want to be or whether you see

12 yourself as a person you really don't like you kind of feel down

13 S Okay, so where you aspire to be

14 - Yeah

15 S Okay, when psychologists talk about self esteem they split it in to 7 areas including

16 academic competence peer relations social acceptance so how well you fit in to your

17 peer group athletic competence and then you've got global   as well   What I want

18 you to do is on this piece of paper is to describe the person with low self esteem and

19 high self esteem so your opinions and if you don't agree with something just say so

20 The last group did it as stick men and you can move around, you don't all have to

21 focus on just one

22 should he be crying ?

23 - will he be   his wrists ? slits ??

24 S Either if that's what you think

25 - Sorry, that's a very scary thing to do

26 - Shall I make him cry ?

27 - It's cruel

28   S It doesn't have to be questions, it can be a descriptive word. It would be good if

29   you could read each others and see if you agree or you don't or

30   -   Self esteem, it hasn't anything to do with self esteem

31   - It does, you can have lots of friends, have mates in different circles, helps your self

32   esteem

33   - I'm not sure that having mates in different circles has anything to do with self esteem

34   - Well if you've got, if you have lots of friends that's normally a good thing but if they

35   mix in different circles that shouldn't make any difference at all

36   - I think if you've got friends that mix in different circles then you're more likely to be

37   confident around different people. Like if you're friends with the skaters then you'll get

38   on with the skaters and if you're friends with the chains (?) then you'll get on with them

39   as well, to use a bit of lingo

40   S You mean the more people the better, more different people you can get on with

41   the better ?

42   - Yeah

43   - What happens if you're just in one group, just have one group that supports you, you

44   can still have lots of self esteem

45   S Yes, so maybe it's an added on thing, maybe you can put a little line, it can be both

46   Yes, wander around

47   I was just about to put that. I was thinking are we allowed to put bad things about, I

48   mean high self esteem

49   S Why not ?

50   - Exactly

51   S: If you think back to what I said about the psychologists splitting it up into those

52   various areas, have a think about those different areas with respect to high and low

53   self esteem, academic, athletic, peers, social acceptance

54   - I don't think it's necessarily that you're not the cleverest person, I think it's more to do

55   with the fact that you may not be where you want to be like I should think it's like, if

Results tables and statistics

5) Scholastic Competence

5a) Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics					
Dependent Variable:Scholastic_Ave					
SchType	Gender	yeargroup	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	2.9219	.58512	64
		Year 10	2.7945	.57540	73
		Total	2.8540	.58133	137
	Female	Year 8	2.8310	.61585	84
		Year 10	2.6714	.70703	84
		Total	2.7512	.66585	168
	Total	Year 8	2.8703	.60243	148
		Year 10	2.7287	.65005	157
		Total	2.7974	.63037	305
Single Sex	Male	Year 8	3.0149	.59205	174
		Year 10	3.0127	.64146	142
		Total	3.0139	.61375	316
	Female	Year 8	2.7526	.62587	253
		Year 10	2.7062	.65360	243
		Total	2.7298	.63938	496
	Total	Year 8	2.8595	.62508	427
		Year 10	2.8192	.66501	385
		Total	2.8404	.64423	812
Total	Male	Year 8	2.9899	.59041	238
		Year 10	2.9386	.62707	215
		Total	2.9656	.60795	453
	Female	Year 8	2.7721	.62340	337
		Year 10	2.6972	.66680	327
		Total	2.7352	.64574	664
	Total	Year 8	2.8623	.61883	575
		Year 10	2.7930	.66139	542

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable:Scholastic_Ave

SchType	Gender	yeargroup	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	2.9219	.58512	64
		Year 10	2.7945	.57540	73
		Total	2.8540	.58133	137
	Female	Year 8	2.8310	.61585	84
		Year 10	2.6714	.70703	84
		Total	2.7512	.66585	168
	Total	Year 8	2.8703	.60243	148
		Year 10	2.7287	.65005	157
		Total	2.7974	.63037	305
Single Sex	Male	Year 8	3.0149	.59205	174
		Year 10	3.0127	.64146	142
		Total	3.0139	.61375	316
	Female	Year 8	2.7526	.62587	253
		Year 10	2.7062	.65360	243
		Total	2.7298	.63938	496
	Total	Year 8	2.8595	.62508	427
		Year 10	2.8192	.66501	385
		Total	2.8404	.64423	812
Total	Male	Year 8	2.9899	.59041	238
		Year 10	2.9386	.62707	215
		Total	2.9656	.60795	453
	Female	Year 8	2.7721	.62340	337
		Year 10	2.6972	.66680	327
		Total	2.7352	.64574	664
	Total	Year 8	2.8623	.61883	575
		Year 10	2.7930	.66139	542
		Total	2.8286	.64048	1117

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:Scholastic_Ave

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	18.675[a]	7	2.668	6.738	.000	.041
Intercept	6967.441	1	6967.441	17595.989	.000	.941
SchType	.968	1	.968	2.444	.118	.002
Gender	8.284	1	8.284	20.920	.000	.019
yeargroup	1.522	1	1.522	3.843	.050	.003
SchType * Gender	1.702	1	1.702	4.298	.038	.004
SchType * yeargroup	.767	1	.767	1.937	.164	.002
Gender * yeargroup	.079	1	.079	.199	.656	.000
SchType * Gender * yeargroup	.002	1	.002	.005	.944	.000
Error	439.128	1109	.396			
Total	9395.200	1117				
Corrected Total	457.803	1116				
a. R Squared = .041 (Adjusted R Squared = .035)						

b) Scholastic Competence with only Area 1.

Analyses completed using just Area 1showed main effects of gender, F (1, 739) =15.118, p =0.00. There was a significant interaction between school type and year group, F (1, 739) = 5.601, p = 0.018) but not for an interaction between gender and school type (p= 0.096).

Area 1 statistics

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects						
Dependent Variable:Scholastic_Ave						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	13.258[a]	7	1.894	4.702	.000	.043
Intercept	5136.254	1	5136.254	12749.834	.000	.945
SchType	1.362	1	1.362	3.381	.066	.005
Yeargroup	.149	1	.149	.371	.543	.001
Gender	6.090	1	6.090	15.118	.000	.020
SchType * yeargroup	2.256	1	2.256	5.601	.018	.008
SchType * Gender	1.117	1	1.117	2.773	.096	.004
yeargroup * Gender	.866	1	.866	2.151	.143	.003
SchType * yeargroup * Gender	.441	1	.441	1.094	.296	.001
Error	297.705	739	.403			
Total	6308.280	747				
Corrected Total	310.963	746				
a. R Squared = .043 (Adjusted R Squared = .034)						

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6) Social Acceptance

Descriptive statistics

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Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:SocialAcc_Ave

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	3.073[a]	7	.439	1.434	.188	.009
Intercept	8086.160	1	8086.160	26412.187	.000	.960
SchType	.328	1	.328	1.072	.301	.001
Gender	.085	1	.085	.279	.598	.000
yeargroup	.078	1	.078	.254	.614	.000
SchType * Gender	.671	1	.671	2.191	.139	.002
SchType * yeargroup	.246	1	.246	.804	.370	.001
Gender * yeargroup	.003	1	.003	.010	.921	.000
SchType * Gender * yeargroup	.613	1	.613	2.003	.157	.002
Error	339.523	1109	.306			
Total	10808.960	1117				
Corrected Total	342.596	1116				
a. R Squared = .009 (Adjusted R Squared = .003)						

6b) With only Area 1

When only the 3 schools in area 1 were used for the analyses, again there were no significant main effects.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:SocialAcc_Ave

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	2.894[a]	7	.413	1.389	.207	.013
Intercept	5910.240	1	5910.240	19854.953	.000	.964
SchType	1.030	1	1.030	3.460	.063	.005
Gender	.002	1	.002	.006	.940	.000
yeargroup	.310	1	.310	1.040	.308	.001
SchType * Gender	.257	1	.257	.864	.353	.001
SchType * yeargroup	.022	1	.022	.074	.785	.000
Gender * yeargroup	.030	1	.030	.100	.752	.000
SchType * Gender * yeargroup	.656	1	.656	2.205	.138	.003
Error	219.979	739	.298			
Total	7233.280	747				
Corrected Total	222.872	746				
a. R Squared = .013 (Adjusted R Squared = .004)						

7a) Athletic Competence

Descriptive Statistics					
Dependent Variable:AthleticComp_Ave					
SchType	Gender	yeargroup	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	2.8188	.80453	64
		Year 10	2.5342	.69206	73
		Total	2.6672	.75742	137
	Female	Year 8	2.4714	.76530	84
		Year 10	2.3190	.75737	84
		Total	2.3952	.76290	168
	Total	Year 8	2.6216	.79868	148
		Year 10	2.4191	.73337	157
		Total	2.5174	.77119	305
Single Sex	Male	Year 8	2.8263	.76293	175
		Year 10	2.7620	.78386	142
		Total	2.7975	.77181	317
	Female	Year 8	2.3692	.80839	253
		Year 10	2.2502	.75730	243
		Total	2.3109	.78524	496
	Total	Year 8	2.5561	.82066	428
		Year 10	2.4390	.80509	385
		Total	2.5006	.81492	813
Total	Male	Year 8	2.8243	.77259	239
		Year 10	2.6847	.76004	215
		Total	2.7581	.76900	454
	Female	Year 8	2.3947	.79797	337
		Year 10	2.2679	.75675	327
		Total	2.3322	.77994	664
	Total	Year 8	2.5729	.81488	576
		Year 10	2.4332	.78437	542
		Total	2.5052	.80292	1118

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:AthleticComp_Ave

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	57.246[a]	7	8.178	13.695	.000	.079
Intercept	5600.075	1	5600.075	9377.621	.000	.894
SchType	.056	1	.056	.093	.760	.000
Gender	31.710	1	31.710	53.100	.000	.046
yeargroup	5.200	1	5.200	8.708	.003	.008
SchType * Gender	2.233	1	2.233	3.739	.053	.003
SchType * yeargroup	.870	1	.870	1.456	.228	.001
Gender * yeargroup	.081	1	.081	.136	.712	.000
SchType * Gender * yeargroup	.472	1	.472	.790	.374	.001
Error	662.864	1110	.597			
Total	7736.640	1118				
Corrected Total	720.110	1117				

a. R Squared = .079 (Adjusted R Squared = .074)

7b) with Area 1

When only the 3 schools in area 1 were used for the analyses, again there were significant main effects for gender and year group.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects						
Dependent Variable:AthleticComp_Ave						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	38.406[a]	7	5.487	9.076	.000	.079
Intercept	4105.802	1	4105.802	6791.985	.000	.902
SchType	.030	1	.030	.049	.825	.000
Gender	25.907	1	25.907	42.856	.000	.055
yeargroup	3.419	1	3.419	5.656	.018	.008
SchType * Gender	1.837	1	1.837	3.039	.082	.004
SchType * yeargroup	.782	1	.782	1.294	.256	.002
Gender * yeargroup	.003	1	.003	.005	.943	.000
SchType * Gender * yeargroup	.485	1	.485	.803	.371	.001
Error	447.335	740	.605			
Total	5109.880	748				
Corrected Total	485.741	747				
a. R Squared = .079 (Adjusted R Squared = .070)						

8a) Physical Appearance

Descriptive Statistics					
Dependent Variable:PhysicalApp_Ave					
SchType	Gender	yeargroup	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	2.7031	.68452	64
		Year 10	2.6027	.54415	73
		Total	2.6496	.61347	137
	Female	Year 8	2.3952	.75473	84
		Year 10	2.3238	.76483	84
		Total	2.3595	.75837	168
	Total	Year 8	2.5284	.73882	148
		Year 10	2.4535	.68365	157
		Total	2.4898	.71077	305
Single Sex	Male	Year 8	2.7691	.69296	175
		Year 10	2.7986	.62000	142
		Total	2.7823	.66041	317
	Female	Year 8	2.4190	.69736	253
		Year 10	2.2593	.66440	243
		Total	2.3407	.68540	496
	Total	Year 8	2.5621	.71581	428
		Year 10	2.4582	.69802	385
		Total	2.5129	.70891	813
Total	Male	Year 8	2.7515	.68989	239
		Year 10	2.7321	.60128	215
		Total	2.7423	.64880	454
	Female	Year 8	2.4131	.71102	337
		Year 10	2.2758	.69096	327
		Total	2.3455	.70404	664
	Total	Year 8	2.5535	.72129	576
		Year 10	2.4568	.69326	542
		Total	2.5066	.70917	1118

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects						
Dependent Variable:PhysicalApp_Ave						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	47.973[a]	7	6.853	14.806	.000	.085
Intercept	5556.009	1	5556.009	12003.104	.000	.915
SchType	.661	1	.661	1.427	.232	.001
Gender	29.470	1	29.470	63.666	.000	.054
yeargroup	1.234	1	1.234	2.666	.103	.002
SchType * Gender	1.239	1	1.239	2.676	.102	.002
SchType * yeargroup	.023	1	.023	.050	.822	.000
Gender * yeargroup	.347	1	.347	.750	.387	.001
SchType * Gender * yeargroup	.643	1	.643	1.390	.239	.001
Error	513.798	1110	.463			
Total	7586.320	1118				
Corrected Total	561.771	1117				
a. R Squared = .085 (Adjusted R Squared = .080)						

8b) With Area 1

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects						
Dependent Variable:PhysicalApp_Ave						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	32.623[a]	7	4.660	10.102	.000	.087
Intercept	4030.379	1	4030.379	8736.566	.000	.922
SchType	1.982	1	1.982	4.296	.039	.006
Gender	25.292	1	25.292	54.825	.000	.069
yeargroup	.931	1	.931	2.018	.156	.003
SchType * Gender	.233	1	.233	.504	.478	.001
SchType * yeargroup	1.391	1	1.391	3.016	.083	.004
Gender * yeargroup	1.310	1	1.310	2.840	.092	.004
SchType * Gender * yeargroup	.227	1	.227	.491	.484	.001
Error	341.379	740	.461			
Total	5002.120	748				
Corrected Total	374.002	747				
a. R Squared = .087 (Adjusted R Squared = .079)						

9a) Job Competence

Descriptive Statistics					
Dependent Variable:PhysicalApp_Ave					
SchType	Gender	yeargroup	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	2.7031	.68452	64
		Year 10	2.6027	.54415	73
		Total	2.6496	.61347	137
	Female	Year 8	2.3952	.75473	84
		Year 10	2.3238	.76483	84
		Total	2.3595	.75837	168
	Total	Year 8	2.5284	.73882	148
		Year 10	2.4535	.68365	157
		Total	2.4898	.71077	305
Single Sex	Male	Year 8	2.7691	.69296	175
		Year 10	2.7986	.62000	142
		Total	2.7823	.66041	317
	Female	Year 8	2.4190	.69736	253
		Year 10	2.2593	.66440	243
		Total	2.3407	.68540	496
	Total	Year 8	2.5621	.71581	428
		Year 10	2.4582	.69802	385
		Total	2.5129	.70891	813
Total	Male	Year 8	2.7515	.68989	239
		Year 10	2.7321	.60128	215
		Total	2.7423	.64880	454
	Female	Year 8	2.4131	.71102	337
		Year 10	2.2758	.69096	327
		Total	2.3455	.70404	664
	Total	Year 8	2.5535	.72129	576
		Year 10	2.4568	.69326	542
		Total	2.5066	.70917	1118

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects						
Dependent Variable:JobComp_Ave						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	9.987[a]	7	1.427	5.199	.000	.032
Intercept	7053.476	1	7053.476	25701.489	.000	.959
SchType	.711	1	.711	2.589	.108	.002
Gender	3.681	1	3.681	13.414	.000	.012
yeargroup	.590	1	.590	2.151	.143	.002
SchType * Gender	.027	1	.027	.098	.755	.000
SchType * yeargroup	.026	1	.026	.096	.756	.000
Gender * yeargroup	2.522	1	2.522	9.189	.002	.008
SchType * Gender * yeargroup	.066	1	.066	.242	.623	.000
Error	304.627	1110	.274			
Total	9423.520	1118				
Corrected Total	314.614	1117				
a. R Squared = .032 (Adjusted R Squared = .026)						

9b) From Area 1

In Area 1, there was also a main effect of gender $F_{(1, 740)}$ = 13.399, p= 0.00, and a significant interaction between gender and year group, $F_{(1, 740)}$ = 5.500, p= 0.019. Post Hoc tests from Area 1 revealed similar results as including the entire data set (as below).

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:JobComp_Ave

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	9.163[a]	7	1.309	4.825	.000	.044
Intercept	5144.788	1	5144.788	18963.849	.000	.962
SchType	.798	1	.798	2.941	.087	.004
Gender	3.635	1	3.635	13.399	.000	.018
yeargroup	.586	1	.586	2.160	.142	.003
SchType * Gender	.247	1	.247	.912	.340	.001
SchType * yeargroup	.380	1	.380	1.402	.237	.002
Gender * yeargroup	1.492	1	1.492	5.500	.019	.007
SchType * Gender * yeargroup	.205	1	.205	.756	.385	.001
Error	200.758	740	.271			
Total	6204.880	748				
Corrected Total	209.920	747				
a. R Squared = .044 (Adjusted R Squared = .035)						

10a) Romantic Appeal

Descriptive Statistics					
Dependent Variable:JobComp_Ave					
SchType	Gender	yeargroup	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	2.9281	.52296	64
		Year 10	2.8438	.51988	73
		Total	2.8832	.52111	137
	Female	Year 8	2.6833	.50272	84
		Year 10	2.8500	.48681	84
		Total	2.7667	.50038	168
	Total	Year 8	2.7892	.52413	148
		Year 10	2.8471	.50084	157
		Total	2.8190	.51225	305
Single Sex	Male	Year 8	2.9680	.52161	175
		Year 10	2.9408	.49553	142
		Total	2.9558	.50947	317
	Female	Year 8	2.7360	.54322	253
		Year 10	2.8897	.54152	243
		Total	2.8113	.54727	496
	Total	Year 8	2.8308	.54595	428
		Year 10	2.9086	.52495	385
		Total	2.8677	.53719	813
Total	Male	Year 8	2.9573	.52117	239
		Year 10	2.9079	.50482	215
		Total	2.9339	.51352	454
	Female	Year 8	2.7228	.53317	337
		Year 10	2.8795	.52756	327
		Total	2.8000	.53578	664
	Total	Year 8	2.8201	.54028	576
		Year 10	2.8908	.51838	542
		Total	2.8544	.53072	1118

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:RomApp_Ave

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	16.830[a]	7	2.404	8.439	.000	.051
Intercept	5390.343	1	5390.343	18920.101	.000	.945
SchType	6.849	1	6.849	24.040	.000	.021
Gender	3.966	1	3.966	13.922	.000	.012
yeargroup	2.452	1	2.452	8.605	.003	.008
SchType * Gender	1.429	1	1.429	5.014	.025	.004
SchType * yeargroup	.831	1	.831	2.916	.088	.003
Gender * yeargroup	.027	1	.027	.094	.759	.000
SchType * Gender * yeargroup	.030	1	.030	.105	.746	.000
Error	316.239	1110	.285			
Total	7419.920	1118				
Corrected Total	333.069	1117				

a. R Squared = .051 (Adjusted R Squared = .045)

10b) Area 1.

In Area 1, there were significant main effects of school type, $F(1, 740) = 13.517$, p= 0.00, gender, $F(1, 740) = 11.236$, p = 0.001, and year group $F(1, 740)$, p = 5.488, p = 0.019

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:RomApp_Ave

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	10.274[a]	7	1.468	5.143	.000	.046
Intercept	3855.620	1	3855.620	13511.321	.000	.948
SchType	3.857	1	3.857	13.517	.000	.018
Gender	3.206	1	3.206	11.236	.001	.015
yeargroup	1.566	1	1.566	5.488	.019	.007
SchType * Gender	.648	1	.648	2.270	.132	.003
SchType * yeargroup	.133	1	.133	.465	.496	.001
Gender * yeargroup	.464	1	.464	1.628	.202	.002
SchType * Gender * yeargroup	.149	1	.149	.521	.471	.001
Error	211.168	740	.285			
Total	4755.520	748				
Corrected Total	221.442	747				

a. R Squared = .046 (Adjusted R Squared = .037)

11) Behavioural Conduct

Descriptive Statistics					
Dependent Variable:BehanCon_Ave					
SchType	Gender	yeargroup	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	2.8281	.59827	64
		Year 10	2.5644	.54502	73
		Total	2.6876	.58353	137
	Female	Year 8	2.9024	.58536	84
		Year 10	2.6667	.56597	84
		Total	2.7845	.58606	168
	Total	Year 8	2.8703	.59011	148
		Year 10	2.6191	.55691	157
		Total	2.7410	.58596	305
Single Sex	Male	Year 8	2.8971	.57570	175
		Year 10	2.7493	.58319	142
		Total	2.8309	.58282	317
	Female	Year 8	2.8000	.54946	253
		Year 10	2.7259	.61907	243
		Total	2.7637	.58518	496
	Total	Year 8	2.8397	.56171	428
		Year 10	2.7345	.60542	385
		Total	2.7899	.58482	813
Total	Male	Year 8	2.8787	.58137	239
		Year 10	2.6865	.57596	215
		Total	2.7877	.58610	454
	Female	Year 8	2.8255	.55950	337
		Year 10	2.7107	.60558	327
		Total	2.7690	.58503	664
	Total	Year 8	2.8476	.56878	576
		Year 10	2.7011	.59359	542
		Total	2.7766	.58528	1118

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:BehanCon_Ave

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	9.213[a]	7	1.316	3.912	.000	.024
Intercept	6624.217	1	6624.217	19691.008	.000	.947
SchType	.601	1	.601	1.786	.182	.002
Gender	.042	1	.042	.126	.723	.000
yeargroup	7.036	1	7.036	20.916	.000	.018
SchType * Gender	1.193	1	1.193	3.547	.060	.003
SchType * yeargroup	1.041	1	1.041	3.096	.079	.003
Gender * yeargroup	.140	1	.140	.417	.519	.000
SchType * Gender * yeargroup	.028	1	.028	.084	.772	.000
Error	373.413	1110	.336			
Total	9001.640	1118				
Corrected Total	382.626	1117				

a. R Squared = .024 (Adjusted R Squared = .018)

11b)

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:BehanCon_Ave

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	7.404[a]	7	1.058	3.119	.003	.029

Intercept	4908.255	1	4908.255	14473.265	.000	.951
SchType	1.321	1	1.321	3.895	.049	.005
Gender	.058	1	.058	.170	.680	.000
yeargroup	4.982	1	4.982	14.689	.000	.019
SchType * Gender	.419	1	.419	1.235	.267	.002
SchType * yeargroup	1.088	1	1.088	3.208	.074	.004
Gender * yeargroup	.100	1	.100	.294	.588	.000
SchType * Gender * yeargroup	.072	1	.072	.212	.646	.000
Error	250.953	740	.339			
Total	6114.840	748				
Corrected Total	258.357	747				
a. R Squared = .029 (Adjusted R Squared = .019)						

239

12) Close Friendships

Descriptive Statistics					
Dependent Variable:CloseFriends_Ave					
SchType	Gender	yeargroup	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	3.3094	.49496	64
		Year 10	3.0740	.62138	73
		Total	3.1839	.57602	137
	Female	Year 8	3.5381	.50537	84
		Year 10	3.3571	.66374	84
		Total	3.4476	.59508	168
	Total	Year 8	3.4392	.51198	148
		Year 10	3.2255	.65778	157
		Total	3.3292	.60019	305
Single Sex	Male	Year 8	3.3131	.62385	175
		Year 10	3.1549	.57779	142
		Total	3.2423	.60784	317
	Female	Year 8	3.4474	.67539	253
		Year 10	3.2543	.69924	243
		Total	3.3528	.69325	496
	Total	Year 8	3.3925	.65740	428
		Year 10	3.2177	.65804	385
		Total	3.3097	.66308	813
Total	Male	Year 8	3.3121	.59109	239
		Year 10	3.1274	.59274	215
		Total	3.2247	.59839	454
	Female	Year 8	3.4700	.63777	337
		Year 10	3.2807	.69076	327
		Total	3.3768	.67061	664
	Total	Year 8	3.4045	.62319	576
		Year 10	3.2199	.65737	542
		Total	3.3150	.64632	1118

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:CloseFriends_Ave

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	17.544[a]	7	2.506	6.195	.000	.038
Intercept	9458.385	1	9458.385	23379.320	.000	.955
SchType	.160	1	.160	.395	.530	.000
Gender	7.516	1	7.516	18.578	.000	.016
yeargroup	7.968	1	7.968	19.697	.000	.017
SchType * Gender	1.047	1	1.047	2.587	.108	.002
SchType * yeargroup	.057	1	.057	.141	.707	.000
Gender * yeargroup	.005	1	.005	.013	.910	.000
SchType * Gender * yeargroup	.108	1	.108	.267	.606	.000
Error	449.064	1110	.405			
Total	12752.760	1118				
Corrected Total	466.608	1117				
a. R Squared = .038 (Adjusted R Squared = .032)						

12b)

In Area 1, there were also significant main effects for gender, $F_{(1, 740)}$ = 17.545, p = 0.000, and year group, $F_{(1, 740)}$ = 16.799, p = 0.000. There were no significant interactions.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:CloseFriends_Ave

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	15.721[a]	7	2.246	5.689	.000	.051
Intercept	6925.701	1	6925.701	17542.606	.000	.960
SchType	.001	1	.001	.002	.965	.000
Gender	6.927	1	6.927	17.545	.000	.023
yeargroup	6.632	1	6.632	16.799	.000	.022
SchType * Gender	.359	1	.359	.908	.341	.001
SchType * yeargroup	.236	1	.236	.598	.439	.001
Gender * yeargroup	.005	1	.005	.014	.907	.000
SchType * Gender * yeargroup	.179	1	.179	.453	.501	.001
Error	292.147	740	.395			
Total	8608.760	748				
Corrected Total	307.868	747				

a. R Squared = .051 (Adjusted R Squared = .042)

242

13) Global Self Worth

Descriptive Statistics					
Dependent Variable:GSW_Ave					
SchType	Gender	yeargroup	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Co-educational	Male	Year 8	3.1000	.55891	64
		Year 10	2.8849	.52801	73
		Total	2.9854	.55127	137
	Female	Year 8	2.8738	.58477	84
		Year 10	2.8286	.67245	84
		Total	2.8512	.62866	168
	Total	Year 8	2.9716	.58275	148
		Year 10	2.8548	.60832	157
		Total	2.9115	.59794	305
Single Sex	Male	Year 8	3.0994	.55827	175
		Year 10	2.9845	.58350	142
		Total	3.0479	.57167	317
	Female	Year 8	2.8862	.63721	253
		Year 10	2.7070	.64724	243
		Total	2.7984	.64773	496
	Total	Year 8	2.9734	.61453	428
		Year 10	2.8094	.63796	385
		Total	2.8957	.63070	813
Total	Male	Year 8	3.0996	.55727	239
		Year 10	2.9507	.56601	215
		Total	3.0291	.56572	454
	Female	Year 8	2.8831	.62372	337
		Year 10	2.7382	.65493	327
		Total	2.8117	.64290	664
	Total	Year 8	2.9729	.60602	576
		Year 10	2.8225	.62930	542
		Total	2.9000	.62171	1118

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:GSW_Ave

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	20.137^a	7	2.877	7.758	.000	.047
Intercept	7381.209	1	7381.209	19905.457	.000	.947
SchType	.001	1	.001	.004	.951	.000
Gender	8.086	1	8.086	21.806	.000	.019
yeargroup	4.156	1	4.156	11.207	.001	.010
SchType * Gender	.586	1	.586	1.581	.209	.001
SchType * yeargroup	.015	1	.015	.042	.838	.000
Gender * yeargroup	.151	1	.151	.406	.524	.000
SchType * Gender * yeargroup	.741	1	.741	1.998	.158	.002
Error	411.603	1110	.371			
Total	9834.120	1118				
Corrected Total	431.740	1117				
a. R Squared = .047 (Adjusted R Squared = .041)						

13b)

In Area 1, main effects of gender, $F(1,740) = 15.903$, $p = 0.00$, and year group $F(1, 740) = 5.310$, $p = 0.021$, were significant. There were no significant interactions

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:GSW_Ave

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	12.324[a]	7	1.761	4.644	.000	.042
Intercept	5377.093	1	5377.093	14182.046	.000	.950
SchType	.020	1	.020	.052	.819	.000
Gender	6.030	1	6.030	15.903	.000	.021
yeargroup	2.013	1	2.013	5.310	.021	.007
SchType * Gender	.170	1	.170	.448	.504	.001
SchType * yeargroup	.130	1	.130	.343	.558	.000
Gender * yeargroup	.107	1	.107	.283	.595	.000
SchType * Gender * yeargroup	1.285	1	1.285	3.388	.066	.005
Error	280.569	740	.379			
Total	6515.320	748				
Corrected Total	292.894	747				

a. R Squared = .042 (Adjusted R Squared = .033)

Appendix 14

Transcription codes

<u>Question 1</u>: What do you think self esteem means?

	CE-F	WG-SSF	HE-SSF	CE-M	WB-SSM	BSHS-SSM
8	- feelings about self - confidence	- confidence - how happy you are - feeling comfortable with self	- think you can do something - self confidence - confidence in self - how you feel about yourself - social not academic	-how happy you are - how nervous you feel - confidence	- confidence - good with people - shy=low SE - feel about self	-How easy you get wound up - Feelings about self -confidence
10	- confidence - body confidence - confidence with relationships - how you see yourself - ability to make friends - confidence despite whether	- how you feel about yourself - how you rate yourself	- confidence - how you feel about yourself - how you cope with things	-confidence - what you think about self - How good you are at subjects	-confidence - how you feel about yourself - self belief - pride	- View of self compared to others - motivation - like view of self

				you like who you are - Talk to others=high SE

Quotes:
BSyr10: whether you see yourself as the person you want to be or whether you see yourself as a person you really don't like you

kind of feel down.

Question 2a: Describe a person with high self esteem

	CE-F	WG-SSF	HE-SSF	CE-M	WB-SSM	BSHS-SSM
8	- smiling - happy - positive body language - positive outlook - confident - not too worried about looks - talkative - laughs a lot - head held high - stands out with statement clothes	- modest - pretty - nice - popular - thinks she is amazing - thin or curvy - has lots of friends (on facebook) - rich? - confident - friendly - has been out with	- respect themselves - admit being good at some things and bad at others - don't over think about themselves - confident - socialise easily - try new things - know who they are - people like them	- popular - popular - healthy - smart - kind (they could buy presents for people) - rich - converse shoes - stands up for himself - muscles - wears a tie	- Enjoys attention - Has lots of friends - Generally happy - At ease with themselves - Happy - Thinks positive of himself - Confident - Proud with themselves - Has *low*	- be best at everything - bossy without meaning to be - does more in class - sociable - big headed - always asking to read out in class - boss others about - doesn't hesitate

- designer shoes	lots of people - loud - clever - happy	for who they are - over think about themselves - make their own friends - take part in making friends - not worried about what other people think - happy with themselves - fit in more with different groups of people - not afraid of their actions	because he's smart - smiley - friendly - kind - shiny white teeth	expectations of himself - Has friends - Is not shy	before they answer or take action - 'I'm the best' - friendly - confident - I can do everything - happy - treat others like dirt - they put others down - pick people out because of their difference - good at things - contributes to class
10 - happy with height - perfect face - wears body fitting clothes - wears latest clothes - lots of friends - outgoing - talented in something	- pretty - really nice - everyone likes them - friendly - lots of friends - happy - confident - popular - outgoing - comfortable with	- happy - confident - walk proudly - happy - tries different activities - popular - outgoing - loud - chatty - displays positive	- bold - he wears his own fashion. - Doesn't try and fit in - says what he thinks - confident when performing a task - stands bold - sometimes a bit	- bling - confident about appearance - tattoos and big arms - cool - chatty - popular - smokes to release stress - confident about	- 'yes I got an A* I feel great' - gets what he wants in life - inspired - will be the one who gives in sport - likes being the centre of attention - puts hand up in class

	self	body language	cocky	appearance	
- Bubbly personality - Naturally pretty -good family upbringing - close family - has older close siblings to copy - content being themselves	- has self belief - strong emotionally - friendly - likeable - stands up for herself - can be modest - optimistic - strong relationships	- chatty	- positive look on life - looks 'awake'	- Brave - Bare contacts - wears expensive shoes - Athletic - Happy	- arrogant - has lots of friends who mix in different circles - high confidence - sets high targets and has the capability to achieve them

Question 2b: Describe a person with low self esteem

	CE-F	WG-SSF	HE-SSF	CE-M	WB-SSM	BSHS-SSM
8	- unhappy - self conscious - doesn't draw attention to themselves - afraid to answer in class - blends into background - shy - conscious about self, hides their face behind hair - hunched up shoulders - crying - doesn't laugh much - unhappy mouth - not very talkative	- ugly - fat? - unpopular - unhappy - depressed - quiet - unconfident - sad - thinks she is bullied - poor?	- self conscious - nervy - want to be other people - not being themselves - shy - low in confidence - not happy with who they are - self aware, appearance - find it hard to fit in - see their weak points more than strong - taking ideas from people they look up to	- shy - buck teeth - glasses - bad hair - yellow teeth - sit in a corner - poor homeless, bullied - cuts because they get beaten up - nerdy shoes - he only reads (may not be a cause of self esteem) - not smart - not very good at sport - fat or underweight - may not be happy with what he has got	- Could get bullied - Doesn't enjoy attention - I'm sad. - Has low expectations in life - Enjoy being alone - Does not look forward to anything - They don't think they're good enough - Pessimistic - Doesn't like the way they look - Generally a bit unhappy - Not at ease with themselves - Not proud with themselves - Shy - Glass half empty - Dislikes his/her appearance	- get bossed about - don't speak up to contribute in class - unhappy - really shy - not confident - lets people be the leader of the group - doesn't answer questions - doesn't join in with activities - quiet, - not working to their highest standard - always says 'I cant do that' - worried - disbelief in self - fail even though they can do it - the outcast - give up - try to do stupid

						things - nervous - unsociable - don't try hard
10	- doesn't have a close family - no one to talk to - no one to express feelings to - bad past - divorce in family - not good at anything - not confident	- thinks they are unpopular - are unpopular - shy - not in a relationship - thinks they are doing badly at school - don't take part in activities - no body confidence - modest - pessimistic - isolated - negative	- Shy - unsociable - likes to be on their own - not talkative in class - not outgoing - independent	- doesn't stand out - feel like they need to do certain things to fit in - doesn't think they good at very much - not very confident - tired look	- Sadness - weak - is green - can't play guitar - ill - poor fashion - thin - unhappy - smoking – stress related - not athletic (maybe) - unhappy	- 'I want to die' - depressed - in his own shell - not good at sport so feels left out - people mock his interests - uncertain/low confidence - low confidence around adults - possibly family issues at home - 'why doesn't anyone respect me' - introvert - perception of self

is often negative					

CEF: They won't like to be asked questions by teachers because they'd be scared that they'd get the questions wrong and they'd

have the mick taken out of them by EVERYone and that is quite embarrassing

Question 3: What factors may affect self esteem in school?

	CE-F	WG-SSF	HE-SSF	CE-M	WB-SSM	BSHS-SSM
8	- having friends - being picked on by teachers - embarrassed by teacher - levels/grades	- having friends - relationships with teachers - member of a sports team - competition in school (healthy) - how hard you work	- friendships - how much you contribute in class - not being selected for teams - first day of school important - important to make friends quickly - Primary school like being in a bubble	- friends - doing well with work	- friends - teachers	- teachers not choosing you to answer questions - teachers unable to control the class - having strict teachers is better - teachers trusting students - playing sports - bullying - feeling worried about bullying - not being able to do anything about bullying
10	- bullying - peer pressure - teachers negative comments - can be de-motivating for some - not liking homework	- type of school (academic schooling) - comparing your marks to others - making friends	- having friends - having friends that encourage you. - teachers being negative	- lower grades - way you are treated - being treated with respect - getting good grades - enjoying lessons	- friends - having people to talk to - having sports clubs to join	- being told you are underachieving - arrogant peers - peers purposefully stepping down on you - Gifted & Talented label

				- issues at home - divorce in family - being left out of sports teams - when teachers accuse effort in P.E
- divorce in family				

CEF: you've got lower self esteem if you're being pushed to do something, and even lower if you did it and felt terrible for doing it

- Miss W used to tell us we were gonna fail our exams and we were all really terrible, and that made us feel terrible....

- If there's like a teacher or somebody you don't like, it makes you not want to come to school.

HESSF: I think people can be put down in like school things, say like not making a team or something, I think that can knock... their self esteem and because there's not, if say there's not a lot of chances like that, if it's like a netball team for the whole year that team... they have a long time to get it back up again but they kind of find it hard 'cos they know that they've already not been accepted into whatever it is.

- It's like when we were at our primary school it was like you're living in a bubble and then when you come to secondary school everything's so different but people do end up like not having the self esteem that they had before as such

BSHSSSM8- S: how can we stop people from bullying or reduce it: 'You can't really can you. Its just a thing that people do'

BSHSSM10- RE: gifted and talented. Because if you're not in that, then what are you ? Exactly, are you then ridiculous and stupid ? I don't know, I don't think singling some kids out as gifted and talented and leaving the rest to whatever else is a particularly beneficial thing for them

Question 4: How can we help to increase self esteem in schools? Who do you think can help?

	CE-F	WG-SSF	HE-SSF	CE-M	WB-SSM	BSHS-SSM
8	- Drama classes - Compliments to pupils - being friends with someone with high S.E - feeling proud of yourself - focus on good parts of self - being encouraged to do things you like doing	- teach them - a offer a 'core strong figure'- teacher or counsellor - group work to give confidence - easier to influence when younger - teachers - talking to someone who understands what you're going	- input in year 7 to help you grow up - encourage 'growing up' out of primary school - group activities in year 7 - carefully as some people are shy - better to have new friends in year 7 - finding a new place in a new group	- let them join in games - find others with similar interests - help with academic work - low self esteem linked to poor background - make sure all essential needs are met e.g. food - getting actors or idols (those who inspire) to come	- support - introduce them to more people - team building session - groups for similar people - interest groups	- knowing where different clubs are held - push from friends and family to join clubs - having right types of clubs - not everyone likes clubs - make school more interesting - Fridays are decent lessons - table tennis at

10	- talking to both parents (if divorced) without taking sides	- tell you how good you are - if you are treated badly when younger + low s.e. - siblings saying negative things but parents wouldn't – siblings being honest - praise/treats for doing well - make you feel happy for what you do	- praise for you do well - encouragement to do well - more praise when younger - need more praise as you get older as pressure increases - being told you have done well and how you can improve	- praise - gifts/tokens - recognition of good work	- embarrassed by them - parents not caring about you - negotiate things	-acknowledging/praise for achievements - parents own educational background having an effect - parents own views of education - pushy parents = negative - too stressful - being removed from situations of stress e.g. holidays/ having a break - having free weekends

WB8: 'if there's bad atmosphere at home you might bring bad atmospheres to school either and since you're not happy you're not going to say anything, you're not going to do anything and that may start you thinking, like, people don't like me but it's really just because you're not open enough for them'

Question 6: Do you think SS or CE schooling makes a difference to self esteem? What difference does it make?

	CE-F	WG-SSF	HE-SSF	CE-M	WB-SSM	BSHS-SSM
8	- ok to compare yourself to boys, comparing to girls makes it more difficult - girls being bitchy - get on with boys and girls at CE - in SS schools, years groups not as close to each other - boys are supportive - girls are serious - less pressure in CE	- more into looks if boys there - more confident in SS - less comfortable with opp sex if attend SS - opportunity to meet up outside school useful - boys as friends in mixed schools = +ve - stronger opinions about boys in SS - less confident in talking to opp sex - school trips with boys is good - separate classes in mixed school good - useful to have boys as they contribute	- SS better for girls - less embarrassment and more concentration -Boys more confident and can get on with boys and girls - at SS miss interaction with boys from primary school - makes it difficult to meet people - if you are at school with boys, easier to talk to them outside school - academic better in SS - not much impact on boys - boys not intimidated like girls are - boys behave better if girls around - more bullying in SS	- relate to girls more in CE - treat girls better generally if been to CE - less fighting in CE - make more mixed friends in CE - high expectations of all pupils important	- focus on education in SS - no worries for opposite sex - interactions with girls after school age difficult - concentration better at SS- no distractions - less trying to impress people	- less embarrassed with same gender - don't worry about looks - good to mix with opp sex - be yourself with opp sex better in CE

10					
	differently in lessons				
- care more about appearance in CE - in SS all have same issues so not embarrassed - mixing is better in CE - bored in SS, CE interesting/ more entertaining - boys make better friends with girls - more fighting in SS	- impress/ wear make up for boys - comparing to other girls in mixed schools it lower self esteem - girls in CE schools put hands up less - boys tease girls in CE - concentrate more in SS, less distractions	- more competition in SS - primary school doesn't prepare you for secondary school - less to talk about in SS - don't like mixed school in year 7 as growing up then and more conscious - Boys go through stages later - SS gives time to grow up	- don't care as much about appearance in SS - effects work and sports - not willing to speak in class in CE - primary school better mixed - 6th form mixed for different perspective - girls argue a lot - boys distract you	- mixed schools better - communication with girls better	- higher s.e. in SS - less pressure in SS - in SS feel as confident as each other - after school less confidence with opp sex in SS - less fight in SS	- mature quicker in SS - maturity is expected in SS - less distractions - less concerned about popularity or attractiveness - get to know other gender better in CE - forced to socialise out of school if in SS to

- good experience for future jobs in CE	- more confident in SS - girls competing with each other			meet girls if heterosexual - more abuse for homosexuality in CE - best academic schools are SS

R8- like if a boy is really good at running then you could say' well he's a boy, he plays football all the time'. But if you compare yourself to girls then, if you're in a school where its just girls then you find, really, I should be at the same sort of level as her, cause she's a girl, she's in my class, so we should be at the same level. Cause girls and boys are different, as boys are at a different emotional level

Question 7: Why do you think people did not want to complete the questionnaires or are unwilling to discuss self esteem?

	CE-F	WG-SSF	HE-SSF	CE-M	WB-SSM	BSHS-SSM
8	- want to keep personal things to self - confused about what you think of yourself - ashamed	- chatted during completion so not truthful? - embarrassing - don't want to look arrogant - don't know how to answer about self - separating students would be useful - being told it is in confidence - different between groups	- conscious - embarrassed	- personal issues - didn't know what to put	- not bothered by the research Might not want to show any weaknesses	- because they have low s.e. - didn't see the point of the questionnaire - personal questions so keep it to themselves - better to talk to someone

10	- found it embarrassing - don't want to talk about it - different feelings at different times = confused - don't want to share info - don't want to discuss S.E in school - don't want to shae details	- self conscious - not want to find out about self	- not wanting to feel full of themselves - not wanting to realise they have low s.e. - don't want to talk about confidence - talk individually would be better	- difficult to compare self to friends	- not sure of purpose - better if fewer questions - better if silent/ independence - maybe at home would be better if younger?	- too personal - unable to explain how confident you are - vague about what s.e. means - having someone who knows about the topic useful in the room

WG10: people are really scared about going to things like that, even if you said well we're going to see a counsellor, we're going on a counselling programme, I don't think anyone would go to it.

Appendix 15

An example of a coded transcript by a fellow TEP for validity checking.

28   S: It doesn't have to be questions, it can be a descriptive word. It would be good if

29   you could read each others and see if you agree or you don't or

30   - Self esteem, it hasn't anything to do with self esteem

31   - It does, you can have lots of friends, have mates in different circles, helps your self

32   esteem

33   I'm not sure that having mates in different circles has anything to do with self esteem

34   - Well if you've got, if you have lots of friends that's normally a good thing but if they

35   mix in different circles that shouldn't make any difference at all

36   I think if you've got friends that mix in different circles then you're more likely to be

37   confident around different people. Like if you're friends with the skaters then you'll get

38   on with the skaters and if you're friends with the chavs (?) then you'll get on with them

39   as well, to use a bit of lingo

40   S: You mean the more people the better, more different people you can get on with

41   the better ?

42   - Yeah

43   - What happens if you're just in one group, just have one group that supports you, you

44   can still have lots of self esteem

45   S: Yes, so maybe it's an added on thing, maybe you can put a little line it can be both

46   Yes, wander around

47   - I was just about to put that, I was thinking are we allowed to put bad things about, I

48   mean high self esteem

49   S: Why not ?

50   - Exactly

51   S: If you think back to what I said about the psychologists splitting it up into those

52   various areas, have a think about those different areas with respect to high and low

53   self esteem, academic, athletic, peers, social acceptance

54   - I don't think it's necessarily that you're not the cleverest person, I think it's more to do

55   with the fact that you may not be where you want to be like I should think it's like, if

56   were told that we're underachieving, even though getting As and stuff so I don't know

57   what that means exactly but

58   S. How does that make you feel though ?

59   - Well it, it does lower your self esteem, it makes you feel like even though you're doing

60   quite well in comparison to other people apparently well you're being told that's not

61   good enough so I don't think it's particularly positive."

62   S   Give you another minute to think of anything else. You don't have to think of

63   anything else   Okay, that's fine, if you think of anything you can write it down but if I go

64   on to my next question, so what factors do you think affect self esteem in school ?

65   You were touching on some things

66   - Um, well it depends on the year group because if you get some people who are

67   arrogant and are always stepping down on other people who may not be self confident

68   it's going to make their self esteem get lower   Well in other years where everyone

69   respects each other you don't have that, as many arrogant people and people are

70   going to be helping each other out and praising each other and saying you've done

71   really well and that and that's going make them generally have more self esteem.

72   S   So what can people do in the year group where there are a few arrogant people ?

73   - Um maybe put them down so they are less arrogant, maybe lower their self esteem

74   a bit so everyone else can get a break, that sounds horrible

75   S   Any other opinions ?

76   Well the school   say gifted and talented thing but um

77   - Don't get me started on that

78   - Which perhaps the best thing to call it

79   Yeah it is

80   Because if you're not in that then what are you ? Exactly are you then ridiculous

81   and stupid ? I don't know I don't think singling some kids out as gifted and talented

82   and leaving the rest to whatever else is a particularly beneficial thing for them

Appendix 16

An example of a questionnaire given to pupils

WB

WHAT I AM LIKE

Name: _____

Age: _____ Birthday: _____/_____/_____ Year/Class: _____

SAMPLE SENTENCE

Really True for Me	Sort of True for Me				Sort of True for Me	Really True for Me
☐	☐	a)	Some teenagers like to go to movies in their spare time	BUT Other teenagers would rather go to sports events.	☐	☐
☐	☐	1.	Some teenagers feel that they are just as smart as others their age	BUT Other teenagers aren't so sure and wonder if they are as smart.	☐	☐
☐	☐	2.	Some teenagers find it hard to make friends	BUT For other teenagers it's pretty easy.	☐	☐
☐	☐	3.	Some teenagers do very well at all kinds of sports	BUT Other teenagers don't feel that they are very good when it comes to sports.	☐	☐
☐	☐	4.	Some teenagers are not happy with the way they look	BUT Other teenagers are happy with the way they look.	☐	☐
☐	☐	5.	Some teenagers feel that they are ready to do well at a part-time job	BUT Other teenagers feel that they are not quite ready to handle a part-time job.	☐	☐
☐	☐	6.	Some teenagers feel that if they are romantically interested in someone, that person will like them back	BUT Other teenagers worry that when they like someone romantically, that person won't like them back.	☐	☐
☐	☐	7.	Some teenagers usually do the right thing	BUT Other teenagers often don't do what they know is right.	☐	☐
☐	☐	8.	Some teenagers are able to make really close friends	BUT Other teenagers find it hard to make really close friends.	☐	☐
☐	☐	9.	Some teenagers are often disappointed with themselves	BUT Other teenagers are pretty pleased with themselves.	☐	☐
☐	☐	10.	Some teenagers are pretty slow in finishing their school work	BUT Other teenagers can do their school work more quickly.	☐	☐
☐	☐	11.	Some teenagers have a lot of friends	BUT Other teenagers don't have very many friends.	☐	☐
☐	☐	12.	Some teenagers think they could do well at just about any new athletic activity	BUT Other teenagers are afraid they might not do well at a new athletic activity.	☐	☐

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	Really True for Me	Sort of True for Me				Sort of True for Me	Really True for Me
13	☐	☐	Some teenagers wish their body was different	BUT	Other teenagers like their body the way it is.	☐	☐
14	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they *don't* have enough skills to do well at a job	BUT	Other teenagers feel that they *do* have enough skills to do a job well.	☐	☐
15	☐	☐	Some teenagers are *not* dating the people they are really attracted to	BUT	Other teenagers *are* dating those people they are attracted to.	☐	☐
16	☐	☐	Some teenagers often get in trouble for the things they do	BUT	Other teenagers usually *don't* do things that get them in trouble	☐	☐
17	☐	☐	Some teenagers do have a close friend they can share secrets with	BUT	Other teenagers do not have a really close friend they can share secrets with	☐	☐
18	☐	☐	Some teenagers don't like the way they are leading their life	BUT	Other teenagers do like the way they are leading their life.	☐	☐
19	☐	☐	Some teenagers do very well at their classwork	BUT	Other teenagers don't do very well at their classwork.	☐	☐
20	☐	☐	Some teenagers are very hard to like	BUT	Other teenagers are really easy to like.	☐	☐
21	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are better than others their age at sports	BUT	Other teenagers don't feel they can play as well.	☐	☐
22	☐	☐	Some teenagers wish their physical appearance was different	BUT	Other teenagers like their physical appearance the way it is.	☐	☐
23	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel they are old enough to get and keep a paying job	BUT	Other teenagers do not feel they are old enough, yet, to really handle a job well	☐	☐
24	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that people their age will be romantically attracted to them	BUT	Other teenagers worry about whether people their age will be attracted to them.	☐	☐
25	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel really good about the way they act	BUT	Other teenagers *don't* feel that good about the way they often act	☐	☐
26	☐	☐	Some teenagers wish they had a really close friend to share things with	BUT	Other teenagers do have a close friend to share things with.	☐	☐
27	☐	☐	Some teenagers are happy with themselves most of the time	BUT	Other teenagers are often not happy with themselves.	☐	☐
28	☐	☐	Some teenagers have trouble figuring out the answers in school	BUT	Other teenagers almost always can figure out the answers.	☐	☐

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	Really True for Me	Sort of True for Me				Sort of True for Me	Really True for Me
29.	☐	☐	Some teenagers are popular with others their age	BUT	Other teenagers are not very popular.	☐	☐
30.	☐	☐	Some teenagers don't do well at new outdoor games	BUT	Other teenagers are good at new games right away.	☐	☐
31.	☐	☐	Some teenagers think that they are good looking	BUT	Other teenagers think that they are not very good looking.	☐	☐
32.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel like they could do better at work they do for pay	BUT	Other teenagers feel that they are doing really well at work they do for pay.	☐	☐
33.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are fun and interesting on a date	BUT	Other teenagers wonder about how fun and interesting they are on a date.	☐	☐
34.	☐	☐	Some teenagers do things they know they shouldn't do	BUT	Other teenagers hardly ever do things they know they shouldn't do.	☐	☐
35.	☐	☐	Some teenagers find it hard to make friends they can really trust	BUT	Other teenagers are able to make close friends they can really trust.	☐	☐
36.	☐	☐	Some teenagers like the kind of person they are	BUT	Other teenagers often wish they were someone else.	☐	☐
37.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are pretty intelligent	BUT	Other teenagers question whether they are intelligent.	☐	☐
38.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are socially accepted	BUT	Other teenagers wished that more people their age accepted them.	☐	☐
39.	☐	☐	Some teenagers do not feel that they are very athletic	BUT	Other teenagers feel that they are very athletic.	☐	☐
40.	☐	☐	Some teenagers really like their looks	BUT	Other teenagers wish they looked different.	☐	☐
41.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are really able to handle the work on a paying job	BUT	Other teenagers wonder if they are really doing as good a job at work as they should be doing	☐	☐
42.	☐	☐	Some teenagers usually *don't* go out with the people they would really like to date	BUT	Other teenagers *do* go out with the people they really want to date.	☐	☐
43.	☐	☐	Some teenagers usually act the way they know they are supposed to	BUT	Other teenagers often don't act the way they are supposed to.	☐	☐
44.	☐	☐	Some teenagers *don't* have a friend that is close enough to share really personal thoughts with	BUT	Other teenagers do have a close friend that they can share personal thoughts and feelings with.	☐	☐
45.	☐	☐	Some teenagers are very happy being the way they are	BUT	Other teenagers wish they were different.	☐	☐

→

Circle as appropriate

46a) If you needed support with a school issue, do you know which staff you could approach in school?

Yes/   No

46b) If you needed support with a school issue, would you approach staff in school?

Yes/   No

47a) If you needed support with a personal issue, do you know which staff you could approach in school?

Yes/   No

47b) If you needed support with a personal issue, would you approach staff in school?

Yes/   No