School of Psychological Sciences and Health

GOALS (Grasping Opportunities After Leaving School):

Evaluating a brief goal-setting intervention programme for adolescents

by

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Declaration of authenticity

‘This thesis is a result of the author’s original research. It has been composed by the author and has not been previously submitted for examination which has led to the award of a degree.

Signed:

Date:

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Abstract

Successful transition from school to post-school is considered vital for each individual and to wider society yet there are still an estimated 31,000 young people in Scotland who leave school without a positive destination (i.e. engaged in education, employment or training) to go to (Scottish Government, 2011). Much of the research with adolescents during transition has been around developing skills for employment yet very little research has been carried out on the young peoples' autonomy and their own goals for the future. To address this gap in the research, a new goal-setting intervention programme: Grasping Opportunities After Leaving School (GOALS) was developed, piloted and trialled. The programme was designed to teach young people goal-setting skills and to create future goals prior to transition from school to post-school. The programme was based on the Going for the Goal Programme (Danish, 2002) and adopted a brief therapy approach. It was hypothesised that the implementation of GOALS would increase pupil goal-setting knowledge and in turn increase pupil engagement in post-school activities.

A pilot study evaluated and refined the GOALS materials and the main study evaluated the programme's effectiveness. 328 S3 and S4 pupils from two secondary schools in a local education authority in central Scotland took part in the main study, with classes randomly allocated to intervention or comparison groups. The intervention comprised of four lessons delivered over four weeks. Participants completed self-report questionnaires for goal knowledge and school engagement. All measures were completed at pre- and post-intervention time-points. A critical incident questionnaire was also completed post-intervention together with focus group interviews. Analysis of variance found significant intervention effects in the predicted direction for goal knowledge and

engagement. The findings have implications for working with disengaged young people during transition. Strengths and limitations of the study are discussed as well as next steps and future research.

Keywords: Engagement, Goal-setting, Post-school, Life Skills, Programme implementation

Word count: 37,772

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

While transition at any stage of one's life can be challenging, the transition from school to post-school is often considered particularly difficult as it occurs simultaneously with the period of adolescence. This can be an exciting time for high school students with many possible opportunities available to them (Lehman, Clark, Bullis, Rinkin & Castellanos, 2002). However, it can be a time where focus and direction are lost and raises the question of whether schools could offer support to engage and motivate young people to grasp the opportunities available to them allowing them to actively engage in their own future planning. Successful post-school transition is considered a priority for Scottish high schools (The Beattie Report, 1999), yet to date there lacks a comprehensive tool that can help focus and engage in the process (Scottish Government, 2006). Additionally, around 13.5% of Scotland's young people are not in education, employment or training after they leave school (Scottish Government, 2011). Those young people for a variety of reasons have become disengaged. In the following chapter, I will consider the phenomenon of 'disengagement' and will propose that young people could be reengaged through the teaching of life skills in secondary schools.

Chapter 2 also includes a discussion on background to the study based within the current Scottish Education system. It will set the study within the legislative frameworks of *A Curriculum for Excellence* (CfE, 2004); *The Additional Support for Learning* (ASL) *Act* (2004); *Getting It Right For Every Child* (GIRFEC) (2008) policy documents and Post-School documents.

Chapter 3 will explore life skill implementation in schools, providing a critique of existing motivation focused life skill programmes currently available for whole class

teaching in Scottish schools. This chapter also focuses on implementation issues of such programmes, provides a rationale for brief intervention approaches, discusses 'pros' and 'cons' of these approaches, and also 'universal' programmes. It will present a synthesis of best practice in school based programmes and will suggest that this would include the teaching of goal-setting. Chapter 4 will discuss goal-setting theory, examining what is meant by 'goals' and 'goal-setting'. It will note the interaction between goal-setting and engagement and will propose that the best way to increase pupil motivation for successful engagement in post-school transition is through the teaching of goal-setting skills informed by the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) with early predictors of school success.

Chapter 3 also provides a rationale for selection and review of candidate intervention programmes aimed at goal-setting for adolescents. The Going for the Goal Programme was selected for implementation (Chapter 5) in a secondary school. Although the essence of the programme was considered helpful, the length and structure of the programme was deemed problematic. Additionally the content was not considered to be culturally-specific. The GOALS (Grasping Opportunities After Leaving School) programme, a new culturally relevant, post-school focused goal-setting programme, was then developed by the author and its effectiveness trialled in a second pilot study, reported in Chapter 6. Results from this study indicated that the GOALS intervention increased pupils' goal knowledge and general motivation for school in two secondary schools. Chapter 7 outlines the main study: evaluating the effectiveness of the GOALS programme. The findings revealed that the GOALS programme increased participant goal-setting knowledge and increased engagement in post-school activities. The findings

suggest that goal-setting is an effective way to engaged young people in post-school activities, accessing opportunities available to them and that it can be taught. Chapter 8 concludes by discussing the findings suggesting implications for practice and future research.

CHAPTER 2. EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND: THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

This chapter will provide the contextual background for the study by firstly discussing pupil transition from school to post-school. It will then consider current Scottish (education) legislation including: A Curriculum for Excellence (CfE, 2004), The additional support for learning act (ASL, 2004) and Getting It Right For Every Child (2006). It will then consider post-school transition and the work of post-school Psychological Services (PSPS) from initial concerns raised by the Scottish Executive Education Department (now known as the Scottish Government) about post-school psychology, to current legislation, key publications, and the present national agenda. The post-school literature from an educational psychology perspective will also be examined highlighting the importance of successful transition from school to post-school and the processes that may be involved. A critical overview of interventions used with young people in some Scottish Local Authorities at the time of transition discussing the implementation and effectiveness of such interventions will be reviewed in Chapter 3.

Although a fresh focus on post-school transition is mirrored across many countries (Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development, 2007), this thesis will focus specifically on the Scottish context of PSPS, for as MacKay (2007, p8) notes, the roots of post-school *psychology* service (PSPS) are firmly embedded in Scotland: "PSPS represent a distinctive Scottish development which has no international parallel."

2.1 Transition

Transition at any stage of one's life can be fraught with many problems, as so many different factors come into play, including; resilience (Burt & Paysnick, 2012, Webster et al., 2004), home/parental circumstances (Davis-Kean, Vida & Eccles, 2001),

self-concept (Gniewosz, Eccles & Noack (2011). During transition from nursery to primary school, children need to adapt to a new approach to learning (Yeboah, 2002). Moving on from primary to secondary school also has its own unique challenges. Some transitions are developmental, resulting from the maturing process and marked by considerable individual physical, intellectual, and emotional change, for example, puberty (Dahl, 2004) Others are "Systemically built into the typical structure of educational systems" (Rice, 1997, p1). It could be argued that the transition from school to post-school may be most complex period of adjustment a person can face so far in his or her life. It is a time of relative independence, decision making and choice. It can also represent a time of high expectations and hope for adolescents and their families (Fan & Williams, 2010). Young people face what has been described as a complex and circuitous transition into post-school life (Bowlby & McMullen, 2002). Compared to previous generations, young people now are faced with higher expectations (Schneider & Stevenson, 1999) and significantly more choices (Schwartz, 2004). The requirements for more post-school education is becoming increasingly expensive (Berger, Motte & Parkin, 2007) Furthermore, with particular regard to the current socio-economic climate, there is no guarantee that a good job awaits a young person who has invested a lot of time, effort and money into post-school education (Cote & Allahar, 2007).

Post-school transition, as defined by Webster et al., (2004) has three dimensions: the move from full time education to the labour market; the attainment of independence from family; and the move away from the family home. Boyle, Critchton & Hellier (2003) highlight factors influencing young people at the point of transition i.e. support at school, support from family, and high expectations. Boyle et al., also noted that the

young person's attitude was important at this time, and reported that some of the more disaffected young people relied on others in their transition, demonstrating an external locus of control. School pupils are used to being told more or less what to do by their school and then they are expected to think for themselves at the time of transition, instead of relying on the school or their parents to 'sort it out' for them. This would require a shift in young people's expectations, and for an internal locus of control to be developed. This could perhaps be achieved at school within the classroom setting. However, it is important to note that this research was exploratory and generalisations and assumptions should be made cautiously.

Research suggests that it would be to young people's advantage if they accepted more responsibility for their actions (Gagne & Deci, 2005, Guay et al., 2010; Litalien et al., 2013, Vasalampi et al., 2010), and realised that how that they think and behave at this time will shape their life chances. If it is accepted that it would be best for young people to adopt an internal locus of control, it is then vital that those working with young people at the stage of transition understand the issues young people perceive during their transition to post school, and they should be fully consulted on the transition process from the beginning. Recently, there has been an increase in work carried out by local authority psychological services (see the Scottish Government Brite Website for an up-to-date summary, www.brite.ac.uk) specifically looking at young peoples' views about the transition process, school support and service providers.

2.1.1 Effective transitions

Young people's transitions are complex, non-linear, often disorderly and sometimes an unpredictable concept to define (Webster et al., 2004). Storms, O'Leary &

Williams (2000) suggest that the management of transition (by educators) generally has three major components. Firstly, to c*oach* every young person, along with his or her family, to think about goals for life after school and to develop a long-range plan to get there. Secondly, to d*esign* a school experience to ensure that the young person gains the skills and competences needed to achieve his or her desired post-school goals. Finally to *identify* and *link* young people and their families to any needed post-school services, supports or programmes before the young person exits the school system. Hayton (2009) argues that schools do not really address the issues of personal development with regard to transition. She reports that transition work may be covered indirectly within personal and social education curriculum, but in no great depth. This view was supported by Foskett, Dyke & Maringe, (2008) who in turn argue that more personal development work relating to transition should be taught at school, thus focusing on motivating young people intrinsically to want to succeed post-school. This view of course assumes that intrinsic motivation can be taught. This also requires the development of self-knowledge – knowing what one wants from life.

2.1.2 The importance of motivation during transition

Although school qualifications are important in the transition to post school life, they account for one, albeit important aspect, as "*not everything that can be counted counts and not everything that counts can be counted"* (Cameron, 1963, p13). This quote suggests that school grades (which can be counted) may not be as important as aspects of the young person's life that may be difficult to measure (e.g. motivation) (Matten, 2005). Similarly, Burden (2010, p1) states that "*Ability alone is not enough: how we think about ourselves matters too*." This quote highlights the importance of

one's self-concept in motivation and achievement. Although Burden appears to value the impact of 'the self' he recognises the complexity of the concept and warns researchers to be cautious when aiming to measure aspects of 'the self' highlighting that "*the nature of the association between a person's learning self-concept and learning outcomes is both complex and in a constant state of change*" (p5). A critical review of related 'self-theories' will follow in Chapter 3, p36.

Young people who are motivated and achieve well academically are likely to go onto further or higher education establishments (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002). Similarly, those who have had extensive additional support at school tend to have had individualised transition planning (ASL Act, (2004)). However, there may be a group of young people who 'slip through the net' and who do not fit into either of the aforementioned categories, they may have become disengaged or disaffected by school and may be at risk of missing out (Scottish Executive, 2006a). It is those children who are likely to become NEET (as defined in page 12).

It would be helpful to understand what makes some young people resilient to 'slipping through the net', and others not, since clearly there are numerous ecological factors which promote resilience for young people at risk, many of which the young people themselves have no control over (e.g. socioeconomic status, parental divorce, child abuse, neglect see Mikolashek, (2004) for a comprehensive review and meta-analysis). Nevertheless, a heightened awareness of one's self and an internal locus of control may make a vital difference, and these are aspects that young people may have some power over or control to develop, e.g. school attendance, study habits, extra-curricular activities (Chubb et al., 1997; Merlone & Moran, 2008). As practitioners, it is

important that educational psychologists (EPs) take account of how young people perceive themselves. Development of self-concept neither begins nor ends with adolescence, but as Todorović (2002) highlights, the main problem in this period of development is that of identity and self-awareness. There appears to be consensus on the dominant role of self and identity in adolescence (Nwanko, Balogun, Chuckwudi & Ibeme, 2012). It is encouraging to note, however, that there is evidence that most aspects of self-awareness can be taught or developed (Deci, 2000; Dweck, 2006; Ryan & Hamacheck, 1995; Seligman, 2005) which should be kept in mind when transition planning.

2.1.3 Goal-setting and transition

Goal-setting is rooted in all aspects of transition planning. All related government publications from ASL Act to CfE and GIRFEC presume that pupils will have some knowledge of goal-setting and are asked to set goals for their future. Chapter 4 will explain that this is a skill that needs to be taught and it should not merely be presumed that pupils will have sufficient goal-setting knowledge. A lack of goal-setting knowledge could prove detrimental to the goals set, as they are less likely to be achieved. Present-day society places emphasis on setting goals (whether directly or indirectly), yet may do little to teach it effectively (Danish, 2002). This is also true for professionals working with these pupils. Teachers and other professionals are expected to set goals for pupil transition planning without necessarily having any goal-setting knowledge.

2.2 Scottish education: an overview of developments in transition from school to post-school

MacKay (2006) recognises that the successful transition of all school leavers into positive and sustained destinations is of great importance to both the individual and wider society. The learning provided, accessed, and skills taught during a pupils' school career provide the foundations for enabling future opportunities to be realised. The Scottish Government has 16 National Outcomes (Scottish Government, 2007) focuses on significant areas of Scottish society which need to be monitored and/or addressed. One of these outcomes is that *"we have improved life chances for children, young people and families at risk"* (SPICe, 2012, pg 11). From each of the outcomes there are National Indicators which highlight specific areas under separate subgroups. The National Indicator this study will be attempting to address is from the outcome to improve life chances for children young people and families which hopes *"to increase the proportion of school leavers (from Scottish publically funded schools) in positive and sustained destinations (Further Education, Higher Education, Employment or Training)"* (SPICe, 2012, pg 32). The National Indicators enable the Scottish Government to track and progress towards the achievement of the national outcomes and ultimately ascertain the delivery of purpose.

2.2.1 Scottish government publications

Over the past few years a number of documents have been produced to assist in creating a better strategic context for post-school transition. The most relevant and influential publications will be discussed in further detail in this chapter.

2.2.1.1 Implementing Inclusiveness, Realising Potential

Although post-school transition had been considered important in past government publications (The Scottish Office, 1994), it was not until the Scottish Executive's report *Implementing Inclusiveness, Realising Potential* (The Beattie Report, 1999) that it became an area of national priority. The Beattie Report predicted a key role for Psychological Services to enhance the delivery of assessment and intervention services by stakeholders and partner organisations for young people in the 16-24 age range. The report recommended the development of a post-school educational psychology service for 16-24 year olds. It was felt that Educational Psychological Services were in a unique position to assist the development of successful post-school transition. The proposed remit for this service was to support young people's transitions to positive destinations by enhancing continuity and progression. Positive destination quite literally means that the person has gone onto either employment, further or higher education, or training, thus their post-school destination is a positive one.

In response to a recommendation from the Beattie Report (1999), Post-School Psychological Service (PSPS) Pathfinders were established in 12 Scottish local authorities in 2004 to conduct a scoping exercise to ascertain what was already happening in the Local Authorities and to develop a service for this client group. The Pathfinder PSPSs were established and deemed fairly successful (MacKay 2006). They had four main aims;

1. To support the young person's transition to post-school by enhancing continuity and progression.
2. To complement the assessment and advice of college, training provider or Careers Scotland.
3. To improve the understanding, skills and effectiveness of service providers through consultation, training and action research.

4. To contribute to strategic developments locally and nationally, including policy development.

(MacKay, 2006, p5)

The remit of the Post-school EP was not intended to be work at an individual level, where the psychologist would work 1:1 with a young person, largely as a result of concern about lack of capacity (MacKay, 2006). MacKay suggests that EPs were expected to contribute to strategic developments locally and nationally, to improve the understanding, skills and effectiveness of service providers. The most recent follow up report, now regarded as the main publication for post-school, is *More Choices More Chances* (SEED, 2006). This document sets out a strategy for tackling the issue of young people who do not manage to sustain their engagement in education, employment or training after they leave school.

2.2.1.2 More choices more chances (MCMC)

It is estimated that there are currently 31,000 young people in Scotland not in education, employment of training (NEET), some 13.5% of Scottish young people (aged 16-19) (Scottish Government, 2011), a figure which has remained fairly stable over recent years. However, there has been a reported fall to 12.9% in Scotland in 2013 (Scottish Government, 2014). The Department for Education (DfE, 2012) for England report that around 15% of English young people (aged 16-18) are NEET. The Welsh Government (WG) (2012) report that 13.3% of the country's 16-18 year olds are NEET (up around 2% on previous years), in spite of the fact that the percentage of young people staying on in education or training beyond compulsory age has also risen. The WG also report that 22.3% of the country's 19-24 year olds were also NEET (more than a fifth of that population).

The term ‘NEET’ has attracted some controversy over the past few years for two main reasons. Firstly, that it could be considered a negative term and could risk stigmatising young people it is applied to. Secondly, that is a residual statistical category that may be used as an umbrella term for a wide range of young people with very different needs. Nevertheless, a more pragmatic view would be that NEET is factual; it is as it is stated, people ‘not in education, employment or training’ (Tunnard, Barnes and Flood, 2008). A UK Parliament online publication (2010) highlights the issues surrounding the term by noting:

> *“We accept that the term “NEET” is imperfect. In particular, its use as a noun to refer to a young person can be pejorative and stigmatising. It is however, a commonly used statistical category, and – in the absence of an appropriate alternative – we have accepted it as a first step in understanding the issues.”* (p. 5)

The Scottish Government’s (2006) strategy to reduce number of young people NEET looks at providing young people with more choices and chances to progress to positive destinations when they leave school. The plan is for all young people to have a clear pathway from school to post-school with supported transition and sustained opportunities. A joint commitment has been made between central and local government employers, learning providers and support agencies to develop the service infrastructure required to meet the needs of vulnerable young people. All of these actions are about ensuring that young people are able to access the universal services from which they should benefit, aligning mainstream systems to cater for all young people including those who need additional support. It is apparent that there is a focus on providing young people with more choices and chances, however there is a lack of strategic focus supporting young people accessing the choices and chances offered and assisting young

people to taking the opportunities that are made available to them. There needs to be some effort made to empower and up-skill young people to be able to access opportunities available to them, which will consequently provide more choices and more chances (Scottish Government, 2006).

2.2.1.3 Ensuring effective transitions

The HMIe (2006) document *Ensuring Effective Transitions* mirrors the advice and suggestions given in the more choices more chances report the paper states that effective transition should guarantee continuity and progression. This report exemplifies current transition work across Scotland and explores emerging principles and practices. The document explains that:

> *"An effective transition should guarantee continuity and progression in children's learning. School staff, parents, all professionals and support agencies need to work together to ensure this. ...In recent years, educational establishments have improved the transfer procedures to enhance the transition process and allow individual pupils to feel valued and well prepared for the next stage of their education."*(p. v).

The report is suggests that this is happening between school transitions however, it does highlight a gap in the service provided for pupils at the stage of post-school transition. Lessons learned from successful transition planning in other transition stages can provide the starting point from which to develop effective interventions for post-school transition. In 1999 EPs were considered to be in a good position to take an overview of transition planning for post-school (The Beattie Report, 1999). This view has been echoed more recently in the aspect report (Educational Psychology in Scotland: making a difference (HMIe, 2011).

2.2.1.4 A Curriculum for excellence (CfE)

August 2010 saw a 'new dawn' for teaching and learning in Scotland as CfE (Scottish Executive, 2004) was implemented in all schools across the country. This new curriculum has been heralded as 'evolutionary' and proposes high expectations for young people in Scotland. It was introduced to raise standards and improve children's life chances. CfE aims to improve education for all by putting children's learning experiences at the heart of education. It is hoped that this change of emphasis will refresh and regenerate learning and teaching. It proposes four 'capacities' that provide the starting point for all to flourish; successful learners, confident individuals, responsible citizens and effective contributors.

CfE asks *"what kind of child do we want?"* rather than "*What do we want to teach?"* CfE's predecessor The Education Act (2000; 2004) led the way for CfE by defining the purpose of education to develop pupils' personalities and talents to their fullest potential. McLean (2009, p 1) states that we now have a clear idea of what this means; *"The more autonomy supportive the climate, the more pupils will express their potential. The goal of CfE is to encourage pupils to be who they want to be not what we think they ought to be."*

To ensure relevance, the curriculum needs to be built on pupil goals and interests, with pupils taking more responsibility for their own leaning. Some criticisms of CfE include that it can be open to misinterpretation, and some teachers may not 'buy' into it (McLean, 2006). It is poignant that CfE does not merely focus on numeracy and literacy: it gives equal weight to areas such as health and wellbeing. This recognises that for learning to take place other ecological factors have to be taken into account.

The CfE envisaged a more seamless education for pupils from 3 to 19 years of age. However, Mallinson (2009) predicted that similar rates of disaffection and drop-out will occur. The response to the implementation of CfE has been mixed. In Priestly and Humes' (2010) critique of the CfE, the authors express a negative view of the new education system. They suggest that the CfE is constrictive, shallow, vague, incoherent, without a sense of history and essentially the same as its predecessor (5-14 Curriculum). One of their main criticisms is that the emphasis on "outcomes" will ensure a continuation of the past curriculum with an inappropriate focus on assessment. A second criticism is that there are too many generalisations and additions of 'buzz terms' (*sic*) such as active learning and life skills without specific detailed guidance, which allows for too much subjectivity and may result in 'watered down' interpretations. Holligan & Humes (2007) endorse the views of a 'Herald' newspaper correspondent who maintained that CfE as an 'ill' curriculum, ill-conceived, ill-thought out and ill-described.

Boyd (2009), a member of the review group which produced CfE defends the curriculum by arguing it is very much "alive and well". He argues that it "offers teachers a chance to become re-professionalised, to rediscover their creativity and to use their skills in the pursuit of understanding for all (p 1)". He is governed by the belief that the previous curriculum was too prescriptive, it lacked context for learners and clipped the wings of teacher creativity. Nevertheless, Boyd recognises that the new curriculum is less than perfect and agrees that it has seen an implementation dip (Fullan, 2001). He trusts there is capacity for re-grouping, a review of the process and a move forward. Whether or not CfE can weather the storm of critique will certainly be of debate for the years to come.

2.2.1.5 The additional support for learning Act (ASL)

The Education (Additional Support for Learning) Act (Scotland) (2004) (amended 2009) recommended that a Code of Practice should be made to ensure families and education staff were aware of the rights of young people with additional support needs and know what was expected of them and other stakeholders. The Code (Scottish Executive, 2005) clearly states that local authorities should take responsibility for transition from secondary school to post-school. The recommendations to support this responsibility included better information sharing between all agencies, development of policies and practices and clarity of procedures.

2.2.1.6 Getting it right for every child (GIRFEC)

GIRFEC is part of Scotland's policy for children and young people (Scottish Government, 2011) which is akin to 'Every Child Matters' (DfE, 2003) elsewhere in the UK. Launched in 2008, it aims to streamline information sharing by child related agencies (social work, health, education) to ensure early intervention, if required. GIRFEC is at the very early stages of implementation. Lanarkshire (North & South) has recently developed a 'tool kit' a resource based on their work to develop a culture, systems and practice changes across the authorities. GIRFEC proposes to be an overarching framework for other legislation and describes both internal and external assets young people should have developed before leaving school (Tulberry, 2012) (shown in Table 2:1) below.

Table 2:2 Desired assets for leaving school

Internal Assets	External Assets
• Problem solving skills • Social confidence • Autonomy (internal locus of control & self-efficacy) • Self-esteem • Moral beliefs and values • Future vision • Humour	• Needs being met • Belonging • Hobbies • Engagement in learning

Tulberry believes that young people's assets are vital in protecting them through their lives namely post-school resilience.

2.3 Post-school psychology

The origins of post-school research within Educational Psychology are fairly recent (McKay, 2009) as PSPS has only been in place for a few years. Most of the psychological research has been investigative. Therefore it is an area supported with a very limited specific literature within Educational Psychology. Nevertheless, many aspects of this discipline have similarities with other areas of psychology and comparisons can be made. The area of post-school represents a new and innovative part of Educational Psychology practice. The journal *Educational and Child Psychology* (2009) dedicated a special issue to post-school psychological services. MacKay and Hellier (2009) note that "the exploratory nature of this new field is apparent throughout the issue. We are opening up an area where there is currently no research base, and the papers reflect this." (p. 7). New research therefore must use related theoretical perspectives to guide our current work in this field. This new work will then inform future research as much of the research to date is limited and on a small scale.

Craig (2009) conducted a small exploratory research study to examine current transition practices within a Scottish local authority. This was achieved using a qualitative survey approach comprised of 23 questionnaire responses and interviews with five young people with additional support needs who had successful transitions to post-school destinations, no descriptive statistics were offered (i.e. age range). Craig utilised a social constructivist approach in the study. However, this perspective assumes that there should be a focus on its dependence on contingent variables: factors outwith those described on the transition form were not included within the study, and the study did not recognise any ecological variables, or external factors such as parental influence, socioeconomic status, or engagement. The transition form is one of the main tools used within Craig's authority for transition. The form is intended to help young people focus on their transition to post-school by asking relevant questions and sharing the responses with relevant stakeholders during the period of transition. Craig concludes that young people did not think the transition document was very effective and that the form was used irregularly across schools and that advocacy from adults, good peer relationships and familiarisation of possible destinations or goals all added to the young persons' self-confidence during the period of post-school transition. Nevertheless the results should be interpreted cautiously, as the study has a very small sample size, and did not include all groups of young people during transition. Additionally, assumptions were made and conclusions drawn based on one or two participant views. Small sample sizes and a lack of supporting evidence are common problems with much of the transition to post-school research to date which can unfortunately under-value the research.

In another exploratory piece of action research, Mallinson (2009) investigated the views of a sample of vulnerable young people and their teachers regarding their transition, support and dropping out of education. This was achieved with a flexible, qualitative research design using focus group interviews (*n*=17 for student focus group and *n*= 5 for college teacher group). The views were coded using grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) and four themes were considered attributable to successful or non-successful transition: good information, positive attitudes, good teaching and opportunities available. Confidence and connectedness were highlighted as good outcomes of successful transition, with an emphasis on positive self-esteem, a finding common to much of the literature (Dent & Cameron, 2003; Gilligan, 2000; Schoon & Bynner, 2003). Nevertheless, as with Craig's research, a major limitation to the study was the sample size and depth in its explanation of sample selection criteria.

Haughey (2009) conducted an evaluation of the PAVE (Programme for Alternative Vocational Education) programme to support young people who have become disaffected with secondary school towards better post-school outcomes. Changes in school attendance of participants was measured (n=91) along with final destinations after completing the programme (n+139) The PAVE programme was run within secondary schools in the lead up to transition, within Haughey's then Local Authority. The programme contains a vocational element with a focus on developing basic skills required for post-school. The participants of the programme were labelled 'disaffected' by schools (how they were defined was unclear), the language of which is considered problematic in regard to definite measurement of the concept of 'disaffection' (Haughey, 2009; Lauchlan & Boyle, 2007). For the purpose of the study, Haughey defined

'disaffected' as a "process of disaffection rather than suggesting anything inherent in the young people or their personal circumstance" (p53). Other studies suggest that the young person should be viewed as having become involved in a process of disaffection which causes difficulty within a school and that other ecological factors should also be considered (Bennett, 2005; Cameron, 1998) and that the main focus of work in this area should be about how we can change this around. Regardless of the terminology, however, it is vital that the needs of this group of young people are addressed, given that being "disaffected", however defined, is a significant predictor of becoming NEET. Haughey's evaluation concluded that the intervention was successful and reported increased levels of attendance and indications of reduced likelihood of unemployment at school leaving age in addition to more sustainable post-school destinations, however a further 37.4% of participants who attended PAVE did not have a recorded post-school destinations and were subsequently not included within the results. A common problem with such research on this group of young people is that the outcomes are difficult to measure: there is little objective outcome data, and researchers reports subjective outcomes such as 'the likelihood of unemployment is reduced' (Haughey, p57). Additionally, Haughey made no reference to implementation issues such as fidelity to the programme, programme effect size, or data comparisons with similar programmes; would other programmes be equally effective with this population? In essence, this study did not take implementation science into account. Implementation science and its effect on the delivery of interventions will be discussed in Chapter 3.

The value of understanding the views of young people is widely recognised in relation to promoting a successful transition to post-school (SEED, 2006, 1999). Such

information should be seen as being at the centre of intervention work with this group of young people as it assists in developing a rich picture highlighting what motivates these young people (MacDonald and Lauchlan, 2010). The Beattie Report (1999) recommends that only when such information is gathered can effective intervention strategies can be developed. Nevertheless, over a decade on, members of staff working with young people during the period of transition are still reporting that they have difficulty communicating with school staff about pupil information and support required (Craig, 2009).

The HMIe (2010) Aspect Report (based on the impact of Educational Psychology in Scotland from 2006 to 2010 from local authority inspection findings) praises the work of Educational Psychology services stating:

> *The development of post-school work has resulted in improved transitions for young people, more effective joint working and the development of policy and practice in this area.* (p. 6).

There has been an increase in exploratory research undertaken over the past few years on post-school psychology (as highlighted above). However the recent nature of the research suggests a lack of strong evidence to support claims that post-school work has been directly instrumental in improving transitions for adolescents. Consequently, although much of the post-school research to date remains valuable, the conclusions drawn are not considered empirical evidence. There needs to be more robust research with larger sample sizes and a more comprehensive range of participants to provide more valid and relevant facts rather than hypotheses. Or is the mere 'development' of a new field enough to claim its worth?

2.3 Summary

It has been demonstrated that post-school transition is regarded nationally as priority for development in schools. There are numerous legislative guidelines on supporting young people at this time and there have been various interventions aimed at assisting the transition process, however to date there has not been a comprehensive tool that motivates young people to be self-aware, to take autonomy, learn goal-setting and grasp the opportunities that are available to them. This chapter discussed the background to the concept of NEET reflected in Scottish Education and it discussed the political context of post-school, highlighting key legislation and best practice principles, in particular the importance of effective transitions, developing resilience and motivation through engagement. It is important to note that young people's engagement is not contained within a vacuum; it is created by an integration of a host of ecological factors, i.e. background, family, life events, peers, school, etc. Young people cannot control many of these factors, or the services provided for them, but they do have a major part to play in taking responsibility for themselves and their own future. It is not only the young person's responsibility to become more self-aware, it is also the responsibility of society, (families, communities and schools) to *teach* young people how to develop a positive self-concept, as this may contribute the successful realisation of their life goals (Danish, 2002, Burden, 2010). A young person could have achieved well academically at school, have access to a range of opportunities, yet still fail to take opportunities available to them after they leave school. This may be attributed to their self-concept (Dweck, 1999; Massey et al., 2008). Young people's relationship with self-concept will be considered in Chapter 3, p. 36. Regardless of how much support a young person is offered, they also

need to take some responsibility for themselves. The following chapter will continue by developing the concept of effective transition through the use of life skill education, to teach young people the skills they require at this pivotal point in their lives. This will hopefully result in an increase in adolescent engagement and post-school success.

CHAPTER 3. LIFE SKILLS: A REVIEW OF SELECTED INTERVENTIONS AND IMPLEMENTATION ISSUES

Chapter 2 highlighted the importance of successful post-school transition and the processes involved, it suggests that life skill education could be an effective way of preparing young people for transition and their future. The chapter will begin by defining life skills, the difficulties in defining and measuring the concept will be discussed. This chapter will argue that post-school success is not solely about academic ability and that other important factors in life success is the development of personal motivation and, indeed, life skills. The chapter will provide a critique of existing motivation focused life skill programmes currently available for whole class teaching in Scottish schools. Programmes reviewed here were identified by means of a computer search of databases using the search terms and criteria noted on page 24. Components of the programmes identified by the computer search and their evidence-base will be discussed, together with their implications for implementation.

3.1 What are life skills?

The notion of life skills is a concept difficult to both define and measure and it is wide open to interpretation. Hodge, Danish & Martin (2012) note that one of the key challenges in conceptualising life skills is the multiple definitions of the term. Danish, Forneris, Hodge and Heke (2004) propose comprehensively that life skills could be defined as *"those skills that enable individuals to succeed in the different environments in which they live such as school, home and in their neighbourhoods. Life skills can be behavioural (communicating effectively with peers and adults) or cognitive (making effective decisions); interpersonal (being assertive) or intrapersonal (setting goals)"*

(p40). The World Health Organisation (WHO, 1997) simply state that "*life skills are abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour, that enable individuals to deal with the demands and challenges of everyday life"* (p. 1).

Contexts vary from individual to individual, thus the definition of what it means to succeed will vary across individuals, as well as across different environments and cultures. Even individuals from a similar environment may be dissimilar from each other as a result of the life skills they have already mastered, their other resources, and their opportunities, real or perceived. For this reason, the required life skills are likely to be different for individuals of different ages, ethnic and/or racial groups, or economic status.

3.1.1 Related terminology

The term *life skills* could also be referred to as: soft skills, non-cognitive skills, social skills, social-emotional learning, emotional intelligence, positive psychology, personal and social health and personal resilience. As the term *life skills* fits into many categories this can have potentially have an effect on how interventions are developed and in turn, how we measure whether these skills are effectively taught. While it is necessary to be sensitive to these differences, it is also important to recognise that there are a core set of life skills that all individuals need to know and that many individuals can also effectively apply life skills learned in one environment to other environments as appropriate (Danish, 1997). The core skills identified through analysis by WHO (1997, p. 1) are: Problem solving, Decision making, Critical thinking, Communication, Interpersonal skills, Intrapersonal skills, Empathy, Coping with Emotion, and Coping with stress. Life skill education also promotes mental well-being, equipping individuals

to behave in pro-social ways (Birell, Weisen and Orley, 1996). The emphasis of this review is on life preparation (for post-school) and the skills that are required for this process, therefore the term life skills will be used throughout. This also implies psychosocial characteristics rather than isolated behaviours.

3.1.2 Life skill programmes

The WHO report suggests that the core skills outlined above can "*be taught to young people as abilities they can acquire through learning and practice"* (p. 3). WHO (1999, p4) further highlights the importance of teaching life skills by stating that this type of teaching is crucial for:

- The promotion of healthy child and adolescent development;
- Primary prevention of some key causes of child and adolescent death, disease and disability;
- Socialisation;
- Preparing young people for changing social circumstances [for example, transition].

The successful teaching of life skills varies across education programmes. The World Health Organisation (WHO) (1997) regards life skill education as the best way of empowering children and young people, enabling them to take more responsibility for their own actions. Birell, Weisen & Orley, 1996) propose a model of life skills education (figure 1) stating that a life skills programme must have effect on the inner layer of mental wellbeing and middle layers of behavioural preparedness.

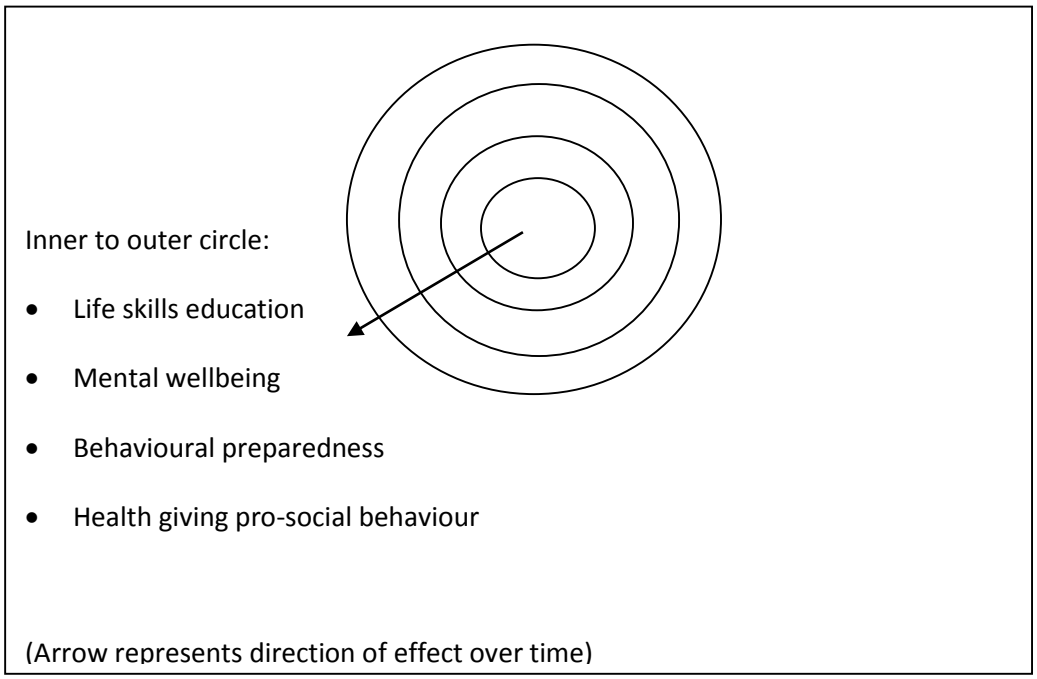

Figure 1. Model of effects of life skills education (Birell, Weisen & Orley, 1996, p. 4)

Danish (2002) further suggests that the skill of goal-setting can act as a framework and a context for developing all life skills. Chapter 4 will discuss the advantages of goal-setting in depth.

3.2 Life success is more than just 'IQ'

Although good social skills and motivation are recognised as helpful predictors of life success, Heckman (2000) notes that they are often overlooked with regard to education. Burden (2010) suggests that *"what remains unrecognised in many schools is that the secret of successful learning lies at least in children's motivation as their innate ability"* (p1). Burden goes on to state that young people who appear to have little more than average ability, yet seem to do well in later life, do so because *"they believed in themselves and were prepared to work hard to achieve their goals"* (p1).

3.2.1 The importance of self-belief

'Self-belief' may be described as confidence in one's own ability; it is considered a critical force in one's motivation and academic achievement (Schunk & Pajares, 2002). It is one's perception of one's self, in essence, how a person measures their overall worth. The self could be considered an umbrella term and the 'self-umbrella' can encompass all aspects of self, including: self-esteem, self-confidence self-concept and self-efficacy (Dweck, 1999). Despite differences in the self-theories they provide similar foundations and suggestions for enhancing one's sense of self. The terms are not easy to separate and their constructs can be complex and difficult to exclusively define, nevertheless understanding them is vital in motivating people to modify their behaviour. This thesis will not attempt to note all possible 'self' constructs. It will however, address that there are various 'self' terms, which overlap and have an impact on motivation. Additional self-terms include; self-direction (Smith, 2004); self-determination, basically the extent to which one's aspirations and goals are self-selected, (Ryan & Deci, 2000); Self-regulation, one's guidance of one's goal directed thinking, attitudes, and behaviour (Bandura, 1997); and Self-transcendence, pushing the limitations of one's ego, making meaningful connections to nature and the universe (Polanyi, 1970). Huitt (2011) believes that *"parents and educators should address all of these constructions in a holistic manner in order to prepare children and youth for successful adulthood". (p8).* Pajares (2006) adds that constructs such as self-efficacy is a critical determinant of the life choices people make and of course the action they pursue. He believes that this is most critical during the transition from high school to post school, where there are more choices and opportunities available.

3.2.2 Difficulties with measuring *self*

Just as the 'self' is a difficult concept to define as it offers many technical variations; the same is true for measuring such concepts. Nevertheless, there are established psychological tests that allow psychologists to give a measure to concepts like self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1965) by using self-appraisal. Critics of this type of measure suggest that understanding the self is not something that can be measured using a scale as it is a human need to understand one's self, and is merely part of a persons' personality, character and rationale. Yet as self-concept is regarded as a vital aspect in human motivation, some researchers seek to quantify perceptions as this allows for the measure and indeed understanding of change, practically when measuring before and after an intervention programme. The limitations of using self-appraisal therefore need to be interpreted cautiously and within the context of each study (Hujer, Caliendo & Radic, 2004).

3.2.3 Can we positively change self-perceptions?

Research would suggest that a positive self-concept is key for life success, therefore can we alter a person's self-concept if they hold a negative one? And if so, how would we go about this? Danish (2002) suggest that the teaching of life skills is one way to develop and promote a positive self-concept, by building confidence and improving self-efficacy. The 'self' which is a fairly abstract concept, one which is subjective and therefore it would be difficult to measure if one's self-perception has been altered successfully. However the dynamic aspect of the 'self' should allow for change or modification. Franken (1994) states:

There is a growing body of research which indicates that it is possible to change self-concept. Self-change is not something that people can will but rather it depends on the process of self-reflection. Through self-reflection, people often come to view themselves in a new, more powerful way, and it is through this new, more powerful way that people can develop possible selves" (p. 443).

3.3 Universal life skill interventions

This section will provide an overview of a selection of universal intervention programmes aimed at developing adolescent engagement (motivation) in their post-school transition currently available in the UK. The process for selecting programmes will be explained in the first instance, a brief overview of the programmes selected will follow. The final part of this section will highlight methodological considerations, including the implementation of the programmes.

3.3.1 Selection criteria

The process for selecting intervention programmes for review included searches of electronic data bases: APA PsychNet, IngentaConnect from 1990 onwards, and Google Scholar. The search terms used were; "adolescent motivation", "motivation for post-school", "adolescent goal-setting", "teenage goal-setting", and "life-skills". Additional studies were identified and followed-up from references in articles found in initial literature searches.

In addition, a convenience sample (Freedman, 2014) of 5 secondary schools across the author's local authority were asked about programmes used to target post-school transition, four of the five schools reported they used one they devised themselves (Daly, 2007). A reason for this could be that teachers felt that there was not

an ‘off the shelf’ programme available that was quite appropriate for their pupils at that time. The selection criteria for programmes included in this review are that they are:

- Universally implemented within school
- Relevant to adolescence/post-school
- Contain a goal-setting component

Widely-used intervention approaches such as The Motivated School (McLean, 2003), The Transition Passport (Glasgow City Council, 2006) and The Transition Toolkit (Edinburgh City Council, 2007) have not been included here as they are not universal classroom programmes. The Motivated School merely provides a framework for teachers working with the disengaged learner. The Transition Toolkit, and similarly the Transition Passport, focus on young people with additional support needs, planning post-school transition. They were developed to support the ASL Act (2004) and are not a universal intervention. Additionally, the Lessons for Living programme (Collins, 2011), a life skills programme developed for a similar demographic to this study, was not considered as it was designed to be administered in a primary school setting, not aimed at adolescents. The Penn Resiliency Programme (Gillham, Reivich & Jaycox, 2008) was also rejected due to its specific focus on mental health and not on general life skills. Another programme rejected also due to its focus specifically on mental health was the FRIENDS for Life Youth Programme. However the format of this type of programme (utilising a cognitive behavioural approach) may be an effective method for brief interventions with adolescents (this will be discussed later in this chapter on page 46).

The Social Emotional Training (SET) Programme (Kimber, 2001) focuses on developing adolescent: self-awareness, managing emotions, empathy, motivation and

social competence, through the use of exercises (around 400) similar to other programmes available (Greenberg, 1996). The aim of this programme is to promote pupil mental health, which focuses on pupils' self-control, social competence, empathy, motivation and self-awareness. Kimber, Sandell and Bremberg (2008) conducted an effectiveness study of 5 years intervention. The sample size in the study was 138 and a small to medium effect size on pupil's general wellbeing was reported (between 0.3 and 0.4). Interestingly, no relationship was found between the intervention and the promotion of life skills. However due to the amount of exercises involved in the programme and the short time frame of the study this programme was also rejected from analysis.

Only three universal intervention programmes contained specific transition to post-school components therefore it was these programmes that were then selected to be reviewed and are highlighted in Table 3.1 below (all programmes were designed to be facilitated by a teacher or another professional in the school context).

Table 3.1. Reviewed interventions with goal-setting element

Programme	**Target area/core life skills taught**	**Time/ sessions**	**Facilitator**	**Programme outcomes**	**References**
Resourceful Adolescent Programme	Coping with adolescent stressors/life skills	11 sessions Small groups- not whole class	Researcher led (not teacher)	Develop participants self-management, build support newtorks. No difference effects at follow up.	Harnett & Dadds (2004) Shochet, Dadds, Holland, Whitefield, Harnett & Osgarby (2001) Dadds, Holland, Whitefield, Harnet & Osgarby (2001) The PROMISE project (ongoing research, University of Bath)
Going for the Goal programme (GFTG)	Goal-setting/motivation/life skills	13 weeks/sessions Larger groups/whole class	Pupil led (role model) with support facilitator	Effective in teaching problem solving strategy, know how to use strategies. Greater understanding of setting and achieving goals. Reinforcement of healthy behaviour patterns. No follow up report.	Danish (1998, 2002) Forneris, Danish & Scott (2007)
Moving On - Transition in Action	Post-school transition/life skills	240 hours (including direct teaching, practical work and assessment)/Whole class	Teacher led	Provides a comprehensive curriculum for all aspects of a young person's life. Perhaps lacks focus for transition.	Playback ice. Piloting and evaluation work supported Scottish local authorities: Glasgow, North Lanarkshire, East Dunbartonshire and Clackmannanshire

Each of the aforementioned programmes, mainly focusing on life skill development, will now be reviewed.

3.3.1.1 Resourceful adolescent programme (RAP)

This programme was designed for young adolescents at school aged between 12-16 years (S1-S5). It consists of 11 sessions and was designed to be delivered to small groups of pupils. The focus of the programme was to develop participants: strengths (recognition), promotion of self- management and self-regulation during stress, cognitive restructuring, problem solving, building and accessing psychological support networks, and empathy. This programme was designed to be delivered in small groups, not in whole class settings, however this may have cost implications for schools that may not have resources to reduce the group (class) sizes for the programme. The programme takes a cognitive behavioural approach. Harnett & Dadds (2004) reported no significant effects of the intervention at follow up points (one year, and three years' post-intervention) and suggested that the study did not demonstrate a beneficial impact of the programme for the students. They noted that a key issue in the study was facilitator training (facilitators attended a one-day training course). Facilitators believed that they had acquired enough knowledge to implement the programme, however adherence to the programme varied, with key concepts missed out of lessons. Harnett & Dadds propose that perhaps the programme contained too many key concepts and may be better if it was more focused. The lack of facilitator supervision was another limitation Harnett & Dadds reported as an issue in their study, resulting in poor external validity. This is in contrast to Shochet, Dadds, Holland, Whitefield, Harnett & Osgarby's (2001) study where facilitators were provided with more training and support and the programme was deemed successful. Harnett & Dadds recognise that a weakness of their 2004 study was the lack of independent observers. This can often be an issue with real-life conditions, facilitators can request not to be observed. Other studies of the RAP were not

reviewed due to their focus on specific mental health concern, rather than a universal approach such as: depression (Cockshaw & Montgomery, 2008; Rivet-Duval, Heriot & Hunt, 2011; Shochet, Homel, Shochet & Ham, 2004), and parental attachment (Shochet, Dadds, Ham, & Montague, 2006; Shochet, Smyth, & Homel, 2007).

3.3.1.2 Going for the goal programme

The Going for the goal (GFTG) programme (Danish, 1998, 2002) was developed to teach young adolescents (11-14 years) how to think about and develop confidence in their future, as well as how to acquire a sense of personal control over themselves and their environment so that they can make better decisions and ultimately become better citizens. Danish believes that to teach students to be self-directing, we must empower them. Empowering them involves enhancing their well-being by promoting healthy choices, including learning how to set personal goals, how to achieve these goals in the immediate future, and to believe in their future. Part of the process used to help empower participants is to teach planfulness. The programme is delivered to tens of thousands of young adolescents in numerous cities in the United States. While potentially effective, such programmes have not always been evaluated against matched control groups. Forneris, Danish & Scott (2007) evaluated the GOAL programme in a high school in Canada. Twenty adolescents (mean age =14.10 years, gender was not reported) participated in the study. The participants attended a one hour session per week after which they were all interviewed using a semi-structured interview format and coded using thematic analysis. Results showed an increase in participant knowledge about goal setting and problem solving. There was no report on goal attainment and behavioural change (i.e. participants taking steps toward a set goal). The sample size is considered small to make any generalisations. Additionally, no follow up studies were noted which could avoid many difficulties in interpretation and threats to internal validity (Robson, 2011).

3.3.1.3 Transition in action

This programme was designed by Playback Ice (2011) to be taught over two school years, and is credit rated by the Scottish Qualification Authority (SQA) at SCQF Level 4. The programme can also be broken down into shorter sections to focus solely on a particular subject. The content is aimed at mainstream S3-S6 pupils, however the authors state that it can be of particular benefit to: MCMC student groups, students with additional support needs (ASN), students in specialised settings, young people in care and college students. The four year research, development, piloting and evaluation work was supported by a number of local authorities: Glasgow City Council, East Dunbartonshire Council, North Lanarkshire Council & Clackmannanshire Council. Nevertheless the research itself was conducted by the authors, and has not been published other than conclusions made in summary form on the play back ice website which gives no account of validity. The workbook is linked to the Curriculum for Excellence experiences and outcomes (within Health and Wellbeing, Literacy and Numeracy). It appears to be a very robust and comprehensive programme covering a wide range of adolescent relevant topics such as: sex education, drugs, gang culture, bullying, relationships, bereavement, road safety, life-long learning, volunteering and hopelessness. There is a section dedicated to action planning, with a brief goal-setting component, however like other programmes of this kind the goal-setting element is limited and assumes some degree of prior goal-setting knowledge. The programme is helpful in terms of practicalities; however the focus on goal-setting for post-school is too indirect and not explicitly taught. However, the lack of empirical evidence requires caution in interpreting and generalising outcomes.

3.4 Advantages of universal programmes

A practice matrix developed for use by speech and language therapists (Gascoigne, 2006) provides a helpful framework by which to understand how a programme can support groups of young people (see figure 2 below).

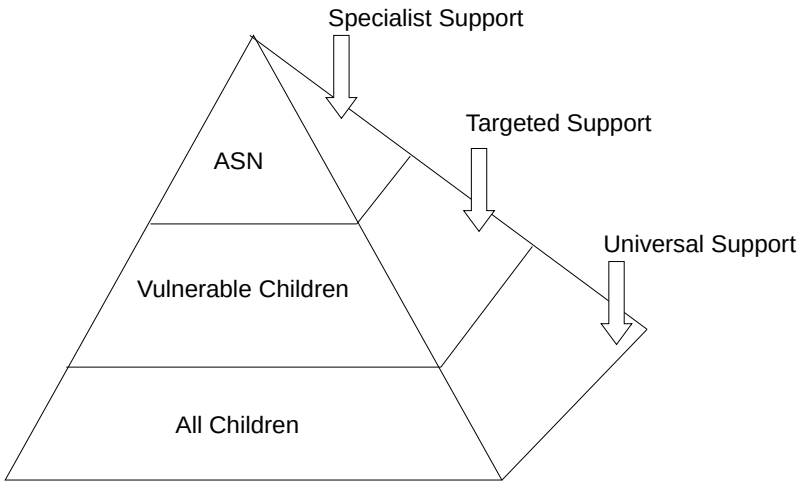

Figure 2 Intervention Framework

The diagram shows how a universal programme can be used for all children, with more targeted programmes more suitable for more vulnerable groups. The small section at the top of the pyramid shows young people with additional support needs, a smaller proportion of young people who require specialist support. There are many advantages in using universal intervention programmes to teach life skills, such as; providing recruitment for more intensive prevention efforts and increasing population awareness (Offord, 2000). Interventions based within schools is also considered less stigmatising for young people who require support; further, it provides wider access for support than a therapeutic individual setting would allow (Stallard, Simpson, Anderson, Hibbert & Osborn, 2007). Effective application of life skills can influence the way children feel about others and themselves, which in turn can contribute to a more developed sense of self (Woolfolk, 2001). Successful application of life skill programmes can quickly integrate into large systems (such as

schools) benefiting a whole population, with the potential to produce large effects (Offord, 2000). It is not then surprising that there are many interventions available designed to be accessed within the school setting. The following section will provide an overview of the problems of implementing adolescent focused universal school intervention programmes containing a goal-setting element.

3.5 Issues in implementing life skill programmes

Although there has been an increase in school-based prevention programmes in recent years, there has always been some ambiguity around how effective the programmes translate to practice (Botvin & Griffin, 2004). It is now recognised that school-based research should focus more on the process of the intervention quality and fidelity rather than solely on outcome measures (Weissberg, Kumpfer & Seligman, 2003). This concept is recognised as implementation science (Dean & Schneidber, 1998). Implementation science is also known in the literature by other terms such as; fidelity of implementation and procedural reliability. In essence, it describes that how well a programme is implemented, is as important as the programme itself. Implementation effects such as; fidelity, exposure, quality of delivery and adaptation can enhance, impede an intervention or even contribute to the evident failure of the intervention (Schoenwalk and Hoagwood, 2001).

3.5.1 Fidelity of intervention

The model of intervention fidelity, adherence, or the integrity of the facilitator basically is defined by how closely the programme is delivered to how it was designed (Mihalic, 2002). True programme fidelity is not easily achieved in practice. Facilitators often change or adapt evidence-based programmes as they implement them, whether intentionally or not. This begs the question as to *whether or not the integrity of the practitioner or the quality of the programme is the key to the programme's success.* Additionally, if a

programme is adapted in anyway, it will then compromise the programme's evidence-base (as it is not the original programme that the evidence supports). Few empirical studies report on the fidelity of the intervention, which can limit the validity of conclusions drawn. One paper that does report on fidelity however is Botvin & Griffin (2004) where they discuss empirical findings, including their own on the Life Skills Training (LST) programme (a primary prevention programme for adolescent drug abuse). Their research has shown that implementation by classroom teachers varies widely and may sometimes be delivered with less than adequate fidelity. In testing the LST programme in 56 schools in New York state implementation rates were observed (by trained monitors) on average by 68% (range 27% to 97%) of the material was covered. Botvin & Griffin note the growing concern that evidence-based programmes effectiveness may be compromised when implemented in real world settings, where teachers or facilitators are not trained enough and or not monitored when delivering the programme. Therefore it is important that any future school based programmes include a process of evaluation to include implementation factors such as fidelity to identify the factors that may impede and enhance implementation.

The Department for Education's research report, 'Implementing evidence-based programmes in children's services: key issues for success' (Wiggins et al., 2012) brings together the latest international thinking about the key issues relating to the implementation of evidence-based programmes. It includes both published work and expert opinion. It provides an overview of issues that should be considered and planned for those about to implement a new programme in order to increase the programme's chance of success. The report recommends the adoption of the Fixen, Naoom, Blasé, Friedman and Wallace (2005) framework: Implementing evidence-based programmes: Six key stages outlined below (see Fixen et al., 2005., or Wiggins et al., 2012 for a more comprehensive description of the stages).

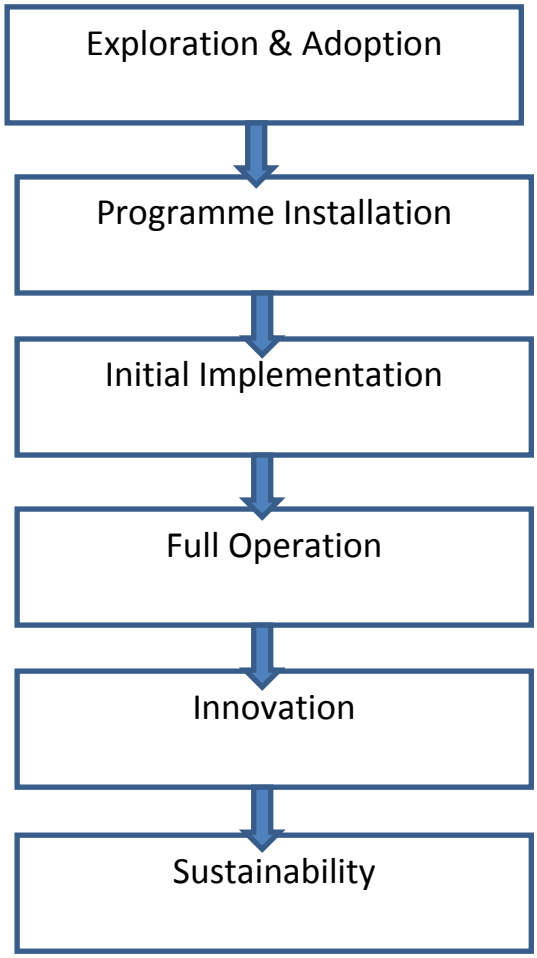

Figure 3. Stages of the implementation process (Fixen et al., 2005, p. 15)

Prior to implementing a new programme in schools, Wiggins et al., (2012) recommends using the Criteria for Implementation Checklist (CfIC) (Guldbrandsson, 2008) to distinguish whether or not the selected programme is the most suitable and the appropriate at that time. Guldbrandsson's paper "from news to everyday use: the difficult art of implementation" suggests a framework for intervention based on current literature.

3.5.2 Dose response

The dosage is the amount of intervention to which the participants are exposed (Domitrovixh & Greenberg, 2000; Volis, et al., 2012), basically the frequency of the intervention. Domintrovixh & Greenberg suggest that either low levels of dosage or fidelity has the potential to reduce intervention impact. If this is true, does that mean that a

programme has to go on for a certain length of time to be effective? Or can brief focused interventions be just as effective? The RAP lasts for 11 sessions, similarly the GOAL programme lasts for 13 weeks which would fit well within a school term, and both are shown to be effective (Danish, 2002; Forneris et al., 2007; Harnett & Dadds, 2004; Shochet et al., 2001;). The RAP can last up to 240 hours, and therefore will be part of the pupils' curriculum for a number of years. The authors state that the parts of the programme can be used in isolation. The effectiveness of this timeframe and the retention of validity if sections are removed have not been measured.

3.5.3 Methodological issues

Evaluating intervention research is often fraught with difficulty. Some of the key methodological issues observed from research on the selected intervention programmes will be discussed.

3.5.4 Attrition and missing data

It is common-place that school based intervention programmes have issues with attrition and missing data which impact on the validity of the research making it problematic to generalise and indeed interpret research results. None of the studies reported here had data missing from their research. Nevertheless it should be noted that school based interventions are considered real world research which includes unforeseen issues hence difficulties with attrition. The real issue therefore should be how this is reported rather than the drop-out rate and missing data itself. A consort flow diagram would be a helpful framework in this instance as it would pinpoint the flow of participants throughout the research (Schulz, Altman, Moher, 2010).

3.5.5 Evaluations

Due to the nonexistence of standardisation in evaluating intervention programmes, each programme conducted very different types of evaluations. Therefore what is actually considered as an effective evaluation? Further, the lack of comparators or control conditions makes it difficult to check programme reliability, and the effectiveness due to conditions between groups. Additionally even when comparators are used, they are not defined in the reports.

Randomised control trials are considered the gold standard in social research as they reduce the level of bias of differential effects of the intervention they can often be difficult to facilitate particularly in school based research and are considered unfeasible (Robson, 2011). Therefore other types of research designs e.g. involving triangulation of evidence, basically employing more than one perspective (i.e. qualitative and quantitative data gathering) should also be considered (Reeves, Deeks, Higgins, & Wells, 2008). Compromised evaluations should be interpreted with caution however may be more realistically reflect real world conditions and complexities including ethics. Peterson, Mann, Kealey & Maraek (2000) suggests that "*rigor in school-based trials can be achieved through a combination of:*

(1) commitment to the principles of randomized trials,
(2) attention to the special challenges of trials specific to the school setting,
(3) adoption and meticulous execution of proven methods for trial conduct, and
(4)establishment at the outset of principles for maintaining positive collaborative relationships with participating school districts for the duration of the trial" (p. 144).

3.5.6 Reported outcomes and data analysis

Clear reported outcomes are vital in defining the evidence-base of the programme. The outcome variables should reflect the aims of the programme. Outcomes could be categorised into four groups: knowledge, attitudes, behaviour and health measures (National

Institute for Health & Clinical Excellence (NICE), 2009). Life skills education programmes may achieve outcomes from all four categories, however more commonly the focus will be on the acquisition of knowledge (Danish, 2002) known as the distal effect (Seijts & Latham, 2001) as to whether the participants have acquired and retained knowledge on completion of the programme. The type of outcome required will then have an impact on the data analysis (Robson, 2011). What should also be considered is what is *not* reported. Studies will highlight significant results but will neglect to note other findings. Then how do we really know how effective a programme is? To show effectiveness (NICE, 2009) states that the research has to demonstrate through outcome measures that the effects are attributable to the programme administered. Moreover some programmes do not always have the effect intended.

There is a distinct lack of UK studies for both the RAP (The PROMICE Project, 2014) and GFTG (Forernis et al., 2007). Coleman (2009) states that 'softer' process evaluations are more likely to be used in the UK, implying that programme assessment is utilised more here. This is certainly true of the TIA programme where the research is a significantly 'softer'.

3.5.7 Limitations of life skill programmes

The evidence for social skills programmes is mixed. Weare and Gray (2003) reviewed a selection of US designed skills based programmes from a UK perspective. They recommend that these types of programmes must be adapted if they are to be used in the UK and that there are key principles that should be kept in mind to achieve success, i.e. teaching behaviour and skills explicitly, and using participative and empowering methods, using a step by step approach, transferring skills to real life contexts, making use of group work and peer education as well as whole class approaches. Fixen et al., (2009) state that *"in human*

services, the practitioner is the intervention" (p532). In essence, Fixen et al., (2009) propose that the facilitator of the programme is key to its success.

When considering different student focused interventions from the UK and nationally, it was found that many of the interventions only addressed one or two of the key elements (WHO, 1997) required to assist young people through their transition to post-school. One intervention, however, did stand out as one that adhered to most, if not all, key elements. This programme was the *Going for the Goal Programme* (GFTG) (Danish, 1998, 2002). Allowing young people to self-reflect is also considered a helpful tool in helping young people's development and self-improvement. Pajares (2006) suggests that young people need support to help them become aware of what it is they need to reflect on. To support pupils in becoming more autonomous in their learning, it may be helpful for teachers to adopt a more "student centred" approach rather than a more traditional "teacher centred" approach to learning. The underpinnings of a student centred approach (according to Biggs, 1999) are:

- Reliance upon activity rather than passive learning
- Increased responsibility, accountability and autonomy of the learner
- Interdependence between teacher and learner (as opposed to complete dependence or independence)
- Mutual respect and a reflexive approach to teaching and learning
- A commitment by both parties to consult about all aspects of the teaching learning process.

Student lead approaches which focus on developing pupil's locus of control have been shown to increase engagement and intrinsic motivation of the participants (Filak and Sheldon, 2003; Reeve, Jang, Carrell, Jeon & Barch, 2004).

3.6 Summary of universal intervention programmes

There are many school based universal intervention programmes across the country aimed at supporting the social and life skill development of adolescents. Three universal

programmes designed specifically for adolescents to promote social or life skills were reviewed. Only universal programmes were selected as they are considered to be the best method of delivery as they reduce stigma and are most cost-effective for schools. However, only one of the three programmes specifically focused on pupil engagement in (Going for the goal, Danish (2002)) transition from school to post-school. Huppert (2004) correctly suggests that "the content of an effective population intervention programme needs to be based on epidemiological evidence concerning the demographic, social and environmental factors that confer risk or protection (p. 701)." It was felt that the GFTG although valuable, was not necessarily appropriate for the demographic intended (post-school transition).

The other programmes considered contained an element of goal-setting (a key aspect of motivation, as argued in the previous chapter), nevertheless they do not specifically teach goal-setting and presume participants can already set appropriate goals. Goal-setting as previously discussed is more than merely setting a target in a life skills programme. Goals are meaningless unless they are well thought out (see Chapter 3). Development programmes should explicitly teach goal-setting prior to implementing life skills programmes to provide pupils with the tools required to participate fully in the programme. The teaching of goal-setting should be based on goal-setting theory and contextualised for adolescents. In addition, the universal programmes noted in this section contain very little literature examining the implementation processes involved when administering the programmes. School-based interventions can also pose some challenges for evaluation such as missing data and attrition, which have an impact on internal and external validity. Another limitation of the programmes discussed, is the length of time the programmes require to run. This can be an issue for schools, secondary schools in particular where sessions have to fit into approximately 50 minute periods, and teachers may have other social skill programmes to deliver within that allocated time. Considering the pressure of time, there has been a rise in the popularity of

brief interventions in schools which are considered effective. With regard to evidence of effectiveness, effect sizes are rarely reported in individual research studies, and their use has generally been limited to meta-analysis.

3.7 Brief interventions

The popularity of brief interventions has grown over the past decade, possibly due to their results orientation and time-efficiency (Bowen, Woolley, Richman & Bowen, 2001), given limited staff and resources in schools at present. Two brief approaches used in psychology are Solution Focused Brief Therapy (SFBT) and Cognitive Behavioural Approaches (CBA) are considered helpful frameworks that encourage self-refection. They also develop one's life skills and have goal-setting at their core. Both frameworks will be discussed in turn.

3.7.1 Cognitive behavioural approaches

It is not within the remit of this study to discuss psychodynamics, which are considered the foundations of Cognitive Behavioural Therapy (CBT). The most central difference between psychodynamic therapy and CBT is that psychodynamic theory tries to understand why a person may act or feel a certain way, possibly uncovering unconscious motivation for feeling or behaviour, conversely CBT does not need to know 'why' people act or feel a certain way it simply focuses on training or directing the person to reduce personal stress (Leichsenring, 2001). Additionally, it is not the remit of this study to discuss the empirical status of CBT. However, CBT is widely used (Butler, Chapman, Forman and Beck (2006) within the field of mental health, and is beginning to be recognised as an effective tool within schools (see Butler et al., (2006) for a comprehensive review). The effectiveness of CBT based approaches in education has been the subject of much discussion within the profession of Educational Psychology (Allison, 2009). CBT is traditionally associated with

highly specialist professionals working with limited numbers of patients within clinical settings. However with the emergence of cognitive behavioural approaches, this type of intervention can be used more generally across the population of young people in schools. CBT has gained popularity over the years due to the focus and interaction between a person's thoughts, feelings and behaviours, and a strong evidence-base for its efficacy. It can help change or modify the way a person thinks and ultimately what they do. It focuses on the present and gives direction (Crawford, Cross and Smiley, 2009).

Boyle, Lynch, Lyon & Williams (2011) reviewed the use and feasibility of Living Life To The Full (LLTTF), also known as 'the little books' in secondary schools. In their study approximately 280 second year school pupils (12-14 years) received two lessons on a single life skill area (7 distinct topics). Attitudes towards each booklet and class were evaluated by questionnaires and focus groups. Although the majority of participants (64.5%) agreed they had developed life skills through the programme, these were not specific to the topic covered within the class. Less than half stated that they would recommend it to a friend (48.4%). The study did not report on how the intervention was implemented, it also alludes to the fact that teachers delivering the programme may feel that it lacked structure. Boyle et al. concluded that the booklets used were well received by both pupils and teachers (i.e. design and language used). The design of the intervention proved feasible and accessible to the adolescent cohort, therefore easily affordable for schools to use across year groups.

From the research literature it is assumed that EPs undertaking or promoting CBA (Cognitive Behavioural Approaches) with young people in schools adhere to the following criteria: that it is based upon positive psychology and on well researched methods that are effective with individuals; that self-help is considered of key importance; that it seeks to build confidence/resilience through better self-understanding; that it promotes personal insight and problem solving; that it allows specific issues to be worked through; and that it is flexible,

suitable for individual or group delivery. The RAP is considered a CBA. The National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence (NICE) has accredited evidence concerning the use of cognitive behaviour therapy (CBT) self-help (NICE, 2011). It states that CBT self-help is effective and that there is no difference between written and standardised CBT. The report highlights that support from a practitioner, support worker, or therapist significantly increases effectiveness. Support does not have to be delivered over extended periods of time: it can be short, and can focus on supportive monitoring/encouragement. Another brief intervention approach is solution focused brief therapy (SFBT) (Berg, 1994; Berg and de Shazer, 1993; and de Shazer, 1988).

3.7.2 SFBT

SFBT has been described as an amalgamation of a number of influences and counselling approaches to produce 'a way of thinking which can be applied in many everyday situations from casework to consultation with organisations'. In basic terms SFBT is a practical problem solving framework (Rhodes, 1993). Although SFBT has its origins in clinical settings it has been used in educational settings since 1995 (Rhodes & Ajmal, 1995) and has continued to gain popularity in this context (Boyle, Stobie, & Woolfson, 2005).

As with CBA, it is not within the remit of this thesis to explore SFBT theory in depth, however the thesis will postulate that SFBT could provide a helpful framework to deliver universal class based programmes. As the name suggests SFBT is by design brief, yet effective in forming some form of goals or objectives towards a given task (Talmon, 1990., Newsome, 2003). SFBT offers various techniques and tools that can be used by the participant to work though concerns or issues. SFBT techniques have become increasingly used within both psychology and education in the past decade, and although research has shown mixed results it is clear that it is a good way of specifically helping pupils manage

their issues and externalise their behaviours (Kim & Franklin, 2009). SFBT gives a clear structure to set, breakdown and obtain goals that are meaningful to the participant, and gives a framework for evaluation. SFBT emphasises people's strengths and due to its briefness it is a helpful tool for school staff, as they can feasibly fit it into the curriculum (Furman, 1999; O'Connell, 1999; Stringer & Mall, 1999). One major criticism of the SFBT approach however, is the lack of diagnostic structure, as this creates problems in measuring its efficacy (Iveson, 2002). Most studies rely on client or referrer report and have little objective validity. Nevertheless the popularity of the intervention has grown, regardless of the tenuous nature of self-report evidence.

3.7.3 Summary of brief approaches

Although the evidence for the efficacy of CBA and SFBT approaches is mixed, what is clear is that both approaches are regarded as helpful (similar) frameworks in which to deliver self-help life-skill interventions. They have economic benefits, as they require little facilitator time and can be delivered within a brief time period (i.e. during a high school period). They have the ability to be very specific focusing on the desired context. Although the approaches could perhaps be considered as a short term fix, this type of brief 'one-off' support can help to gauge the person's needs and provide a starting point in signposting needs for further long-term support. Most individuals would not require additional intensive support yet it may identify those who do. In essence, a universal approach delivered to a whole class or group, avoids stigma whilst highlighting pupils who may require additional support in this area. School staff are currently faced with the daunting task of uncovering brief, yet effective interventions that not only meet the educational issues presented by adolescents at risk of missing out in opportunities for the future, but also to justify their worth in the school system. It is vital that interventions are efficient, productive and cost-efficient. A vital aspect of any programme is how it is implemented. Over the past few years there has been increasing

research on what is considered best practice when implementing intervention programmes in schools to which we should now turn.

3.8 Summary

The previous chapter highlighted that there is a need for a comprehensive intervention to support adolescents during their post-school transition. This chapter has critically reviewed universal programmes with a goal-setting component currently available in Scottish schools. It has shown that none of the reviewed programmes specifically meet the requirements of this study, that is of helping adolescents set and achieve goals during their transition. It is clear that a new programme focused on teaching goal-setting within the context of post-school is required. Merely adapting aspects from existing programmes to include more goal-setting content would detract from the effectiveness of the original programmes. In addition the programmes reviewed did not appropriately fit within the required time frames, or have a specific focus on post-school engagement. Therefore there is a need for a sustainable universal intervention programme to be developed, piloted and evaluated within Scotland, taking into account theory from the post-school context, goal-setting and implementation science. This chapter has also outlined what is considered as best practice in school based life skill programmes, and has discussed possible frameworks that may be advantageous i.e. CBA and SFBT (both of which have an emphasis on goal-setting) and should be kept in mind when developing a brief universal intervention. The following chapter will discuss the theory of goal-setting and how goal-setting can increase pupil engagement in successful post-school transition. It will propose that goal-setting can be successfully taught in a school setting.

CHAPTER 4. GOALS – *DREAMS WITH DEADLINES*

The previous chapter discussed the benefits of life skill education for adolescents during transition. The chapter also identifies goal-setting as a key component of life skill education and that goal-setting should also be explicitly taught. This chapter will highlight the value of goal-setting as an integral component in increasing engagement in post-school activities. The chapter will then examine what is meant by 'goals' and 'goal-setting' by reviewing literature on goal-setting theory. A discussion of the relationship between goal-setting and engagement will follow. The chapter will conclude by proposing that the best way to increase pupil motivation for successful engagement in post-school transition is through the teaching of goal-setting skills.

4.1 What are goals?

The study of personal goals and how such goals impact upon one's life is regarded as a cornerstone of positive psychology (Locke, 2005; Nurmi & Salmela-Aro, 2006). There is also an abundance of information surrounding goal theory and goal constructs (Austin & Vancouver, 1996; Locke, 1996; Senco & Harackiewicz, 2005). A consistent finding in the literature is the belief that personal goals are important (particularly at school) as they set out targets to aim for and provide standards for evaluating performance (Beale & Crocket, 2013; Green et al., 2012; Litailen et al., 2013; Locke and Latham, 2002; Messersmith & Schulenberg, 2010; Vasalampi et al., 2010; Yeager et al., 2012; It is agreed that when pupils set goals for themselves they act as representations of their future and if they matter to them and are viewed as realistic and attainable they will be strong motivators (Beale & Crocket, 2013; Hofer & Chasiotis, 2003; Klein et al., 1999; Vasalampi et al., 2010). Goals for the future help to both structure and energise pupil behaviour (Danish 2002; Vasalampi et al., 2010). Maehr (1984), states that goals refer to how a person defines situational success and failure. The very purpose of working towards goals enhances student wellbeing (McLean,

2003; Messersmith & Schulenberg, 2010). There are certain factors that should be taken into account when setting goals which will be discussed in this chapter. However, it is important to differentiate between goal content and goal process. Goal content is defined as the content of a desired state e.g. to complete high school or to go to university or the state which to be avoided e.g. to get divorced (Chan, Chen & Greenberger, Dooley, & Heckhausen, 2006). Goal processes include *"behaviours and cognitions associated with these goals such as goal commitment, expected age for goal attainment (temporal extension) and attributions for goal success*" (Massey et al., 2008, p. 423).

4.2 Reviews

The development of adolescent future planning was reviewed by Numri (1991, 1993, 2001). His work demonstrates that goal pursuit is a self-defining and self-directing process. From his research on the development of adolescent future orientations and future planning, this developing of self-identity or what may be considered self-concept has a direct influence on adolescent outcome expectations, choice of goals and means of goal pursuit in a continuous interactive process (Massey et al., 2008; Numri, 2001; Stein, Roeser & Markus, 1998).

Massey, Gebhardt & Garnefski (2008), replicated Numri's review analysing psychology based literature with a focus on adolescent goal content/processes. 94 studies were included in their meta-analysis. The theories, methods of goal measurement and findings were discussed. The inclusion criteria for their literature search included articles written in English from 1997 to 2007 within adolescent age-group, from age 10 (as this is commonly used as the beginning of early adolescence (Petersen, 1988) up to completion of high school and the start of further or higher education. Their main findings were that adolescent goal content and pursuit appears to be influenced by various socio-demographic and physiological factors; and goal pursuit and (un)successful goal attainment are related to

adolescent behaviour, health and wellbeing. This meta-analysis suggests that setting and successfully pursuing goals is important at any stage of one's life but is particularly vital during adolescence. This is a time when one has to establish one's own identity (Erikson, 1963).

The current study is focused on adolescent motivation for the future, engagement and goal setting, thus the literature search was limited to these related findings. There is a wealth of literature on achievement motivation (see Covington, 2000 or Eccles, 2007 for a more comprehensive review) and Massey et al. provide a comprehensive account of adolescent goal constructs (including socioeconomic differences, health and wellbeing). It is not within the scope of the current study to review the literature on general goal concept but merely to focus on adolescent goal setting for post-school achievement (the future). The process for selecting studies included searches of electronic data bases: APA PsychNet, IngentaConnect from 1990 onwards, and Google Scholar. The terms used were; "adolescent motivation", "motivation for post-school", "adolescent goal-setting", "teenage goal-setting", "adolescent self-theories", "adolescent self-concept" and "life-skills". Studies were excluded where information on method, participants and dropout rates were incomplete. Also studies had to be set in school during transition to post-school. Ten additional key studies (outlined below) were selected on the basis that they propose new empirical evidence for debate.

There appeared to be very little new empirical research specifically on adolescent goal setting since Massey et al.'s (2008) meta-analysis. However there have been new developments in the relationship between goals and other variables, which will be discussed.

Recent key studies: adolescent goals and goal related theories

Study	**Sample**	**Research questions/purpose**	**Method**	**Summary of results**
Beale & Crockett (2013)	636 US Junior high students (Grades 7-9) then surveyed annually through Grades 9-12	Are there reciprocal relations between occupational and educational goals? How do aspirations and expectations influence each other within and across domains? Do these vary by gender and parent education?	Questionnaire survey (Data collected between 1990 and 1995 Measures for: occupational goals, educational goals and socio-demographic variables 90% participation	Correlations between aspirations and expectations were significant at each time-point (r-values ranged from .31 - .66, all p-values $\leq$.05) Only one significant gender difference was in educational experiences, where girls felt that they were expected to achieve more Limited sample group and data now twenty years old. No qualitative data gathered to check participant understanding of questions
Fan & Williams (2010)	15,325 American sophomore high school students (10th Grade) & parents (50.2% female)	To examine the effects of eight aspects of parental involvement on adolescent self-efficacy and engagement in maths and English To explore the this relationship within motivational outcomes	Sample taken from Educational Longitudinal Study (ELS: 2002) by National Centre for Education Statistics (NCES) Measures for: academic self-efficacy, motivated strategies, intrinsic motivation and engagement	Parents aspirations for their children and school initiated contact with parents on benign issues had strong positive effects on all motivational outcomes Conversely, parent-school contact concerning school problems was negatively related to all motivational outcomes
Green, Liem, Martin, Colmar, Marsh & McInerney (2012)	1866 Australian high school students form 6high schools at the end of the school year (Grades 7-9) then agin the following year (Grades 8-12)	To test models of academic processes leading to academic performance	Questionnaires Measures for academic motivation, academic self-concept and engagement	Academic motivation and self-concept positively predicted attitudes toward school Attitudes toward school positively predicted class participation and negatively predicted absenteeism Propose a 'self-system model' and the importance of dynamic relationships amongst engagement factors No qualitative data reported
Guay, Ratell, Roy & Litalien (2010)	925 Canadian high school students	To explore autonomous academic motivation and academic self-concept Contrasting three related conceptual models	Web questionnaire sent to participants Measures for: academic self-concept, autonomous academic motivation and academic achievement	Analysis (goodness of fit and correlated uniqueness) provided stronger support for model that proposes that autonomous academic motivation mediates the relation between academic self-concept and achievement. longitudinal analysis No qualitative data reported

			90% response rate	
Litalien, Ludtke, Parker & Trautwein (2013)	149 upper secondary schools in Germany. 2284 final year school students	To extend and replicate previous research on the association between autonomous goal regulation and subjective wellbeing	Questionnaires administered across 2 time-points (2 years apart) Measured for: personal goal regulation, satisfaction with life, positive and negative affect and self-esteem	Reciprocal effects of autonomous goal regulation and subjective wellbeing Autonomous goal regulation assessed before school graduation positively predicts life satisfaction, positive affect and self-esteem, and negatively predict negative affect 2 years later. No significant empirical support that this would e predicted by wellbeing indicators No qualitative data gathered
McInerney, Dowson & Yeung (2005)	277 US children from (Grades 5-6) and 615 (Grades 7-12)	To evaluate the psychometric properties of a purpose designed instrument that measures student's facilitating conditions	FCQ (facilitating conditions questionnaire, McInerney et al.) Measures for: value, affect, peer positive, peer negative, parent positive, parent negative, teacher	Cronbach's Alpha reliability values ranging from .68 - .82 for the FCQ therefore measure seems to fit for purpose Significant others have a views impact adolescent motivation High school students highlighted more negative responses than elementary students in facilitating conditions No qualitative data reported to triangulate the results and check understanding
Messersmith & Schulenberg (2010)	5,693 US adolescents (mean age 18 at first time-point)	Examines the relationship between adolescent goal achievement, continued goal striving and subsequent wellbeing	10 year longitudinal study-participants surveyed every two years Measures for: life goals, completion of life goals and continued goal striving	Those who met their transition goals reported higher levels of wellbeing Relationship between goal completion and wellbeing varied by content Goal striving has a positive effect on wellbeing and self-efficacy Long-term goal striving is beneficial for wellbeing during the transition to adulthood No qualitative measures
Skinner, Furrer, Marchand & Kindermann (2008)	805US children (Grades 4-6) Two time-points	To explore the internal dynamics of engagement To explore motivational dynamics of engagement	Self-report questionnaires Measures for : behavioural and emotional engagement and disaffection, perceived competence and control, autonomy orientation, sense of relatedness and teacher support: student support	Children in fourth and fifth grades showed a profile of high engagement and low disaffection The higher the grades the more levels of disaffection and drop in engagement (most evident in middle school) Older children showed lower levels of self-systems and teacher support declined Time-points also showed decrease in engagement and increase in disaffection from autumn to spring term Limited sample group (mainly middle-working class sample) Reliance on self-reports without qualitative data to check understanding

Vasalampi, Salmera-Aro & Nurmi (2010)	607 high school students in Finland (M 16 years; SD=0.34)	To investigate whether adolescents appraisals of their education-related goals change during transition To identify how much appraisals contribute to their self-esteem	Self-report questionnaires at three time-points Measures for: education-related goal appraisal, self-esteem, academic achievement, and educational track	Increase in the young people's intrinsic reasons for goal-striving and the progress towards this goal increased Increase in intrinsic reasons for goal striving during transition and decrease in extrinsic reasons Goal attainment raises self-esteem and this also predicted goal success No qualitative data reported
Yeager, Bundick & Johnstone (2012)	99 US students (Grades 8-12) culturally diverse sample	To extend previous work on the relationship between intrinsic motives for work goals and wellbeing To understand how schools can promote motives for work (through peer support and classwork)	Surveys and semi-structured interviews at two time-points (18-24 months after) Questionnaire measures include: wellbeing, meaning of life, sense of purpose, meaningfulness of school work, work goals, support form peers and school support Cash incentives were used to entice participants to follow-up surveys	Occupational aspirations predicted change in occupational and educational goals across high school Educational expectations predicted change in occupational aspirations – interesting however not in low parent education groups Occupational expectations predicated change for girls but not for boys Qualitative analysis supports qualitative data

4.3 Goals & Motivation

It is clear from the research that adolescent motivation at the time of transition is multi-faceted. Recent studies have tried to unpick the relationship between adolescent motivation and variables such as: self-concept (Beale & Crocket, 2013, Green et al., 2012; Guay et al., 2010 and Skinner et al., 2008), self-esteem (Vasalampi et al., 2010), identity (Yeager et al., 2012), aspirations (Beale & Crocket, 2013, Fan & Williams, 2010, Messersmith & Schulenberg, 2010, Yeager et al., 2012), attitudes (Green et al., 2012), achievement (Guay et al., 2010, Vasalampi et a.l, 2010), engagement (Green et al., 2010, McInerney et al., 2005 & Skinner et al., 2008) and goal striving (Messersmith & Schulenberg, 2010, Vasalampi et al., 2010).

Motivation is a term which is underpinned by many psychological concepts and theories (Ali et al., 2005; Lock and Latham, 2002; Mattern, 2005; McInerney et al., 2003). In the field of education these centre mainly on self-concept, self-efficacy, attribution and goal theory (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003; Schunk, 1990; Seifert, 2004). Due to the absence of a specific universally applied definition of motivation, theoretical definitions may be a reflection of the complex interrelated theories and the broad range of applications of the term (Dweck, 2008; Harlen & Deakin Crick, 2002; SEED, 2007; Smith, et al., 2005). However there is a common thread that binds most of the definitions, that motivation is an umbrella term used to explain why we do what we do in our lives. It is also agreed that motivation is the fundamental aspect influencing human behaviour and that the concept of goals is a key feature of motivation (Danish, 2002; Dowson and McInerney, 2001, 2003; Dweck, 2008; Green et al., 2012; Pintrich and Schunk, 1996; Lock and Latham, 2002; Vasalampi, et al., 2010). Pintrich and Schunk (1996) state that "*motivation is the process whereby goal-directed activity is investigated and sustained*" (p. 4).

4.3.1 Measuring motivation

To clarify young people's current motivational states and gauge any changes, there needs to be a method of reliably measuring motivation. Matten (2005) states that "*to know what motivates students to learn, researchers must observe their behaviour and make inferences about their motivation*" (p. 27). However, this is a notoriously difficult process to measure and in turn can impose limitations on motivation research. Nevertheless, while some measures have been developed, there is a need for more sensitive measures of motivation to develop theoretical models offering logical and practical measures for assessing young peoples' motivation. Goals however, can be measured successfully and could be considered a good starting point in which to measure one's motivation (Danish, 2002, MInerney et al., 2005, Vasalampi et al., 2010).

At present, there are a number of tools to measure aspects of motivation which include questionnaires, inventories and observation schedules. For example the Inventory of School Motivation (ISM) (McInerney, 2001 revised 2004) was first designed to measure specific components of pupils' motivational goals, and has since been further developed to include goal orientation. A motivation questionnaire (validated by the authors) is the Athlete Engagement Questionnaire (AEQ) (Lonsdale, Hodge & Jackson, 2007), a previous version of which has been adapted and standardised by Danish, Forneris & Wallace, (2005) to focus on school engagement. The questions in this questionnaire assess individual pupil goals and pupil involvement. The OECD (2013) guidelines on measuring subjective wellbeing note that a limitation of such tools is the reliance on subjective perceptions and self-measure inconsistency. The aforementioned tools will be discussed in more depth later in this review (chapter 5, p. 88 and chapter 6, p. 81).

4.3.2 Intrinsic Motivation

Research indicates that sustainable change in one's self must include some element of intrinsic motivation (Gagne & Deci, 2005, Guay et al., 2010; Litalien et al., 2013, Vasalampi et al., 2010). Behaviours associated with intrinsic motivation are more likely to occur and intrinsically motivated individuals demonstrate better performance than those with external motivation, which is at the opposite end of the spectrum (Deci & Ryan, 2000). This intrinsic motivation, which exists within drives and the spontaneous behaviours of individuals, has been argued to be extremely important for adolescents' cognitive development (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Fan & Williams, 2010). Studies have shown that intrinsic motivation has positive associations with children and young people's achievement (Renninger, Ewan, & Lasher, 2002), effort and persistence (Renninger et al., 2002), self-efficacy (Hanover, 1998) and achievement motivation (Deci, 1992; Vasalampi et al., 2010).

Wright (1991), in summarising the research on motivation, describes the ideal conditions for promoting intrinsic motivation in schools. These include; giving choices, allowing pupils to set their own personal goals, giving positive, qualitative feedback, and providing optimal challenge. Reversely, intrinsic motivation will be reduced by goal imposition, competition, evaluation of outcomes, deadlines, rewards and surveillance. In terms of post-school motivation, the stages of motivation might be conceptualised as follows:

External: *I will get a job because my mum will nag me if I don't*
Introjected: *I will get a job because that's what I'm supposed to do*
Identified: *It is really important that I work to get things in life*
Intrinsic: *I will find work really interesting and I will enjoy it.*

Therefore, the optimum situation would be that the young person is looking forward to finding a job/starting a course after school. This however, is not always likely to be the case, with the anxiety of trying something new; this may be more likely to put more of a negative slant on the situation (Liem, Lau & Nie, 2008; Skinner et al., 2008). Young people

are less likely to be intrinsically motivated and may require support or at least guidance to develop their intrinsic motivation.

In the past, extrinsic rewards have been put in place to try and motivate young people at school, however does this go against the research that 'extrinsic' rewards do not lead to 'intrinsic' motivation (Deci, Koestner & Ryan, 1999, Vasalampi et al., 2010). Deci et al. (1999) conducted a meta-analysis of 128 studies examining the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation. The authors propose that increasing intrinsic motivation in the classroom could address alienation, detachment and disengagement in schools. If correct, a range of educational problems from truancy to underachievement could be addressed through work on young pupils' intrinsic motivation.

4.5 Goal setting theory

Goal setting has been used for many years in various disciplines from sport (Burton, 1992; Kyllo & Landers, 1995; Lock and Latham, 1985; Weinberg, 2002) to business (Mento, Steel, Karran, 1987; Shalley, 1995; Thomson & McEwen, 1958) yet it is difficult to pin the term down to an original source. The process involves setting specific, measureable and time-targeted objectives (Danish, 2002). Goals provide a sense of direction and purpose (McInerney, Marsh and Yeung, 2003). Successful self-determination could be viewed as a circular process of identifying goals, pursuing and attaining them, then seeking other goals. Setting a goal demonstrates an intention to achieve and provides focus directing pupils' activities towards the goal and offers opportunities to experience success (Oetttingen, Honig & Gollwitzer, 2000). Kreiman, Koch and Fried (2000) (from their work on imagery and the human brain, using brain scans to record from single neurons in the medial frontal lobe) suggest that imagery, for example, carrying an image in one's brain of where we are and where we want to go; can activate the brain in the same way as the real activity would. Mangles, Butterfield & Dweck (2006) postulate a neuro-scientific model for goals and

learning success. When the person perceives that goal success is achieved the persons self-efficacy and in turn self-esteem is increased which will then encourage the person to engage in similar activities, "*the greater the feeling of progress, the greater the sense of control and confidence*" (McLean, 2003, p8). Litalien et al. (2012) had similar findings.

Much of the early work on goal setting originated from business and sport. Locke's theory on goal setting was initially intended for a business audience to increase employee motivation (Locke & Latham, 2002). Locke's theory however has many practical applications outside of the business arena and has taken a strategic place within mainstream psychology. Locke's work has attracted interest from various psychology subsections such as health, sport and education. Locke's theory was created on the premise that "*conscious goals affect action*". This idea was originally proposed by Ryan (1970) who argued that human behaviour is affected by conscious purpose, plans and intentions.

Locke's theory is based on the belief that individuals create goals by making the decision to do so and in turn are compelled towards those goals by virtue of the goal having been set. Locke proposes that several elements must exist in order for the goal setting effect to take place. Goals must be clear, challenging and attainable, and there must be some method of receiving feedback on the goals planned. Locke suggests that the goal itself is not the motivator, but rather the perceived difference between what has actually been attained and what was planned for.

In his early work with Motowidlo & Bobko (1986) Locke et al. found that higher expectations lead to higher performance which is in accordance with Vroom's (1964) valence-instrumentality-expectancy theory which was developed to account for business motivation. The theory states that employee motivation is the product of three factors; Valence (employee's desire to achieve the goal), expectancy (employee's confidence in task completion), and instrumentality (employee's belief that there will be a reward upon

completion). The theory suggests that a lack of confidence, desire or reward could lead to a decrease in productivity. This theory however lacks evidence and contradictorily, Locke, Motowidlo & Bobko also observed that when expectations are low but the goal setting level is high, performance would be high also.

4.6 Why set goals?

Locke and Latham (2002) maintain that goals serve four primary functions, or mechanisms;

- by specifying a goal, one must direct focus toward that goal and away from activities unrelated to that goal.
- the setting of a goal is a behaviour stimulating act. According to Locke, high goals lead to greater effort than low goals.
- goals have a positive effect on persistence. However, there is an inverse relationship between time and intensity.
- goals subconsciously direct the person toward discovering better ways or physical acts.

(p. 706)

Locke and Latham indicate that moderators are essential for goal setting. For example, in order for the goal to be successful, the person must be committed to it wholly and possess self-efficacy. This self-efficacy must be boosted initially by the fact that the person was assigned the task and thus believed to be capable of its completion. Other moderators noted were; goal commitment, perceived importance of the goal and feedback, and task complexity. The authors stress the importance of such moderators; however fail to suggest how these moderators are measured. Additionally the aforementioned moderators could also act as mediators along with variables such as self-efficacy. Locke and Latham's work highlight that for goal-setting to be effective many variables have to be considered.

4.7 Goal orientation

Goal orientation describes the factors that will be used to define competence in a particular task. Dweck (2006) explains that task-orientated individuals perceive competence in terms of their ability to master the task. Ego-oriented individuals perceive competence in terms of

their ability to outperform others the former relies on personal success whereas the latter focuses on the judgment of others. These are also referred to as mastery and performance (or learning) goals (Dweck, 2006). These goals are sometimes referred to as a person's motivational style (Rogers & Freiberg, 1994).

Goal orientation could be compared with the terms *autonomous motivation* and *intrinsic motivation* (Dweck 2006). Autonomous motivation can be defined by extent to which a goal is based in intrinsic motivation and meaningful identifications (Vasalampi et al., 2010). , and these forms of self-regulation are thought to be reflective of an individual's sense of self or what is regarded as one's self-concept (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Fan & Williams, 2010; Koestner et al., 2008; Sheldon, 2002). Koestner et al.'s research postulates that motivation behind a particular goal may combine with *implementation intentions* to influence goal success (p423). In essence, that one's goals can be influenced by successfully implemented interventions that can effectively teach goal-setting as discussed in chapter three.

Research indicates that for the change in one's self to be sustainable, the motivation must include some element of intrinsic motivation (Dowson and McInerney, 2001; Dweck, 2006; Lock and Latham, 2002; Vasalampi et al., 2010). As behaviour moves towards the intrinsic end of the continuum behaviour becomes more self-regulated or autonomous (Guay et al., 2010; Litalien et al., 2013; Vancouver Weinhardt & Schmidt 2010). Behaviours associated with intrinsic motivation are more likely to occur and intrinsically motivated individuals demonstrate better performance than those with external motivation, which is at the opposite end of the spectrum (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Dweck (2006) considers mastery-orientations to be adaptive motivational patterns, which lead to better achievement. In contrast performance-orientations are held to be maladaptive, associated with challenge avoidance and low persistence. Dweck suggests that ability is a fixed trait appears to lead to performance goals, where an individual seeks to

prove one's ability, whereas conceptualising intelligence as something flexible leads to mastery goals, developing one's ability. Stipek & Gralinski (1996) demonstrate that one's belief in one's own intelligence as a fixed trait is negatively correlated with achievement (see Dweck for a comprehensive discussion on fixed traits). This suggests that whole class goal-orientation interventions to support adaptive goals and successful goal setting would be of great benefit to pupils particularly on the path to post-school as this would allow them to be open to more opportunities available to them.

People hold different goals for different reasons, and dependent on the type of goal used will create different behaviours and motivators. Vancouver et al., (2010) remind us that at any one time, most people have many related and unrelated goals they could be pursuing and may require support in prioritising their goals. This should be a consideration in teaching goal-setting. Both mastery and performance goals are equally valid and not considered better than the other and both types of goals are normal and that are universal in 'fuelling' achievement (Dweck, 2006). Nevertheless, an overemphasis on performance goals may overshadow learning goals leading pupils to pass up valuable learning opportunities if they involve any risk of error. The previous educational system, 5-14 (SEED, 2004), tended to create a performance goal orientation with a focus on rewards or results, rather than learning skills. However, with the launch of the new Curriculum for Excellence (Scottish Government, 2010) there should be a shift in focus to one which skills learned are valued more than results. Nevertheless performance comparisons are still encouraged by means of government targets and national tests. This emphasises the outcome of learning rather than the process. Nonetheless it is important to note that the CfE is still at the implementation stage and it will remain to be seen whether or not CfE will result in significant changes to the education system. (see Chapter 2, page 14 for more details).

Scottish Enterprise, Careers Scotland, and Local Education Authorities conducted a study gathering views of S3-S6 pupils to demonstrate any links between career goals and educational attainment (Doughty & McPake, 2005). The study found a wide variety of types of post-school goals; some specifically relating to the world of work, some continuing education, some to both, and some to none. Also, the study highlighted that there is a small yet consistent minority of pupils (30%, 9% of girls and 10.9% of boys) who want to leave school before establishing their future goals, this group of young people may be the same group considered at risk of becoming NEET (Scottish Government, 2011, see Chapter Two). Gender differences in goal setting were noted, with females judging themselves as more likely to make an effort, how this was defined was unclear. Those with clear goals similarly judge themselves to be more committed than those without clear goals. On the basis of this study the authors estimate that over 138,000 pupils in S1-S3 in Scotland have clear career goals, but over 55,000 do not. The study concludes that *"regardless of whether pupils were in schools with an above national average performance in terms of Higher attainment, or a below national average performance, the same relationship holds good: those with goals achieved more than those without."* (p. 3).

Despite the emphasis in recent research on performance and mastery goals, young people may hold other goals that could potentially affect their academic performance and post-school decisions. Dowson & McInerney (2001) propose that there are eight distinct motivational goals. Interestingly they suggest that some young people may have avoidance goals. This type of goal orientation is where pupils deliberately avoid engaging in school tasks or attempt to reduce the effort required to complete tasks. This orientation, although quite distinct from both mastery and performance goals may however combine with these orientations to affect young people's engagement and achievement (Ainley, 1993).

4.8 Goal-setting and engagement

Youth engagement, defined by the Centre for Excellence for Youth Engagement Canada (Pancer & Pratt, 1999; Pancer, Rose-Krasnor & Loiselle, 2002) is;

"the meaningful participation and sustained involvement of a young person in an activity, with a focus outside him or herself. The kind of activity in which the youth is engaged can be almost anything – sports, the arts, music, volunteer work, politics, social activism – and it can occur in almost any kind of setting" (p. 2).

School engagement is proposed as a multi-dimensional construct which involves positive pupil behaviours such as attendance, paying attention and participation (Willms, 2000). Although behavioural components of engagement can be more obvious and easily measured (Bakker & Leiter, 2010) they may take place over time appearing at a later stage than immediately after intervention (Skinner et al., 2008). This should be considered when evaluating. Hodge, Lonsdale and Jackson (2009), state that engagement is the conceptual opposite of burnout. Although Hodge et al. (2009) is considered from a sport perspective it can be generalised across contexts (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007), education in particular.

4.9 Self-regulation through goal-setting

Self-regulation generally defined as systematic efforts to direct thoughts, feelings and actions towards one's goals (Zimmerman, 2000; Schunk, 2000) has gained increasing value in the literature within the past decade see Sitzmann and Ely (2011) meta-anaylysis for a review). Theories of self-regulation highlight the link with goals. Zimmerman (1998) states that goals are integral to different phases of self-regulation: forethought (setting the goal and then deciding on strategies to achieve this goal); performance control (employing goal-directed actions and monitoring performance); and lastly, self-reflection (evaluating one's goal progress and amending strategies to ensure success).

4.10 Socio-ecological impact on post-school goals

Adolescent motivation is influenced by many socio-environmental factors (McInerney, Dowson & Yeung, 2005), including parents, community, teachers, and in particular, peers. As this review is focused with the school to post-school period, the impact of peers and teachers will be considered. There appears to be gender differences in career goal planning. Wall, Covell, & MacIntyre (1999) reported that girls felt that they had higher social support and opportunity than boys. Similarly Patton, Bartrum & Creed (2004) found that girls' career goals were predicted by optimism, whereas boys' goals were impacted by self-esteem (Patton et al., 2004). Additionally, Beale & Crocket (2013) found that girls felt expected to achieve more than boys. It should also be noted that while the impact of community and parents are recognised as important at this time it is not within the scope of this review to discuss these in depth (see Antonishak, Sutfin & Reppucci (2005) and Fan & Williams (2010) for comprehensive reviews).

4.10.1 Family influence

Studies have shown that parents play a key role in shaping pupils' aspirations and achievement (Beale & Crocket, 2013, Beyer, 1995; Eccles & Harold, 1993; Hossler, Schmit & Vesper, 1999; Hossler & Stage, 1992; Paulson, 1996). Family factors such as: parents' level of education to (Hossler & Stage 1992), parental expectations motivation (Beale & Crocket, 2013, Beyer, 1995; Paulson, 1996). Furthermore, Campbell and Ungar (2008) found that adolescents who lack emotional support because of the death or emotional withdrawal of their parents report lower self-confidence and a lack of motivation to pursuit post-school education. In the past, parents had the most significant impact on their children's' post-school destinations, now in recent years peers have in some cases overtaken parental influence. While this shift has been demonstrated in research (Danish, 2002; Hartup & Sancilio, 1986, Rubin & Krasnor, 1985; Yeager et al., 2012) it is erroneous to assume that parents have no or

little influence on their adolescent children. Rather, research has shown that both parents and peers have an influence on the developing adolescent (Dowson et al., 2006). We need to begin to understand and clearly articulate the parameters of successful adolescent development so that we can we hope to intervene with those individuals whose lives seem aimed toward unsatisfactory futures. Using knowledge gained about peer influence it is imperative that peers play a role in school based adolescent focused interventions.

4.10.2 Peers

It has long been regarded that as children grow older peers have an increasing influence on how the adolescent feels thinks and acts (Danish, 2002; Hartup & Sancilio, 1986, Rubin & Krasnor, 1985; 2000; Yeager, et al., 2012). In addition, the quality of these peer relationships can have a significant effect on school behaviour and academic performance (Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004; McInerney, Dowson & Yeung 2005; Wentzel, Barry & Caldwell, 2004). In particular, perceived emotional and social support from peers has been shown to be related to the pursuit of academic and pro-social goals, positive values of education and a higher general self-concept (Dowson & Yeung 2005; Eccles & Rodriguez, 1998; Jordan & Nettles 1999; Locke and Latham, 2002; Wigfield, McInerney, McInerney). In addition, McInerney et al., (2005) found that students became more engaged in academic pursuits when working with peers, despite their goal orientations. Schools should then seek to provide opportunities for young people to work with their peers to develop a support network and increase engagement.

4.10.3 Teachers

The relationship between teachers and pupils is recognised as important in supporting young people at school and beyond (Kendall et al., 2001., McLean, 2003., Riley and Rustique-Forrester 2002, Webster et al., 2004). In the school context, teachers may be the most salient source of feedback concerning pupils' academic ability (Skinner et al., 2008;

Stipek, Givven, Salmon & Maccgyvers, 2001). It is therefore apparent that teachers are influential on the formation of academic perceptions, development of academic behaviour and pupil's self-concept at school. Reeve, Deci & Ryan's (2004) research indicates that the use of autonomy-supportive techniques by teachers predicts school achievement through motivational processes. Munn (2003) reports that pupils feel more relaxed and welcomed at school than they were in the past. This view is mirrored by the evidence from the Scottish Executive (2004) report on a sample of 15 year olds across Scotland found that 90% of pupils surveyed believed they had a positive relationship with their teachers and could ask them for help. Schunk (2000) suggests that by understanding the role of goal-setting, teachers (and other practitioners) will be able to work with students and clients to assist them in learning effective ways to manage their lives. However this assumes that teachers know how to use goal-setting effectively; this may or not be true.

4.11 Limitations of the research literature

4.11.1 Relevance to Scottish context

Locke and Latham's (2002) goal-setting theory remains the most comprehensive explanation of goal-setting in context, albeit in the field of business. However this was published over a decade ago and has not been tested to any great extent. Therefore is much of their work (although still valuable) relevant in today's society? And in particular does it fit within the Scottish education context? Despite the wealth of literature around goal-setting theory and discussions around the relationship between goal-setting and life success there is very little empirical evidence from studies that provide insight into why is may be. There are cross cultural studies of adolescent goal setting however only one study was from the UK. Consequently, although the outcomes of this research remains valuable they do not necessarily represent the Scottish context.

4.11.2 Common methodological problems

Many of the studies were longitudinal, questionnaires administered over two or three time-points. This type of research is prone to challenges arising from attrition and missing data. More recent studies are more likely to report and comment on missing data, but researchers use a variety of different methods to deal with this issue. Fan & Williams (2010) note that there has been a wealth of recent research examining the performance of approaches for addressing missing data. They state that many researchers recommend multiple imputation (MI), which claims to introduce appropriate random error and obtains good estimates of the standard errors through repeated imputation (King, Honaker, Joseph & Scheve, 2001). In addition, the level of randomisation is often unreported in the studies this can be an issue as extraneous variables then need to be taken into account.

Interestingly, few studies attempt to link qualitative and quantitative data to triangulate results. Beale & Crocker (2013) even commented that they "*do not know how adolescents interpreted our questions on goals*" (p. 228) yet failed to include any qualitative data measures to check interpretation and understanding. Many studies focused on qualitative data methods without including qualitative methods (Green et al., 2010; Guay et al., 2010; Litalien et al., 2013; McInerney et al., 2005; Messersmith & Schulenberg, 2010; Skinner et al., 2008, Vasalampi et al., 2010). It seems erroneous to rely on self-reports without checking for participants' understanding of the questions.

4.11.3 Assumption of goal-setting ability

Research clearly suggests that goal-setting is important and that young people's autonomy is vital for engagement during transition to post-school yet there is very little direction on how this can be encouraged or developed. Few studies allude to the fact that goal-setting is a skill that needs to be taught for it to be used effectively (Danish, 2002). It would be helpful to amalgamate the empirical evidence on adolescent engagement to

understand where goals-setting fits within this context and provide valuable information for implementing appropriate goal-setting interventions.

4.12 Goal-setting and behaviour change

It is widely recognised that appropriate goal-setting is effective in increasing engagement and therefore increasing positive behaviour change (Danish, 2002; Dowson and McInerney, 2001, 2003; Dweck, 2008; Green et al., 2012; Lock and Latham, 2002; Pintrich and Schunk, 1996; Vasalampi, et al., 2010). However, the relationship between goal-setting and behaviour change is still unclear. Interventions directed towards changing adolescent behaviour for successful post-school engagement should aim to incorporate multi-faceted theory-based approaches and take account of the extensive literature in the field of adolescence and behaviour change. This would help in understanding the relationship and interaction between variables throughout a young person's life. Michie, West, Campbell, Brown and Gainworth (2014) devised a comprehensive compendium of behaviour change theories and available conceptual frameworks, across disciplines, which allow for further exploration of adolescent goal-setting and behaviour change.

4.13 Conceptualising post-school engagement

One way of conceptualising the relationship between goal-setting and post-school engagement is in regard to the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991), outlined in Michie et al. (2014). This shows the relationship between goal-setting and behavioural engagement and academic outcomes (*Figure 4).* The framework may be best understood by first considering the background variables a young person may have in their life (noted within this chapter). The relationship and interaction between these factors could be considered predictors of engagement (*presage*). Nevertheless it is important to note that this is not always the case, in some occasions there may be no direct interaction between the variables and it may be only one variable that has an impact on the person's behaviour. For example,

both attributions and control could effectively influence post-school behaviour without necessarily going through the process of engagement. Stemming from the literature and in reference to the theory of planned behaviour model, the factors influencing post-school engagement have been classified under three concepts; Attributions, Subjective Norms and Control. These motivational concepts permeate and influence the *process* of engagement (behaviour intention) which has a direct link to post-school behaviour (accessing post-school opportunities). This behaviour could be considered the *product* of engagement.

Adolescence and transition are both sizable fields of study, which can make it difficult to focus on the specifics of the problem in hand, supporting young people through transition to post-school. The TPB has been used to successfully define behaviours and plan many human interventions for a range of behaviours including: sexual, smoking, exercise and diet. Therefore the TPB model could also define the meaning of terms and concepts used to discuss the issue of post-school transition and to provide insight into the processes that can turn acquired (life) skills into successful post-school behaviours. In addition, the model could provide a useful hypothesis framework in which to develop a suitable intervention for post-school transition. For example, the intervention should be targeted at the *Process* (Behaviour Intention/Engagement) section of the model with the content of the intervention focused on supporting and reducing any potential negative *Presage* concepts (Attribution, Subjective Norms and Control). It is hoped that this would have a positive effect on the young person's post-school behaviour, in essence, the GOALS programme may be a helpful vehicle to drive the process of post-school engagement. However it is not within the remit of this study to develop and test out TPB for adolescent engagement. More research is required to identify the optimal TPB modalities to modify post-school behaviours. Future research to systemically review and synthesise TPB for adolescent behaviour would be beneficial.

Conceptual model of post-school engagement (based on The Theory of Planned Behaviour, Ajzen, 1991)

(Grasping Opportunities After Leaving School)

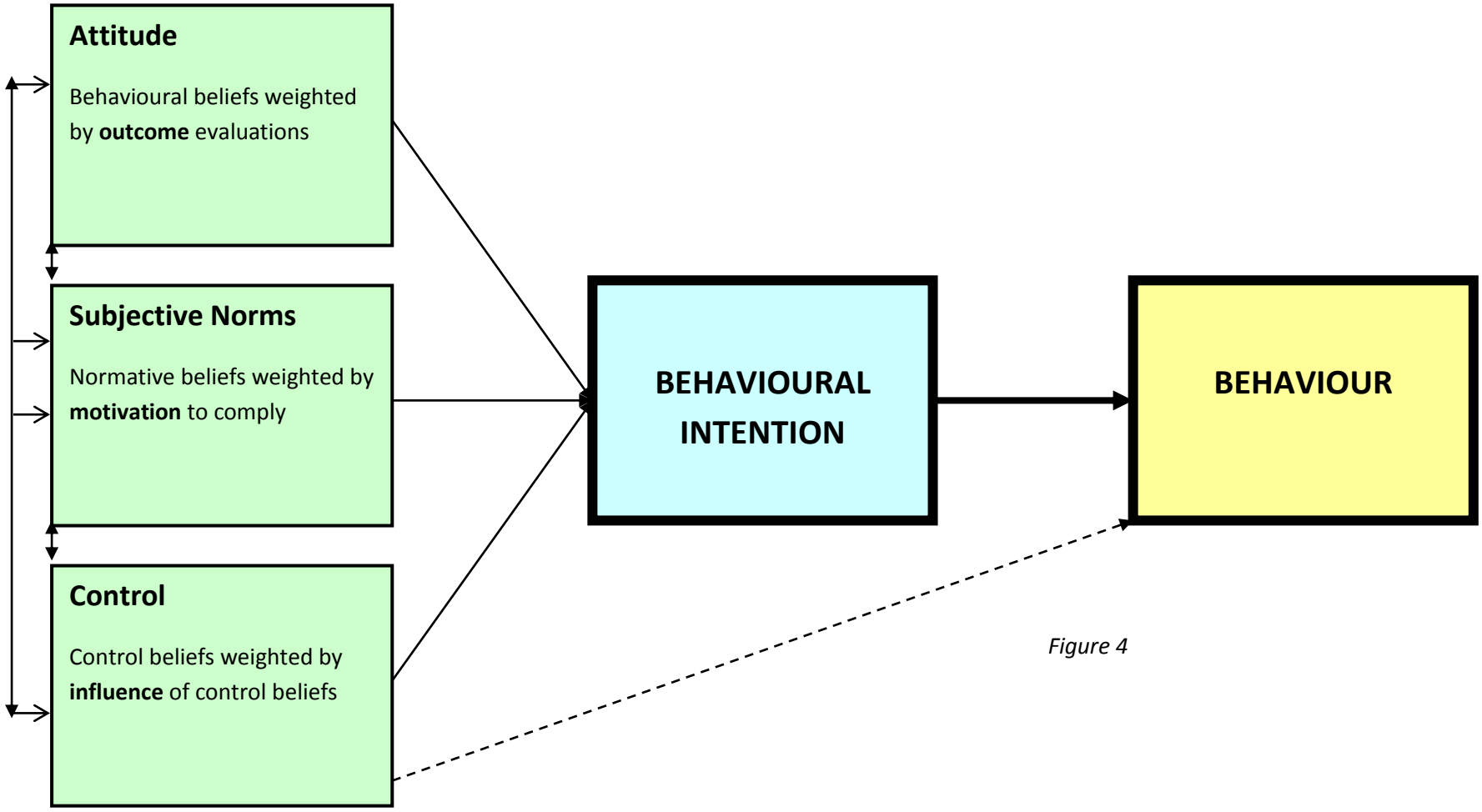

Figure 4

4.14 Summary

This chapter defined goals and goal-setting within the context of motivation for post-school success. The chapter highlighted key aspects of successful goal-setting including pupil engagement, from goal-setting theory. Studies reviewed imply that goal-setting may be taught and that pupils may be supported in setting their own goals however there are gaps in the research with very little focus on the direct teaching of goal-setting for one's own future. Nevertheless, evidence from research on adolescent influences and motivational styles may be a helpful starting point in which to teach goal-setting to pupils pre-transition, as there does appear to be a broad acceptance in the literature of a connection between many relevant factors. The literature review highlighted the complexity of adolescent engagement and many other potential variables (McInerney, 2005) and resilience factors each person may possess (Mikolashek, 2004). The review has also indicated that these factors do not work in isolation but rather that they are interconnected and permeate all aspects of a young person's life, having a major influence on their engagement, motivation and behaviour change to access opportunities available to them when they leave school (Dweck, 1999; Danish, 2002 & Massey et al., 2008).

CHAPTER 5. *PILOT STUDY 1: EVALUATING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE 'GOING FOR THE GOAL' PROGRAMME IN A SECONDARY SCHOOL*

5.1 Background

Following a review of candidate intervention programmes aimed at promoting goal-setting for adolescents (see Chapter 3, page 36) the 'Going for the Goal programme' (GFTG) (Danish, 2002) was selected for trial and implementation as it incorporates many of the key elements required of the intervention outlined in Chapter 5 (in particular; individual support strategies, and peer support).

5.2 Rationale for Design and Implementation Processes

Pilot study one was designed to investigate methodological and practical issues likely to impact upon the implementation of the intervention study (e.g. identification of an appropriate sample population, checking that instructions, procedures and training related to the intervention conditions were clear and comprehensive, checking the accessibility and feasibility of the intervention with this group of young people).

5.3 Aim

The aim of this pilot study was to test the feasibility and accessibility of GFTG.

5.4 Design

The study utilised a quasi-experimental pre/post design (Robson, 2011) comparing scores in goal knowledge and in general motivation across time-point (pre- versus post-intervention). There was no control group for this pilot study as it was designed to trial the practicality and feasibility of using the programme. The research used a mixed-method design, with both qualitative and quantitative measures to explore the research questions and

hypotheses. The use of qualitative and quantitative in this way also permits triangulation of results. Qualitative data was obtained from questionnaires.

5.5 Statement of epistemology

This study, and those that follow, are informed by a critical realism approach (Robson, 2011). This approach uses theoretical knowledge of goal-setting, universal interventions, implementation science and post-school to underpin the study's methodology. In essence, creating and evaluating a goal-setting intervention for adolescents focused on post-school transition within the 'real' context of schools based on relevant theory.

5.6 Ethics

Ethical approval for the main study and both pilot studies was granted by North Lanarkshire Psychological Service Research Committee and the University of Strathclyde Ethics Committee.

5.7 Gaining consent

The school sent out letters to parents from the Educational Psychology Service describing the study and seeking permission for their children's participation (see Appendix A). No parent whose permission was sought refused. The participants themselves were also asked whether or not they wanted to be involved in the research. No participant refused. All participants were informed that they could withdraw from the research at any time; no participant withdrew from the study.

5.8 Method

5.8.1 Participants

The pilot included eight S4 pupils from a secondary school in North Lanarkshire with an age range of 14-16 years (4 boys and 4 girls). The group was facilitated by the researcher (all eight sessions) who on three sessions was assisted by the school's Home Partnership Officer. The intention was for the group to be selected randomly, however due to the timing required for implementation, a group was chosen by school staff on the basis of the S4 pupils available at that time. Four of these pupils were then systematically selected (Robson, 2011) to take part in a focus group to provide qualitative data to contribute to the evaluation of the programme.

5.8.2 Materials

'Going for the Goal' was selected on the basis of being an age appropriate, widely used goal setting programme, which could be facilitated in schools (refer back to chapter three, page 35, for a more detailed account of the intervention).

5.8.3 Measures

The Inventory of School Motivation (ISM) (McInerney, 2001, last), and an adaptation of the Going for the Goal Questionnaire (GFTG) (Danish, 2002) were used to capture the participants' views.

5.8.3.1 ISM

The Inventory of School Motivation (McInerney & Sinclair, 1991, 1992; McInerney et al., 1997; McInerney, Yeung & McInerney, 2001) was designed as an exploratory instrument through which a range of motivation salient constructs drawn from Maehr's

Personal Investment (Maehr, 1984; Maehr & Braskamp, 1986) model could be identified in educational settings across a diversity of groups. These constructs include motivational goal orientations, sense of self components, and perceived opportunities or action possibilities. The instrument consists of eight different scales with 43 survey items (ranging from three to seven items each). The ISM has been validated across seven different cultures in high schools in Australia (n = 4,787), Hong Kong (n = 697), the United States (n = 2,660), and Africa (n = 819). The model was invariant across cultural groups. The findings support a multidimensional, hierarchical school motivation construct (i.e. mastery, performance, social and extrinsic goals). One basic limitation of the instrument is the length of the questionnaire and the time it takes for the participant to complete it, particularly if the measure is used as a pre-post comparison, as the participants would be required to complete the questionnaire twice.

The inventory was used on the basis of being standardised and the validity and reliability of the measure was found to be psychometrically adequate (Cronbach's alpha = .81) (Ganotice, 2010, Ali & McInerney, 2005). The instrument also has a wide range of motivational indicators however, it is divided into sections which can be selected for administration in the main study, reducing data collection time. As each section has been validated separately, the sections can be used independently to provide a more focused measure. The first section deals with finding out how pupils like to work at school. Pupil have to rate themselves on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). An example question is 'I enjoy doing history at school'. The second part of the questionnaire seeks to find out about pupil perceptions of what parents, teachers and friends think about them and the importance of this perception to them. An example question is 'My father thinks I am bright enough to go to college or university'; again this question is rated by the respondent on a scale of 1-5. Section 3 & 4 asks the participant to think about a time when they felt success

at school, the questions begin with ‘did you feel successful at school because you…’ (e.g. Knew you had done something well). In addition to asking what the person considers important for success at school. The final part of the instrument provides qualitative data from specific personal questions that the pupils complete in more detail (e.g. what type of things motivate you to work well at school?).

This questionnaire measures the important psychological constructs identified in the literature and the focus of this research: sense of self, general achievement goal orientation and locus of control. Specifically, the sense of self scales from the ISM was used to measure; (a) pupils’ general self-concept (i.e. pupils’ evaluations of themselves as school pupils), (b) their sense of purpose (i.e. the extent to which pupils perceive schooling and learning have a purpose beyond the immediate school context) and (c) their self-reliance and control (i.e. the extent to which pupils perceive themselves as having control over their own lives, whether they have an external or internal locus of control).

The ISM was first designed to measure specific components of pupils’ motivational goals, such as task orientation, competitiveness, social power, affiliation and social concern (McInerney, 1995),. However, it has since been further developed to include a new instrument – the General Achievement Goal Orientation Scale (GAGOS) (McInerney, Yeung & McInerney, 2001). This instrument includes sets that reflect pupil motivation in three targeted areas drawn from goal theory. The areas are General Mastery goal orientation (i.e. wanting to succeed for socially referenced reasons, such as to feel part of a group), a Global Motivation scale that is comprised of ‘precision alternatives’ (i.e. items which are virtually identical) of the question “I am motivated at school”. The authors state that precision alternatives were used in the scale because the aim of the scale is not to measure the scope of a multi-dimensional construct. Rather, the aim of this scale was to provide a multiple item measure of a uni-dimensional construct. This was done because multiple items

are able to provide a more reliable indicator (than single indicators) of pupils' overall motivation towards schooling. (McInerney, Yeung & McInerney, 2001). The author's instruction notes state that each section can be used or not, depending on the information required. This allows other researchers to shorten the questionnaire without compromising the standardization of the questionnaire.

The sense of self items from ISM all use an identical five point, Likert-type response format to measure pupil responses to the items. When selecting a measure for the study, clarity was deemed an important factor. The fact that the ISM includes measures for all of the variables which require to be measured in the study is beneficial, as it can be difficult to administer several separate instruments to participants. For example, they may look different and require different types of responses, which in turn can lead to confusion, resulting in invalid results. The ISM was used as a pre- and post-intervention measure.

5.8.3.2 Goal Knowledge questionnaire

The goal knowledge questionnaire (Appendix B) was devised by Danish (2002) to assess the impact of GFTG on participants' goal knowledge post-intervention. The questionnaire consists of 17 multiple choice questions each with a possible choice of four answers. The questions are based on the taught components of the programme. Sample questions include: 'Which of these goals is positive?' the four choices are; (a) I do not want to get into trouble in class, (b) I will save my money to buy a pair of trainers, (c) I hope I do not forget to clean my room, (c) I do not want my parents to shout at me. The correct response is (b) as it is the only statement that does not include a negative response (not). The questionnaire evaluates the impact of the intervention on knowledge of goal setting strategies and evaluating whether or not skills taught were transferred by the participants and used in context. Danish has used this questionnaire across various states in America as well as in

Europe, however there does not seem to be published data on the reliability and validity of the measure. Minor adaptations were made to the answers to make the questionnaire more culturally relevant (e.g. one of the responses states "*I want to save $25*" this was changed to "*I want to save £25*"). Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the adapted version for the main study (see page 108). The coefficient obtained is considered psychometrically adequate (.78) for a self-report questionnaire of this kind.

5.9 Procedure

The 8 participants completed the full Inventory of School Motivation survey and the Goal Knowledge questionnaire. The participants then took part in eight once weekly sessions of GFTG. Each session lasted a school class period (50 minutes) and was during the allocated time for social education. After the intervention the pupils were asked to complete the same questionnaires to provide a pre-post intervention comparison. Four systematically-selected participants then took part in a focus group to discuss the programme.

5.10 Results

The pilot study sample size and intervention time constraints were such that a statistical data analysis was not applicable. However, the pupils and school staff gave feedback from general discussion points raised at the focus group. The focus group of four consisted of two boys and two girls) and the data were analysed using conventional content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) to record results.

The categories derived and illustrative comments from the focus group are summarised in Tables 6.1-6.4. Illustrative comments were selected on the basis that they were representative of the group's views. The data reveal that the participants felt that the programme increased their goal setting knowledge and that they had now started to speak to

friends, family and school staff about post-school opportunities as a result of the programme. The pupils stated that they liked the idea of "goal busters" and "goal keepers", but found some of the activities a little "cheesy" (*sic*) and too "Americanised" (*sic*). The pupils were referring to the skits they were asked to act out during the sessions. The concept of the goal ladder was also well-received; it was seen as a helpful way to plan out future goals. One of the major issues discussed at the focus group was the amount of reading and writing involved. The pupils felt this took away from their discussions when they had to stop and write. Nevertheless, it was agreed that there needs to be some method of documentation from the sessions to act as aid memoirs of the sessions, for future reference. All pupils noted that they had done something to achieve their goals since completing the programme and all participants would recommend the programme to a friend.

Table 5.1

Question 1: What did you like about the programme?	
Themes	**Illustrative comments**
Goal keeper Goal ladder Group discussions	Goal keepers – learning who can help you. I liked the goal keepers and busters. I liked planning my goals on the ladder (goal ladder). Goal ladder was helpful to break down my goals. I liked discussing things with the group.

Table 5.2

Question 2: What did you dislike about the programme?	
Theme	**Illustrative comments**
Too much reading/writing involved	Doing the reading (skits) they were a bit cheesy. Too much writing – better when we were having discussions. Lots of reading, especially out loud (skits).
Group discussion	Good chatting about it (goals) then had to stop to write in the book.
Language used	They were really American (Americanised language).

Table 5.3

Question 3: What would you change about the programme?	
Theme	**Illustrative comments**
Writing/workbook	The writing in the workbook was really complicated, maybe change that and make it simpler? Too many things to read in one session.
Session time	More time to do it in.
More discussion	More discussion tasks.

Table 5.4

Question 4: What will you do/have you done to achieve your goals since the programme?	
Theme	**Illustrative comments**
Speak to someone	I spoke to my mum about my goals for the future.
	I went to an open day with my friends – that was the first part of my goal ladder.
Research	I went to the careers advisor at school and researched what I need to get in [to college].
Planning	I made a goal ladder with my auntie.

5.11 Discussion

There were a number of limitations to this pilot study. Firstly, GFTG recommends that each session should be around an hour in length. The school period is 50 minutes long and this can decrease by the time the pupils get from one class to another, in practice each session could take more than an hour. Another time constraint was the length of time required to complete the questionnaires both pre- and post- intervention. The length of time it took to complete the questionnaires was commented on by all participants, who claimed that they lost concentration because the questionnaires took a long time to complete. Some participants reported that they confused at some points as some of the questions seemed to say the same thing. Also the ISM questionnaire does not cover goal knowledge or pupil engagement (including self-efficacy) thus, an additional measure was introduced in the second pilot study; the School Engagement Questionnaire (a description of which will follow on page 92).

Further limitations of the study include the non-random assignment to group and the small sample size. It was hoped that the group would comprise of a selection of S4 pupils from across the school from a variety of ability groups and backgrounds, when in fact the group chosen were all from the same class and were available for the study on the basis that they were about to leave school and had time available in their school timetables. The researcher continued with the pilot despite this issue because this group of young people were identified as at risk of becoming NEET, therefore a target cohort of this study.

Finally, the researcher had requested that a member of the school's teaching staff be involved with facilitating the programme; this however did not go according to plan. The member of staff selected was off on a long term absence. The school found it difficult to release another member of staff from class for a period each week. This eventually resulted in the researcher facilitating the most of the sessions on her own and some with the school's Home Partnership Officer which had not been the original plan.

The pilot study was a valuable exercise that allowed the researcher to trial GFTG. While there were many positive aspects of the programme, it did not quite fit the following specifications for the required intervention, specifically that it:

- Can be delivered within a school period (approximately 50 minutes)
- Can be delivered in class
- Can be condensed into less sessions
- Does not require too much writing
- Does not require too much reading
- Allows group discussions
- Uses a goal ladder as a planning tool

There are very few ‘off the shelf’ programmes designed to teach adolescents specifically how to set goals for their future. It was hoped that GCG would be able to achieve this. However, following the outcomes of this pilot, it was decided that a new culturally relevant and post-school focused goal-setting programme would be designed that would be more suitable for the needs of the pupils.

CHAPTER 6. PILOT STUDY TWO: EVALUATING THE GOALS PROGRAMME IN A SECONDARY SCHOOL

6.1 Background

A task group (Toseland & Rivas, 2005) was identified to discuss a proposed alternative intervention to GFTG. There were four participants, two EPs, a trainee EP and a psychological service research assistant (all of whom expressed an interest in the project). The group audited GFTG and identified key elements that could be used in the new programme whilst retaining the essence of the original GFTG programme. This was achieved by systematically reviewing each section of the programme, identifying key messages and central themes. Agreement was achieved by all participants through discussion and clarification of thoughts.

It was felt that a more concise workbook which minimised the demands on the pupils' reading and writing skills would facilitate their engagement. The purpose of the workbook was to guide discussions and record key pieces of information, similar to the LLTTF little books (Williams, 2007). Other psychological approaches were also considered to be useful to help young people set goals and grasp the opportunities available to them after they leave school, such as, solution oriented working (Rees, 2000) and the strengths approach (Seligman, Steen, & Park, 2005).

Using these approaches as a psychological underpinning a new brief goal-setting programme was developed: 'Grasping Opportunities After Leaving School' (GOALS). Once devised, the GOALS programme was sent to EPs, Researchers and Trainee EPs within North Lanarkshire for consultation. As the intervention materials for the study were changed to the GOALS programme format, it was vital that this new programme was trialled using a pilot study to check its accessibility and feasibility for use with adolescents in a school context.

6.2 Rationale and aims

The aim of pilot study two was to build upon pilot study one by further investigating methodological and practical issues likely to impact upon the implementation of the intervention study, assessing the feasibility and acceptability of GOALS and addresses the same research questions. This pilot differed from its predecessor in two ways: the programme used and the addition of a pre-and post- engagement questionnaire (Daly, 2009) which will be explained in the measures section of this chapter.

6.3 Design

The study utilised a quasi-experimental pre/post design (Robson, 2011) comparing scores in goal knowledge, in general motivation and in post-school engagement across time-point (pre- versus post-intervention). There was no control group for this pilot study as it was designed to trial the practicality and feasibility of implementing the programme. A randomised control trial was not feasible in this instance due to time school timetabling constraints.

6.4 Statement of epistemology

As pilot one (see page 77).

6.5 Ethics

As pilot one (see page 77).

6.6 Gaining consent

The methods used to gain consent were the same as in pilot study one (see Chapter 7, p. 100).

6.7 Method

6.7.1 Participants

Pilot study two included a group of fourteen S4 pupils from a Secondary school in North Lanarkshire with an age range of 14-16 years (5 boys and 9 girls) systematically sampled (every tenth name on the year-group register) (Robson, 2011). The programme was facilitated by the researcher and the class teacher.

6.7.2 Materials

Grasping Opportunities After Leaving School (GOALS)

GOALS (refer to the programme workbook in Appendix D) is a brief goal-setting programme based on the underpinnings of goal-setting theory, solution oriented approaches, and the strengths approach (Chapter three summarises and discusses these approaches). The programme consists of four sessions which can be delivered during school period (approx. 50mins). The delivery format for the sessions is based on cognitive behavioural approaches (see Chapter 3, p. 47). A brief synopsis of the sessions is outlined below.

Session one begins by identifying important people in the young persons' life (*goal keepers*) and identifying people that could potentially cause trouble for the young person (*goal busters*). It then goes onto ask the young person to think about their future and dream destination (where they will be in ten years), similar to 'the miracle question' practiced in solution oriented approaches. Thinking about their future provides the setting to discuss turning dreams into goals and what may constitute as a successful goal (that the goal is; stated positively, stated specifically, important to you and under your control). The young person is then asked to visualise this goal/these goals.

Session two aims to assist the young person in achieving their future goals by making a plan called a *goal ladder*. This session discusses things that can get in the way of the goal (i.e. Facebook, going out with friends, illness) these are called *banana skins* as they can make the young person slip off their goal ladder. The session also highlights how to spot potential banana skins and leads debate on ways to overcome them.

Session three focuses on *seeking help* or assistance with goals-setting, creating a dream team from all the people who could help in achieving goals and discusses rebounding when things don't go according to plan first time.

Session four helps the young person to *identify and build strengths* and personal capacities. It emphasises that everyone has unique strengths and that strengths can be used to support and reach goals. As this is the last session it also closes the intervention and provides a plenary of the previous sessions.

6.7.3 Measures

As with pilot study one, pilot study two used both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection. Again, the ISM & GFTG questionnaires (see Chapter five, pages 78 & 81) were used for quantitative analysis. The GFTG remained the same as in the first pilot study, however the ISM was shortened to focus specifically on motivation for post school. Cronbach's alpha revealed that both measures were psychometrically adequate for the study (within the 0.75-0.83 range). The full standardised subsection was used, and as McInerney states this can be used in isolation from the rest of the survey. An additional measure was used in pilot study two; a self-report instrument named the School Engagement Questionnaire (SEQ) (adapted by Daly (2009) from Lonsdale, Hodge & Jackson, 2007).

6.7.3.1 SEQ

The SEQ (Appendix C) was adapted from Lonsdale, Hodge & Jackson's (2007) Athlete Engagement Questionnaire (AEQ). This is a 16-item measure which is comprised of four subscales: confidence, dedication, enthusiasm, and vigour. Participants are required to respond to all AEQ items using 5-point Likert scales (1 = *almost never*, 2 = *rarely*, 3 = *sometimes*, 4 = *frequently*, 5 = *almost always*) to indicate 'How often you have felt this way in the past three months' Sample items included: (a) confidence ('I believe I am capable of accomplishing my goals in *sport*'), (b) dedication ('I am determined to achieve my goals in *sport*'), (c) enthusiasm ('I feel excited about my *sport*'), (d) vigor ('I feel very alive when I participate in my *sport*'). Lonsdale et al. (op. cit) showed adequate model fit according to most indices. An AE score is calculated by averaging scores across the four subscales.

Danish (2002) adapted the AEQ to measure goal engagement; this was renamed the Goal Engagement Questionnaire. The questionnaire was reduced to 11 items. The concept of specific sport related goals was subtracted and the concept of school goals was included (e.g. I am capable of achieving my goals at school). No data has been located on the reliability and validity of this questionnaire.

Daly (2009) made some minor modifications to the measure to make it more suitable for a post-school focus. For example, one question originally states: *"I am dedicated to achieving my goals in school"*. This has now been changed to: *"I am dedicated to achieving my goals when I leave school."* Each item is in a 5-point response format ranging from "Almost never" to "Almost always". The factor structure of the AEQ has found to be stable from pre-to post- test, suggesting it is a stable measure of engagement; This measure is also able to determine how important goals are to them. The original engagement questionnaire was normed on an American sample of adolescents. The updated questionnaire was analysed

for the main study using Cronbach's alpha (.82) and is considered psychometrically adequate for a self-report questionnaire of this kind (see p. 105).

6.7.4 Procedure

All of the pupils in the intervention group completed section two of the Inventory of School motivation, the Goal Knowledge questionnaire (Danish, 2002) and the School Engagement Questionnaire (Lonsdale et al., 2007). The sessions were run during social education periods (50 minutes) within their normal classroom. The programme consisted of four sessions, after which the participants were asked to complete the same questionnaires stated above to provide a pre- and post-intervention comparison. Every fourth pupil in the intervention group was selected to take part in a focus group for a more qualitative evaluation of the programme.

6.8 Results

The data from the questionnaires were analysed using SPSS (the Statistical Package for Social Sciences) version 19 Descriptive statistics and the results from paired sample t-tests of differences between pre- and post-intervention scores for each of the three measures together with their associated Cohen's *d* effect size are shown in Table 6:1 below.

Table 6:1 *Pilot data descriptive statistics*

Questionnaire	*Number (n)*	*Pre-score Mean (SD)*	*Post-score Mean (SD)*	*t-value & p-value (one-tailed tests)*	***Effect (ES) (Cohen's d)***
GK	13	8.62	13.54	t= -4.23	+1.327
		(4.154)	(3.099)	p=.001	
SE	13	33.83	37.00	t= -2.81	+0.446
		(5.890)	(4.49	p=.017	
ISM	13	226.31	233.69	t= -3.35	+0.302
		(24.489)	(24.578)	p=.006	

The results show significant increases in goal knowledge, school engagement and general motivation across time-point, with effect sizes ranging from small to large (Cohen, 1988).

G* Power (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang & Buchner, 2007) was used to calculate the sample size required for the main study, based on the effect sizes shown above. As these varied from +0.302 (small-medium effect (Cohen, 1988; Lipsey, 1990) to +1.327 (large effect (Cohen, 1988; Lipsey, 1990)), the smaller, more conservative effect size of the ISM was used to determine the required sample size of approximately 174 participants in each group (control and intervention).

Data from the focus group was analysed thematically (Braun & Clarke, 2008) as in the earlier pilot and a summary of responses are shown in Tables 6.2-6.6. Comments from participants confirmed that the new format of four sessions and using a more basic workbook worked well. There were no comments made about too much reading or writing involved in the sessions, and the group discussion element of the programme was well received. The briefness of the groups did not appear to have an impact on the effectiveness of the intervention.

Table 6.2

Question 1: What did you like about the programme?	
Theme	**Illustrative comments**
Planning	Making a goal ladder Chatting to friends about plans and goals for the future Discussions

Table 6.3

Question 2: What did you dislike about the programme?	
Theme	**Illustrative comments**

Nothing about the programme	The questionnaires were too long

Table 6.4

Question 3: What would you change about the programme?	
Theme	**Illustrative comments**
Additional time for group work	Nothing really, I liked the programme More group work

Table 6.5

Question 4: How did you find the GOALS workbook?	
Theme	**Illustrative comments**
Helpful	Easy to do Good for notes

Table 6.6

Question 5: What will you do/have you done to achieve your goals since the programme?	
Theme	**Illustrative comments**
Speak to someone about GOALS Research	Told my mum about it and we made a ladder I looked up what I need to be a beauty therapist and called a salon for work experience.

The participants stated that the questionnaires were 'too long', however the author notes that the inventory questionnaire could be shortened. The methods used to evaluate the programme allowed for quantitative statistical analysis, qualitative data collection and the triangulation of both methods. What was missing however was a method of gathering data on action outcomes, not just self-reported change in behaviour, since the intervention took place. For this reason a Critical Incident Technique questionnaire (Brookfield, 1995) (Appendix E), a qualitative measure, was added to the main study to gather information on what the participants actually did as a result of the study (action outcomes).

6.9 Summary of pilot two and implications for main study

Findings from the pilot indicated that the GOALS programme intervention increased pupils' school engagement, goal knowledge and general school motivation. The pilot study demonstrated a high level of intervention compliance and proved both practical and feasible to be implemented within the class setting. This pilot study allowed the researcher to gain a clear understanding of the context in which the intervention will take place. An effect size required for the main study was also generated from the results. The effect size however should be interpreted cautiously as effect sizes may be smaller or varied when administered across a larger population (Craig, Dieppe, Pettigrew & 2008). Additionally it allowed the researcher to refine the programme, clarifying any uncertainties or ambiguity prior to conducting the main research study. Craig et al.'s study also used cluster randomised trials to reduce contamination of the control group. Craig et al. state that [randomisation] *"is the most robust method of preventing selection bias".*

The participants felt that the questionnaires used in the study were too long and it was commented that there was a lot of duplication in the questions asked. The ISM can be used in sections whilst still retaining its standardisation. A more condensed version of the ISM, using only relevant subsections, was thus identified for use in the main study.

CHAPTER 7. THE MAIN STUDY

7.1 Background

As noted in chapter two, the transition from school to post-school can be a very difficult time in a young person's life and they may require additional life skills to help them access opportunities available to them when they leave school. Chapter three proposes that knowledge of goal-setting may be the key in engaging and motivating young people at this stage to go onto positive destinations. Pilot study 2 indicated that the GOALS programme may be a useful way to teach goal-setting in a secondary school class setting.

7.2 Rationale for design and implementation processes

As pilot study 2 (see p. 89).

7.3 Aim and research questions

The aim of the current research was two-fold: firstly it aimed to find out whether or not goal-setting can be taught and secondly whether or not GOALS is an appropriate programme to teach it. To begin to address these aims this study will address the following research questions:

1. Does GOALS improve goal-setting knowledge?
2. Does GOALS increase motivation for post-school engagement?
3. Is the GOALS programme a universal intervention, suitable for all?
4. Is the GOALS programme sustainable?

7.4 Hypothesis

The hypothesis of this study states: the implementation of a brief goal-setting programme will increase pupils' goal knowledge and/or motivation to pursue goals for their future and/or show and increase in post-school engagement in comparison to pupils not involved in the study.

7.5 Design

The study utilised a quasi-experimental pre/post design with intervention and control groups comparing scores in goal knowledge, in engagement and in general motivation across time-point (pre-versus post-intervention). There were three independent variables: the assigned group (GOALS or control), school and year group. The intervention and control groups were selected by cluster randomisation (Robson, 2011) in both of the schools. Intact groups (classes) were given a unique number and numbers were placed in a jar (which was shaken). Two Depute Head Teachers, from the schools (with their eyes closed) each selected 4 classes to be assigned to the intervention group (random lottery sampling). The classes selected for this process were personal, social, health and emotional (PSHE) studies, considered mixed ability classes.

7.6 Statement of epistemology

As pilot one and two (see page 76).

7.7 Ethical considerations

As pilot one and two (see page 76).

7.8 Method

7.8.1 Obtaining consent

Both schools sent out letters to parents from the Educational Psychology Service describing the study and seeking permission for their children's participation (see Appendix A). No parent whose permission was sought refused. The participants themselves were also asked whether or not they wanted to be involved in the research. No participant refused. All participants were informed that they could withdraw from the research at any time.

7.8.2 Participants

Parents and pupils were required to provide permission for their child to take part in the research. They were informed that they could chose for their child not to take part in the study but their child could still receive the intervention, if they were in the intervention group. Eight classes were involved in the research (two third year (S3) and two fourth year (S4) classes) from two secondary schools in a local education authority in central Scotland took part in the study. The total sample comprised 328 including both the intervention and the control group which were 157 and 171 respectively (48.6% girls and 51.4% boys).

All pupils took part in the study. The age range was 13-16 years (mean age 14.8 years). For most participants English was their first language, but there were also three boys from one of the classes who considered Polish to be their first language. One of the schools involved had a language and communication unit within the school, where children and young people with Autistic Spectrum Disorders (ASD) can be supported to work within the school's mainstream classes for certain subjects. These children were also included in the study.

The Educational Psychology Service requested names of schools within the authority who may be interested in taking part in the research. From the schools that noted interest three schools were chosen to have further discussions due to their nearest comparable demographic profiles. This was calculated using the Scottish Index of Multiple Deprivation (SIMD, Scottish Government, 2012) and school roles. The SIMD combines 38 indicators across 7 domains (income, employment, health, education, skills, training, housing, geographical access and crime) and is considered a better predictor of deprivation in comparison to free school meal entitlement data previously used (McKinney, Hall, Lowden, McClung, Cameron, 2012). 100 (10.2%) of the 976 most deprived data zones in Scotland (lowest 15%) are within the Local Authority. All three schools were within the most deprived zones for the Authority. School 1 had a role of 633 (SIMD 42.1% severe deprivation), School 2 had a role of 613 (SIMD 44.5% severe deprivation), School 3 had a role of 598 (SIMD 38.8% severe deprivation).

The initial approach was made by a telephone call to the head teacher from the researcher. This was preceded by a follow up visit to each school to discuss the study in more detail. School 3 decided not to take part in the study because they had already agreed to become involved in another post-school focused programme which discussed similar themes to the GOALS programme and they could not commit to the time required of the research. Two of the schools gave consent for the project and could make the time commitment required for the study. Originally the research planned to focus solely on S4 classes. In Scotland, some young people can leave school at the end of S4 (depending on their date of birth) therefore S4 represents the first exit point from secondary school. However from discussions with secondary school staff it was the consensus that S3 could perhaps be a better age and stage for implementation. It was then agreed that both year groups would be involved in the study for comparison.

A CONSORT flow diagram (Schulz, Altman, Moher, 2010) of the flow of participants through the study, detailing the procedure for randomisation, is outlined in Figure 5.

Consort diagram showing the flow of participants through each stage of a randomised trial

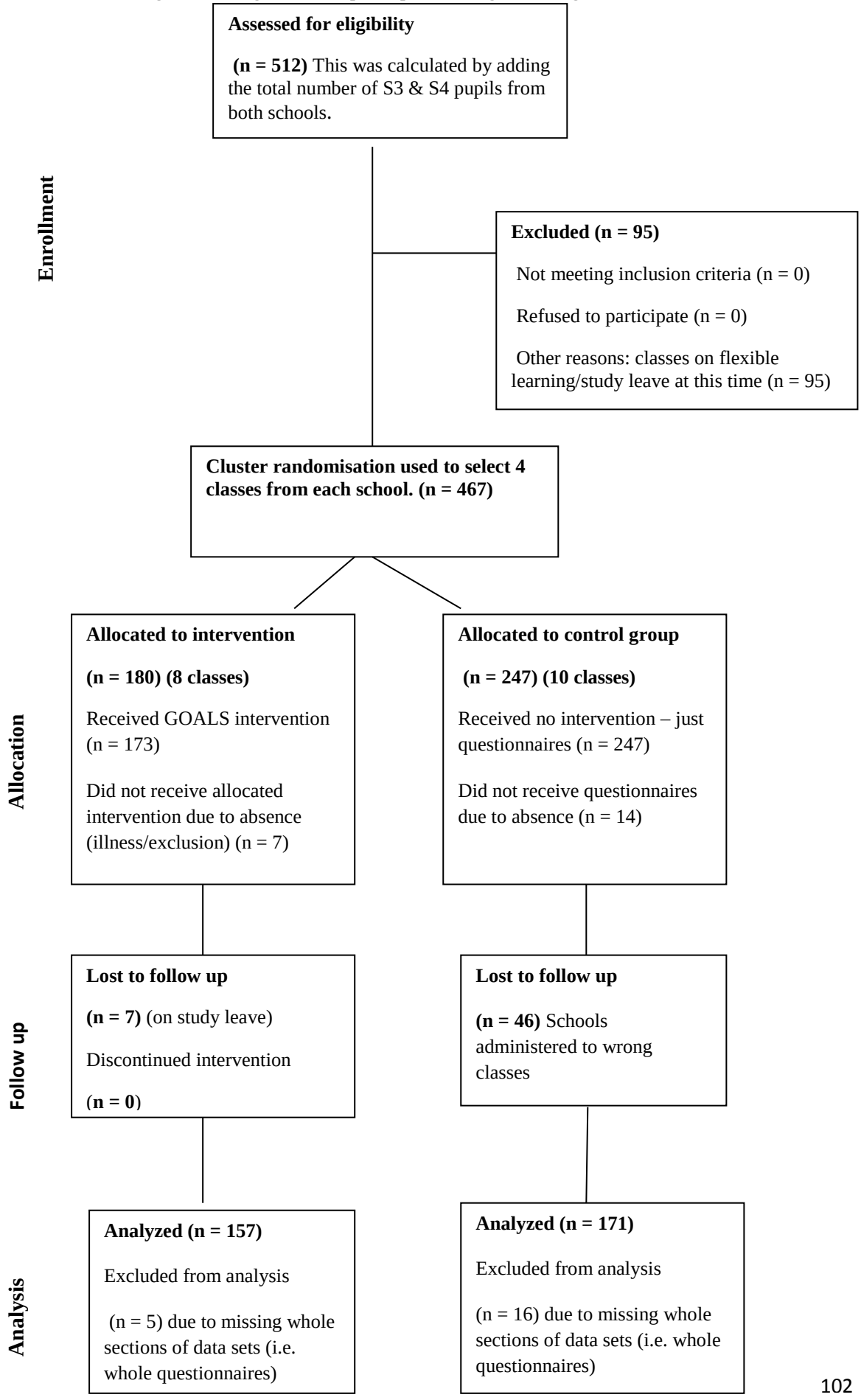

Figure 5

7.8.3 Materials

The materials used for the main study was the GOALS programme, as detailed in Appendix D.

7.8.4 Measures

The instruments used to measure the outcomes of the intervention were also the same as in pilot study two (ISM, Goal Knowledge questionnaire, School Engagement questionnaire) with the addition of the Critical Incident Technique questionnaire (1993).

7.8.4.1 Critical Incident Technique questionnaire (CIT)

Critical incidents are brief descriptions of vivid memories that a person finds significant during an event this is done by personal reflection (Tripp, 1993; Woods, 1993; Brookfield, 1995). Brookfield (1995) recognised that during every classroom session students experience these moments and that it would be helpful for teachers to know what these are and when they happen. Brookfield then devised a questionnaire which aims to discover the effects of teaching actions on students. He describes the questionnaire as "a running commentary on the emotional tenor of each class you deal with" (p2, chapter 6). He postulates that this method of feedback clears up any confusion or ambiguity and allow for any changes to be made before the intervention or teaching programme is completes. It also allows the sessions to be contemporary, within context and develops with the students encouraging engagement. Other advantages to CIQ include; a focus on student reflection, room for differentiation of teaching approaches, and builds teacher-student trust when students realise their opinion is valued by the teacher.

The questionnaire was designed to be administered to students directly after each class. It comprises five questions, each of which asks students to write down some detail

about events they experienced in class this week. It deliberately avoids asking students what they liked or disliked about the class. It instead asks students to focus on specific, more concrete happenings. Brookfield suggests that the form the students write on should be on carbon paper allowing the student to keep an exact copy of whatever they have written. Teachers are recommended to allow five to ten minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Glowacki-Dudka and Barnett (2007) used Brookfield's CIQ as an instrument to explore "the space where critical reflection and group development met within the online environment for the adult learner" (p. 43). The study included two sixteen-week online, asynchronous graduate courses on adult strategies at a Midwestern United States university.

Although there are many advantages of using the CIQ, the reason it was used in the present study is that it allows for some degree of measurement of actual action outcomes and direct affects of the intervention.

7.8.4.2 Semi-structured group interviews

Five semi-structured group interviews were conducted at the end of the study after all intervention sessions were complete. The groups were run by the researcher (R) and one other assistant (an EP (EP), Psychological Service Researcher (PSR) or a Teacher (T)). The details of each focus group are shown in Table 8:2 below. There were two groups from each school, one group of S3 pupils and one group of S4 pupils (the pupils were mixed from each of the two classes). Participants were selected using systematic sampling (Robson, 2011).). This was achieved by numbering all classes and randomly selecting every 3rd class, starting at class number 2. The fifth focus group was for the young people who participated in the goals programme who also attend the school's language and communication unit (n= 3, S3 boys). Unfortunately due to timing of the focus groups the two S4 boys who were included within this group were unavailable as they were on study leave.

Table 7.2 Group details

Focus group	*School*	*Year*	*Participants*	*Facilitators*
1	*B*	*3*	*4 (2 boys, 2 girls)*	*R & PSR*
2	*B*	*4*	*4 (2 boys, 2 girls)*	*R & T*
3	*C*	*3*	*4 (2 boys, 2 girls)*	*R & EP*
4	*C*	*4*	*4 (2 boys, 2 girls)*	*R & PSR*
5	*B*	*3*	*3 (boys)*	*R & T*

7.9 Procedure

7.9.1 Pre-intervention

As noted in the design (7.5) participants were randomly allocated by class using cluster randomisation (Robson. 2011) to receive either an experimental intervention or an alternative such as standard curricular experience (no direct input on goal-setting, just following the school's usual curriculum).

Consent letters were sent out one week prior to the intervention starting. Pre-intervention questionnaires were administered to the pupils a few days before the intervention began. All questionnaires were administered in the participants' usual classroom and the pupils were assured of their anonymity. The questionnaires took approximately 20 minutes to complete. The control group also completed the questionnaires at this time.

7.9.2 Training

All of the groups were facilitated by the researcher and the usual class teacher. The teachers involved took part in a two hour training session run by the researcher. This training

covered the focus of the sessions (in the workbook, Appendix D) as well as the theory and background to the intervention.

7.9.3 Intervention Implementation

Participants in the experimental group worked through four sessions of the GOALS programme. Participants in the control group continued with the school's usual Social Education Programme. All participants were taught as part of either their S3 or S4 class. Due to the school timetable limitations the sessions were run for four groups for four weeks then the other four groups for the next four weeks.

7.9.4 Programme fidelity and facilitator bias

Programme fidelity was monitored by the researcher, who co-facilitated all of the intervention groups. The researcher met with each teacher before and after each session to discuss the session and provide details regarding aspects of the programme that they were unable to follow and why. This time was also used to plan for the next session. The researcher and co-facilitator rated on a scale of 1 (did not cover core elements of the session) – 5 (all core elements were addressed and discussed). All sessions scored 5. As the programme is brief and focused the overall fidelity of the intervention was high across groups. The study attempted to minimise facilitator bias by having different co-facilitators for each group to maintain programme integrity and increases the confidence that the intervention effects found are due to the intervention programme.

7.9.5 Facilitator characteristics

All facilitators received the same basic training in order to deliver the intervention; this discussed theoretical information as well as information about the programme lessons. The main facilitator (the researcher) remained constant throughout the sessions this assisted

in making sure implementation instructions had been understood and accurately complied with. Additionally there was the opportunity to confirm and reassure the teachers were implementing the programme correctly.

7.10 Quantitative Results

Quantitative data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) (IBM, 2010), Version 19. The large sample size in this study permitted analysis of the reliability and dimensionality of the instruments utilised using Cronbach's alpha (Cicchetti, 1994).

7.10.1 Cronbach's alpha (CA)

If the scales used are not internally consistent (i.e. operationally defined as ≥0.70, Cicchetti, 1994), then interpretation of scores is problematic because the items are not measuring the same things. An analysis of internal consistency reliability of two of the scales was carried out using pre-test scores for all participants in data set. Table 7.3 illustrates the findings.

Table 7.3 Cronbach's alpha scores

Instrument	Number of items	CA score
Goal Knowledge	17	.79
Engagement	11	.83
ISM	43	.81

For each of the above measures it is feasible to use total pre- and post-intervention scores. The third instrument (ISM) which measures general motivation had already been

standardised and deemed internally consistent (McInerney & Ali, 2006), however the score has also been added to the table.

7.10.1 Baseline check

Using SPSS, pre-liminary checks were conducted out to investigate whether there was a significant difference in the baseline scores at time-point 1. An independent sample t-test comparing scores at time-point 1 for intervention and control groups revealed no significant differences overall (t=0.275, p=0.783). Accordingly, ANOVAs were selected for the main analysis which followed as no adjustments of pre--test scores which would have required an ANCOVA were necessary.

7.10.1 Requirements for ANOVA

When selecting an ANOVA as a statistical measure certain assumptions are made, which will be explained in this section. These assumptions are:

- There should be an adequate number of subjects per level to provide sufficient statistical power
- Individual differences and errors of measurement are independent from group to group
- Individual differences and error of measurement are normally distributed within each group
- The variance in the distribution of individual differences and random errors is broadly homogeneous across cells.

(Roberts & Russo, 1999, p. 69).

Three strategies were used to avoid violation of the aforementioned assumptions. Firstly, that there was an appropriate number of participants in each level of the study. All subjects were randomly allocated to groups for between-subject factors when possible. And finally, the mean scores were checked for normal distribution across participants.

7.10.1.4 Missing data

A preliminary analysis was also carried out using SPSS to screen the data for incomplete or incorrect questionnaires. Data screening revealed a number of participants who did not complete all the required fields in the questionnaires or did not complete the questionnaires correctly. The rates of missing data across the groups are illustrated in Table 7:4 below.

Table 7:4

Rates of missing data on outcome measures across groups

		Intervention group	**Control group**
		***n* (%)**	***n* (%)**
GK	Pre-	3 (1.9)	8 (4.7)
	Post	8 (5.1)	84 (49.1)
EQ	Pre-	0 (0)	6 (3.5)
	Post	0 (0)	49 (28.7)
ISM	Pre-	17 (10.9)	18 (9.7)
	Post	5 (3.2)	92 (50.7)

The control group's scores for the GK and ISM had similar levels of missing data (49.1% and 50.7% respectively) but there were different reasons for this. In the case of the GK, missing data was due to participants missing out one or two questions (missing data for each question for the control group was < 10%), which appeared to be an oversight or

missing at random (MAR) (Graham, 2009). In contrast, the high level of missing data for the ISM was in the main due to participants failing to complete full sections or pages (missing data for each question >80%), and therefore missing not at random (MNAR) (Graham, 2009). Focus groups confirmed this, and revealed that participants felt the questionnaires took too long to complete. Further, teachers in the control group did not persist in making sure that the participants completed the questionnaires.

There was a further problem with missing data in the control group with the gender variable. This had not been accounted for in the questionnaires, as the study used participants' names and class lists as a method of collating gender information. The percentage of boys and girls thus could be calculated from school lists, However it became difficult to identify an individual participant's gender in each questionnaire as some of the control group completed their questionnaires during assembly, not in class where the class list could be checked. Additionally, some of the names were illegible from the scribbled handwriting on the questionnaires. Due to the level of missing data for gender across measures, gender has not been accounted for as a variable. Nevertheless, an analysis of 'gender known' questionnaires was carried out which found no significant differences for gender across measures.

To conclude, multiple imputation of high levels of missing data here may result in bias in favour of the hypothesis (Allison, 2000, Graham, 2009) as the data could not be considered MAR. Accordingly, it was decided to use the mean scores of completed items in the analysis of the GK data given the low levels of missing data (< 10% for any question) and to exclude all of the data from the ISM with its more biased and problematic higher levels of missingness. Additionally, the Engagement questionnaire superseded the ISM as it covered many of the same areas, with better reliability.

7.10.1.5 Descriptive Statistics for the GK and EQ Questionnaires

The pre and post means and standard deviations for the responses to the GK and EQ questionnaires are shown in Table 7:6.

Table 7:6

Pre- and Post Means and Standard Deviation of Dependent Variables

	Intervention Group		**Control group**	
	Pre- M (SD)	Post M (SD)	Pre- M (SD)	Post M (SD)
GK	*n*= 154	*n*= 147	*n*=162	*n*=90
	11.08 (3.53)	13.75 (3.42)	11.69 (3.44)	11.51 (3.54)
EQ	*n*=154	*n*=148	*n*=163	*n*= 87
	41.37 (5.94)	43.53 (6.93)	41.59 (6.52)	43.89 (5.87)

7.10.1.6 Goal knowledge questionnaire

A 2 x 2 x 2 mixed ANOVA (with group and year group as independent variables and time-point as the repeated measure) and scores on the GK as dependent variable revealed significant main effects for group (F (1, 233) = 5.19, p = .024 ηp^2 = .22), indicating that intervention group scores were higher than the control group scores, and for time-point (F (1, 233) =53.85, p <.001, ηp^2 = .188), indicating that overall post-test scores were higher than

pre-test scores. There was no significant main effect of year group (F (1, 233) =1, p =.909 ηp^2 = .000), indicating that there no difference between the overall scores for S3 and S4.

There was a significant group x time-point interaction in the predicted direction (F (1, 233) = 40.98, p <.001, ηp2 = .15). Follow up t-tests revealed that the source of the interaction was a significant score change across time-point in the case of the intervention group (t (146) = 9.85 p < .001, two-tailed test) but no significant score change in the case of the control group (t (89) < 1, p = .514, two-tailed test). The three-way interaction effects of time-point x group x year group failed to reach significance (F (1, 233) = 1.65 p = .199, ηp2 = .007) indicating that there was no difference in the intervention effect across the two year groups. Finally, there was no significant interaction of goals x year group (F (1, 233) <1, p = .878, ηp2 = .000).

7.10.1.7 Engagement questionnaire

A 2 x 2 x 2 mixed ANOVA (with group and year group as independent variables and time-point as the repeated measure) and scores on the engagement questionnaire as dependent variable revealed significant main effects for group. There was a significant main effect of time-point (F (1, 231) = 13.56 p <.001, ηp2 = .055), but no significant main effects of group or year group (all F-values < 3.01 all p-values > .084). However, there was a significant interaction between group and time-point (F (1, 231) = 7.35 p =.007, ηp2 = .031). Follow up t-tests revealed that the source of the interaction was a significant score change across time-point in the case of the intervention group (t (147) = 5.29, p = .001, two-tailed test) but no significant score change in the case of the control group (t (86) < 1, p = .342, two-tailed test).

The group x year group interaction was also significant (F (1, 231) = 4.06 p =.045, ηp2 = .017). Follow up t-tests revealed that the source of the interaction was a significant difference between the post-intervention scores for the S4 intervention and S4 control groups

in favour of intervention (t (110) = 2.945 p = .005, two-tailed test). There were no significant group differences for the S3 year group (all t-values <1 and all p-values > .635) nor for the pre-intervention scores for the S4 age group (t (134) < 1, p = .797, two-tailed test).

None of the other two-way interactions nor the three-way group x year group x time-point interaction were significant (all F-values < 1.407, p-values > .237).

7.11 Qualitative results

Qualitative results were obtained from the CI questionnaires for teachers and pupils, in addition to pupil focus groups, to investigate the views of teachers and pupils at the end of the intervention period.

7.11.1 Questionnaire analysis

Content analysis (Hsien & Shannon, 2005) was carried out on the questionnaire responses using a grounded theory (Robson, 2011). This method of analysing qualitative data "uses a systematic set of procedures to develop an inductively derived grounded theory about a phenomenon" (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p24). Categories, like themes, can be defined as segments "of text that is comprehensible by itself and contains one idea, episode or piece of information" (Boyle, McCartney, O'Hare & Forbes, 2007). Open coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994) was used to construct categories. Reliability of coding the categories was checked by two independent researchers (Miles & Huberman, 1994) to provide inter-rater reliability of coding (Gwet, 2002). Researchers independently reclassified comments, with an agreement of 92% or above for all questions. All sample data was checked by two researchers. Disagreements in coding were resolved through discussion.

Themes are reported together with number (and percentages) of mentions. Percentages have not been provided for the teacher questionnaires as there were only 6

respondents. Illustrative comments are also provided reported to indicate the range of opinion recorded (editorial clarifications are in square brackets). All comments are included for the focus groups.

7.11.2 CIQ Teacher responses

There were discussions between the co-facilitators before and after each of the four sessions to review how the previous session had gone and to plan for the next session. In addition, each teacher who co-facilitated the programme (*n*= 6, two teachers co-facilitated two classes) completed the CIQ anonymously to give them the opportunity to raise issues they may have felt uncomfortable doing during informal discussions. The emergent categories are presented in tables below for all questions in the CIQ. All co-facilitators used GOALS vocabulary in their responses and all stated that they would recommend the programme to colleagues. Many of the comments made by the teachers were similar, therefore a sample of comments were used to illustrate responses.

Table 7:7

Question 1: At what point in the sessions did you feel most engaged?	
Response *n*	**Illustrative comments**
Goal Ladder (5)	*Goal ladders – helpful in breaking down what they [pupils] need to do.*
Banana Skins (4)	*I think the pupils found it useful identifying banana skins.*
Group work (2)	*When classes were working in groups I was surprised how well they [pupils] participated.*
Dream Team (2)	*I felt that the pupils were engaged during the dream team discussion.*

Table 7:8

Question 2: At what point in the sessions were you most distanced?	
Response *n*	**Illustrative comments**
No comment (4)	*None*
Discussion exercises (1)	*Initial circle discussions when pupils were reluctant to speak out.*
Strengths session (1)	*I was surprised how difficult the pupils found strength and strength building sessions.*

Table 7:9

Question 3: What action that anyone (teacher or student) took during the sessions did you find most helpful?	
Response *n*	**Illustrative comments**
Group work (5)	*When pupils were in groups completing tasks, they were more responsive and answered better when brought back together as a whole.*
	When a pupil gave a really good answer- or a full answer this encouraged the others to get involved.
Other (1)	*Facilitator's consistently positive approach to including/encouraging as many pupils as possible.*

Table 7:10

Question 4: Did anything happen during the sessions that were confusing or puzzling?	
Response *n*	**Illustrative comments**
No (6)	*None*

Table 7:11

Question 5: What surprised you most about the class?	
Response *n*	**Illustrative comments**
Pupils working well together (5)	*Some pupils who are usually reluctant participants were very willing to contribute.*
	The usually quiet children from the unit took part well.
	The best participant in the class is a pupil who is sometimes in trouble in the classes.
Focus of class (1)	
	Groups were chosen at random – I was surprised how well they worked together.
	How quiet they [class] were at times they were asked questions.

Table 7:12

Question 6: What will you do/have done since GOALS to change your practice?	
Response *n*	**Illustrative comments**
Target setting (4)	*Target setting vital to link 'goals' to subjects and review pupil support cards with them in light of the work done in the programme.*
	I have used the principles of GOALS during ASP target setting and during pupil support meetings. It has been particularly helpful when the pupil has also completed the programme.
	I use the GOALS ideas in pupil support meetings.
	I feel I can now deliver a lot of the materials myself but I feel very much that the class benefited from a different person/fresh approach.
Goal ladder (2)	*Definitely use goal ladder ideas.*
Dream team (1)	*I have used the Dream team work in meetings.*

Banana Skins (1)	*I will use this in group work so pupils who are unclear about future can participate and not feel even more uncertain about what they want to do.*

7.11.3 Summary

The responses to the teacher questionnaires suggest that the co-facilitators felt that the GOALS programme had a positive impact on their classes. The goal ladder section was seen as very effective as well as the banana skin discussions. They all felt that the sessions were clear and there were no confusing aspects of the programme. Many of the teachers were surprised how well the pupils worked together, with even the more reluctant pupils taking part. All co-facilitators noted that they have changed at least one element of their working practice as a result of working on the GOALS programme. This ranged across levels from class work to more individualised work and pupil support meetings. There was a general consensus that the programme increased goal knowledge and was a helpful way for young people to think about their transition to post-school.

7.11.4 CIQ Pupil responses

A week after the pupils completed the four sessions of the GOALS programme, pupils were asked to complete the CIQ and return it to a box at the back of their class to ensure anonymity. Questionnaires were returned by 67% of the pupils (*n*=102). Inter-rater reliability checks were again carried out with 96% agreement. All samples were checked by two researchers. The emergent categories from the responses are shown below.

Table 7:13

Question 1: At what point in the sessions did you feel most engaged?	
Response *n (%)*	**Illustrative comments**

Goal ladder: 35 (34.3)	*Setting plans for the future.* *My goal ladder.* *Planning my own goal.* *Learning to achieve goals.*
Group work: 18 (17.6)	*The feedback after investigations [planning and discussing].* *Talking to my friends about it.* *During group activities.* *The teamwork.*
Dreams/vision: 17 (16.6)	*When we were talking about what we wanted to do when we are older.*
Goal keepers/busters: 8 (7.8)	*When talking about goal busters and goal keepers.* *Knowing what gets in my way so I can't achieve my goals.*
Dream Team: 6 (5.8)	*Discussing my dream team and how to ask for help.* *When she [facilitator] asked about our dream hob or career.* *Thinking about dream jobs or careers.*
Banana skins: 5 (4.9)	*What things were getting in the way of me achieving my goals.* *Thinking about banana skins on our ladders.*
Treats: 5 (4.9)	*When we got treats [sweets or fruit] when answering the questions.*
Strengths: 4 (3.9)	*Talking about your strengths*.
All of it: 4 (3.9)	*I was for it all.*
Multiple answers: 3 (2.9)	*The dream team and making the ladder.* *Making a goal ladder in the groups.* *I liked the goal ladder and goal busters.*
Questions: 1 (0.9)	*In the circle getting asked for our opinions.*
Rebounding plan: 1 (0.9)	*Thinking about what to do if we don't get it first time*.

Table 7:14

Question 2: At what point in the sessions were you most distanced?	
Response *n (%)*	**Illustrative comments**
None/don't know: 28 (26.4)	*None of it* *None it was good.* *Cannot remember.*
Vision/dreams/future: 15 (14.7)	*When asked about our future – what we wanted to be.* *When it came to the scales of what I want to do in the future.* *Vision scale.*
Strengths: 12 (11.7)	*When she [facilitator] asked us to try and identify our strengths.* *Thinking up strengths.* *Strengths part.* *Weird talking about strengths.*
Beginning of programme: 8 (7.8)	*At the start.* *At the beginning then I got into it.*
Goal ladder: 8 (7.8)	*Setting plans.* *The goal ladder.*
Dream team: 6 (5.8)	*Dreaming about future.*
Poster/group work: 4 (3.9)	*When we were doing group activities.*
Rebounding plan: 4 (3.9)	*Rebounding bit.*
Banana skins: 4 (3.9)	*Thinking about banana skins.*
Questionnaires: 3 (2.9)	*Questionnaires – too long.*
Advice/discussion: 3 (2.9)	*In the circle.* *When there was a bit of talking involved.*
Other people's goals: 2 (1.9)	*When others were planning their goals.*
Individual activities: 2 (1.9)	*During individual activities.* *When I was carrying on in the group.*

Behaviour: 1 (0.98)	

Table 7:15

Question 3: What action that anyone (teacher or student) took during the sessions did you find most helpful?	
Response *n (%)*	**Illustrative comments**
Goal ladder: 32 (31.4)	*Drawing the goal ladders for future jobs.* *Explaining the goal-ladder.* *Breaking down goals.* *How to reach your goal from your goal ladder.*
Advice/discussion/group work: 24 (23.5)	*When it came to my goals, my teacher told me to always have options and be optimistic.* *Discussing futures with friends.* *Talking as a class.* *When people listened and gave an idea.*
Don't know/not sure: 14 (13.7)	One pupil answered *yes* but did not clarify what was helpful.
Banana skins: 6 (5.9)	*Classmates suggesting ideas about banana skins and helping me realise some.*
All of it: 4 (3.9)	*It was all helpful.*
Dream team: 4 (3.9)	*Who is important to you?*
Strengths: 3 (2.9)	*When we were given some examples of strengths.*
Treats: 3 (2.9)	*Treats helped us focus.*
Rebounding plan: 1 (0.9)	*Rebounding plan.*

Table 7:16

Question 4: Did anything happen during the sessions that were confusing or puzzling?

Response *n (%)*	**Illustrative comments**
No: 81 (79.4)	*No – I knew what to do and what people were talking about.* *No everything made sense.* *Not really.*
Dream team: 4 (3.9)	*Thinking about the dream team.*
Rebounding plan: 3 (2.9)	*Rebound.*
Future/vision: 3 (2.9)	*Destination in the future.* *Thinking about what we will do when we grow up.* *Thought of finding a job.*
Group work 1 (0.9)	
Yes: 2 (1.9)	*Using sticky [post-it] notes.* No further clarification.

Table 7:17

Question 5: What surprised you most about the class?	
Response *n (%)*	**Illustrative comments**
Nothing/don't know: 39 (38.2)	Blank.
Classmates dreams/views: 22 (21.6)	*That everyone had very achievable goals, when broken down.* *[classmate] being pessimistic about herself.* *I found out a lot about friends goals and have a better ideas about how to achieve mine.*
It was fun/enjoyed it: 14 (13.7)	*It was fun as well as useful.* *That it was good.* *People in my class were interested in it [GOALS] and it wasn't boring.* *How much we talked about everything and it wasn't boring.* *I didn't think it was going to be good but it was.*

Working together: 12 (11.8)	*How everyone concentrated – the ones that carry on the most were the ones to join in more.* *Everyone took part.*
Self-realisation: 7 (6.9)	*It made me realise that I can achieve my goals if I make the effort.* *I realised I can achieve my goals.* *How a lot of people in my class said they lacked self-confidence. Me too.* *I actually answered a question.* *I was surprised to find I did know what I wanted to do and what goals I had.*
Banana skins 3 (2.9)	*Picture framing page.* *Most people's banana skins are the same.*
Vision: 2 (1.9)	*Just how many the class came up with.* *In discussions – people had actually thought about their future.*
Thinking about the future: 1 (0.9) Goal ladder: 1 (0.9) Dream team: 1 (0.9)	*How helpful it was.* *Never thought of it before.*

Table 7:18

Question 6:What will you do/have you done to achieve your GOALS?	
Response *n (%)*	**Illustrative comments**
Try harder/work hard: 34 (33.3)	*Do a little extra.* *Practice more.* *Try harder.*

	Study for exams.
Goal planning: 26 (25.4)	*Create a dream team.* *Dedicate myself to my goals* *Started on the first step of my goal ladder.* *I made a goal ladder.*
Applied to college/for a job: 12 (11.8)	*Nothing yet.*
Nothing/blank: 7 (6.8)	*Nothing at the moment – will after summer.* *Nothing yet.*
Speak to someone: 6 (5.9)	*Talk to someone that does the job I want to do.*
Thinking more: 4 (5.9)	*I've been playing my x-box less.*
Stay on at school: 8 (7.9)	*I'm going to stay on at school now to get a better education.* *Don't give up.*
More optimistic: 4 (3.9)	*I have been attending school.* *Will go to school.* *Coming to school every day.*
Better attendance: 3 (2.9)	
Don't know: 2 (1.9)	*Don't know.*
Careers advice: 2 (1.9)	*I have gone to see my career advisor as that was on my ladder.*
Started saving money: 1 (0.9)	*Putting money by.*

7.11.5 Summary of questionnaire responses

Pupils reported many positive aspects of the GOALS programme, particularly the goal ladder strategy for identifying and working on goals (*I started on the first step of my goal-ladder*). Another popular aspect of the programme was the group-work with many respondents valuing the opportunity to discuss their goals with their peers (*How everyone concentrated – the ones [pupils] that carry on the most were the ones to join in more*). Pupils' responses on what engaged them, varied greatly (11 different responses), from

'receiving feedback' to '*being asked our opinions*'. Similarly, there were 13 different responses to describe aspects they felt distanced from during the programme, similar answers to the engagement question (26.4% reported that they did not feel distanced at any point during the intervention). Many of the participants (79.4%) reported that the programme was clear to follow, stating that they did not find any aspect of the programme confusing or puzzling. Classmates future dreams and views were the most surprising element of the class (*that everyone had very achievable dreams when broken down*) (21.6%) followed by the fact that they found it enjoyable (*I didn't think it would be good, but it was*) (13.7%) and that the classes worked well together (*everyone took part*) (11.8%). 98.1% of respondents noted what they have done/or will be doing as a result of the goals programme. Working harder (*do a little extra*) (33.3%), Goal-planning (*create a dream team)* (25.4%) and applying to college/university or for work (11.8%) were the most common reports, however there were a range of responses (*n*=12).

7.11.6 Semi-structured group interview

Semi-structured group interviews (Harrell & Bradley, 2009) were conducted four weeks after the intervention to complement the data collected by questionnaires. A systematic sample of pupils from each school and each year group (who received the intervention) was invited to attend focus group discussions. Participants were chosen using stratified sampling using gender to distinguish between participants this was to ensure both male and female participant views were sought. Names were drawn from a box containing either boys or girls names to take part in the focus groups by the researcher. The optimum number of participants for a semi-structured interview group varies from 6-12 (Harrell & Bradley) however due to time constraints on the session time it was felt that a smaller number would be better to allow all participants ample time to answer questions. Therefore four groups were created each consisted of four participants and were made up of two males and two females. The rationale

for the group size was mainly due to time limitations so that the pupils would have the opportunity to have their views heard. There was a fifth group comprised three boys from school 2 who attended the school's language and communication unit. The fifth group was chosen separately to see whether or not they found the language in the sessions suitable.

7.11.6.1 *Procedure*

Participants were asked ten questions some of which base on the CIQ to further illuminate the pupils' views.

The researcher served as a moderator for each group providing clear explanation of the purpose of the group, using open questions to facilitate interaction between participants, and prompting to elicit participants experiences, encouraging everyone to contribute, and where required to refocus discussion back to the topic (Morais, 2010). An independent researcher also attended the groups to scribe the discussions, providing contextualised notes and summarizing key points on a flip-chart. Each focus group discussion lasted approximately 30 minutes.

7.11.6.2 Semi-structured group interview analysis

Reliability of coding the categories was again checked by two independent researchers (Miles & Huberman, 1994) and 96% agreement achieved. There were 166 coded categories altogether, 42 from group 1, 25 from group 2, 40 from group 3, group 4 had 35, and group 5 had 24. Of the total 95% were positive. Few negative aspects of the programme were described (see Table 7:18 at the point when they were least engaged) six respondents felt that the booklets were a little 'babyish' and that there could be more space to write notes on the booklets. The emergent categories relating to the GOALS intervention are summarized in Tables below.

Table 7:19 Summary of emergent categories from the groups

Question/topic	**Illustrative comments**
Goal setting	All groups correctly identified the 4 key points when setting goals; *Goals have to be specific, important to you, stated positively and under your control*.
Most engaged during…	**Goal ladder session** *I enjoyed the goal ladder it made me think about how I could break down what I had to do"* *yep the goal ladder – it made me think* **Dream team** *I got into the dream team thing too.* *Family inspire you.* **Banana skins** *The banana skins were good coz I realised I'm on facebook loads.* **Future/vision** *Probably the picturing what our lives will be like in the future.*
Most distanced during…	Most commented that they did not feel distanced at any particular point during the sessions. However some noted; *The back up-rebounding plan – didn't spend much time on this.* *It was hard to think of strengths – don't want to be a big head.* *Probably be good to have more time to do it.* *Questionnaires – too long.* *Founds strengths hard too – individual sessions on that would be better.* *Didn't want to mention goals at the start in case people laughed.*
Most helpful action by	*People talking about banana skins – banana skins can be good*

someone…	*or bad – made me think.* *Nothing really – just that everyone has goals and can achieve them.* *That everyone took part and shared ideas.*
Any confusing/puzzling times?	Most participants in the groups either said no or shook their heads (all 3 young people who attend the language and communication unit said they did not find any part confusing), however one noted: *Some people didn't know what job they wanted to do.*
Any surprises?	*People taking actually taking part.* *Finding out what job people wanted to do.* *Surprised how well the groups got on together.* *That no-one laughed.* *In the first week no-one talked but that changed.*
What have you done/will do since?	*Studied more.* *I've started a football team – I've changed my goal.* *I've researched it, studied more, got more information about it then spoke to my teacher.* *I went to the careers advisor and we talked about my strengths for my C.V.* *I talked to my mum and dad about jobs and the goal ladder stuff.* *I worked harder and got my maths exam done – I got a good grade!* *I looked up what I need to get to go to college.* *I've been saving up more, I know going to university will be expensive.* *I have started my goal action plan.* *I have found out more about being an accountant.* *I passed my dance exams – that was on my goal ladder.* *I went on a fire reach course because I want to be a fireman.*
GOALS in S3 or S4	All groups felt that S3 would be the best time to participate in the GOALS programme at school; *Better before you leave – maybe even before you pick your subjects.* *GOALSis helpful for you to focus do it in S3 and think about experience you need before S4.* *S2 too early. S4 too late.* *Better in S3- it's when you are starting to think about your job and leaving school.*

How can we make GOALS better?	*Strengths part was hard. I was carrying on that week, that's because we were talking about our strengths and it was difficult to talk about my strengths.* [how could we improve this part?] *think about your friends' strengths instead of yourself. Put up your goals and see if your strengths match?* *I thought the group work was good so probably more group work.* *More work on speaking out – that's a good skill.* *Also more individual work focusing on what you want to do.* *Questionnaires are too long – they ask the same thing a few times.* *It would be good if the programme was longer – more weeks.* *No…nothing really.* *Bring in people to talk about different jobs and stuff to do with leaving school.* *Longer than just a period, more time to spend in groups.*
Thoughts on the booklet?	*Good.* *Didn't really use it.* *It reminded me what tasks we were doing the work.* *Yeah it was ok.* *It was helpful to note down ideas and what we were doing.* *Could have more space for notes.*

7.11.6.3 Summary of semi-structured interview groups

Pupils spoke highly of the intervention with all members of all groups commenting that they enjoyed the participating in the programme (*I enjoyed the goal-ladder, it made me think about how I could break down what I had to do*). Every participant provided an example of how they followed up the GOALS programme by taking some degree of action (see Tables 7:17 and 7:18). As highlighted in the questionnaire responses many pupils found the strengths and skills section of the programme difficult, with some noting that it would be easier if it was not focused on them individually. The focus group confirmed and expanded upon the data gathered in the CIQ.

7.12 Summary of Key Findings

Returning to the research hypotheses, the following is a summary of the key findings of the study, which will be discussed in more depth in the following chapter.

- Participants' goal-setting knowledge increased in the intervention groups compared to the control group. Hypothesis confirmed.
- Young people's post-school engagement (goals directed to post-school success) increased in the intervention groups compared to the control group. Hypothesis confirmed.
- Evidence from points 1 and 2 suggest that goal-setting can be taught. Hypothesis confirmed.
- The significance of year group (either taught in S3 or S4) was not reported in the qualitative data as important, however qualitative analysis highlighted that S3 may be a more appropriate timing for the intervention.
- Pupils found the intervention to be enjoyable and accessible.
- Teachers found the intervention enjoyable, accessible and feasible for classroom use.

7.13 Limitations of the Study

There were some limitations in the study:

1. The amount of missing data caused by unanswered questions, particularly in the control group.
2. The amount of time it took for participants to complete the questionnaires
3. The scoring issues with the shortened version of the ISM questionnaire.

These will be discussed in more depth in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 8 DISCUSSION

8.1 Can goal setting be taught?

The aim of this study was to develop and evaluate a brief goal-setting programme for adolescents which can be taught in secondary schools, and focuses on the transition from school to post-school. The hypotheses stated that goal-setting can be taught and that teaching goal-setting would increase participant goal-setting knowledge and would increase participant engagement in post-school related activities compared with the control group (see aims and research questions, p. 98).

The review of universal school based programmes designed to teach goal-setting to adolescents reported in Chapter 4 indicates that there is currently no specific programme that teaches goal-setting appropriately. The programmes available that contain an element of goal-setting merely presumed a prior knowledge of goal-setting by the participants and did not directly teach the skill. The GOALS programme was then designed by the author to specifically teach goal-setting based on the GFTG programme (Danish, 2002) and is rooted in evidence-based implementation strategies commonly used in high schools, including CBA and SFBT. It was hypothesised that the GOALS programme would increase participant goal-knowledge and engagement in post-school behaviours (i.e. seeking out opportunities or steps towards their goals). The results confirm that goal-setting can be taught and that the GOALS programme is an effective method of teaching it.

8.2 Increase in goal-knowledge

The findings suggest that there was a significant intervention effect on participant goal-setting knowledge compared with the control group. There was a medium effect size on goal-knowledge, the results were consistent with the findings of the study by Danish (2002).

Increasing goal-setting knowledge is aim of the programme, it also aims to increase participant post-school behaviour intentions (engagement). The results show that 98.1% of

participants reported that they took action on their goal plan (goal-directed behaviour) in response to participating in the programme.

8.3 Increase in post-school engagement

The findings suggest that although the intervention had a statistically significant effect on participant engagement, it is possible that the results could have been impacted by a ceiling effect of the EQ. Participants who had already reported high levels of engagement at time-point 1 had no way of increasing their score at time-point 2 which may not provide a true representation of participant engagement at time-point 2. Additionally, the relatively small 4 week duration of the programme may not have been sufficient for participants to feel that there was a significant difference in their engagement, perhaps a time-point 3 follow up would yield different results. It is felt that the measure is not sensitive enough to measure the small changes that may occur in participant engagement.

8.4 The GOALS programme as a universal intervention

The universality of schooling in Scotland makes schools the ideal place for the delivery of interventions for children and young people. This is particularly true for adolescent interventions as adolescents may be very aware they are being singled out for individual interventions, providing more general support than more therapeutic interventions would allow (Stallard, 2007). Additionally, a programme directly targeting an 'at risk' group that did not include peers not at risk may not provide helpful role models with positive future goals and appropriate goal plans. This may have a negative impact on group discussions and the engagement of the group, ultimately devaluing the programme. Nevertheless, it is important to also consider the advantages and disadvantages of a universal program for those *not* at risk: the programme may be unappealing to participants as they may feel that it is of little benefit to them (Offord, 2000) reducing engagement thus making it difficult to detect an overall intervention effect. In some circumstances a universal programme could be

considered unnecessarily expensive (due to resources and staffing) however the GOAL programme can be taught within a regular class setting and the resources are free to download. Most importantly, no clear divide separates 'at risk' pupils from other children who could benefit regardless of 'at risk' status (Barnett, Brown and Shore, 2004). Barnett et al., (2004) also note expansion for universal coverage takes time and that implementers need to be cautious not to move quickly to universal coverage, possibly compromising quality. The authors propose delivering the intervention to the 'at risk' group first with the eventual goal of universal coverage for all.

Future research could compare the effectiveness of the GOALS programme as a universal programme and as a 'targeted' intervention for at risk adolescents to show the most effective method of programme delivery for young people at risk of missing out.

The main study was originally aimed at S4 pupils, as this represents the first exit point from school. However, school staff were of the opinion that S3 may be a better age and stage for implementation. The significance of year group (whether it should be taught in S3 or S4) was not identified in the quantitative data as important, however qualitative data analysis highlighted that S3 may be a more appropriate timing for the intervention. Focus groups revealed that participants felt that S4 was too late to think about goal-setting as they were about to leave school. S2 was also suggested as a suitable time to implement the programme as this was when pupils selected subjects for their standard grades. Nonetheless the findings show that goal-setting can be taught effectively in various year groups (or perhaps in mixed age groups, in different settings) again adding to the universality of the programme. In contrast, other research has argued that universal programmes, in the main, are not enough to have a significant impact on the higher risk children (Weissberg, et al., 2003). The current study shows that the 'at risk' group of young people can be targeted successfully using a universal programme.

Using secondary schools to facilitate GOALS is recommended, taking into account that when adolescents leave school implementing interventions can prove even more complex to deliver since it can be difficult to track young people after they leave school (Scottish Government, 2012). The lack of enrolment at other establishments or partnership agencies is a factor in the problems with tracking school leavers' destinations. Therefore the outcomes of transition focused interventions emphasise positive impact rather than positive destinations.

Research has demonstrated an association between locus of control or perceived control in adolescence and a successful transition to adulthood. Other moderating variables in this combination are critical life events, peer influences, interaction between engagement. Expectations of post-school success or failure are related to attributions and one's perception of control. Pupils who feel that they have control over their transition, may be more likely to take action to produce positive outcomes and develop an expectation of success, than those who feel like they have no control (Seifert, 2004). This again highlights the importance in helping young people take control of their own transition, as if pupils believe they have some control over outcomes they are more likely to persevere, and to take action to realise their goals.

8.5 "At Risk" Participants

Chapter 2 discussed the importance of supporting young people 'at risk' through post-school transition as an unsuccessful transition may have a detrimental effect on the young person's future wellbeing (Boyle, 2004 & Storms et al., 2000). A future study of the GOALS programme could investigate the specific benefit to young people at risk as a targeted intervention. While a median split of pre-intervention scores might have been used to divide the sample into higher and lower engaged groups this would have been problematic in regard to ceiling effects in the case of the higher engaged group and regression to the mean in the lower engaged group. A more appropriate approach for a future study would be to identify a

further measure of engagement which could be used to determine group membership in terms of pre-intervention levels of engagement.

However in line with previous research (Dent & Cameron, 2003; Gilligan, 2000; Schoon & Bynner, 2003), the mainstream delivery of the programme could prove the best method of delivery to this group of young people. Teachers who co-facilitated the programme reported that pupils who present as disengaged or who can withdraw from lessons were more actively involved in the GOALS sessions, than observed in other classes. This may be attributed to the structure of the programme; more focus on discussion, less on writing. The structure of the sessions adopted a more "student centred" approach rather than the more traditional "teacher centred" approach to learning (noted in Chapter 3) this approach may have led to the increased engagement in the programme, consistent with the literature.

8.6 Towards a conceptual framework

TPB was proposed as a possible candidate conceptual framework and outlined at the end of Chapter 4 this model was helpful in framing the study within the literature reviewed. However other conceptual frameworks may also be beneficial (Michie, et al., 2014). The results of the study demonstrate a possible link between goal-setting knowledge, pupil engagement and post-school behaviour and so, it is not surprising that pupils with a higher goal-setting knowledge would be predicted to an orientation towards successful post-school pursuits.

The framework takes account of pupil *presage* factors (which can either be risk or resilience factors). The GOALS programme aimed to develop participants' attributions, while using peer support to role model positive post-school subjective norms in a bid to develop pupil internal locus of control. In essence, the programme supports pupils to take more responsibility in accessing post-school opportunities available to them by developing their resilience.

The framework highlights that implementation of post-school interventions may be best directed at the *process* stage, at the point where pupils are thinking about their behaviour intent and engagement in post-school related activities. This could be another reason why the programme may be best suited to S2 or S3 pupils, as this may be the stage they are at; requiring engagement and direction to ignite their behaviour intent. S4 pupils may be past this stage and already on the *product* or outcome stage. Nevertheless, it is believed that it is never too late to embark on goal-setting for one's future.

From the research presented it would seem necessary that for pupils to use their goal-setting skills in context would be for them to: 1) have some experience of taking control of their own learning; 2) gain some success from using the skills and; 3) notice the connection made (their actions producing outcomes). Theoretically this would build on pupil attributions, leading to higher engagement and more successful uptake of post-school opportunities.

8.7 Sustainability of Intervention

Chapter 3 discussed the literature supporting the idea that implementation and sustainability of an intervention can be affected by a number of factors particularly feasibility and accessibility. The results for the main study in Chapter 7 show that the programme is both feasible for use in the school context and is easily accessible for teachers and other education staff.

There is evidence to suggest that generally, interventions lasting nine months or more (at least a school year) are more likely to be effective that short interventions (Greenberg et al., 2001). Nevertheless, the brevity of the GOALS programme should not be seen a disadvantage of the programme. The programme is designed to specifically teach goal-setting skills and therefore can be delivered within a brief time frame. It is hoped that this skill can then be utilised to maximum effect within other adolescent programmes throughout the curriculum.

Chapter 3 argued that sustainability is key to implementing a school based programme. Short-term interventions, requiring very little resources or outside training and delivery are more likely for schools to implement. The GOALS programme requires minimal training and support for the facilitator. The relationship the facilitator has with the group, is important and this can be established throughout the sessions, or if implemented as part of an established class the relationships should already be evident.

In addition, the briefness of the 4 sessions assists in the feasibility of use of the programme as it is easy to fit within a full curriculum, with competing demands on teachers' time. It allows for adaptations or modifications based on the class's previous experience and feedback from both students and school staff. The 4 session group format appears to be both suitable for school staff to run (feasibility of time) and successful in helping pupils develop or maintain motivation for post-school success. Schools are more likely to implement and sustain interventions that are brief, as it will have fewer demands on staff time. Cost is also an issue for schools and is taken into account when selecting programmes and interventions.

The GOALS programme requires relatively little training and the workbook can easily be printed from Portable Document Format (PDF). The nature of the discussion generated in the sessions can also provide the teacher with the opportunity to observe those pupils who do not have clear goals or who have certain barriers to their goals, and allowing the teacher to work with this young person on an individual basis. Teachers who co-facilitated the GOALS programme used the language and strategies in the programme to structure subsequent pupil support meetings with young people who participated in the programme.

8.8 Strengths and Limitations of Current Study

Both pupils and teachers found the intervention to be feasible and accessible for classroom use. The programme was also considered enjoyable, with participants keen to

recommend the programme to their friends. The programme was deemed clear to follow, as no confusion about the content of the programme was reported. Participants also seemed to like the language and concepts used in the programme, most specifically using goal-ladders to map out goals.

Pupils commented on the opportunities for group work within the programme and reported that this, and working on their goal-ladders as the elements of the programme in which they were most engaged. This type of group work helps build peer support and peer encouragement, which are important influences on adolescent motivation (Danish, 2002; Fredricks et al., 2004; Hartup et al., 1986; Wentzel et al., 2004; McInerney et al., 2005). Participants found the views of their peers and their peers goals and ambitions for the future one of the most surprising elements of the programme, e.g. "*I was surprised that everyone had very achievable goals, when broken down*" and "*I found out a lot about friends goals and have a better idea about how to achieve mine*." The level of qualitative data compared with similar studies could be considered strength of the current study as it allowed for triangulation of results and checked participants' understanding and interpretation of the quantitative measures. It also provides a richer analysis of the self-report data.

The GOALS programme achieved the requirements set out at the end of Chapter five, page 85. Therefore the programme:

- Can be successfully delivered within the time constraints of a high school period
- Can be successfully delivered in class
- Is successful as a brief intervention, consisting of only four sessions however more sessions can be added to build on sessions. However, using less that 4 sessions is not recommended
- Does not require too much writing (as it is more discussion based)
- Does not require too much reading

- Allows for group discussions
- Successfully uses a goal-ladder as a planning tool

Many school based interventions assume a certain level of goal-setting knowledge prior to implementation, asking participants to set goals, without training on how to appropriately do so. GOALS can be used as a stand-alone programme in addition it could be used as a pre-cursor to other adolescent interventions that have a goal-setting element providing direct teaching or goal-setting so that goals set are more likely to be achieved. The brief nature of the programme also allows for easy fit within an already extensive secondary school curriculum.

The study aimed to implement the GOALS programme in accordance with implementation science (discussed in Chapter 3, p39) (Dean & Schneider, 1998; Schoenwalk and Hoagwood, 2001; Weissberg et al., 2003; Wiggins, Austerbery and Ward, 2012). In addition a critical realist epistemological stance was adopted (Robson, 2011). In essence, the study used theoretical knowledge of goal-setting and successful universal interventions to underpin the study's methodology, creating and evaluating within the 'real' context of schools based on relevant theory. Using this framework strengthened the methodology of the study as it allowed the researcher to consider aspects of the programme's implementation prior to delivery.

Evaluating programmes can raise the issues of programme fidelity and facilitator bias. It was felt that the study addressed and monitored both of these issues successfully by having one consistent co-facilitator to retain programme fidelity and integrity. More positive outcomes have been found when a programme is delivered by, or supported by members of the research team (Gillham, Hamilton, Freres, Patton & Gallop, 2006). This also allowed for a general overview of the groups and allowed for provision of regular and consistent support

to other co-facilitators. The study attempted to address facilitator bias by having different co-facilitators for each group (one co-facilitator was involved in the delivery of two groups). This allowed for different views and experiences of the programme.

The CIQ was a helpful tool in eliciting pupil reflection on the programme, allowing participants to think about aspects of the programme content and delivery that they felt distanced from or engaged in. The CIQ responses were collated one week following the intervention and the responses were anonymous. There was a 67% return rate (data on response rates). Nevertheless, it may have been more useful if the CIQ was administered after *each* session to allow for contemporary within context changes and organic planning. The reason this was not used after each session was that the study could not afford the time (the sessions were time restricted to 50 minute school periods). It would be helpful to include the CIQ at the end of each session in future studies as it can help build trust and reflection within the group (Brookfield, 1995). This study used the instrument to measure actual action outcomes and a direct effect of the intervention once the intervention was complete.

The limitations of self-report measures are mainly due to the reliance on participants answering truthfully or reliance on participant's perceptions of events and themselves. Another measure of change could be a more direct measure of the participants skill observed by academics and practitioners (Humphrey, Curran, Morris, Farrell, & Woods, 2007). Although not the focus of the current study, this was achieved indirectly through observations of pupil goal-setting plans and actions throughout the sessions and in pupil workbooks. If participants were not successful at developing their goal-plan they were supported within the group by both peers and facilitators until they grasped the concepts and could produce a successful goal-plan (evidence of their goal-setting skills). Although self-report measures do not actually measure what the participant actually does, it merely captures what they might do (which may be a source of dissonance). Self-report measures were considered to the best

option for the current study due to their ease of use across large groups. Additionally the study was interested in participant attributions therefore self-reported changes were required.

The most significant limitation to the study was missing data, particularly on the ISM questionnaire, which was quite lengthy and took considerable time to administer. Conversely there was very little missing data for the EQ, perhaps because this questionnaire had a simple design which was easy to administer and score. The control group was the biggest source of missing data in the study. This could also be attributed to the length of time to administer the questionnaires and the fact that the administrators were not involved in the study and had no interest in making sure the questionnaires were complete. There could have been better communication between the researcher and the administrators to convey the importance in completing the questionnaires, in one instance one set of questionnaires at time-point 2 was administered to the wrong class (a class that had not completed the questionnaires at time-point 1). Nevertheless, on reflection the questions required from the ISM may have been superseded by the questions asked in the EQ.

The missing data is an issue for almost all statistical analyses and there are a variety of methods to handle this. To decide on how to handle missing data it is important to know why they are missing. The data from the main study is unlikely to be missing completely at random. Looking at the data it is likely that the data is missing due to the length of the questionnaires as discussed which can often be the case with lengthy questionnaires (Field, 2009). If the data was missing completely at random imputation may have been considered however the ignorability assumption was preferred in this instance as sufficient information was gathered (VanderWeele, 2008). Additionally, the researcher did not feel confident in reporting data not actually observed.

As previously mentioned the ceiling effect on the EQ was an issue for those who had reported high levels of engagement at time-point 1. Unsurprisingly (given the ceiling effect),

a few scores on the EQ decreased post intervention. In addition, measurement error may be attributed to the fact that after discussions of post-school opportunities the young people may have felt at time-point 1 they were particularly engaged however at time-point two (post-discussion) that they may not have had not considered aspects of their post-school transition and felt that they were not as engaged as they had first thought.

The concept of 'self' can be difficult define (Burden, 2010) and yet an understanding of 'self' is important when teaching goal-setting (Danish, 2002). This self-knowledge is important in encouraging adolescent internal locus of control and engagement. Due to the broad nature of self-theory studies evaluations have to rely mainly on self-report measures. As noted above, a common critique of self-report measures is that the respondent may answer differently from what they say they do to what they actually do. This type of measure relies on self-perception. An increase in positive self-perception in its self has a powerful effect on one's engagement and motivation for the task. Self-report measures were regarded as the best fit measures for this study.

8.9 Further research

Although the structure and techniques of GOALS is evidence-based it would add to the evidence-base of the programme if further independent replications of this study were made. Longitudinal studies including follow-up studies of the participants would also be helpful in determining longer term effects of GOALS and whether or not the goal-setting skills learned were transferred across contexts in participants' lives, as GOALS aims to be the development of life long usable skills. In addition, as previously mentioned, a study comparing GOALS as a target intervention for 'at risk' pupils compared to a universal study would prove beneficial in helping to support vulnerable adolescents during transition.

Future research developing and testing out a conceptual model for adolescent post-school engagement would be advantageous in understanding the relationship and interaction

between adolescent theories and sustainable behaviour change. This would have a significant impact on future intervention.

8.10 Implications for the role of the EP and next steps

The current research was conducted by an EP working in a local education authority. The intervention programme was also developed by the same EP in a bid to address the perceived need to support young people in making and achieving goals within the authority. As was argued in Chapter 2, post-school transition is a difficult time for adolescents and those considered more 'at risk' can disengage from the process and become NEET.

The next step from the current research is to revise the GOALS pupil workbook, taking account of the feedback generated from the participants. In particular, the workbook would be further enhanced if it were of professional publication standard, rather than the basic colour printing used. The workbooks could work well designed similarly to the little books (LLTTF, Williams, 2007) as the little books contain similar vocabulary and have clear colourful layout. Additionally the conceptual framework outlined in Chapter 4 could be developed to offer a helpful model of the link between GOALS and post-school transition.

As the results of the study showed a particular benefit of the GOALS programme for 'at risk' adolescents, the researcher will also pilot the programme in Post-16 Learning Hubs within the researcher's Local Authority, as well as secondary school establishments. The Learning Hubs were set up as part of an Activity Agreement to engage young people who are not currently in education, employment, or training. Young people are supported in the Hub which aims to create a personalised learning programme for the young person.

8.11 Conclusion

The transition from school to post-school can be a difficult period for young people, particularly during the uncertainty of today's economic climate. Young people may not have the confidence or knowledge to successfully access opportunities available to them without

support. Chapter 4 explained that goal-setting is regarded as an effective tool in developing behaviour intentions for successful outcomes. It is clear that the ability to set appropriate goals is important in motivating and achieving success. Nevertheless, the skill of 'goal-setting' is seldom discreetly taught. Establishing some control over one's future life choices would appear to be a critical factor in avoiding many negative threats to one's wellbeing. Motivation and confidence to access post-school opportunities using goal-setting strategies could be the key to engaging 'at risk' pupils to go further into education, employment or training. Learning goal-setting skills has increased in popularity and use in many disciplines from business, sport and health and has proved equally useful in the school context. Concerns about young people missing out on life chances, and the role of schools in supporting them has been the subject of much debate nationally and internationally as young people dropping out of education, employment or training is significantly on the rise. Schools need to better equip their pupils for today's society, and one area that teachers can teach these skills is within the classroom. The GOALS programme could be a starting point in which to explicitly teach goal-setting, providing the skills for a successful transition from school to post-school. As people with more focus, may experience more opportunities in life, increasing life success (happiness).

It has been argued that sustainability is key to a programme's success within a school environment. The GOALS programme can be easily delivered by teachers with relatively minimal training from the developer, with the inclusion of fidelity checks. It is time-efficient, and fits within CfE, ASL, and GIRFEC frameworks. Therefore, GOALS is potentially a sustainable and effective intervention that has demonstrated an increase in participants' goal-setting knowledge and engagement through the teaching and promotion of goal-setting skills, which gives young people an essential life tool.

The design and language of the programme proved popular with the participants. The programme functioned well as a group activity and the pupils were happy to discuss their goals for the future. The intervention has the potential to be a popular, affordable and effective approach to post-school awareness.

In conclusion, the study's findings are consistent with the literature stating that teaching young people the skill of goal-setting will increase their ability to set and achieve goals for their future. The GOALS programme may be considered a helpful tool, assisting educators successfully engage young people in accessing opportunities available to them.

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Appendix A

Dear Parent/Guardian,

Thinking about leaving school is both an exciting and anxious time for you and your child. It is the time in your child's life where they have to make decisions about their own future. Your child's school has been invited to take part in a programme called ***GOALS (Grasping Opportunities After Leaving School)*** which is designed to help young people think about their goals in life and helps them to find ways to achieve them.

The programme will be run during school time as part of your child's PSHE (personal, social and health education) time allocation. Your child will also be following the school's planned PSHE programme after they complete the GOALS programme. The GOALS programme will run for four weeks during.

To help us to evaluate the impact of the programme some information about your child may be sought via the school (i.e. attendance, school meal allocation and leaving destination). This information will remain anonymous and will only be used as an overall statistic. Your child will also be asked to express their views about the programme, once the programme is complete, in addition to filling out a questionnaire before and after the programme. Again the information sought will be anonymous and will only be used for research purposes. Your child can withdraw from the sessions at any time, without reason and this will have no affect on their school curriculum.

Similar Programmes have been used with young people across Europe and America as a way of empowering young people to take charge of their own futures. The programme is designed to be fun and stress free.

Could you please complete and rip off the permission slip below and hand into the school before the **Christmas holidays 2009**.

Thanks

Clare Daly
EP

If you require any additional information, please contact:
Clare Daly at claredaly@ea.n-lanark.sch.uk
Psychological Service, Barons Road, Motherwell ML1 2NB
Tel: 01698 476871

GOALS Programme

If you require any more information, please contact:
Clare Daly at claredaly@ea.n-lanark.sch.uk

I agree to my child participating in the programme.

I understand that information sought from my child will remain anonymous and agree to the information being obtained.

I am aware that I/we may withdraw permission at any time.

My child's name is _____ **Class:**_____

Signed: _____ **Date:**_____

Please complete and hand in before 22/12/09. Failure to do so on time may result in your child missing out on the programme.

Thank you.

Appendix B **Goal Knowledge Questionnaire (*Danish, 2002)***

NAME_____SCHOOL_____DATE_____

Please circle the BEST answer to each question.

---

1. **Which of the following goals is positive?**
   a. I do not want to get into trouble in class
   b. I will save my money to buy a pair of trainers.
   c. I hope I do not forget to clean my room.
   d. I do not want my parents to shout at me.

2. **Which of the following goals is specific?**
   a. I want to get better results at school.
   b. I want to get a job.
   c. I want to save £25.
   d. I will eat better food.

3. **Which of the following goals is important to the person trying to reach the goal?**
   a. I want to practice so that I can become a better football player.
   b. I want to do better in school so my parents will be happy.
   c. I will go to supported study because my teacher thinks it will help me.
   d. I will attend the meetings because my brother said I should.

4. **Which of the following is under the person's control?**
   a. I want my maths teacher to be easier on us.
   b. I will practice my maths problems every night.
   c. It will work only if my parents agree to let me go.
   d. I want to win the lottery.

5. **Which of the following goals is reachable?**

a. I want to own the McDonald chain of restaurants.

b. I want to spend a night at the White House.

c. I want to read one book per month.

d. I want to find a million pounds.

6. How can you make a goal easier to reach?

a. Hope for good luck to help you.

b. Break into smaller steps.

c. Try hard to do it all at once.

d. Take risks to get there faster.

7. What is important to do when starting towards a goal?

a. Stop everything else except trying to reach the goal.

b. Promise your parents you will do your best.

c. Make a commitment to the goal.

d. Go to school every day.

8. What can get in the way of reaching a goal?

a. Watching T.V.

b. Quitting school.

c. A friend who always wants to mess around.

d. All of the above.

9. When you have to make a hard decision, what should you do first?

a. Try to make the decision quickly.

b. Lie if you have to.

c. Stop and chill out.

d. Think of a way to get out of it.

10. In making an important choice, what should you do?

a. Think of all your possible choices.

b. Make the easiest one.

c. Let someone else make the choice.

d. Put it off as long as possible.

11. When things become really hard while working for a goal, what can you do?

a. Just keep working harder.

b. Take a holiday.

c. Choose a different goal.

d. Let friends and family help you.

12. What should you do to decide how a choice will affect your ability to reach a goal?

a. Try to find a book about what might happen.

b. Just go ahead and see how it turns out.

c. Anticipate the consequences of each choice.

d. Take a good guess.

13. When you have trouble reaching a goal, what should you do?

a. Choose a different goal.

b. Try a new way to reach it.

c. Get someone to do it for you.

d. Just keep doing the same thing.

14. How is accomplishing a goal important?

a. It rewards and motivates you.

b. It gives you something to do.

c. It makes you better than others.

d. It makes you become popular.

15. Which of these is the best stated goal?

a. I want to find £100.

b. I want to do better at school.

c. I want to run one mile per day.

d. I want my football coach to pick me for a game.

16. What is one of the most important things about a goal?

a. That it will make you popular

b. That other people approve of your goal.

c. That it is easy to teach.

d. That it is reachable.

17. What is the first step towards having a goal?

a. Asking your teacher what it should be.

b. Identifying a dream you have.

c. Copying a friend's goal.

d. Taking a good guess about what you should do.

Appendix C

The School Engagement Questionnaire

Adapted by Daly (2009) from Lonsdale, Hodge & Jackson (2007)

NAME_____SCHOOL_____DATE_____

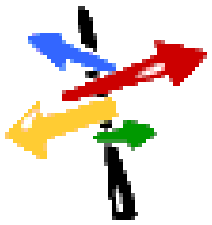
Below are some statements people have made about their experiences in school. Using the scale provided, please indicate how often you have felt this way about your participation in school this year. There are no right and wrong answers, so do not spend too much time on any one question and answer as honestly as you can. Some items may appear similar but please try to respond to all statements by ticking the appropriate box.

	Almost never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
	1	2	3	4	5
I believe I am capable of accomplishing my goals in school.					
I am dedicated to achieving my goals in school.					
I feel capable of success in school.					
I feel capable of success after I leave school.					
I am determined to achieve my goals in school.					
I am determined to achieve my goals after I leave school.					
I am enthusiastic about school.					
I believe I have the skills/techniques to be successful.					
I am devoted to doing well at school.					
I am confident in my abilities.					
I want to work hard to achieve my goals.					

Appendix D

GOALS Workbook

Grasping Opportunities After Leaving School



Pupil Workbook

Who is important to you?

Think of two people that are important to you…
One person you know and one from a TV/Movie/book

These people are called GOAL keepers

Think of someone whose behaviour … at times… can cause trouble…

We all know someone like this.
This person is a GOAL buster!

Destination?

My future!

10 years from now…

What will you be like?

My future…

home?

…Car?

…Job?

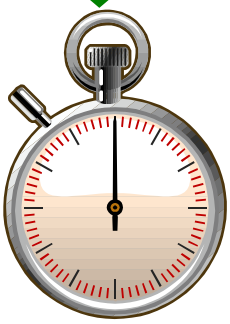
…Hobbies?

Turning dreams into GOALS…

Some examples…







What are your GOALS for the future?

For GOALS to be successful they need to be…

- ***Stated positively***
- ***Stated specifically***
- ***Important to you***
- ***Under your control***

Sometimes things just aren't within your control,
e.g. "I wish the maths exam was easier!"

What is your dream job or career?

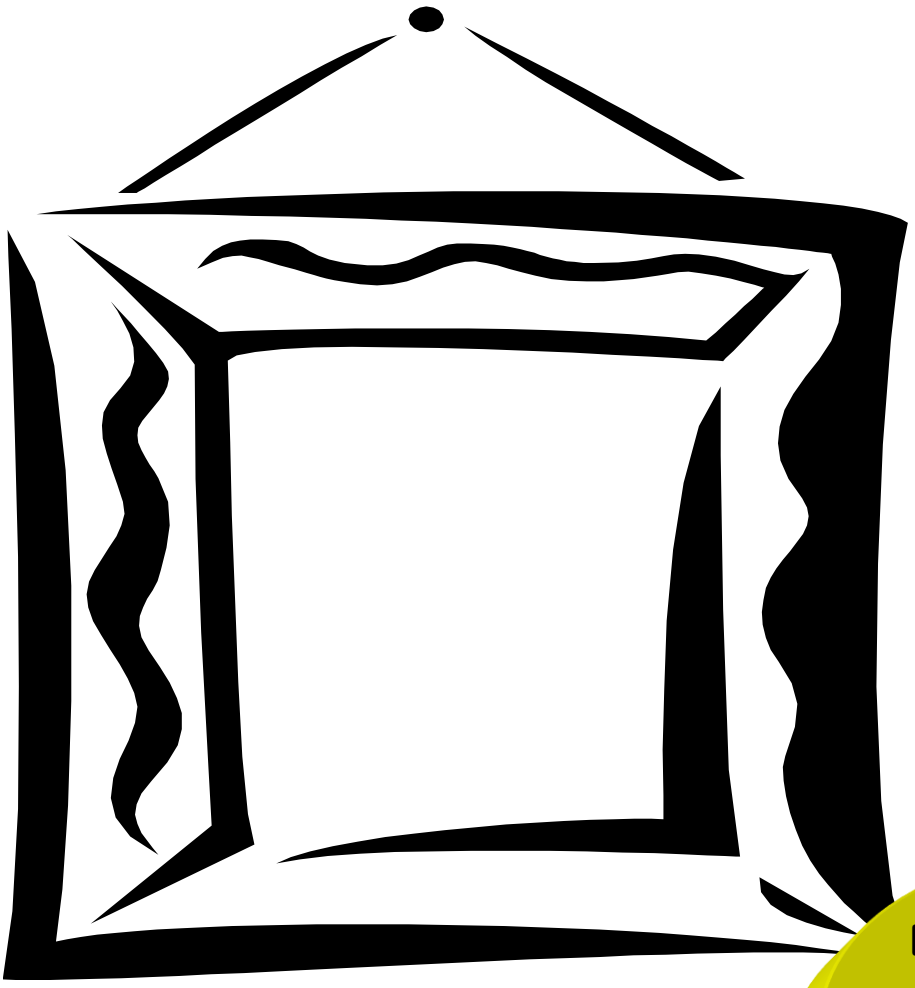
On the scale below rate how realistic it would be to achieve this job or career.

1_____10

Not realistic **Very realistic**

Think of a career GOAL that can be achieved in the next three weeks

How do you picture this GOAL?



Remember to check it fits with the GOAL criteria!

Do you know what you will need to do to achieve it?

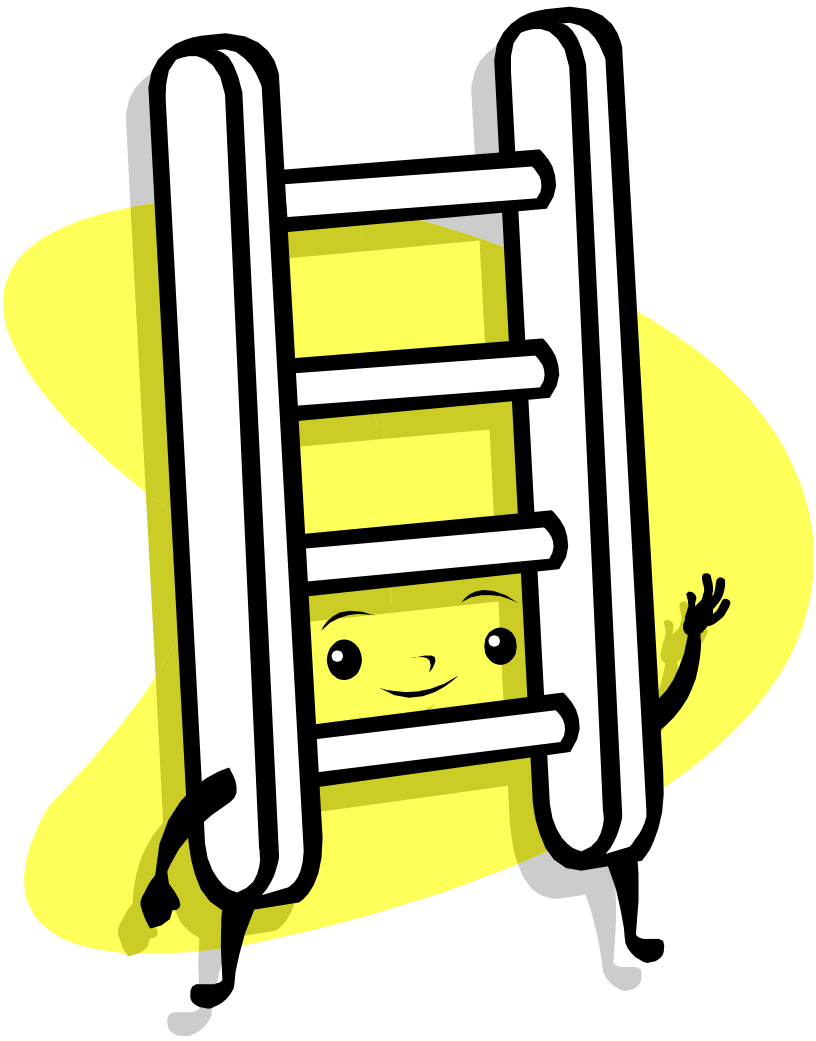
How will you know when you have reached this GOAL?

Having GOALS for the future tells us where we want to be.

First we need a plan!

The plan can be called a

GOAL LADDER



MY GOAL LADDER

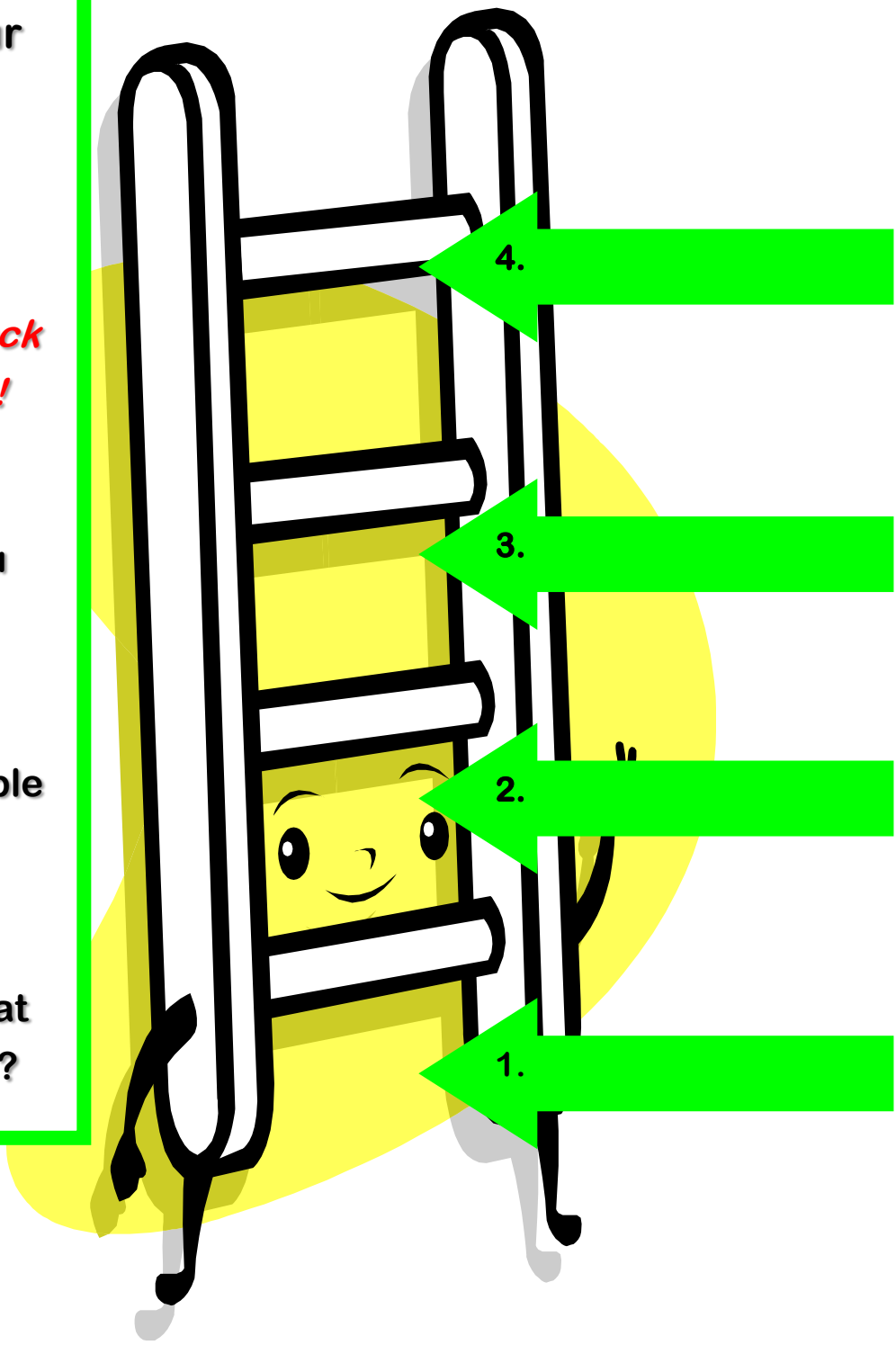
Break down your GOAL into four steps…

Remember to check the GOAL criteria!

What step can you do this week?

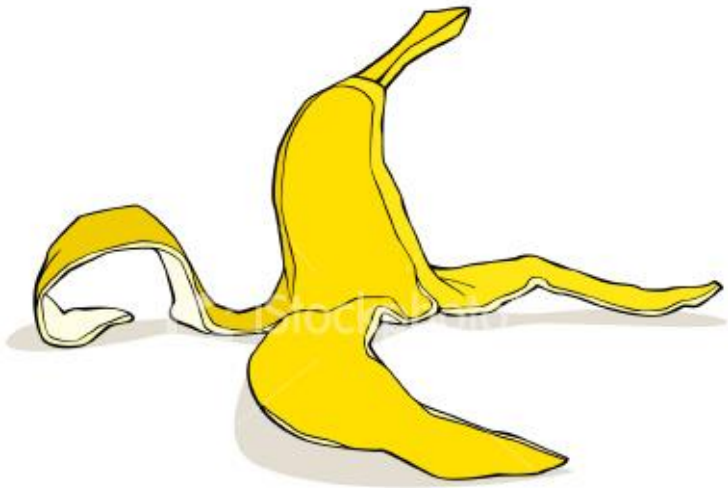
How will you be able to do this?

Who will notice that you are doing this?



Making a GOAL ladder is a great start… but sometimes things happen that get in the way!

These things can be like banana skins on your GOAL ladder!

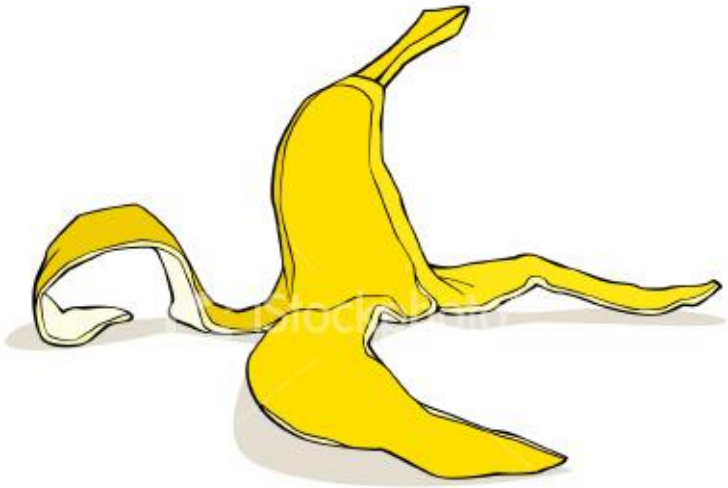


Banana skins are often hard to spot!

e.g. fights, drugs, alcohol, not going to school, lack of confidence, giving up too easily…

The first step in overcoming banana skins is learning how to identify them!

How will you identify your banana skins?



When you come across a banana skin… *remember STAR!*

Stop (and take a deep breath)

Think (of all your choices)

Anticipate (the consequences)

Respond (with the best choice)

Seeking 

Everyone needs help at times …
We just need to know where to get it!

Create a Dream Team

This is a list of people who can help you reach your goals and dreams…

Important characteristics of a good dream team are people who:

- *You see often*
- *Know what you can do*
- *Are concerned about you*
- *You can depend on*
- *You could help at another time*

My Dream Team

Remember…
there are two kinds of help: caring and doing.

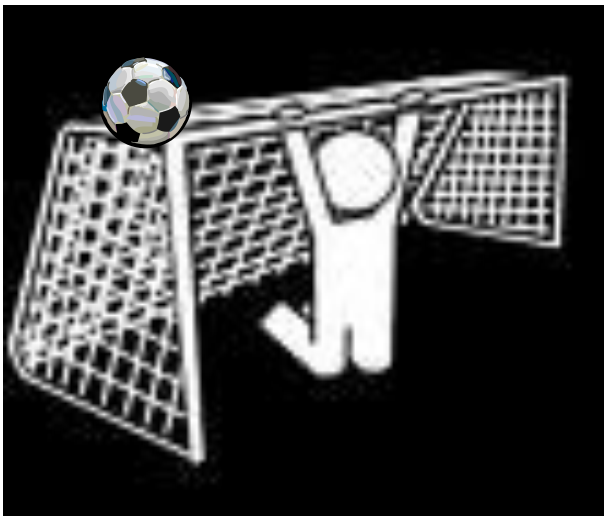
Put a star at caring helpers and a tick at doing helpers (some people do both).

Name	Caring	Doing

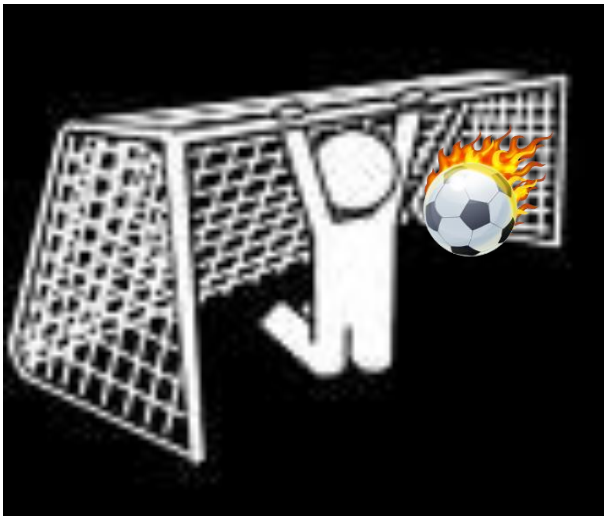
Do you need to add other members to your dream team?
Are there any other resources you could use in your dream team?
Speak to someone from your dream team and discuss your GOALS!
Think about how you will ask for help!

We don’t always reach our GOALS first time. Instead of giving up we need to learn to rebound!

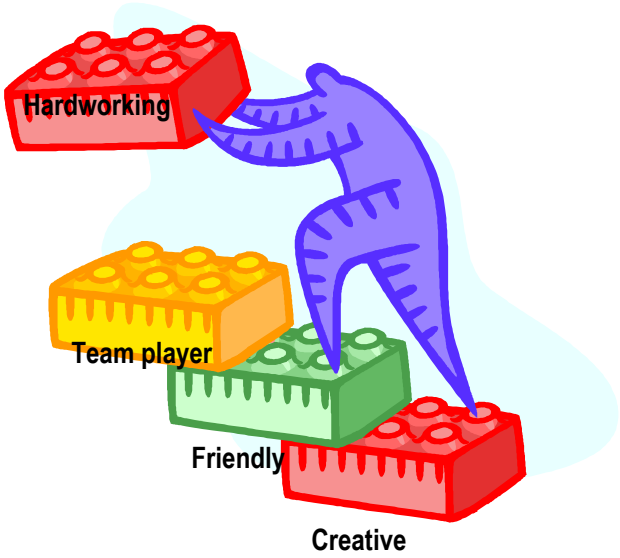
How will you rebound?



What is your rebounding plan?



Identifying and building strengths



Can you remember something you are really proud of?

What did you do?

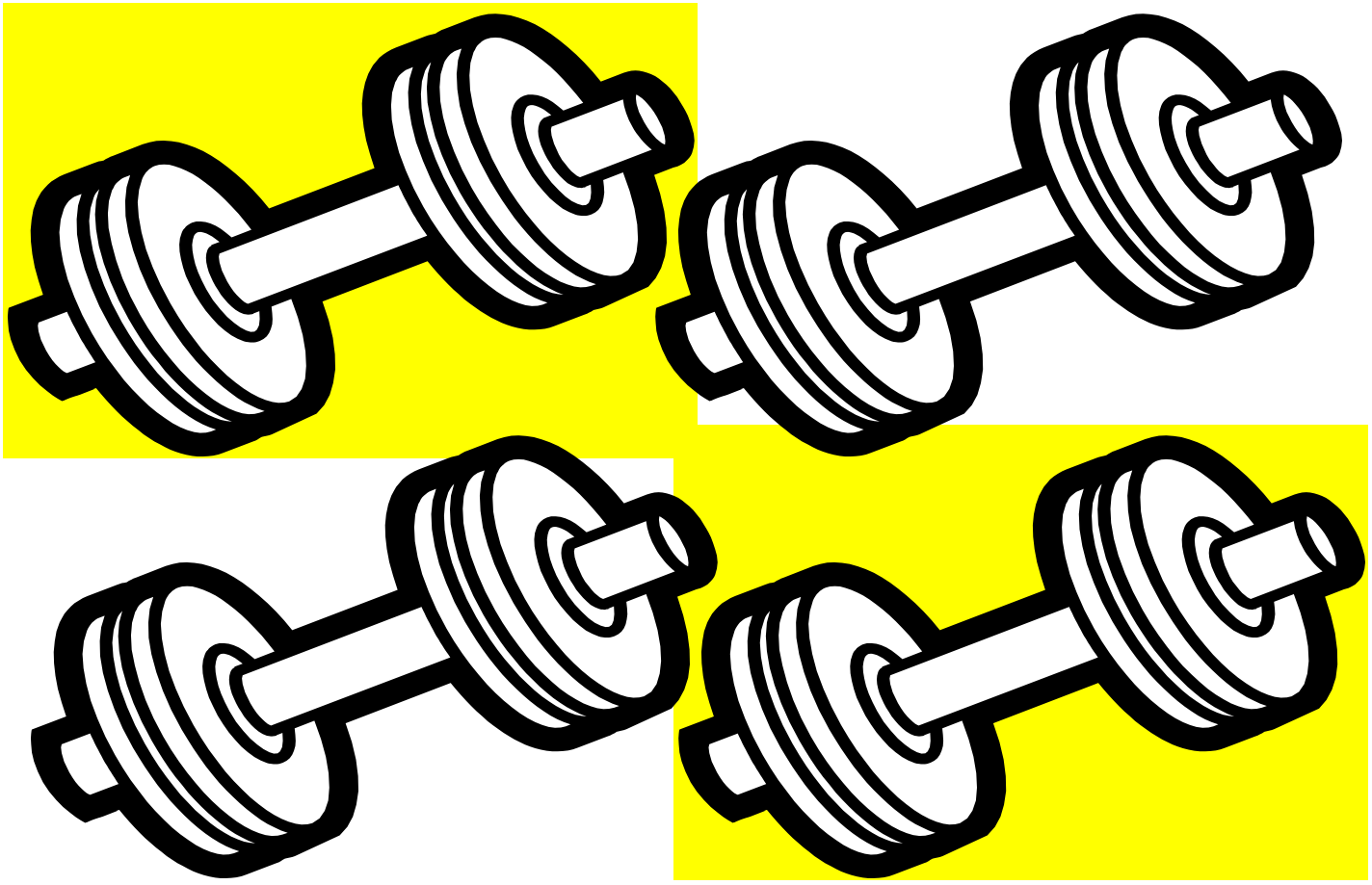
What strengths did you show?

My Strengths

Everyone has strengths and everyone's strengths are different!

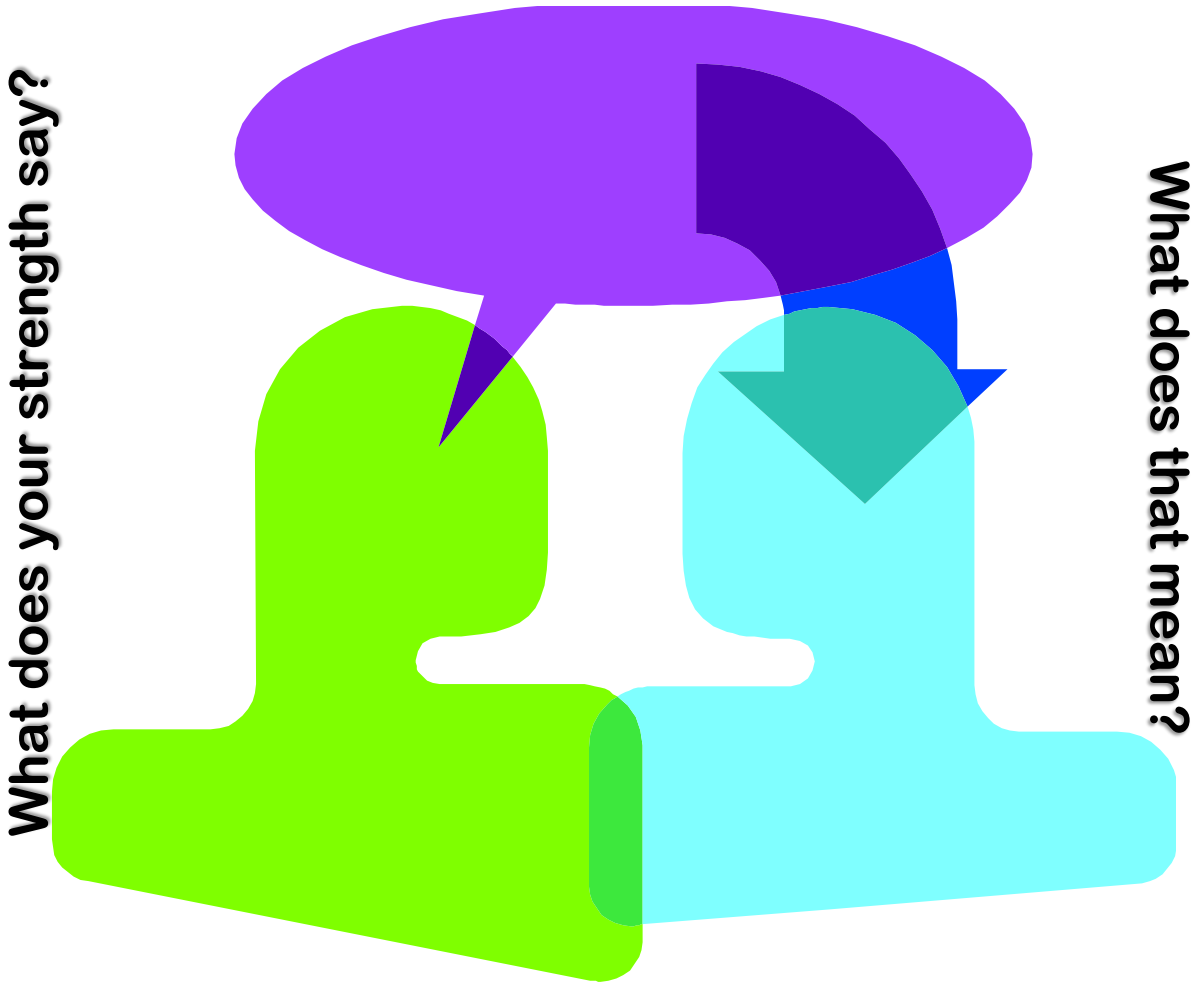
What would you like people to know about you?

Name your top four strengths:

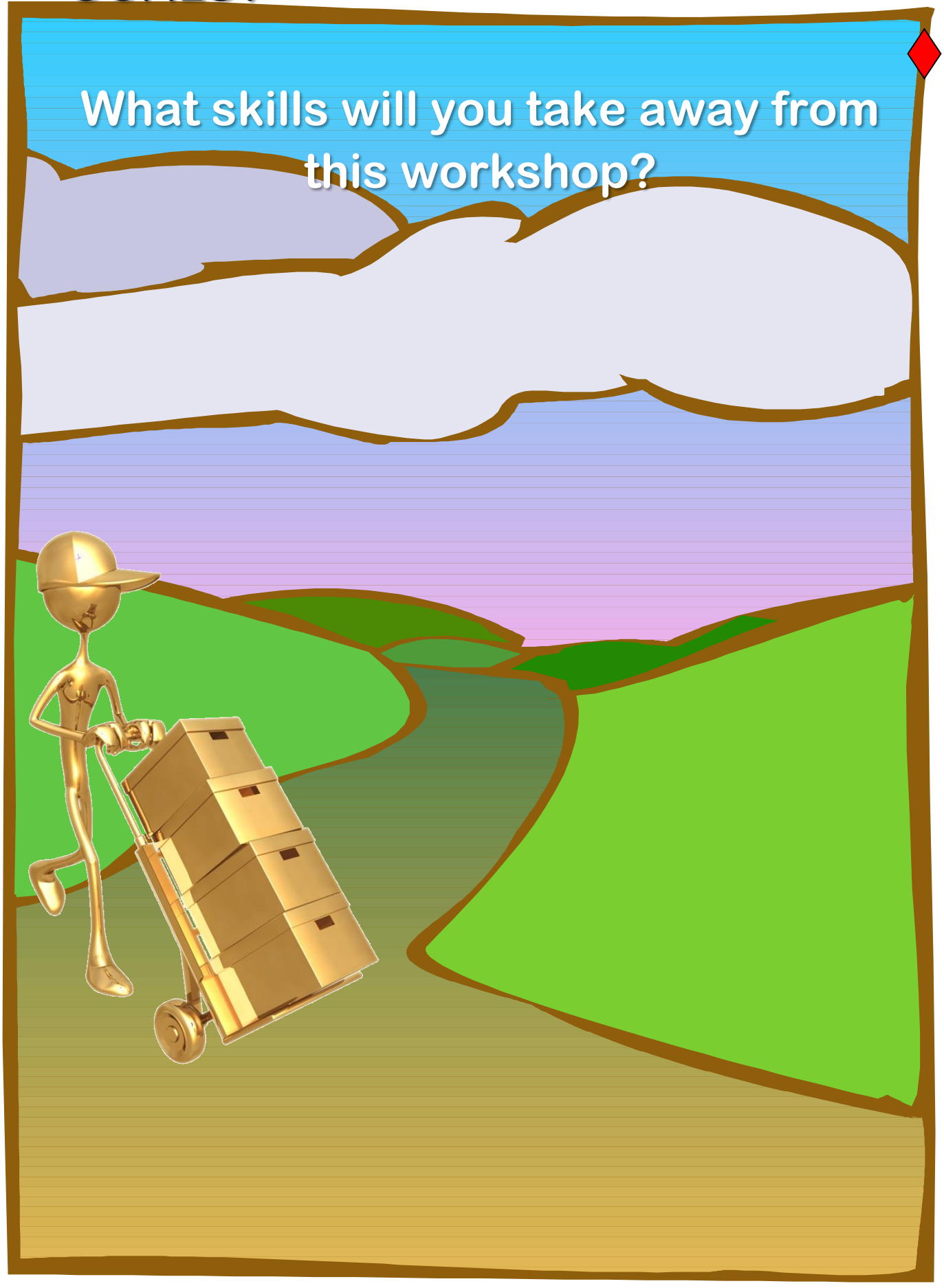


What would your strengths say about you?

Using your strengths to support your GOALS



How will they help you achieve your GOALS?



Well done! You are now well on the path to achieving your GOALS

Notes

Appendix E **GOALS programme evaluation**

(based on Critical Incident Questionnaire, Brookfield, 1995)

Please take about five minutes to respond to the questions below about the GOALS sessions in class. Don't put your name on the form – your responses are anonymous. Thanks for taking the time to do this. What you write will help us make the sessions more responsive in the future.

---

1. **At what point in the sessions did you feel most engaged with what was happening?**

2. **At what point in the sessions were you most distanced from what was happening?**

3. **What action that anyone (teacher or student) took during the sessions did you find most helpful.**

4. **Did anything happen during the sessions that were confusing or puzzling?**

5. **What surprised you most about the class? (this could be something that someone else did, or anything else).**

6. **What will you do/have you done to achieve your GOALS?**