

**Exploring the Impact of Equine
Facilitated Learning on the Social and
Emotional Well- Being of Young People
Affected by Educational Inequality**

J.V. Carey 2016

PhD

Exploring the Impact of Equine Facilitated Learning on the Social and Emotional Well-Being of Young People Affected by Educational Inequality

A thesis presented to Dublin City University for the Degree of Doctor of
Philosophy

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I hereby certify that this material, which I now submit for assessment on the programme of study leading to the award of PhD is entirely my own work, that I have exercised reasonable care to ensure that the work is original, and does not to the best of my knowledge breach any law of copyright, and has not been taken from the work of others save and to the extent that such work has been cited and acknowledged within the text of my work.

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Exploring the Impact of Equine Facilitated Learning on the Social and Emotional Well-Being of Young People Affected by Educational Inequality

Jill Carey

Abstract

The overall aim of the present study was to examine the impact of an Equine Facilitated Learning Programme on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. A mixed methods design was used, with a longitudinal quantitative element employed to examine changes over time in key variables, and qualitative methods used to explore experiences of the programme. Dependent measures included the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ), The Piers Harris Self Concept Scale (PH) and the Youth at Risk Programme Evaluation Tool (Yar-Pet). Participants were 88 young people (male = 62, female = 26) aged between 8 and 18 years with an average age of 13 years of age ($SD = 2.20$), along with their parents and teachers. Quantitative data were collected over three time points. The second time point included interviews with the young people, their parents and teachers selected from those who had participated in the quantitative data collection at time one and time two.

Retention of participants was high in the young people group (72%), but lower in the parent (54%) and teacher (59%) groups. Quantitative and qualitative data were initially analysed using One-Way and Two-Way repeated measures ANOVA and thematic analysis respectively. Patterns were then identified from both data sets to highlight evidence of convergence and divergence of findings. Significant differences from the One-Way repeated measures ANOVA were observed in several measures including the Strengths and Difficulties Parents Total Difficulties and Peer Problems; Teachers Prosocial and Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact Supplement; Youth At

Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Young Persons and Teachers total score; Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Teachers Personal and Social Objectives; and the Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale Total score, Physical Appearance, Freedom from Anxiety and Popularity sub-scales. Two-Way repeated measures ANOVA for young people in the clinical and non-clinical range reported significant findings for participants who were in the clinical range, based on self- reporting (Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Total Difficulties). Overall, integration of the data suggest that positive changes in the young peoples’ self-awareness and relational skills, as two of the five social and emotional competencies used as part of this study, is likely to be associated with participation in the Equine Facilitated Learning Programme. The use of multiple informants in a mixed methods approach was found to be especially insightful as it provided a deeper understanding of the benefits of the EFP beyond the objectives of the study, including the sense of calmness experience by the young people after the EFP sessions, how the EFP encouraged the young people to develop their resilience levels during sessions and suggestions about how the programme can help generalise the young peoples’ learning across the family and school setting. A review of the theoretical frameworks indicate that Social Cognitive Theory combined with Biophilia Hypothesis provide an improved understanding of how EFPs may be effective in promoting social and emotional well-being. As this is one of the few studies which has used a mixed methods approach these findings hold significant potential for the future development of EFPs as alternative intervention for young people with social and emotional difficulties.

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1. Background to the Study

A growing body of research indicates an increase in the number of young people presenting with social and emotional difficulties both internationally and nationally, with a greater number from socioeconomically disadvantaged areas and a higher prevalence amongst boys (Cooper, Masi & Vick, 2009). Within the education sector, nurturing a young person's social and emotional well-being may be considered equally as important as academic attainment (Hallam et al., 2005). Hallam and colleagues (2005), in discussing a young person's hierarchy of needs, argues that social and emotional well-being, as the lower order needs, must first be fulfilled, followed by behaviour and attendance and finally academic attainment. As such, a young person's social and emotional well-being almost becomes a prerequisite to their academic achievement, a view also supported by other researchers (Durlak, 2010, 2011; Greenberg et al., 2003; Zins 2004).

Although there is a clear link between social and emotional difficulties and educational failure, as there is between social and emotional difficulties and socioeconomic disadvantage, it is not necessarily the case that these factors can predict socioemotional or educational outcomes (Shipman, Schneider & Brown, 2003). There are various factors that come in to play such as individual resilience, social and cognitive competencies, external social supports and parental characteristics which may also contribute towards a young persons' positive socio emotional outcomes (Rutter, 1979). Whilst one factor associated with socioeconomic disadvantage in and of itself may not result in a young person developing poor social and emotional well-being, a number of factors, once combined, greatly increase this likelihood. In acknowledgement of the importance of social and emotional well-being and educational equality, there has been

an increase in the number of social and emotional well-being interventions developed within schools both internationally and nationally. Zins (2003) found that such programmes were particularly effective for young people affected by educational inequality. Equine facilitated programmes (EFPs), as one intervention, are increasingly being used to promote social and emotional well-being of young people affected by socioeconomic disadvantage.

1.2. Overview of the Study

The aim of the present study is to develop an understanding of the potential role of an EFP in improving the social and emotional well-being of young people between the ages of 8 and 18 years, affected by educational inequality in an Irish context attending both Delivering Equality in Schools (DEIS) primary and post primary schools. Whilst the scale of educational inequality is too vast to be addressed by a simple programme, the study aims to promote positive outcomes which may potentially counteract educational inequality in the context of the various other supports that exist within the School Support Programme which are discussed in greater detail in Chapter 2.

This study uses a mixed methods approach to examine how an EFP may impact on a young person's social and emotional well-being. The framework being used for the current study is that put forward by the US based Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL, 2015) which suggests that social and emotional competencies lie within five interrelated skills areas including *self-awareness*, *social awareness*, *self-management* and *organisation*, *responsible problem solving* and finally *relationship management*. These competencies are recognised as increasing a young person's likelihood of engaging with and completing their education (Goodman & Gregg, 2010; Gorard, 2010). As boys are reported to display higher levels of social and

emotional difficulties, (Cooper et al., 2009) the study also examines gender differences of young people on the social and emotional competencies. The study also examines the young peoples' experiences of their participation in the EFP and how this can potentially contribute to developing a deeper understanding of the EFP mediating factors. Finally, the study examines the young peoples', parents' and teachers' recommendations for future EFPs.

Key concepts that are central to the study are defined, and an outline of the thesis chapters is then presented. Figure 1 below illustrates the overall study aims and objectives highlighting which study objectives were quantitatively and qualitatively measured. Figure 1 will also be used to illustrate the quantitative study objectives in Chapter 6 and the qualitative study objectives in Chapter 7 and are highlighted in yellow in each chapter to emphasise each set of study objectives.

The research assistant’s role is further outlined in greater detail in Chapter 5. Figure 2 below illustrates the role of the researcher and that of the research assistant for each stage of the data collection and analyses.

Research Assistant	Researcher	Research Assistant	Researcher
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative Data Collection at T_1, T_2 and T_3 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analyses of Data Collected at T_1, T_2 and T_3 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Qualitative Data Collected at T_2 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analyses of qualitative data collected at T_2 Supervised by both thesis Supervisors

Figure 2 Overview of Data Collection and Analyses at each Time Point

1.3. Key Concepts

The concepts of social and emotional well-being, educational inequality and EFPs, are referred to continuously throughout this study.

1.3.1 Definition of Social and Emotional Well-Being

Whilst there is growing evidence relating to the value of developing a young person’s social and emotional well-being (Poulou, 2007; Watson & Emery, 2010) the literature offers a number of different terms (Brauner & Stephens, 2006; Elias & Kress, 2000; Hoffman, 2009; Humphrey, Lendrum & Wiglesworth, 2010; Mayer & Cobb, 2000). These have included terms such as emotional literacy, social competence, emotional regulation and emotional intelligence (Barblett & Maloney, 2010), personal and social development (National Behaviour Support Service [NBSS] 2006), and social and emotional and behavioural skills (Guide to Social and Emotional Learning in Queensland

State Schools, 2011). The World Health Organisation (WHO) states that “*good mental health enables people to realise their potential, cope with the normal stresses of life, work productively, and contribute to their communities*” (World Health Organisation, 2015, p.5).

Although there are varying definitions of social and emotional well-being (Humphrey et al., 2010) they generally encompass three key elements. The first element relates to emotional well-being which is indicated by a person’s feelings of happiness and self-confidence. The second dimension refers to psychological well-being, typically reflected in a person’s ability to problem solve, manage emotions, behave empathically and demonstrate resilience. The third and final indicator of social and emotional well-being refers to social well-being, indicated by an ability to develop and maintain positive relationships with others and characterised by an absence of behavioural difficulties (National Institute for Health and Care Excellence [NICE], 2013). Increasingly, recognition of the value of social and emotional well-being is reflected in the growth in interventions and programmes now being provided to young people in education (Jones & Bouffard, 2012). As outlined at the start of this chapter, the definition of social and emotional well-being that is used for the current study is that put forward by the CASEL, (2015) suggesting that social and emotional competencies lie within five interrelated skills areas including *self-awareness*, *social awareness*, *self-management* and *organisation*, *responsible problem solving* and finally *relationship management*.

In Ireland, approximately 15,000 young people were diagnosed with social and emotional difficulties attending both primary and post-primary schools (National Council for Special Education [NCSE], Banks & McCoy, 2011). Barry (2012) suggests that

approximately 25 per cent of Irish young people presenting with emotional and social well-being difficulties are associated with factors such as school failure or delinquency. There is clear evidence that young people with social and emotional difficulties are at higher risk of school disengagement and early school leaving than their peers with well- developed social and emotional competencies (Quiroga, Janosz, Lyons & Morin, 2012). The Department of Education and Skills (DES) Universal Programme of Social, Personal, Health and Education (SPHE) addresses the need to promote and develop a young person's social and emotional well-being in both primary and post-primary schools. In recognition of the risk for young people from socioeconomically disadvantaged areas developing social and emotional difficulties, the School Completion Programme, a key strand of the School Support Programme of the Delivering Equality in Schools (DEIS), is responsible for sourcing and providing programmes and interventions aimed at enhancing a young person's social and emotional well-being. The main focus of the study is on the continuum of social and emotional well-being, recognising that social and emotional well-being has a positive end and an extreme negative end. It is within this context that the current study is examining the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality.

1.3.2 Educational Inequality

Defining equality in education has two dimensions (OECD, 2007). The first dimension is that of *fairness*, suggesting that a young person's personal and social obstacles should not prevent them from achieving their potential. The second dimension is that of *inclusion*, and the need to ensure that all young people have a minimum standard of education. These two dimensions are brought together in one model which defines equity in education, *No More Failures - Ten Steps to Equity* which are based on

fairness, inclusion with the third element which describes how *resources* should be prioritised towards those most in need (OECD, 2007).

In the Irish context, the Education Act of 1998 (Department of Education and Science, 1998: 32; 9) defines educational disadvantage as “*the impediments to education arising from social or economic inequality which prevents students from deriving appropriate benefits from education in schools*”. This definition was criticised for being too broad and lacking specificity (Kellaghan, 2001), leading Jeffers (2002) to suggest that the Combat Poverty Agency’s definition (CPA, 1998) offers a more comprehensive description:

“the complex interaction of factors at home, in school and in the community (including economic, social, cultural and educational factors) which result in a young person deriving less benefit from formal education than their peers. As a result they leave the formal education system with few or no qualifications, putting them at an inequality in the labour market, curtailing personal and social development, and leading to poverty and social exclusion” (p2.).

Educational disadvantage is therefore seen as a series of active processes which results in educational inequality (Dickson, Gregg & Robinson, 2013; Keogh & Whyte, 2008; National Economic and Social Forum [NESF], 2002; Tormey, 1999), a viewpoint closely aligned to Bronfenbrenner’s ecological systems theory, as a multifaceted phenomenon influenced by various bio-psychosocial factors (Kane & Hayes, 2010). The resulting problem of educational disadvantage is no longer seen as lying within the person, but within the wider structural societal inequalities. As such, the term educational inequality has replaced the term educational disadvantage reflecting the basic principles of equality of conditions as pre-requisites for educational equality (Lynch & Baker, 2005).

Educational inequality is a multifaceted phenomenon which has been shown to be influenced by various bio-psychosocial factors (Kane & Hayes, 2010) and a symptom of a broader range of societal issues (Combat Poverty Agency, 2003; Kellaghan, Weir, O'hUallachain & Morgan, 1995). Consequently, responses aimed at redressing the imbalances are complex and require the development of a range of resourced interventions including personal, social, cultural and economic factors (Cullen, 2000; Downes & Maunsell, 2007). Educational inequality is the context for the current study as it examines the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality.

For the purpose of this study, the term *educational inequality* as opposed to educational disadvantage will be used as it is most frequently cited within the literature and it is the context within which this study is being undertaken.

1.3.3 *Equine Facilitated Programmes*

The term equine facilitated programme refers to a wide variety of programmes involving people and equines. Programmes include both riding and non-riding activities and are used for young people, teenagers and adults in both the profit and not for profit sectors. La Joie (2000) noted the variations of the term whilst Selby (2009) and Selby and Smith –Osborne (2013) reported on riding and non-riding programmes both classified as EFPs. In its broadest sense, such programmes include equine facilitated psychotherapy and counselling and equine facilitated learning, coaching, management and training. However, such variations of the term can cause confusion. Remaining within the non-riding equine facilitated programmes of equine facilitated psychotherapy and counselling, sessions are facilitated by psychotherapists and counsellors who work with people with specific mental health issues. By contrast, equine facilitated learning

facilitators focus on areas such as self and social awareness, teambuilding and communication skills and other areas of personal development which can be used in the person's day to day interactions with others. For the purpose of this study, the term equine facilitated programme (EFP) will refer to both equine facilitated psychotherapy or counselling *and* equine facilitated learning, unless otherwise reported in the relevant section. This study is concerned with the non-riding EFPs as distinct to riding EFPs of Therapeutic Riding or Hippotherapy.

1.3.4 Children and Young People

The terms children and young people are used interchangeably throughout this thesis and refer to young people up to the age of 18 years of age. The Irish Child Care Act (1991) and the Children Act (2001) define a child as anyone under the age of 18 years. Much has been written about the benefits of involving young people in research, especially in the health and social research areas (Balen et al., 2006). Mayhall (1996) argues that young people should be regarded as competent in contributing to assessing the impact of interventions designed for them, with Williams (2011) further proposing that young peoples' involvement in research adds to the understanding of different processes, as they have their own unique perspective based on their experience, a view supported by Clay,

Surgenor and Frampton (2008). Listening to the views of young people in the context of social and emotional relationships has gained particular recognition (McAuley, 2010; as cited in Smyth, 2015). The involvement of young people in research also reflects the legislative patterns that have emerged over time governing young peoples' rights, viewing them as 'active beings' (for example, Article 12 of the UN Convention on the rights of the Child, 1989). As the current study is examining an intervention aimed at enhancing the social and emotional well-being of young people, their views and

experiences are central to the study.

1.3.5 *Format of Thesis*

Chapter 2 addresses educational inequality as it represents the context within which the current study is located. Irish educational policy for supporting young people from socioeconomically disadvantaged areas to engage with and complete their education is also discussed. The main focus, however, of Chapter 2 is to examine the role of social and emotional competencies in contributing to a young person's educational engagement and achievements. Bronfenbrenner's (1977) bioecological model of development is used to illustrate the factors that contribute to the development of a young person's social and emotional difficulties. Chapter 2 also examines the development and impact of social and emotional well-being interventions and programmes both internationally and in Irish context.

Chapter 3 provides the theoretical background to the present study. This chapter examines the theoretical frameworks which support the involvement of animals as part of animal assisted interventions (AAI) in working with young people with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties. In particular, this chapter examines the role of equines in EFPs, and critically explores how their involvement may facilitate the development of social and emotional competencies.

Chapter 4 provides an overview of EFPs in an Irish context and examines the studies that have been carried out to-date in Ireland. An outline of the EFP at the centre of the current study is presented, together with the rationale, study aim and objectives. This study aims to examine the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. Specifically, the study examined changes in the areas

self-awareness, social awareness, self-management and organisation, responsible problem solving and relationship management. This chapter is written separately from Chapter 5 which outlines the methodology of the study, as it focuses on the literature pertaining to the Irish context thereby allowing Chapter 5 address how the study is conducted.

Chapter 5 presents the research design and methodology used to measure the study objectives. The study collected data from young people, their parents and teachers using a mixed methods design which collected quantitative data at three time points, (1) before the young people started the eight week EFP, (2) at the end of the programme and (3) three months after the young peoples' completion of the EFP. Qualitative data using interviews were collected at the end of the eight week EFP at the second time point.

Chapter 6 presents the quantitative findings and explores if changes occurred over time as reported by the young people, their parents and teachers.

Chapter 7 discusses the qualitative data and Chapter 8 discusses the overall data integration of both data sets. Chapter 9 discusses the findings in relation to the study aim and objectives and the literature reviewed. Finally, recommendations for further research and future policy and practice are presented.

Chapter 2. The Role of Social and Emotional Well-Being in Promoting Educational Equality

2.1. Introduction

It is accepted that education is a strong predictor of adult life chances (Hirsch, 2007; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2010) and is a right that each young person should be given in order that he/she can develop his/her potential both intellectually and socially, irrespective of social, economic or cultural status (Smyth & McCoy, 2009; United Nations Children's Fund [UNICEF], 2007). There appear to be three key reasons for the growing attention in the design and implementation of policies aimed at combatting educational inequality (Levin, 2003; Wood, Levinson, Postelwaite & Black, 2011). Firstly, access to education is increasingly being viewed as a basic human right (Cavicchiona & Motivans, 2001), protected by Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), Articles 28, 29 and 40 of the Convention of the Rights of the Child (1989) and Articles 13 and 14 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966). The lack of access to education consequently becomes a social injustice problem (Machin, 2006; Preece, 2006). Second, the provision of education opportunities ultimately results in people becoming employable (Blundell, Duncan, McCrae & Meghir, 2000; OECD, 2011b) and will therefore enable people to achieve a higher standard of well-being. Finally, there are increasing links between educational equity and a country's capacity to achieve enhanced economic growth and development (Sherman & Poirier, 2007; The Europe 2020 Competitiveness Report, 2010).

Educational inequality exists within an economic, political, socio-cultural and affective context (Lynch, 2001) and as a symptom of a broader range of societal issues (Combat Poverty 2003; Kellaghan et al., 1995). This highlights the complexities associated with

developing responses that need to be multi-dimensional, addressing personal, social, cultural and economic factors, consequently emphasising the challenges involved in redressing the imbalances which are at the root of educational inequality (Cullen, 2000; Downes & Maunsell, 2007; Fleming & Murphy, 2000; Gershoff, Aber & Raver, 2003). It is against this backdrop that the current study is exploring the potential of an EFP aimed at promoting social and emotional well-being, recognised as fostering healthy behaviours and educational engagement and attainment (Durlak, 2010, 2011; Greenberg et al., 2003; Zins 2004) for young people at risk of educational inequality. A key focus of this chapter therefore is on educational inequality as the context within which the current study is examining the impact of an EFP on young people affected by educational inequality.

This chapter starts with examining Bronfenbrenner's (1977) model of bioecology which has been widely used to explain the context of children's and young peoples' development. In particular, Bronfenbrenner's model is used to explore factors which have been shown to contribute to understanding the complexities and causes of educational inequality. As the young people at the center of the study all attend DEIS primary and post primary schools, the School Support Programme is reviewed as the national measure aimed at countering educational inequality. Following this, the chapter then discusses the role of social and emotional well-being as one factor which can potentially promote educational equity. This section of the chapter starts with a review of history and definitions of social and emotional well-being. Bronfenbrenner's (1977) bioecological model of development is also discussed in an attempt to explore the factors that contribute to the development of a young person's social and emotional difficulties and how a young person's social and emotional development is based on positive interactions across multiple environments. A review of the prevalence of social and emotional difficulties amongst young people, both internationally and

nationally is then presented. A range of social and emotional well-being interventions and programmes are then outlined and discussed. Finally, how social and emotional well-being programmes are delivered and measured in the Irish context is reviewed.

2.1.1 A Bioecological Approach to Explaining Educational Inequality

In considering the contributing factors to educational inequality, it is important to recognise that young people do not experience educational inequality in isolation. A young person's environment and their relationship with others need also be considered, emphasising that a young person exists within two independent domains, involving both the individual and environmental factors, affected by characteristics of the family, school and community (Hamilton & Redmond, 2010). Bronfenbrenner and Evans (2000) propose that a child's development is shaped by both proximal (e.g. parent-child relationships) and distal (e.g. cultural norms) influences more so than unidirectional influences, as illustrated in Figure 3 below.

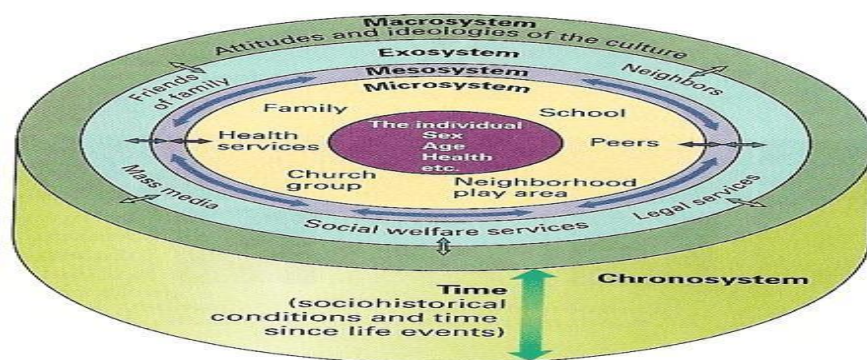


Figure 3. Bronfenbrenner's Model of Ecology. © 2008 Copyright McGraw Hill Higher Education

Bronfenbrenner's (1977) bioecological model highlights the role of context and describes how each of the five main influencing factors can affect child development, including the child's own biological and genetic aspects which can be considered as part of the microsystem, with the family representing the most important influencing factor. The microsystem describes how the physical environment in which a young person grows up and lives, including the regular face to face interactions children have with family,

neighbours and other environments, such as early child care and education (ECCE). Considerable research has been conducted which demonstrates how the quality of a child's environment plays a significant role in their overall social, emotional, physical and/or cognitive development, particularly in their early years (Centre for Early Childhood Development and Education, 2005; National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, 2004).

The second level of Bronfenbrenner's (1977) theory is the interrelationships between two or more microsystems (microsystem) such as parents' attendance at school meetings, which has been shown to positively affect a child's academic progress and attainment (Desforges & Abouchaar, 2003). Moving to the third level in Bronfenbrenner's (1977) bioecological model is the setting in which a child, though not directly participating, nonetheless, may affect him/her. For example, parents working patterns (exosystem) such as rosters may impact on the available time for parent child contact, or parents whose work requires extensive travel may result in either parent spending less or more time with their child. Government policies, political, social and cultural norms are further considerations which may influence a child's development (macrosystem). The macrosystem deals with the physical and emotional context (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) and provides ideological values which may then shape the environment. For example, countries with well-developed educational policies have a higher rate of educational attainment than those who do not (OECD, 2010). A fifth level of 'time' (chronosystem) as it relates to the child's environment was later added to Bronfenbrenner's bioecological model (Bronfenbrenner & Evans, 2000). Environmental changes that may occur over time might include the timing of a family member's death or a significant change in family circumstances.

In summary, Bronfenbrenner's (1977) bioecological theory surmises that a young person's growth and development is affected by continuously changing environmental factors that shift and fluctuate over time. Of particular interest in the current study is the development of the young person in the context of their family and the school environment which is discussed throughout this chapter.

2.1.2 National Response to Combatting Educational Inequity

The needs of those left behind within the Irish education system have been approached through a variety of legislative developments such as White Paper on Education (DE, 1995), Education Act (DES, 1998), White Paper on Early Childhood Education (DES, 1999) and an Education Welfare Act (DES, 2000). Further efforts to consolidate and harmonise the various policy matters relating to children are evident in the most recent legislation; the Child and Family Agency was established in 2014, which has dedicated responsibility for the improvement of children's well-being and outcomes. One of the eight priority objectives of the Child and Family Agency Act (2013) has particular significance to educational inequality as it aims to ensure that all children receive an education in addition to the provision of education welfare services to support and monitor children's attendance, participation and retention in school. This represents a positive reform aimed at bringing together all children's agencies into one. The educational policies that have been developed since 2005 appear to be closely aligned to best practice as set out in the OCED model (2007) '*No More Failures*', referred to earlier in this chapter.

In an effort to co-ordinate existing programmes that had demonstrated success in dealing with educational inequality and introduce additional programmes, the DES launched a new action plan for educational inclusion through the framework of '*Delivering Equality*

of *Opportunity in Schools* (DEIS) in May 2005 (CECDE, 2005). Figure 4 below presents the key measures that have been developed to combat educational inequality reflecting many elements of the OCED model (2007) ‘*No More Failures*’ and are discussed throughout this section. Figure 4 highlights the multidimensional approach needed to counter educational inequality.



*Figure 4. Measures to Combat Educational Inequality
Designed by the Author*

The DEIS Action Plan aims to ensure that schools which provide educational services to disadvantaged communities receive the maximum level of support that is available and includes children from pre-school through to second level education (3-18). The core elements include a standardised system for identifying and reviewing levels of inequality and an integrated School Support Programme [SSP] (DES, 2005).

2.1.3 DEIS School Classifications

There are three main classifications for DEIS Schools. Band 1 of primary schools refers to those schools affected by the greatest degree of inequality, with remaining participating urban/town and rural primary schools classified as Band 2. Contrary to the band distinctions within the primary schools, there are no urban or rural classifications of post

primary schools other than those secondary schools which participate in the DEIS Programme (DES, 2005). The selection of primary schools for DEIS is based on the socioeconomic factors that best predict achievement, including unemployment, percentage of local authority accommodation, lone parenthood, member of the travelling community, families with 5 or more children and pupils eligible for free books. By contrast, the criteria for selecting secondary schools for DEIS focuses more on the predictors of secondary education including Junior Certificate retention rates and exams, and Leaving Certificate retention rates (DES, 2015).

2.1.4 The School Support Programme

Both primary and secondary schools in urban and rural areas receive additional supports through the School Support Programme (SSP) in a variety of ways as illustrated in Table 1 below, with SSP measures divided between primary and post-primary schools in urban and rural areas.

Table 1. Measures included in the School Support Programme for Children and Young People in Primary and Post-Primary Schools

School Support Programme	DEIS Primary School Urban	DEIS Primary School Rural	DEIS Secondary School Urban
Administrative Principal	✓		
Additional Capitation	✓	✓	✓
Reduced class size	✓	✓	✓
Greater financial allocation- schools book grant	✓	✓	✓
Specified Literacy and Numeracy Support Services	✓		
Home School Community Liaison Scheme	✓		✓
School Completion Programme	✓	✓	✓
Transfer programmes from primary to secondary school	✓	✓	
Access to professional supports	✓	✓	✓
Enhanced planning supports	✓		✓
Curricula choice (Junior Certificate Support Programme JCSP)			✓
Alternative educational routes (Leaving Certificate Applied)			✓
New school library and librarian (schools of highest concentration of disadvantage)			✓

Source: Department of Education and Skills Website (2015)

An evaluation of the SSP carried out in primary schools between 2007 and 2010 reported that the SSP appears to be starting to make some progress in combatting educational inequality, particularly in the area of literacy and numeracy (DES, 2011; Weir & Archer, 2010). Additionally, positive discrimination in the form of reduced class sizes, a further feature of the DEIS Action Plan (Weir et al., 2011), were reported with targets exceeded for DEIS schools' class sizes (Weir & McAvinue, 2012).

Other initiatives have focused on providing alternative educational routes within the education system for those at risk of leaving school early such as the Junior Certificate School Programme (JCSP) which is used mostly in DEIS schools. The JCSP was introduced in 1996 in order to devise a programme suitable for the needs of young people identified as being at risk of leaving school early without completing the Junior Certificate. Figure 5 below shows the increase in JCSP participation since its inception in 1995 (DES, 2005).

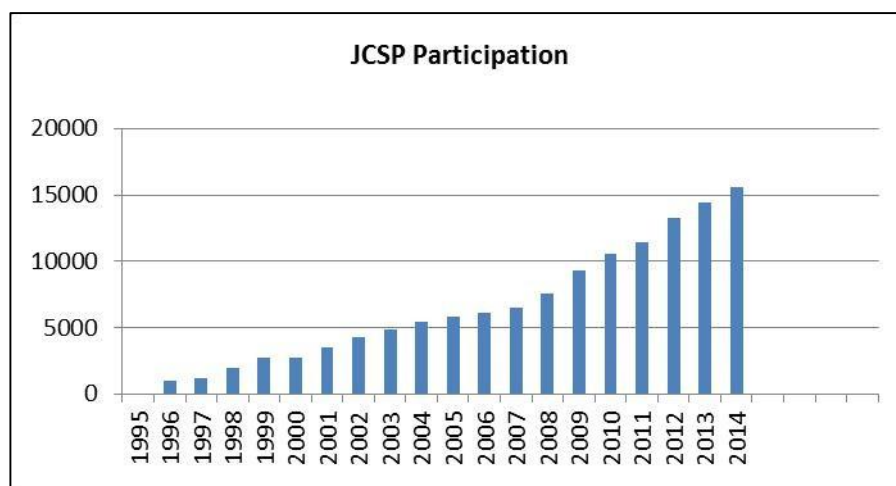


Figure 5. Student Participation in JCSP for 1995 to 2014

For those students with a stronger vocational ability, the Leaving Certificate Vocational Programme provides opportunities to students to focus on enterprises and preparing for working life (National Council for Curriculum and Assessment [NCCA], N.d.). This programme combines a number of academic elements of the Leaving Certificate together with a focus on self-directed learning. For students whose learning needs are not catered for by the Leaving Certificate or Leaving Certificate Vocational Programme, the Leaving Certificate Applied provides an alternative programme of continuous assessment with final exams in the areas of English and Communication.

2.1.5 National Educational Welfare Board as a Measure to Combat

Educational Inequality

Poor school attendance has been linked to poor educational attainment and a high risk of educational inequality (National Educational Welfare Board [NEWB], 2007). In response to this, the NEWB was established in 2002 under the Education (Welfare) Act (DES, 2000a), in order to promote attendance, participation and retention. In further efforts to support school retention and completion, the NEWB functions were transferred to the Child and Family Agency in 2014. Accordingly, there are now three key strands of the NEWB including the School Completion Programme (SCP), the Home School

Community Liaison Scheme (HSCL), and the Educational Welfare Service (EWS) which support young people at risk of educational inequality.

The SCP is an important component of the DEIS Action Plan and one which plays an important role in responding to the social and emotional well-being of young people (DES, N.d.). The majority of young people at the centre of this study are referred to the EFP by the SCP as young people who have been identified as experiencing social and emotional difficulties. The SCP discriminates positively in favour of children and young people at risk of early school leaving and focuses on maximising school attendance, participation and retention. The programme operates in 470 primary schools and 224 post primary schools with approximately 248 full-time, 627 part-time and 2,211 sessional staff involved in the programme. A main focus of the SCP is the design of focused and integrated plans in the holistic support of young people at risk. Such plans include social, emotional and personal supports both during school and after school in line with the young person's home and community support needs. An important feature of the SCP is liaising with community and voluntary agencies to develop relationships which can support those most at risk. In the context of the current study, the organisation provides EFPs to young people who have been referred by the SCP.

The HSCL Scheme, as the second strand, is primarily concerned with working with the parents of pupils considered to be most at risk of the challenges associated with poor school engagement, progression from primary to secondary school and those at risk of leaving school early. As such, HSCL Co-ordinators work with both primary and secondary schools. A key theme of the HSCL is working in partnership with the significant adults in the young person's life as a means of promoting and supporting the educational interests of the young people. Co-ordinators may engage with parents

through leisure activities, curricular events, and personal development programmes, with the ultimate goal being to equip parents to become resources to their children. Particular emphasis is placed on involving parents in literacy and numeracy initiatives both in the home and in school, as part of the wider policy to improve national literacy and numeracy levels. Central to the HSCL Scheme are efforts to empower parents in order to develop their own capacities in order to enhance their child's educational progress (Developing an Irish Intercultural Strategy a Home School Community Liaison Response [HSCL], N.d).

The third strand of the NEWB are the Educational Welfare Officers (EWO), located in the most disadvantaged areas across Ireland, who work in conjunction with the HSCL and SCP coordinators to support school retention and better educational outcomes for young people. For a young person not attending school, the EWOs are responsible for arranging appropriate out of school interventions (NEWB, N.d.).

The NEWB (inclusive of the SCP, HSCL and EWOs) was the focus of an evaluation in 2012 which examined the impact of the integration of the three services and included children, young people, families and staff from the NEWB and DEIS schools. Respondents expressed high levels of satisfaction with the primary objectives of each of the NEWB functions, in particular the need for continued individualised support programmes in the area of school attendance *and* social, emotional and behavioural difficulties (NEWB, 2012). This finding has significance for the current study given its overall focus is aimed at enhancing the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. Whilst evaluations of the DEIS Programme have focused on the areas of literacy, numeracy, attendance, retention and planning, no studies to the author's knowledge have examined the DEIS programmes' impact on young

peoples' social and emotional well-being (Smyth, McCoy & Kingston, 2015).

2.1.6 Interim Summary and Conclusion: Educational Inequality

This chapter set out to provide a brief overview of educational inequality as the context for the current study which explored the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. Bronfenbrenner's (1977) bioecological theory highlights the significance of reciprocal interactions between a young person and their environment and recognises the importance of context.

The School Support Programme is one strand of a multi-dimensional approach designed to counter educational inequality, with specific responsibility for supporting young people who may be experiencing social and emotional difficulties. As such, the School Completion Programme staff liaise with local community agencies in the provision of appropriate interventions. The young people at the centre of this study are referred by the School Completion Programme staff, and illustrates a practical example of how young people at risk of educational inequality can be supported through liaising with a community agency, in this case the organisations Equine Facilitated Learning Programme.

As the focus of this study is on the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality, the next section reviews the role of social and emotional well-being programmes as one intervention which may potentially contribute to countering educational inequality.

2.2. Overview of Social and Emotional Well-being

The past two decades have witnessed a growth in interventions aimed at developing young peoples' social and emotional capabilities in recognition of how these capabilities

support the achievement of positive life outcomes. These include educational attainment, employment success and health status (Goodman & Gregg, 2010; Gorard, 2010; Raven & Knitzer, 2002; Youth Foundation, 2010). Both educators and mental health professionals acknowledge the importance of social and emotional well-being amongst children and young people (CASEL, 2007; Catalano, Oesterle, Fleming & Hawkins, 2004; Center for Mental Health in Schools at UCLA 2008; Conte, 2005; Elias & Haynes, 2008; Waston & Emery, 2010; Elliot, Malecki & Demaray, 2001; Marcelino Botín Foundation, 2008; Zins & Elias 2006).

As previously mentioned, SEL Programmes are increasingly being introduced and integrated into many educational setting as they represent the place where children learn about personal and social relationships outside of the immediate family and neighbourhood (Aldgate, 2010). Whilst the research shows that a child's development is strongly influenced by how well a family functions (Family Paediatrics Report of the Task Force of the Family, 2003), schools are increasingly been seen as environments which can potentially influence the development of a young person's social and emotional well-being (Cohen, 1999; Humphrey, Lendrum, & Wigelsworth, 2013). Increasingly, educators are acknowledging the importance of social and emotional competencies as well as academic achievement (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011; Malecki & Elliot, 2002) with educational policies actively addressing and monitoring a young person's psychological well-being (Gillies, 2011).

Internationally and nationally, there has been an increase in the number of young people presenting with social and emotional difficulties (Cummins & McMaster, 2006; National Council for Special Education [NCSE], Banks & McCoy 2011; Offord, Boyle & Szatmari, 1987; Perou et al., 2013). A greater occurrence is reported amongst young

people from socioeconomically disadvantaged communities (Duncan et al., 1994; Goodman, 1999; Knapp, Ammen, Arstein-Kerslake, Poulsen & Mastergeorge, 2007; Richardson, 2008; Spencer et al., 2002; Weissman, Prusoff, Gammon, Merrikangas & Lackman, 1984; World Health Organisation [WHO] 2003), and a greater prevalence among boys than girls (Cooper et al., 2009; Lober, Burke, Lahey, Winters & Zera, 2000).

Many children from low socioeconomic backgrounds have been shown to experience social and emotional instability which can then affect their behaviour both within and outside of the school setting (Jensen, 2009). Furthermore, young people with social and emotional behavioural difficulties are reported to be at greater risk of experiencing less positive interactions with teachers, which may lead to negative experiences of education (Jack et al., 1996; Panacek & Dunlap, 2003). Consequently, they have also been reported to experience difficulties in completing their education (Groom & Rose, 2004; OECD, 2013). Additionally, they are reported as being twice as likely to leave school early than those with well-developed social and emotional competencies (Combat Poverty Agency [CPA] 2005; Jimerson, Anderson & Whipple, 2002; Landrum, Tankersley & Kauffman, 2006; National Economic and Social Council [NESF] 2002).

Positive social and emotional skills have also been associated with higher educational attainment and stronger employment outcomes (Zins, Weissberg, Wang & Walberg, 2004) with evidence of engagement with school based SEL programmes resulting in higher academic attainment (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor & Schellinger, 2011). In contrast, poor social skills and limited social competence have been shown to be strong predictors of academic failure (McLeod, 2000; Shoenfield & Janney, 2008; Webster-Stratton & Reid, 2004; Webster-Stratton, Reid & Stoolmiller, 2008).

2.2.1 History of Social and Emotional Learning

Daniel Goleman has been cited as being the main proponent in bringing the research on social and emotional well-being into the public arena (Clarke, 2010; Hoffman, 2009; Norris, 2003; Sigmar, Stretcher, Hynes & Hill, 2012; Liu, Xu & Weitz, 2011), most notably through his 1995 publication *Emotional Intelligence – Why Can It Matter More Than IQ* (1995). However, the concept of social and emotional learning is not new, but rather builds on the work of Salovey and Mayer (1990), who developed a model containing five domains. These included knowing one's emotions, motivating oneself, recognizing emotions in others, demonstrating empathy and managing relationships. Social and emotional intelligence is also seen as an extension of Gardener's (1983) Theory of Multiple Intelligences which suggests the existence of seven areas of emotional intelligence, including musical, bodily kinaesthetic, logical mathematical, spatial and linguistic, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. The latter two intelligences represent particular relevance to the discourse on social and emotional competencies, as they reflect two of the key components of social and emotional well-being.

Goleman (1995) suggests that cognition alone may not, in itself, be enough for success, either throughout one's education or in one's life, a view previously put forward by Covey (1996), who suggests that social and emotional skills may, in fact, be a more effective indicator of personal and professional success than cognitive ability. Goleman (1995) further proposes that emotional skills can be learnt and nurtured over one's lifetime, especially during childhood years, when emotional habits can be established. This is particularly relevant to the current study as it highlights the potential learning amongst young people with social and emotional difficulties.

2.2.2 Recognising Social and Emotional Difficulties

A young person's social and emotional difficulties can generally present as either internalising or externalising behaviours, or a combination of both (Lane, Menzies, Bruhn & Crnabori, 2011) with girls presenting with a higher incidence of internalising behaviour than boys (Bennet, Ambrosina, Kudes, Meti & Rabinovich, 2005; Giannakopoulos et al., 2009; Growing up in Ireland Report [GUI], Nixon, 2012; Lavigne et al., 1996) and supported by a number of epidemiological studies (Lin & Wang, 2007; Verhulst & Verhulst & Koot, 1995). For those with internalising behaviours, the threat can be limited to the individual themselves compared to a young person with externalising behaviours where it may affect others and self (Cefai & Cooper, 2010), representing the highest level of student teacher conflict (Drugli, Klokner & Larson, 2011), disruption in the classroom situation and requiring a greater level of attention (Miller & Jome, 2010). In contrast, internalising behaviours are not disruptive to either peers or teachers and can be overlooked (Achenbach & Rescorla, 2001), which may account, in part, for a lower reporting compared to those with externalising behaviours. Internalising behaviour may manifest as shyness, somatic complaints, poor self-confidence and withdrawn behaviour (Achenbach & Rescorla, 2001; Terzian, Hamilton & Ericson, 2011), anxiety, depression and eating disorders (Lane et al., 2011). By contrast, externalising behaviours typically present as aggressive and disruptive, accompanied by an absence of guilt and empathy (Ghafoori & Tracz, 2004).

The effect of both internalising and externalising behaviours on young peoples' education was examined by McLeod and Kaiser (2004) using the 1986-2000 Children of the National Longitudinal Surveys of Youth Data Set. McLeod and Kaiser (2004) found that young people who presented with a range of internalising and externalising behaviours had significantly less likelihood of completing their education. Moreover, those young

people with externalising behaviours were less likely to access third level education, thereby illustrating the effect overtime of social and emotional difficulties. Regardless however of how social and emotional difficulties present, left unattended, both behaviours can result in poor self-image and self-concept, low self-confidence and an inability to develop and maintain relationships, all of which potentially compromise a young person's ability to self-manage within the education setting (Fraser & Blishen, 2007).

2.3. Prevalence of Social and Emotional Difficulties amongst Young People Internationally and Nationally

2.3.1 Prevalence of Social and Emotional Difficulties: International Level

As outlined at the start of this chapter, there has been an increase in the prevalence of young people presenting with social and emotional difficulties (Cefai & Cooper, 2006; Maughan, Iervolino, & Collishaw, Maughan, Natarajan, & Pickles, 2010; Rutter & Smith, 1995). Though the reasons for the increases are unclear, Eckersley (2011) suggests that social, economic, cultural and environmental changes are key contributory factors, a view supported by Layard and Dunn (2009) who further suggest the way in which adults now relate to young people may also account as a contributory factor.

The prevalence of social and emotional difficulties has been reported to vary according to gender, age, health and neighbourhood, with higher rates found in inner cities, in boys more so than girls and more prominent in teenagers than young children (Social, Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties [SEBDA], 2006), though recent figures show an increase in the incidence of difficulties in children in primary schools (Cooper, 2006, Rose et al., 2009). That said, reported increases may be related to improved diagnosis and diagnostic criteria, though Walker and Melvin (2008) argue that this may

not entirely explain the reported increases.

The trend in the prevalence of social and emotional difficulties is evident in various international studies. For example, in the USA, between 2004–2009, 5.11 per cent of young people between the ages of 4 – 17 years presented with serious social and emotional difficulties (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Perou et al., 2011). Collishaw and colleagues (2010) reported an increase in the rate of social and emotional difficulties in the UK, with 7 per cent of 11-16 year olds presenting with conduct disorders, emotional disorders and 12 per cent diagnosed with clinical mental illness.

Collishaw (2009) reported that UK students are experiencing higher rates of emotional difficulties in 2006 than in 1986, with recent figures suggesting there are 150,000 young people in mainstream and special schools with significant social and emotional difficulties (SEBDA, 2006). Furthermore, USA and Australian national surveys also report a decline in young peoples' social and emotional well-being (Eckersley, 2011; Twenge et al., 2010).

Cummins and McMaster (2006) and Sullivan, Arensman, Keeley, Corcoran and Perry (2004) found that the most prevalent disclosed disorders included emotional difficulties, oppositional defiant disorder (ODD), conduct disorders, attention deficit disorder (ADD), attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), developmental delay and autism spectrum disorder (ASD), eating disorders and anti-social behaviour. The prevalence of ODD and conduct disorder were reported as being twice as high amongst boys as girls and increasing with age. These findings are similar to Martin and Carr (2004) who explored the prevalence of one or more psychological disorders amongst 3,374 young people and teenagers. The findings showed that 19 per cent, or 600 young

people, had at least one psychological disorder. Of this group, 43 per cent experienced anxiety disorder, 25 per cent were diagnosed with ODD, 10 per cent experienced mood disorder and 20 per cent had symptoms associated with clinical risk.

2.3.2 Prevalence of Social and Emotional Difficulties amongst Young People:

National Level

In an Irish context, a review of the literature relating to the prevalence of social and emotional difficulties of young people is unclear. For example, the GUI Report No. 4. (2012) which monitors the development of up to 20,000 Irish children between 2006-2012, found that whilst the majority of nine year olds are developing without any social and emotional difficulties, between 15 per cent and 20 per cent of children, or between 2,000 and 3,000 children, present with significant levels of social and emotional difficulties. If these figures are then applied to the first six years of primary schools and five years of post-primary school, it is possible that there are somewhere between 22,000 and 33,000 children and young people experiencing significant levels of social and emotional difficulties across Irish schools. These figures concur with Barry's (2012) figure of 25 per cent of young people experiencing social and emotional difficulties, of whom 10 per cent require clinical treatment.

In Ireland, in 2010, 6,900 young people in mainstream schools (4,456 in primary schools and 2,444 in post primary) received additional teaching hours as a result of emotional and behavioural difficulties [EBD] (NCSE, 2010), increasing to 7,830 in 2012 (5,005 in primary and 3,041 in post primary schools). Table 2 below shows figures taken from the NCSE (2011) reporting the number of students with emotional and behavioural difficulties in receipt of additional teaching resources.

Table 2. Number of students with EBD and severe EBD in receipt of additional teaching hours

	Primary	Post-Primary	Total
Students with additional hours	19,445	19,007	38,452
Students with EBD	3,993	2,565	6,558
Students with severe EBD	859	413	1,272
Students with EBD/severe EBD accessing additional teaching hours	4,852	2,978	7,830
Students with EBD/severe EBD as per cent of total students with additional teaching hours	24.9per cent	15.6per cent	20.4per cent

Source: NCSE October, 2011

These figures exclude the support for young people with low incidences of social and emotional difficulties in mainstream primary and post-primary schools which, in 2011-2012, were reported to be 8,224 young people (NCSE, 2011) showing an increase from previous years. There appears to be a need for an improved reporting system on the number of children and young people presenting with social and emotional difficulties, especially as these difficulties may increase or decrease overtime and are reported to escalate as young people grow older. With a possibility of so many young people with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties attending schools in Ireland, a greater prevalence amongst boys and girls and young people from socio-economic disadvantaged areas, the problem of appropriate interventions in response to this is a challenge to both young people, parent, schools and society.

2.3.3 A Bioecological Approach to Explaining Social and Emotional

Difficulties

The previous section presented a bioecological approach to understanding educational inequality and the importance of context and interactions between a young person and their family, school and community. The Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (2012) propose that a bioecological approach to social and emotional well-being can also be illustrated through the following model in Figure 6 below.

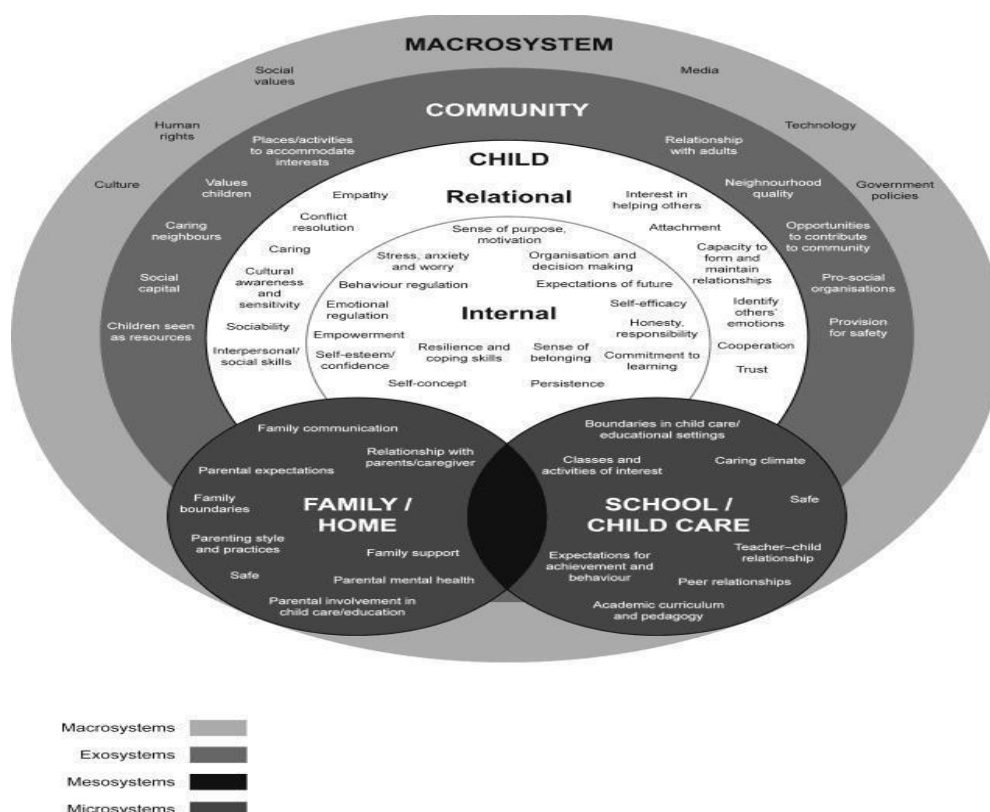


Figure 6. Conceptualizing Children's Social and Emotional Wellbeing Based on Bronfenbrenner's Bioecological Model

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2012. Social and Emotional Wellbeing: Development of a Children's Headline Indicator. Cat. no. PHE 158. Canberra: AIHW

This model outlines how a young person's healthy social and emotional development is based on positive interactions across multiple environments. Figure 6 shows how a young person is at the centre of the model, surrounded by their intrapersonal characteristics. As with the CASEL (2015) social and emotional well-being framework which is discussed later in this section, this model highlights how a young person displays their characteristics depends on their stage and age of development and their own genetics and biology. The model also emphasises the importance of the interacting environments of influence in the home, early education and in school experiences as important predictors for the healthy development of social and emotional well-being. The significance of in-school supports and positive pupil teacher relationships were discussed earlier in this chapter.

Bronfenbrenner's (1977) model helps to provide an understanding as to how a young person's social, emotional, physical and cognitive well-being can be influenced by both proximal and distal environmental factors. Furthermore, as these interactions are continuously changing, they can potentially impact on a child at any time, from early childhood through to adolescence. Consequently, it is reasonable to consider that specific changes within the child's environment contain the potential to either increase, or equally, decrease their social, emotional, physical and/or cognitive well-being. For example, family circumstance such as divorce or bereavement may result in a decrease in a young person's social and emotional well-being. Equally, a change of a young person's social environment in moving from primary to secondary school may also be a cause of social and emotional difficulties. Transitioning from primary to secondary school has been found to be one of the most difficult times for young people (ESRI, 2010; National Economic and Social Council [NESC], 2002; Smyth, McCoy & Dermody, 2004) with pupils from lower income families found to be more at risk of unsuccessfully transitioning to secondary school (Gutman & Ridgley, 2000). Social, emotional and academic well-being have been highlighted as key qualities necessary for young people to successfully progress to secondary school (Irish National Teachers Association [INTO], 2008) in addition to high self-esteem and self-confidence. In the context of the current study, these findings have particular significance as the EFP focus is young people attending DEIS schools who present with social and emotional difficulties.

In this context, an intervention such as EFP may be considered as having the potential to counter such difficulties. Given the interconnectedness and interdependency of a child's social, emotional, physical and/or cognitive development and how environmental factors can influence these, it is probable that underdevelopment of one

or more of these processes may increase the likelihood of a young person to be affected by educational inequality (Layte & Nolan, 2013). As such, this thesis proposes that interventions such as EFPs may have a role to play in improving the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality.

Although a young person's characteristics and family and social system characteristics may be beyond the influence of schools, evidence illustrates the schools potential to reduce some of the risks associated with educational inequality (OECD, 2012a). Schools that create a caring and nurturing school climate are reported as having more impact than school resources or policies (OECD, 2000) and are associated with academic achievement, school success and teacher retention. Kern, Hilt and Gresham (2004) propose three key features relating to positive school climate including socioemotional and physical safety, student teacher relationships and teaching and learning strategies. Schools with positive teacher-pupil relationships have been shown to be of particular significance where such experiences may not exist in the home (Heckman, 2011) and have been reported to promote academic success (Schaps, 2005). For young people affected by educational inequality, the teacher-pupil relationship can also impact on a pupil's self-image (Smyth, 2015) with personal and educational performance (Battistich, Schaps & Wilson (2004) influencing how a pupil feels about and views their school experience (Darmody & Smyth, 2005), as it may provide the social capital that can be missing at home (Roffey, 2012; Tsai & Cheney, 2012). The importance of one good adult reported the significance of a young person having one caring and interested adult in their life and how potentially this can help to increase coping skills and provide a sense of belonging (Dooley & Fitzgerald, 2013). This need intensifies for young people who may be missing this important relationship in the home (Darmody, 2007).

The effectiveness of classroom strategies in supporting young people at risk are also reported to play an important role. Learning centred approaches with well-designed and structured sessions which are inclusive of both social and academic aspects of learning (Dumont, Istance & Benavides, 2010; Faubert 2010; Graue 2009; Wang & Holcome, 2010) have been identified as being particularly effective. Faubert (2012) argues for the need for specific instruction, assessment and curriculum related practices as they have been shown to be particularly effective for young people affected by disadvantage.

In-school supports also include a reduction or elimination of separating pupils based on academic ability, otherwise referred to as early tracking. Such practices have been shown to accentuate the learning differences amongst students (Hanushek, 2006) and increase inequalities (Ammermueller, 2005), with students from disadvantaged backgrounds found to be particularly affected (OECD, 2013). However, the introduction of comprehensive initiatives and educational reforms have been shown to reduce this practice (Akkerman et al., 2011; Backman, Jakobsen, Lorentzen, Österbacka, & Dahl, 2011; Jakubowski, Patrinos, Porta & Wisniewski, 2012; PISA, 2010; Wisniewski, 2007).

As a child grows and develops, the family influences decrease, with school and community factors playing stronger influencing roles (Eccles, 1999). Though risk factors in isolation may not contribute significantly to social and emotional difficulties, a combination of factors have been shown to serve as indicators of negative outcomes (Klein & Forehand, 2000), with young people from families with multiple risk factors at considerably greater risk (Dekovic, 1999). Despite the adversity of a young person's circumstances, any intervention which fosters exposure to protective factors will likely impact positively on a young person's well-being (Bradley & Hayes, 2007). As such,

an EFP may hold potential for enhancing the social and emotional well-being of young people at risk of educational inequality.

Having reviewed a bioecological approach to a young person's social and emotional development, a number of the factors which contribute to social and emotional difficulties will now be presented.

2.3.4 Factors Contributing to Social and Emotional Difficulties

According to Bronfenbrenner's (1977) theory, families are the most important influencing factor on a young person's development. Much research has been conducted into the parent child relationship, particularly the daughter mother relationship, which has been associated with social and emotional outcomes (Nixon, 2012). Authoritarian or neglectful parenting styles were reported to result in more social and emotional difficulties (Dewar, 2013; Martinez & Garcia, 2008; Rathraaff et al., 2009; Wang, 2006), in contrast to parenting styles typified by high degrees of responsiveness, coupled with high demands of appropriate behaviour, both of which are considered necessary for positive outcomes (Santrock, 2007). Moreover, study findings suggest that the child/parent relationship and family processes may be of more significance for child development than family structure or income levels, a finding also reported by (Bernard, Stephanou & Urbach, 2007).

There is also an expanding literature base on the relationship between maternal depression and poor social and emotional outcomes (GUI, 2013; Raposa, Hammen, Brennan & Najman & Ashman, 2008) with depression representing one of the top disabling disorders worldwide (Chatterji, 2007). In a study conducted by Kiernan & Mensah (2009), data from the UK Millennium Cohort Study was used to explore the extent

to which the mother's mental well-being and economic circumstances were related to a child's behaviour and cognitive development. Working with a sample of 13,877 children, the study found that maternal depression was closely associated with to the mother's reports of behaviour patterns. In addition, the mother's mental well-being was reported as more important for the young person's behavioural adjustment compared to economic deprivation, which was found to matter more for the child's cognitive development. However, the UK Millennium Cohort Study was based on secondary analysis of existing data rather than randomised study trials resulting in an inability to draw causal relationships.

Although maternal depression has been reported to be caused by biological factors (Epperson, 2002) it may also be caused by poor environmental factors closely associated with poverty (Casey et al., 2004). Whilst there are variations in the severity of maternal depression, available supports may contribute to different outcomes for children (Bernard-Bonnin; Canadian Paediatric Society, 2004), suggesting that less available supports may have a greater negative impact on children whose mother is clinically depressed. Given what is already known about the relationship between poverty and maternal depression, it is evident that a child born into an environment characterised by both poverty and maternal depression, is less likely to develop positive social and emotional outcomes (Goodman et al., 2011; GUI, 2012) than their more affluent peers (Child Trends, 2014), with incidences of social and emotional well-being difficulties increasing for children in single parent households in economically disadvantaged areas (GUI, 2012).

The importance of environmental influences on the early social, emotional and cognitive development of children, especially within the first five years, has also been the focus

of studies (Biedinger, 2011; Heckman & Masterov, 2007; Knapp et al., 2007) with both biological and environmental factors shown to contribute towards educational success (Goleman, 2002). With ECCE predicting reported social, emotional, physical and cognitive outcomes, there has been a particular interest in the provision of ECCE for children from disadvantaged areas (Nores, 2010) as it has been shown to alleviate some of the causes of educational inequality. Projects such as the HighScope Perry Preschool and Abecedarian Projects have demonstrated positive outcomes for children from disadvantaged areas not only in terms of education attainment, but also through to adult outcomes (Campbell, et al., 2012). Studies comparing disadvantaged children who attended HeadStart programmes (a comprehensive ECCE Programme) and those that did not, also demonstrated higher academic performance and attainment (Deming, 2009; Garces, Thomas & Currie, 2002; McWayne, Hahs-Vaughan, Cheung & Wright, 2012), highlighting the role of ECCE in countering some aspects of educational inequality.

For those parents who may be affected by educational inequality, the long term consequences of providing a supportive and effective learning environment for their child poses many challenges (Goodall et al., 2010). These can include a lack of resources, both financial and personal, including poor literacy and numeracy skills, lack of transport, educational materials, time and low self-confidence in their ability to support their child's teaching (Goodall et al., 2010). A mother's academic qualifications in particular have also been cited as a strong predictor of educational inequality (Goodman & Gregg, 2010; Siraj-Blatchford, Sylva, Muttock, Gilden, & Bell, 2002; Waldfogel & Washbrook, 2010). Fahey, Keilthy and Polek (2013), found that mothers with no Leaving Certificate were two to three times more likely to have children with poor social and emotional skills. The risk therefore of young people at risk of educational inequality developing social and emotional difficulties is reflected both

internationally and nationally with 40 per cent of Irish people whose parents have a low level of education (less than upper secondary level) reported to be more likely to stay at that level, compared to an EU average of 34 per cent (Eurostat, 2013).

Much has been written about the relationship between bullying and the social and emotional difficulties of young people (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Perou et al., 2011). Victims of physical and/or verbal abuse have been reported to present with high rates of social and emotional difficulties (Wolke, Wo, 2000; Woods, Done & Hardeep, 2009). A 3 year Australian longitudinal study involving 3,459 students between the ages of 11 – 14, found that 1 in 4 teenagers were bullied every few weeks or more. Furthermore, young people who have been bullied are at higher risk of poor psychosocial and educational outcomes, with perpetrators of bullying reported to have greater conduct disorders, hyperactivity symptoms and peer problems than those who do not bully (Smith, Polenik, Natasita & Jones, 2012). With social relationships shown to have particular importance during adolescence, young people are therefore more at risk of social exclusion (Juvonen, Graham & Schuster, 2003).

2.3.5 Development of Social and Emotional Learning Programmes

Within the field of education there has been a considerable growth of programmes dedicated to teaching and developing social and emotional competencies to young people (CASEL, 2007; Conte, 2005; Watson & Emery, 2010). The delivery of SEL programmes are generally classified into three groups, including *universal* school based programmes, *indicated* and a *multi-element* programmes (Bywater, 2012). The universal schoolbased programmes apply to the whole school such as Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS). Hoffman (2009) highlights the benefits of a universal SEL programme as it serves the entire social and emotional climate for all the students within a school, rather

than it being designed for young people who may be at risk. Morrison and Kirby (2010) further elaborate on the value of a universal approach in suggesting that the mere absence of risks and problems may not in themselves be the influencing factors in the young person's psychological well-being but that providing positive factors is necessary in order to promote positive developments. However, compared to classroom based programmes, there is limited evidence relating to whole school approaches (Adi et al., 2007).

The second SEL Programme category relates to *indicated* or *targeted* programmes which are aimed at improving the social and emotional well-being of individual young people at risk of social and emotional difficulties, and who are showing early signs of emotional and behavioural difficulties, such as The American Incredible Years Therapeutic (small group) Dinosaur Programme. The third classification of programme is that which contains a *multi-modal* or *multi-element* characteristic, such as the Incredible Years' Service for parents of young people between the ages of 0-12 years of age and used extensively in the UK. A further feature of multi-modal programmes is the involvement of external community agencies such as parenting programmes that work collaboratively in order to improve home-school links. Webster-Stratton and Reid (2010) suggest that the greatest impact from multi-modal programmes is seen when the programmes for young people, their parents and teachers are delivered simultaneously.

A review of social and emotional based interventions carried out by Bywater and Sharples (2012) found that whilst universal, indicated and multi-modal programmes provided evidence of improvements in social and emotional competencies, the multi-modal approach was recommended as it enhanced the prospect of learning occurring across context, thereby providing a more holistic approach. Weissberg and Elias (1993)

reported that educators within the US have moved from short term SEL focused interventions to those that are multicomponent and multilevel, as they are now considered essential for long lasting outcomes. Whilst the reasons for implementing any one of these three approaches is unclear, it is likely that the time required in order to measure the impact of the SEL Programme, in addition to the resources needed, may be influencing factors.

The main programmes which have originated in the United States include Second Step (1992), Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (1994), Lions Quest (Quest International, 1992) and Communities That Care (1990), MindMatters and the Gatehouse Project in Australia, with other European social and emotional programmes largely informed by US models (Watson & Emery, 2010). Though each programme may vary within the parameters of duration, content and curriculum, all programmes are delivered within the educational setting adopting a whole school approach, and aim to equip young people with core social and emotional competencies. These include the promotion of self-awareness, emotional and behavioural regulation, prosocial and interpersonal skills and responsible decision making. There has also been growing attention dedicated to the development of social and emotional learning (SEL) programmes in the UK, including the Welsh Network of Healthy School Schemes (Department for Health and Social Care, 2008), Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning [SEAL] (Humphrey et al., 2010) and Healthy Schools Initiatives.

In an Irish context, the national programme which includes a strong focus on the promotion of social and emotional competencies is embedded within the Department of Education and Skills programme, the Social, Personal, Health and Education Programme (SPHE) delivered in all primary and post primary schools. The primary

school SPHE addresses three main strands including *myself*, *myself and others* and *myself and the wider world*, and focuses on fostering children's well-being, confidence and their sense of belonging. The curriculum also promotes children's sense of personal responsibility and developing their self-awareness, emotional regulation and empathic behaviours. Within the junior cycle, the SPHE focus is on supporting young people to develop skills and abilities to learn about themselves and others in order that they can make informed decisions about their well-being, including moral, social and emotional factors around relationships and sexuality. The senior cycle SPHE curriculum addresses five key areas including mental health, gender issues, substance use, relationships and sexuality and physical activity and nutrition. However, there have existed smaller and more focused localised initiatives such as the Zippy's Friends Programme (Clarke & Barry, 2010) and the Young Ballymun's Incredible Years (Morgan & Epsey, 2012) study.

2.3.6 Framework for Social and Emotional Learning for the Current Study

Within the educational setting, the US based Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL) suggests that SEL competencies lie within five interrelated skills areas including *self-awareness*, *social awareness*, *self-management* and *organisation*, *responsible problem solving* and finally *relationship management*, with each area containing further specific competencies. These competencies can be learnt by young people throughout their school going years in accordance with their evolving cognitive ability.

As this study is being carried out within the educational setting, the CASEL (2015) Model competencies of self-awareness, social awareness, self-management and organisation, responsible problem solving and relationship management are those areas that are being

used to measure social and emotional difficulties, and consequently explore changes resulting from participation in the EFP. Figure 7 below illustrates CASEL's (2015) model of SEL core competencies.

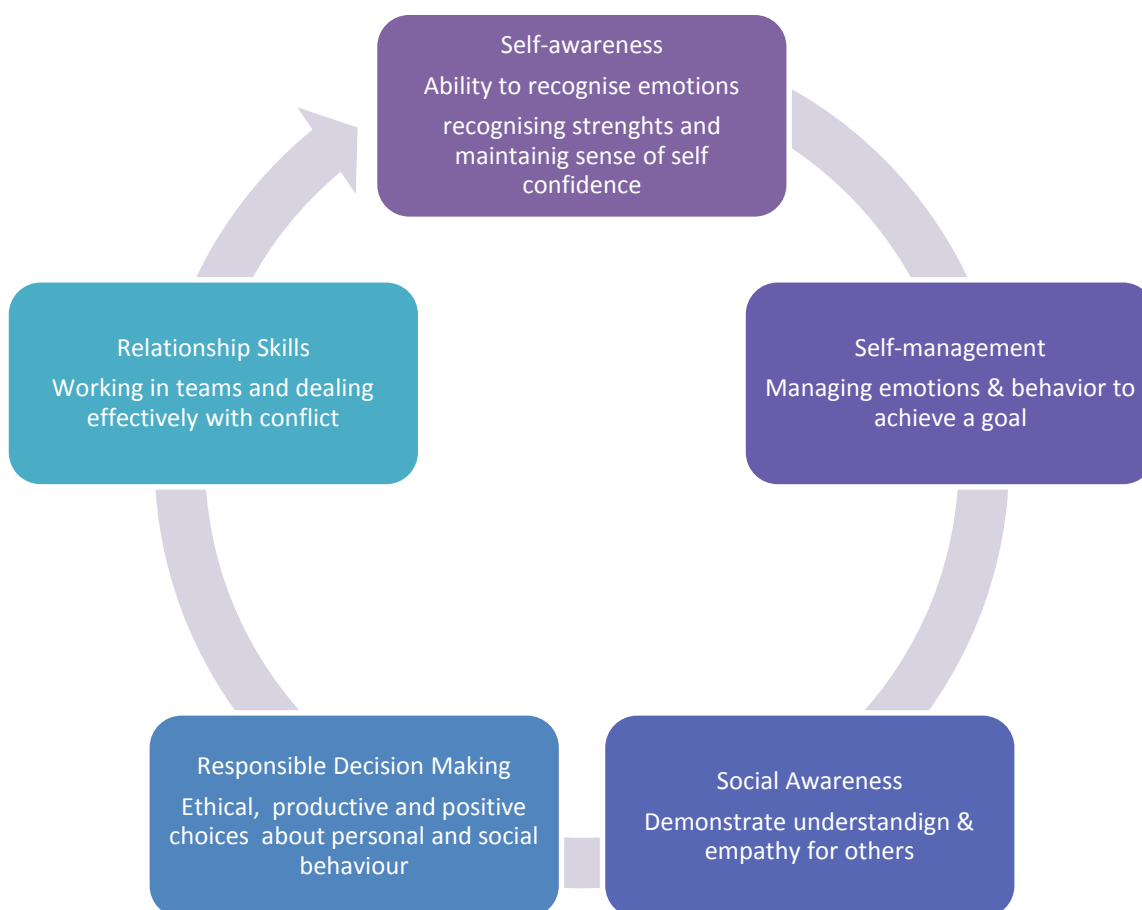


Figure 7. Social and Emotional Core Competencies

Source: Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL, 2015)

The first of the SEL core competencies addresses *self-awareness* and the ability to recognise emotions and values, in addition to recognising strengths and limitations. Furthermore, self-awareness encompasses the ability to accurately assess how one feels, recognising one's interests, values and strengths, and being able to maintain a sense of self-confidence. Second is that of *self-management* which explores how a young person can learn to manage their emotions and behaviours in order to achieve a desired goal. The third competency relates to social *awareness* and the ability to demonstrate

an understanding and empathy for others. The fourth SEL competency describes how young people make *responsible decisions*, including making ethical, productive and positive choices about their personal and social behaviour. The fifth and final competency refers to the skill set required for forming *positive relationships*, to help young people work in teams and to deal effectively with conflict.

Acquiring the ability to empathise is a central theme in CASEL's Framework and is integrated throughout each of the five social and emotional competencies, relative to the cognitive ability of the young person. This framework contextualises the young person's skills and behaviour by providing specific situations which the young person can relate to. The CASEL model recognises the very young person's egocentric perspective of social problems and gradually increases the expectations being made of the younger to older teenagers who can, over time, begin to understand multiple aspects of situations (Maxwell & des Roches, 2010). An additional feature of CASEL's framework is its ability to measure individual social and emotional competencies, therefore allowing specific interventions to be developed for those young people with less social and emotional competencies, a feature which is seen as important to the effectiveness for SEL programmes by Hoffman (2009). Successful social and emotional programmes also support the idea that the most effective learning will occur in the context of supportive and challenging relationships (CASEL, 2003) and in collaboration with teachers and peers (Durlak, 2011). The significance of social and emotional programmes in school for young people at risk was particularly noted, as the relationship with teachers may substitute for the lack of support in the home (Crosnoe & Elder, 2004). Indeed, for some young people, school experiences may represent the only means of influencing an alterable opportunity (Freitas & Downey, 1998).

The method of both instruction and opportunities to generalise learnt skills are also considered as being two essential elements that are required in order for SEL programmes to be successful, and are best taught when infused in the young person's experience. However, even when these ingredients are present, Farrell and Vulin-Reyonds (2007) highlighted that changing existing systems requires time. Whilst a SEL programme may produce some changes in certain domains of functioning at particular levels early on in the intervention, a greater degree of significant changes were more likely to occur in more domains and at more levels when delivered over a longer period of time. This would appear to support the trend of introducing universal and multi-modal SEL Programmes in both primary and secondary levels of education as evidenced in many of the US schools.

2.3.7 Evaluation of Social and Emotional Learning Programmes

There is a growing body of evaluation literature reporting a positive relationship between participation in SEL programmes and improvements in young peoples' behaviour and academic performance (Dix, Slee, Lawson, & Keeves, 2012; Clarke & Barry, 2010, 2011; Elias & Arnold, 2006; Zins, Bloodworth, Weissberg, & Walberg, 2004). Though many of these studies that have been conducted are US based (Durlak, et al., 2011), other countries have begun to develop and evaluate SEL Programmes (Comenius Project European Assessment Protocol for Children's SEL Skills, 2013; Marcelino Botin Foundation, 2008) suggesting the potential to generalise to other national settings.

The balance between social and emotional learning and academic performance is discussed by Elias (1989) who argues that sole emphasis on academic performance, in isolation, may in fact result in intensifying current stress related problems resulting in a further alienation of young people. Studies have shown that attending to academic

achievement, to the exclusion of nurturing the social and emotional needs, can be unsuccessful, particularly for young people at risk or those deemed to be at risk of disengaging from the educational setting (Beckar & Luther, 2002; Zins, 2003). This has significant implications in the context of objectives of the current study, which is exploring the impact of EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people already identified as being at risk of educational inequality. Furthermore, the importance of SEL Programmes for young people at risk has particular merit as the development of the relationship with teachers may substitute for the lack of support at home, thereby providing important guidance and mentoring (Crosnoe & Elder, 2004).

A number of studies of schools which have developed specifically structured and resourced social emotional learning programmes have found improvements in school attendance, self-esteem, prosocial behaviours and academic achievements (Durlak, 2010; Durlak, 2011; Greenberg et al., 2003; Zins, 2004; Clarke & Barry, 2010). Malacki and Elliott (2002) propose that responding to a young person's emotional needs can in fact result in a higher motivation to learn and reduces the rate of non-attendance, suspensions and expulsions, with Durlak and colleagues (2011) concluding that SEL programmes significantly help to strengthen a young person's resilience. There would therefore appear to be a particular benefit of social and emotional focused programmes for young people affected by educational inequality. In particular, there exists much research highlighting the social and emotional deficits of young boys in society (Elias, Tobias, & Friedlander 1999) suggesting that SEL programmes may be able to play a particular role with young males affected by educational inequality.

The first large scale meta-analysis of social and emotional studies was conducted by Durlak and colleagues (2010) involving 270,034 children and young people between 5

and 18 years who had participated in a universal social and emotional programme with 40 sessions reported as the median. Specifically, the review focused on programmes which delivered multiple outcomes including social and emotional skills, attitudes toward self and others, positive social behaviours, conduct problems, emotional distress, and academic performance. The authors' hypothesised that the SEL programmes would result in positive mean effects across the four areas of skill, attitude, behaviour and academic outcomes. Additionally, they proposed that SEL programmes could be effectively delivered by classroom and teaching staff and that classroom based activities alone would be less effective than a combination of classroom and non-classroom activities.

In reviewing the moderating variables it was expected that those programmes which implemented a sequential, active, focused and explicit (SAFE) approach would produce greater programme outcomes as new behaviours generally need to be broken down and sequentially mastered overtime with clear and specific learning objectives set out as part of the programme. Inclusion criteria included studies which included a control group, programmes that developed one or more SEL competency, contained sufficient information to allow for effect size to be calculated and collected data post and/or six months after the intervention. However, due to the small number of studies which collected data six months after the intervention (n=33), these studies were excluded.

A number of findings emerged from the review. Overall, SEL Programmes demonstrated significantly improved social and emotional skills, attitudes and behaviour, though just 32 per cent (68 out of 213) assessed social and emotional skills as programme outcomes. Improvements were also reported in the young peoples' academic performance, reflecting an 11-percentile-point gain in achievement. However,

only 16 per cent (34 out of 213) collected information on academic achievement. Whilst this finding is positive, longitudinal studies will greatly add to the reported benefits of SEL programmes. The review also reported that a number of studies were starting to explore the significance of a bioecological approach by extending the SEL programmes beyond the classroom, and suggested that a broader bioecological approach may add to the understanding of SEL programmes. However, the idea that multicomponent versus single component programmes would produce higher outcomes was not supported contrary to the philosophy underpinning universal programmes. This finding is relevant to the current study as the EFP at the centre of the present study is an example of a SEL programme as it is located beyond the classroom environment but is part of the School Support Programme.

Turning to the moderators of successful SEL programmes, the importance of using the SAFE approach was examined and found to be an important factor for better programme outcomes. This finding is also of importance to the current study as the EFP applies a similar structured approach to SAFE. This is discussed further in Chapter 4 and again in Chapter 8. The studies involved did not allow for participant characteristics, thereby preventing to identify if the SEL programmes may have been more or less effective for a particular profile of young person. This has particular significance for the young people represented in the current study as effective SEL programmes may hold potential for their social and emotional well-being.

In examining the indicated programmes for young people presenting with social and emotional difficulties, Payton and colleagues (2008) conducted a review of 80 school-based indicated social and emotional intervention programmes delivered to 11,337 young people between the ages of 5 and 13 years presenting with early signs of social and

emotional difficulties. Each programme included one or more SEL competency in addition to the inclusion of a control group with 80 per cent using a randomised design. Over 50 per cent of the programmes were delivered in urban areas taking place over a six month time frame with the remaining programmes lasting less than three months duration. All studies reported significant positive findings after the intervention period compared to the control group (Payton et al., 2008).

However, despite the authors' attempts to rule out alternative explanations for findings they emphasised a number of study limitations. First, it was unclear how the variations of the SEL programme content may have impacted on study findings which would be helpful in targeting specific social and emotional skills interventions. Second, most of the studies measured programme outcomes at one point only thereby making it difficult to assess the significance of acquiring certain skills over time and how they may have contributed to the programme outcome. That said, study findings suggest that indicated SEL intervention programmes may be beneficial for young people with social and emotional difficulties. The EFP at the centre of the present study is classified as an indicated programme as it provides an equine facilitated learning programme to people considered to be at higher risk of educational inequality.

The third type of SEL which is now reviewed is the multi-modal approach. This was the focus of evaluation of the Whole-School Implementation of Incredible Years Youngballymun (Morgan & Epsey, 2012), a school and home evidenced based programme aimed at supporting social and emotional development and addressing behaviour management. This multi component and multi-level programme involving children, teachers and parents, delivered over a two year time-frame, reported significant changes in the children's' social and emotional well-being using the Strengths and

Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ, Goodman, 1997) as reported by both parents and teachers. The data were collected at four time points of the study, at the beginning and end of both junior and senior infants. The study involved 247 children, of which 70 per Cent were boys and 30 per cent were girls. The highest level of need was in the Strengths and Difficulties subscale of Hyperactivity with one in four reporting a high level of need and one in four reporting a high level of need in the prosocial subscale. Similar to patterns of gender differences discussed earlier in this chapter, boys scored significantly higher mean scores in the conduct problems with one in four boys presenting with some/high need in conduct disorders (21 per cent) compared to girls at 4 per cent.

Three key findings emerged from the Whole-School Implementation of Incredible Years Youngballymun (Morgan & Epsey, 2012) study. First, the authors highlight the importance of a SEL Curriculum, as it not only improves the individual child's learning but also decreases general classroom behavioural difficulties, a finding reported in previous studies (Durlak, 2010, 2011; Greenberg et al., 2003; Zins 2004). Second, were the reported differences between boys and girls. Finally, and of particular importance to the current study are the improvements in the children's social and emotional well-being after the two year programme. Whilst the absence of a control group limits the interpretation of the findings, it does nonetheless suggest that a dedicated SEL Programme targeting children from socio and economic disadvantaged areas may impact positively on their social and emotional well-being and their subsequent potential for increased educational success.

A further study which focused on universal SEL programme for young people living in economically disadvantaged areas was carried out by Webster and colleagues (2008).

This study involved a randomised trial on a universal prevention programme for 1,768 children aged between 3 – 7 years of age and 153 teachers in Seattle, USA in 14 elementary schools located in areas of high poverty. The intervention programme implemented was the Incredible Years (IY) intervention programme. The study also included a control group which served as an intervention group one year later. The study took place over four consecutive years. The children were recruited and assessed between September and October and assessed again in the spring of the following year. The study included the children, their teachers and parents.

The IY programme involves both the children and the teachers. The teachers received a four day training workshop on classroom management with a focus on developing positive relationships with the children and their parents. The IY Dina Dinosaur Social Skills and Problem Solving curriculum addresses children's social competence, emotional regulation and school behaviour and were delivered twice weekly across 30 classroom sessions. The control group continued with the general curriculum. The study used independent classroom observations, with children observed for thirty minutes on two separate occasions in both a structured and unstructured environment. The observation measures employed evaluated the children's social and emotional competencies. Observations of child conduct problems, emotional self-regulation and social competence used the Multiple Option Observation System for Experimental Studies (MOOSES; Tapp et al., 1995). School readiness was measured using the School Readiness and Conduct Problems: Coder Observation of Adaptation-Revised (COCA-R), an observational version of the TOCA-R (Werthamer-Larsson, Kellam & Oveson-McGregor, 1999). Child problem solving and feelings testing was measured using the Wally Problem Solving and Feelings Tests (Webster-Stratton, 1990).

Teachers were also observed between two and eight times at each time point which also depended on the number of children in each classroom. Observations of classroom atmosphere were measured using the Classroom Atmosphere Measure (CAS) Questionnaire (Greenberg et al., 1995) completed by observers to rate general classroom climate. Observations of teacher classroom management behaviours and teaching style were measured by Multiple Option Observation System for Experimental Studies (MOOSES; Tapp et al., 1995). Finally, teacher praise was measured using the Teacher Coder Impressions Inventory (TCI). Parent teacher involvement was measured using the Teacher–Parent Involvement Questionnaire (INVOLVE-T). The authors addressed the area of fidelity in a number of ways. First, the training workshops were delivered by certified IY trainers using a standard protocol with all sessions videoed. Second, the Dinosaur worksheets, activities and homework were provided to all teachers. Third, recording of all sessions activities were kept by the session co-leader after all sessions and these were supervised by IY supervisors. Finally, the Dinosaur research co-leaders met each week to review progress.

This study examined the relationship between both teacher training and an SEL programme on the social, emotional and behavioural well-being of children identified to be at risk of social and emotional difficulties. Study findings suggest that compared to the control group, the intervention teachers' classrooms were observed as having a more positive classroom management, with children observed to demonstrate greater levels of social competence and emotional self-regulation and fewer conduct problems, all of which promote school readiness. Although implementation integrity was cited as a strength of the study, it was also identified as a weakness due to a reliance on the research staff who were involved in the study. As such, further studies examining the implementation of IY programmes will add to the body of knowledge of how the

role of teachers can enhance the social and emotional competencies affected by socioeconomic disadvantage. Finally, though observations of children's social and emotional well-being were reported to have increased within the school setting, generalisations of new skills and behaviours were not observed, making it difficult to assess programme impact on home life.

However, despite the growing number of studies and reported benefits, Hoffman (2009) advises that many SEL Programmes can be methodologically flawed and further suggests that claims of many SEL studies may be unsubstantiated, a view also held by Matthews, Zeidner and Roberts (2007). In the absence of longitudinal studies, the sustainability of SEL programmes remains unclear.

Furthermore, a number of studies have reported null findings (Social & Character Development Research Consortium, 2010) with variations in outcomes attributed to implementation quality. Results of a national evaluation of a Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning Programme (SEAL, 2010) reported that the programme failed to impact on emotional and conduct problems of the student population or those deemed to be at risk by virtue of their pre-test scores. Using a quasi-experimental pre-test and post- test control design, the study included 2,442 pupils aged 11 – 12 years in 22 SEAL schools and 2,001 pupils aged 11-12 years of age in 19 control schools. Participants were tested in 2008, 2009 and again in 2010 using the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ; Goodman, 1997) and the Emotional Literacy Assessment Instrument (ELAI) with 593 (13 per cent) and 714 (16 per cent) scoring in the abnormal range for emotional and conduct disorders respectively, which were reported as being the national norm for teenagers (Green, et al., 2005). Despite the study findings, the authors suggest that the findings may be attributed to the programme not being

implemented as designed. It is unclear how implementation fidelity was assessed in this study.

Additionally, the study relied on a pupil self-report, a finding reported by Durlak and colleagues (2010) who found that self-reports were a feature of approximately two thirds of universal SEL Programmes. Whilst it is as important to include a young person's opinion in assessment (cited in Edmunds & Steward-Brown, 2003, p.32) as it is to include young people in assessing their own levels of social and emotional well-being and ways that they can be supported (Graham, 2011), Goodman, Ford, Simmons, Gatward and Meltzer (2000) suggest that the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire, as an example of a social and emotional measure is best used when triangulated with parents' and teachers' responses. As such the exclusion of parents and/or teachers may impact on the quality and reliability of the findings.

Further gaps identified in the evaluation of SEL Programmes highlighted that the majority of studies have been conducted in primary schools. As teenagers' social and emotional difficulties are reported to escalate as they grow older, it would be useful to conduct more studies amongst teenagers as well as children, as indeed it would be between boys and girls, to explore if social and emotional programmes relate in similar ways. Finally, many studies rely on single informant designs (Seider, 2013) with a reported absence of external validity of social and emotional interventions and a lack of standardised tests (Elias & Haynes, 2008).

2.3.8 Irish Programme for Promoting Social and Emotional Well-Being

As already stated, the national programme which includes the promotion of social and emotional competencies is embedded within the Department of Education and Skills

Social, Personal, Health and Education Programme (SPHE). Starting initially in primary schools in 1999 (DES, 2009) and subsequently extended to the junior cycle in 2000 (O'Higgins, Galvin & Kennedy, 2007), all schools are required to have dedicated time for the delivery of SPHE modules. The SPHE programme, as a universal programme, is aimed at supporting personal development, health and well-being of young people and helping them create and maintain supportive relationships (DES, 2009). The SPHE Programme in both primary and post primary schools has been the subject of a number of evaluation studies (Burtenshaw, 2003; O'Higgins, Galvin & Kennedy, 2007; SPHE, 2004). Whilst evaluations of the SPHE Programme carried out to-date have highlighted many benefits for pupils (Geary & McNamara, 2003), they also highlighted a number of gaps in the programme, thereby suggesting that the SPHE may not be achieving its programme potential. For example, reviews found that whilst the majority of teaching staff believed in the value of the SPHE Programme, they also identified greater management and staff support and training as being two ways of assisting with the further implementation of the programme (DES, 2009). In addition, teachers highlighted the main barriers to the SPHE Programme being effectively implemented included inadequate staff training and timetabling, exclusion of some staff, (resulting in it not being a universal programme), perceptions of SPHE Programme classes lacking focus and excessively large class sizes (Health Promotion Research Centre, 2007). A similar review relating to SPHE secondary schools was conducted in 2007 which highlighted similar concerns and issues (Oireachtas Report No 71, 2007, p.17).

The benefits of an indicated approach to promoting social and emotional well-being was carried out through the Zippy's Friends Emotional Wellbeing Programme, designed to promote the social and emotional wellbeing of young people between the ages of 5 and

8 years (Clarke, 2010). Conducted in the west of Ireland amongst 30 DEIS schools, this longitudinal study collected data at T₁, during T₂ and T₃, after the programme at T₄ and twelve months afterwards at T₅. The study represented a 24 week programme which was delivered to young people between the ages of 6 and 7 years in first class and was delivered over two academic years. The Zippy's Friends Pilot evaluation found that, by contrast with the children participating in the SPHE programme (which served as the control group) the intervention group demonstrated higher emotional literacy, had developed better coping strategies, showed a decrease in hyperactivity levels and demonstrated an improvement in both their social and academic performance (Clarke, 2010). However, there were a number of factors which limited the generalisability of the study. For example, there was an absence of multi informants. The lack of parental input resulted in the parental data being removed from the study and school principals' views were not included in the study. Furthermore, just over 20% of the total sample was lost through attrition in addition to some of the teachers failing to complete two of the measures at post intervention and at the twelve months follow up. Though outside the control of the researcher, the effect of the programme on the young peoples' academic performance was not examined. In the context of the increasing evidence linking improvements in social and emotional well-being and classroom behaviour and academic performance (Durlak et al., 2010; Catalano, 2002), findings in this area would have made a positive contribution to examining the relationship between social and emotional competencies and academic performance. Whilst the children at the centre of the Zippy's Friends Programme are younger than the current study's participants, the study findings do nonetheless highlight the value of an indicated approach as compared to the SPHE as a universal approach for young people affected by educational inequality.

2.4. Summary and Conclusion

This chapter began with an overview of Bronfenbrenner's model of bioecology and provided an overview of the factors which have been shown to contribute to educational inequality. The School Support Programme was then reviewed as a multidimensional approach aimed at countering educational inequality. The main focus however was the role of social and emotional well-being as one important factor which may potentially promote educational equality. The prevalence of social and emotional difficulties both internationally and nationally is reportedly increasing, with a greater prevalence of externalising behaviours amongst boys. The nature of these behaviours is such that there is an immediate response to the young person with externalising behaviours potentially resulting in a young person with internalising behaviours being left unattended. Irish figures suggest that between 2,000 and 3,000 nine year olds present with high levels of social and emotional difficulties though this figure could be higher. As this group of young people transition to adulthood, their social and emotional difficulties continue to affect them and those within their community.

The emergence of social and emotional difficulties has been attributed to a wide range of factors including the child's biological make up and personality, family and environmental interacting factors, including parental styles and practices, social relationships in school and the teacher-pupil relationships. Bronfenbrenner's (1977) bioecological model provides a useful framework for understanding how environmental factors impact on the development of a young person's social and emotional well-being. Accumulation of risk factors puts a young person at significant risk of developing social and emotional difficulties from an early age and impacting adversely on their well-being and adult adjustment. The increase in social and emotional well-being programmes that have been developed within schools may be a reflection of two key factors. First,

that there is a growing awareness of the need to develop a young person's social and emotional well-being in addition to, if not as a necessary prerequisite, for academic attainment (Hallam et al., 2005). Second, there is a growing awareness of the importance of schools and the significant potential of the teacher-pupil relationship as providing an environment which can potentially develop and nurture a young person.

There is a growing body of evidence available in the international arena regarding the effectiveness of SEL Programmes with a considerably smaller number of Irish studies available. This reflects the small number of Irish SEL Programmes which have been delivered as part of the SPHE in primary and secondary schools. Whilst the SPHE Programme, as a universal programme, appears to be the appropriate medium for the delivery of SEL Programmes, evaluations highlighted how the potential of this programme is compromised by inadequate resources. By contrast, projects such as Zippy's Little Friends and the Young Ballymun's Incredible Years Programme, as indicated and multi-component programmes respectively, have shown that given appropriate planning and resources, positive social and emotional outcomes can be achieved, resulting in enhanced academic attainment and thereby contributing to educational equality, though some caution is required due to a number of limitations in both studies. Furthermore, whilst the SPHE programme as a universal programme is appropriate for the majority of pupils, there are many young people in Irish post and post-primary schools with social and emotional difficulties that negatively impact on their educational engagement and learning, and hence suggest a strong case for targeted programmes for this particular group of young people.

Despite the evidence which suggests that a young person's social and emotional well-being may be linked to greater educational engagement and outcomes, study findings

are mixed. Many evaluation studies have focused on universal programmes rather than indicated or targeted programmes with less evidence on universal programmes than classroom intervention programmes. As young people with social and emotional difficulties have been shown to be at most risk of educational inequality, it is therefore difficult to measure programme effectiveness for this particular group of young people. A further feature of SEL programme evaluations highlight that the participant group tends to include young people in primary schools. As social and emotional difficulties have been shown to increase over time, there is value in evaluating SEL programmes for young people in post primary schools also. Additionally, several studies have relied on single informants. The value of multi informants was discussed earlier in this chapter.

This study attempts to address some of these issues. First, though single interventions in and of themselves may be effective, greatest impact has been shown to occur when multi- level and multi-component programmes are delivered. The EFP at the centre of this study is provided to young people attending DEIS schools which are framed within the multi- level context of the School Support Programme. Second, the EFP at the centre of the study is a targeted intervention for the young people identified as being at risk of either disengaging with the educational system or failing to reach their potential as a result of their social and emotional difficulties. Evaluating an EFP aimed at enhancing the social and emotional well-being in young people at risk of education in equality as a targeted intervention will contribute to a better understanding of social and emotional well-being programmes for this particular group of young people. Third, the inclusion of multi informants in studies involving young people was discussed earlier in this chapter. The current study includes young people, their parents and teachers and may potentially increase the understanding of social and emotional well-

being programmes for young people with social and emotional difficulties. Finally, the study includes young people between 8 and 18 years who were referred to EFP as a targeted programme. Though a small number of Irish studies have evaluated SEL programmes for young people, to the authors knowledge this is one of the largest targeted SEL programmes for young people with social and emotional difficulties attending primary and post primary DEIS schools.

This chapter has focused on the role of social and emotional well-being as a contributory factor which may promote educational equality. The next chapter presents EFPs, as a branch of AAI, as one alternative intervention aimed at enhancing the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality.

Chapter 3. The Role of Equine Facilitated Programmes in Promoting Social and Emotional Well-Being

3.1. Introduction

The previous chapter examined a range of factors which impact on a young person's social and emotional well-being, and how once combined with other circumstances, increases the likelihood of educational inequality. Social and emotional well-being programmes were then discussed as having the potential to contribute to countering educational inequality. Such programmes are increasingly being recognised as playing an important role in the healthy development of young people in areas such as self and social awareness, self-management, personal responsibility and positive engagement with others. Furthermore, and of particular relevance to the current study, a small number of studies have demonstrated how social and emotional well-being programmes have been reported to be especially effective for young people affected by educational inequality (Wilson, Gottfredson & Najakas, 2001). The present study is focused on how an equine facilitated programme (EFP) as a form of an animal assisted interaction (AAI) programme may be helpful in promoting the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by education inequality.

This chapter will address five main areas. First, it will provide an overview of AAIs and how they have been used to promote the social, emotional and behavioural well-being of young people. This is followed by an overview of EFPs as a branch of AAIs, referring mainly to the non-riding activities of equine facilitated psychotherapy/counselling and equine facilitated learning, as distinct to the riding activities of therapeutic riding and hippotherapy. The key differences between equine facilitated psychotherapy/counselling and equine facilitated learning will also be outlined.

Third, the most frequently cited theoretical frameworks which attempt to explain how young people may benefit from interactions with animals and then equines are discussed. As part of this discussion, reference is made to the current divide in the area of equine cognition and behaviour and how this can compromise the development of a unified understanding of the role of equines in EFPs. This is followed by an illustration of equine traits which are cited as making a unique contribution to EFPs (Hallberg, 2008). Fourth, the chapter presents an overview of each of the four theories as they apply first to AAIs and then as they may relate to EFPs, taking into consideration that an EFP is not a theoretical framework in itself, but is embedded within the current AAI theoretical framework (Masini, 2010). A review of the theories will attempt to explain how equines may play an instrumental role in promoting the social and emotional well-being of young people. As part of this, it will examine whether or not any one theory may potentially provide a stronger foundation for understanding how and why EFPs may be effective for young people with social and emotional difficulties. The importance of social and emotional well-being as one factor necessary in promoting educational equity was discussed in the previous chapter. The theories presented are the Biophilia Hypothesis, Social Cognitive Theory, Social Support Theory and Attachment Theory. The fifth and final section discusses the research that has been conducted which explores the impact of EFPs amongst young people with social and emotional difficulties.

3.2. Overview of Animal Assisted Interventions

The term AAI covers both animal assisted activities (AAA) and animal assisted therapy (AAT) (Kruger & Serpell, 2010). Both terms refer to the relationship between people and animals which are aimed at achieving either a therapeutic or personal growth or development outcome. AAA is defined as an activity which provides educational, recreational or therapeutic benefits and is facilitated by trained professionals and/or

volunteers. Visits to people with animals may be unplanned and of unspecific duration (Delta Society, 2011). This may include a visit with a dog to a residential home for young adults with an intellectual disability or nursing home for the elderly. By contrast, AAT is defined as a process which is a goal directed intervention aimed at improving physical, social, emotional and/or cognitive functioning, with sessions including goals and objectives for each individual. An AAT goal may be part of a multi element programme of which an AAT goal is but one element. Alternatively, the AAT intervention may be the goal in itself (Delta Society, 2011).

There has been a growing interest in whether AAI's may potentially promote the physiological, physical and psychological well-being of people of all ages and backgrounds (Adams, 2009; Currie, 2009; Grandgeorge & Hausberger, 2012; Hoffman, 2009; Kemp & Le Roux, 2008; Le Roux & Kemp, 2009; Nimer & Lundahl, 2007). In particular, AAI's are increasingly being used for young people with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties (Anderson & Olson, 2006; Breitenbach, Stumpf, Fersen & Ebert, 2009; Mallon, 1994; Morrison, 2007). Levinson and Mallon (1997) suggest that young people with social and emotional difficulties may relate with greater ease to animals than people because of an animal's reported ability to provide non-threatening and unconditional attention and affection. Results of studies evaluating AAI's amongst young people suggest improved social behaviour (Krskova, Talarovicova & Olexova, 2010), communications (Bass, Duchowny & Llabre, 2009; Beck & Katcher, 2003; Chandler, 2005; Martin & Farnum, 2002) mental well-being (Kruger, Trachtenberg & Serpell, 2004; Lange, Cox, Bernert & Jenkins, 2006) and greater levels of empathy towards others (Harbolt & Ward, 2001; Lange et al., 2006). However, many of the AAI studies tend to be largely descriptive, small, unrepresentative and including case studies, or small groups of participants with no control groups. In addition, studies have few

follow up measures included to assess for long term effects (Marino, Lilienfeld, 2007; O’Haire, 2012; Stern & Chur-Hansen, 2013). Whilst such studies provide an insight into the benefits of AAI, Kruger and Serpell (2004) found that the absence of a shared terminology in AAI, compromises the potential to both evaluate programmes and gain acceptance for the work of AAI. Furthermore they state that in order for the field of AAI to progress, that methodologically robust studies are needed including defined clinical sample and randomised controlled designs.

The next section will examine the emergence of EFPs, a branch of AAI, as interventions for young people aimed at enhancing their social and emotional well-being (Burgon, 2003; Gergely, 2012).

3.3. Overview of Equine Facilitated Programmes

EFPs are a branch of AAI which have increased in popularity over the past decade (EAGALA, 2015). A review of the literature relating to EFPs shows studies that include riding programmes such as hippotherapy, therapeutic riding or vaulting and non-riding programmes of equine facilitated psychotherapy or equine facilitated counselling, and equine facilitated learning (Selby & Smith-Osborne, 2013; Selby, 2009) as illustrated in Figure 8 below.

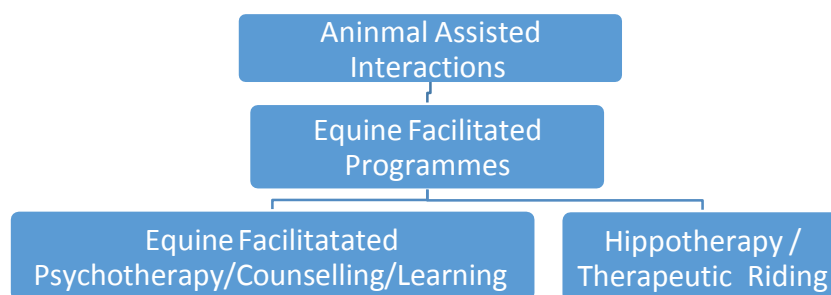


Figure 8. Animal Assisted Interventions and Equine Facilitated Programmes

As this study is concerned with non-riding EFPs, it will include only those studies which

state that the programme is based on non-riding or, where there is a combination of non-riding and riding activities. The term EFP will be used to describe equine facilitated psychotherapy, equine facilitated counselling and equine facilitated learning unless otherwise noted. Finally, as the focus of this study is of young people with social and emotional difficulties, only studies which involve this participant profile are included.

In exploring the possible theoretical framework underpinning EFPs, it may be useful to do so against the backdrop of the evidenced based equine traits (Feist & McCullough, 1976; Mills & Nankervis, 1999; Nicol, 2002; VanDierendonck & Spruijt, 2012). Figure 9 below illustrates key equine traits which are discussed throughout this chapter in the context of the theoretical framework and their relevance and application to EFPs.

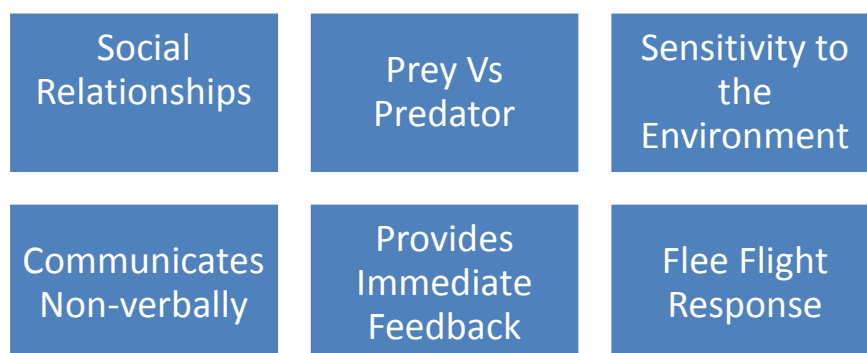


Figure 9. Equine Traits

Designed by the Author

3.3.1 Growth and Development of Equine Facilitated Programmes

There are a growing number of organisations emerging at an International, European and National level in response to the growth in the area of EFPs. International organisations include the Equine Facilitated Mental Health Association (EFMHA), the Equine Assisted Growth and Learning Association (EAGALA), the Federation of Horses in Education and Therapy (HETI), the Equine Association of Guided Education (EGEA) and EPONA. The European organisations include Association for Equine Assisted Education

(EAHAE), EPONA and the Equine Assisted Qualifications (EAQ).

In general, these organisations concentrate on addressing one or more of the following key objectives. The first area relates to the need for professional training and development of those involved in delivering EFPs to ensure that facilitators have the necessary skills and competencies. The second objective focuses on supporting and conducting research into the impact of EFPs on peoples' physical, psychological, psychosocial and mental well-being. The third objective addresses the need for appropriate management and welfare of equines. However, each of these organisations is self-regulating and at present, there are no international bodies overseeing the standards relating to EFPs. In an Irish context, the Equine Facilitated Education and Therapy Association (EFETA) was established in 2009. Broadly speaking, EFETA's main objectives reflect the International and European pattern in encouraging best practice in training, education and professional development for practitioners, supporting and promoting best practice in research and evaluation regarding the benefits of EFPs and promoting standards and guidance relating to the well-being of equines. See <http://www.efeta.ie/efeta-objectives.html>.

The field of EFPs is characterised by the considerable variation of different terms such as equine assisted learning, equine assisted coaching, equine guided education and equine assisted experiential learning amongst others (La Joie, 2003; Lentini & Knox, 2009). This in itself has led to confusion not only amongst the general public but also amongst practitioners, difficulties also reported in the field of AAI studies (Kruger & Serpell, 2004). Furthermore, and of particular relevance to this study, the differing terms have contributed to difficulties in being able to measure programme outcomes (Silkwood-Sherer & Warmbier, 2007). In this section, the role of how equines can improve the social

and emotional well-being of young people presenting with a range of social, emotional and/or behavioural difficulties will be examined.

3.3.2 Differences between Equine Assisted Psychotherapy, Equine Facilitated Counselling and Equine Facilitated Learning as Equine Facilitated Programmes

A key difference between equine facilitated psychotherapy (EFP) and equine facilitated counselling (EFC) *and* equine facilitated learning (EFL) is the qualification of the facilitators (Rugari, Sayda & Kenned, 2013) which, in the case of EFP and EFC are those with a qualification in mental health (Wilson, 2012). An equine facilitated learning (EAL) facilitator will most likely hold a qualification in group facilitation, coaching or similar appropriate credentials. In addition, facilitators of EFP, EFC and EAL programmes will typically have engaged in additional training and professional development with one of the previously cited organisations (Selby, 2009).

A further distinguishing feature relates to how both equine assisted psychotherapy and counselling address a range of mental health areas, including substance abuse, eating disorders, depression, anxiety and relationship difficulties (Garcia, 2010). The EFP facilitator explores the way a person sees and relates to both themselves and to others, exploring patterns of behaviour and examining past experience and traumas. By contrast, equine facilitated learning, as a process, is more likely to explore personal development areas such as teamwork, problem solving, communications and improved self and social awareness and focuses on the present rather than the past. Equine facilitated learning is widely used with young people with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties, leadership and corporate groups, and those with an interest in personal development (Garcia, 2010; Masini, 2010; Schultz, Remick-Barlow & Robbins, 2007; Trotter, Chandler, Goodwin-Bond & Casey, 2008).

Despite these distinctions however, both processes share certain characteristics. First and foremost, they are all facilitated processes excluding a skills teaching aspect of horsemanship (Rothe, Vega, Torres, Soler & Pazos, 2004). They usually take place within an arena space including one or more equines. Sessions can include one or more participants and typically involve two personnel; a psychotherapist, counsellor or trained facilitator and usually, but not always, an equine specialist who oversees both the safety of the participants and the welfare of the equines (Moreau & McDaniel, 2000).

Having described EFPs as a branch of AAIs, the next section presents the most frequently cited theories to support why EFPs as a branch of AAIs may be effective for young people with social and emotional difficulties.

3.3.3 Theoretical Framework for Equine Facilitated Programmes as Animal Assisted Interactions

There are a number of theories cited in the literature which attempt to offer some understanding regarding the possible reasons why animals may be beneficial as a therapeutic intervention for people (O'Haire, 2010). Whilst Kruger and Serpell (2006) suggest that the current theoretical framework for AAIs is insufficient, a view supported by Berget and Grepperud (2011), a number of theories have been put forward to attempt to explain how interacting with animals can be therapeutic. The most frequently cited theoretical frameworks include the Biophilia Hypothesis (Wilson, 1984), Social Support Theory (McNicholas & Collis, 2006), Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 2000) and Attachment Theory (Bowlby, 1982).

3.4. Introductory Note Relating to Equine Cognition and Behaviour

Although equine cognition and behaviour is not the focus of the present study, current

research is divided in reaching an understanding of the reasons why equines behave in certain ways (Garcia, 2013; Hanggi, 2012; Hausberger, 2007). This divide highlights the difficulties and challenges in exploring one or more theoretical framework for EFPs in an already divided arena. For example, some studies refer to the concept of dominance, submission and leadership between the person and the equine interaction (Anderson & Hendrikson, 2004; Roberts, 1997) exploring how this can develop a person's leadership skills. However, McGreevy and McLean (2007) query the philosophy of the human as leader in this context, arguing that the idea of people needing to become an equine's leader holds little ethological relevance. Further studies suggest that equines can recognise, understand and interact with people on the basis of successful mimicry of human behaviour as if they were equines (Henshall & McGreevy, 2014). For example, loose lunging as an activity that takes place within an enclosure where a person moves an equine around for varying amounts of time.

Loose lunging is used as part of EFPs whereby an equines licking and chewing is cited as a signal of the equines submission and the acceptance of the person as their leader (Roberts, 1997). Nevertheless, McDonnell (2005) proposes that such non-ingestive oral movements may indeed be an indicator of stress, though further studies are necessary to examine this in more detail (Henshall & McGreevy, 2014).

Observational studies of equines' social organisations in both their natural and domestic environment propose that equines responses to peoples' behaviour can be best explained by equine learning theory of habituation and operant and classical conditioning, with the cognitive and behavioural ability of equines demonstrating little, if any, similarity to people (Henshall & McGreevey, 2014). As stated, each section will start with reviewing each of four theoretical framework first as they apply to AAI's and then as they apply to

EFPs.

3.5. Biophilia Hypothesis and Animal Assisted Interventions

One of the first theoretical frameworks which has contributed to the understanding of how and why AAIs may be effective is the Biophilia Hypothesis. Put forward by Wilson (1984), the Biophilia Hypothesis refers to the human tendency to be instinctively attracted, or drawn to, both animals and nature, suggesting that there is an innate bond between human beings and other living things (Fine, 2010; Melson, 2001). Wilson also argues that an absence of contact with nature compromises a persons' normal development. This framework also emphasises that animals are typically alerted to danger sooner than a human would be and consequently may provide important cues for safety and survival (Kruger & Serpel, 2006). Heerwagen (2000) concurs that Biophilia is innate, suggesting it is part of mankind's genetic heritage. Heerwagen (2000) further proposes that people subconsciously seek a connection with animals and nature in order to achieve fulfilment with Kahn (1997) proposing it can provide an interdisciplinary framework for examining peoples' affiliation with nature. However, Joye and deBlock (2011) query if Biophilia Hypothesis is a coherent construct as it claims that there is an emotional link between a person and the living world, which they dispute. Though Joye and deBlock (2011) acknowledge that there is strong evidence that people are attracted to and have a strong affinity with what the term 'life like elements and processes', they argue that Biophilia Hypothesis cannot place the human nature relationship in a 'narrow evolutionary psychology framework'. What is clear however, is that people do appear to have a positive attraction with nature i.e. the natural environment and animals.

Ulrich (1984, 1993; Ulrich et al., 1991) has written extensively on the restorative

influence of the natural environment, reporting its relationship with stress reduction. A number of studies have examined the relationship between pet ownership and reduced blood pressure and heart rate, reporting significantly lower blood pressure amongst pet owners as compared to non-pet owners (Friedmann, Zuck Locker & Lockwood, 1990; Friedmann & Thomas, 1995). Other studies suggest that the act of watching animals in itself can produce a calming effect on people, in addition to reduced anxiety and arousal (Friedmann, Katcher, Thomas, Lynch & Messent, 1983; Gullone, 2000; Kahn, 1997; Mallon, 1994). However, Serpell (1996) adds some caution, noting that any stimulus which is appealing, or which concentrates the mind, may also have a calming effect on the body, suggesting that this calming and de-arousing effect can be produced by activities or objects other than animals.

Various studies have further explored the physiological changes that occur between people with their pets, with findings reporting varying levels of stress reduction (Cole, Gawlinski, Steers & Kotlerman, 2007). For example, Handlin (2010) reported on the release of oxytocin amongst pet owners whilst petting and stroking their pets with no effect on the oxytocin levels on the control group. As oxytocin is generally accepted as a stress reducing hormone (Cardoso, Ellenbogen, Serravalle, Linnen, 2013), pet owner contact is seen as one potential avenue which can be used to release stress, a finding also supported by Odenaal and Meintjes (2003). Such findings have important implications for young people with social and emotional difficulties who may find it difficult to self-regulate their emotions and behaviour, as discussed in Chapter 2. As such, the Biophilia Hypothesis helps to provide an understanding as to how and why animals may be therapeutically beneficial for people, particularly those significantly removed from contact with animals and nature based experiences (Mallar, Townsend, Pyror, Brown & St. Leger, 2006).

The Biophilia Hypothesis has particular significance in the context of urbanisation, the rate of which has increased by 78 per cent in Europe (European Environment Agency [EEA], 2008). Urbanisation was recorded at 62.2 per cent of the Irish population in 2011, with a 1.63 per cent projected increase between the years 2010 – 2015 (Index Mundi, 2014). With evidence highlighting the relationship between urbanisation and poverty (Teitz & Chapple, 1998; Leete, 2008; Norwegian Agency for Development Co-operation [NORAD] 2010; Satterthwaite, McGranham & Tacoli 2010) young people affected by educational inequality are less likely to have access to nature based facilities. As such, the Biophilia Hypothesis may be especially helpful as a theoretical framework for AAIs whilst working with young people affected by socioeconomic disadvantage with social and emotional difficulties who are reported to have less contact with nature (Mitchell & Popham, 2008).

3.5.1 Biophilia Hypothesis and Equine Facilitated Programmes

Unlike small animals involved in AAIs, such as dogs which can be brought into schools or other institutions, EFPs usually take place in rural areas, or in urban areas with varying degrees of density of green space. Although the environment in which EFPs take place has not been studied extensively, Flate & Berge (2010; cited in Hauge et al., 2014) found that the natural environment and social settings were important considerations for young people as part of an EFP. Garcia (2010) argues that EFPs can provide opportunities for ecological awareness which can positively affect one's relationship with self and with others. This aspect of EFPs may therefore be an added attraction to spending time with equines, especially for young people with limited access to green spaces. The physical geographical context of EFPs may therefore be a contributing factor to a young person's receptiveness to EFPs as an intervention aimed at promoting social and emotional well-being. However, further studies are needed to

examine of EFPs in greater depth and detail.

A further dimension of the Biophilia Hypothesis emphasises the interdependent relationship between people and animals (Kruger & Serpel, 2006) and how people have co-existed with and relied on animal cues for their safety and well-being. In discussing the relationship between equines and people, Brandt (2004) suggests that when two different species come together, it is necessary to develop a shared meaning through a shared body language. In other words, the communications between a young person and equines. Brandt (2004) argues that communicating non-verbally can potentially lead to the development of a give and take relationship between the person and the equine.

Brandt (2004) further suggests that interacting with an equine is different than other animals such as a dog or a cat. A large equine can potentially present a perceived threat to a person's safety, highlighting the need for people to develop effective communications, which they can do by increasing their attentiveness and staying more present. Brandt (2004) then proposes that in the equine person relationship, the body becomes the basis from which communication systems grow and develop, referring to this as embodied experience, and allowing a deep understanding to develop between the person and the equine. For people, learning how to use their bodies in a different way can take some time to learn but one which may ultimately result in a somatic experience. Esbjorn (2006) suggests that this results in a mind body connection in the person equine relationship which reportedly produces a sense of calm within the young person. As equines rely entirely on body language to communicate within the herd and to survive in the wild, this is an attribute that can significantly enhance the person equine interaction.

The therapeutic value of the equine's size is suggested as a factor which may help young people to manage and overcome their fear and subsequently leading to increased self-confidence (Burgon, 2011; Schultz et al., 2007). This finding was also reported by Chandler (2005) who found that young people who successfully influenced the behaviour of large equines experienced increases in self-confidence and self-esteem. Kersten and Thomas (2004) further suggest that controlling an equine necessitates the young person to demonstrate both concentration and resourcefulness, with resulting success leading also to improved self-esteem, confidence, communication skills, trust and an improvement in their ability to establish boundaries. However, caution is needed in this suggestion as the relationship between the size of the equine and improvements in self-confidence and self-esteem has not been examined. The size of equines reportedly provides an interesting paradox in how their strength can be subtly and gently influenced by one or more young people in a relatively short timeframe and, how the equines size, may open up discussion on topics related to vulnerability, power and control (Frewin & Gardiner, 2005).

The large physical size of the equine was further found to be a motivator for 49 young people with social, behavioural and communication difficulties at risk of disengaging from school. Waite and Bourke (2013) explored the role of the equine as an aid to initial engagement in an EFP with 40 young people who had not been responsive to traditional interventions. Participants reported on the power differential and the size of the equine and commented on their initial feelings of intimidation and nervousness. Observers ($n=9$) of the EFP including either parents or staff commented on how the young people paid immediate and instant attention to the equines. However, study findings should be treated with caution as the findings reflect one group of young people who participated in one EFP session. In addition, the young people were reported to have found it difficult

to discuss their experiences and feelings of the EFP session. That said, the equine appears to have the potential to attract or capture the attention of the young people and could be studied further, for example as part of a comparative studies involving different animals.

3.5.2 The Equine as a Bio Feedback Mechanism

Aligned to the Biophilia Hypothesis is the suggestion that equines as bio feedback mechanisms can enable people to learn how to change physiologically in order to improve how they behave. Lentini and Knox (2009) suggest that equines are affected by discrepancies between stated intent and observed behaviour, or a person's incongruence, a view also supported by (Kohanov, 2010). For example, a person who may describe themselves as happy or content but may be feeling afraid and anxious may be detected by an equine because of the person's muscle tension, increased heart rate or other physiological indicators (Kohanov, 2010). Cody, Steiker, and Szymandera (2011) suggest that equines do not appear to feel comfortable in situations where such apparent incongruence exists, and are likely to move to a different part of the arena. Such a response can then become the focus of a facilitated discussion between the EFP facilitator and the young person in trying to develop greater self-awareness of their emotional and cognitive well-being and ultimately achieve greater congruence (Frewin & Gardiner, 2005).

A number of possible reasons have been put forward to explain why equines may be able to provide bio feedback. First, Lentini and Knox (2009) suggest that equines, as herd animals, rely on physiological and behavioural cues which in turn contribute to their safety. Second, as prey animals, an equine's flight instincts can be activated by ascending levels of aggression and anxiety (Burgon, 2011). Third, EFP participants reportedly

perceive equines as non-judgmental (Burgon, 2011; Frewin & Gardiner, 2005; Karol, 2007; Schultz et al., 2007) which, they suggest, can promote feelings of self-confidence, trust and self-efficacy. The manner in which equines respond to people has frequently been referred to as mirroring peoples' behaviour (McConnell, 2010; McCormick & McCormick, 1997; Vidrine, Owen-Smith & Faulkner, 2002) or reflecting peoples' emotional and/or cognitive levels (Masini, 2005). Unlike previous authors who propose that horses mirror a person's emotional state, Gehrke and Baldwin's (2013) do not support this theory, but do agree that a certain dynamic does exist between people and equines in EFPs.

Negative human feelings towards equines are reported to increase an equines heart rate which may in turn affect their behaviour (Henry, Hemery, Richard & Hansberger, 2005). Exploring peoples' emotional levels as part of EFPs has been the focus of a series of studies by Gerhke (2011; 2013; Gerhke, Baldwin & Schiltz, 2011) which suggest that positive or negative person to animal experiences can be measured by heart rate variability (HRV). This can then determine if a person, and indeed an equine, is emotionally stressed or calm. Preliminary findings from six pilot studies suggest that it is possible to measure HRV amongst a person's and horse's well-being as part of EFPs.

However, one aspect of heart rate variability is that it decreases linearly with age and not all heart rate variability is equal, meaning that heart rate irregularities should be removed from the data before comparisons can be made. Furthermore, it is likely that other clinical measures could be used in conjunction with heart rate variability, i.e. cortisol levels which would enable the measurement of stress fluctuations with greater accuracy and reliability. As such, whilst the potential findings provide a degree of insight and understanding into and of equine and human stress levels and heart rate

variability, it is still unclear if heart rate variability is a significant measurement tool that can be meaningfully used within EFP studies.

Of particular interest however from Gehrke's (2013) and Gerhke and Baldwin's (2013) findings is the idea that the calm or de-arousal state of the equine involved in EFPs may have more of an influence on the person and not vice-versa, indicating that a relaxed equine can potentially help to deescalate a stressed or anxious person. Conversely, in choosing equines to work with particular groups of young people, for example those with hypo- arousal symptoms, an equine known to be particularly low arousal itself may also prove to be a good choice for the EFP session, due to the potential for metaphorical learning.

A further important finding also suggests that it is the person who may be responsible for promoting a bonding between the person and the equine by projecting positive feelings towards an equine who may then reciprocate. Although needing further research to confirm preliminary results, this finding could potentially prove to be a powerful focus of EFPs in facilitating young people to experience and witness how their emotions and behaviours can affect others, and lending support to the Social Cognitive Theory which is discussed later in this section.

3.6. Social Support Theory and Animal Assisted Interactions

Social Support Theory (McNicholas & Collis, 2006) has also been put forward to help explain how and why people may benefit from AAIs, with a general acceptance that social supports enhance a young person's physical (Uchino, 2009) and mental well-being (Grohol, 2008). Duval, Antonacopoulos and Pychyl (2010) suggest that there are three types of social supports. First, that of emotional support which centres on being loved

and cared for. Second, there is social support referring to the tangible support of doing and assisting. The third and final type relates to informational support which provides practical and relevant information.

Whilst animals may not be able to fulfil the tangible or information roles within Social Support Theory (Keeres, 2006), the role of guide and assistive dogs being the exception to this, there is evidence to suggest that animals may fulfil the emotional support role (Garrity, Stallones, Marx, & Johnson, 1989; Melson & Beck, 1998; Salomon, 1995). Thompson (2009) found that children frequently reported turning to their pets when experiencing problems with further research showing that animal companionship can reduce a sense of isolation (Mills & Hall, 2014). Animals are also seen as providing a non-judgemental emotional support (Allen, Blascovich & Mendes, 2002) which may have significant implications for young people with negative relationships either at home and/or in school (Brown, 2004).

Social Support Theory further refers to feeling loved, being cared for and belonging to a network of communications, factors which can protect young people from the negative impact of difficulties (Noble & McGrath, 2012), with a lack of social support leading to potential risks for physical and/or psychological difficulties (Collis & McNicholas, 1998). Black (2012) highlights how social supports for young people may contain two elements. First, that there is a sufficient number of people to whom the young person can turn to and secondly, that the young person is satisfied with the nature and quality of this support.

The reasons for pet ownership was examined by Straats, Wallace and Anderson (2008) in the Ohio State University. The study included 241 college students and 102

community members over the age of 30, with both groups living within the same geographical area. Using a ten item questionnaire, study findings reported that the primary reason both groups kept pets was motivated by efforts to avoid feelings of loneliness, and secondly, to help them manage difficult and challenging times. This was especially so amongst the student population, supporting the idea of how pets can provide both emotional and social support. Whilst the study provides further insight into the impact of pet ownership on avoidance of loneliness, the sample were not randomly selected; it was a non-random sample and therefore not representative of general student or community member population.

The importance of a positive and caring relationship between teachers and pupils with social and emotional difficulties was discussed in Chapter 2. However, even when such social support is provided, insecure attachment has been shown to compromise a young person's ability to benefit from the social support that may be provided by a teacher in a stressful situation within the classroom setting (Beetz, Turner & Kotrschal, 2012). As stress has been shown to inhibit the learning process (Miyake et al., 2000), young people with disorganised attachment have a higher risk of poor academic performance. This was the focus of Beetz, Julius, Turner and Kotrschal's (2012) study which investigated if young males with disorganised attachment would benefit more from social support from a dog compared to a friendly person or toy dog, whilst carrying out a stressful task. The study found that the involvement of a dog in animal assisted education (as a form of AAI) was effective in the provision of social support to the young males, as it helped to regulate their physiological stress levels. Though the findings illustrate the potential for the involvement of therapy dogs within the classroom, the study sample size was small with data collected over two time points. Whilst the study found that the presence of a dog helped to reduce the young peoples' stress levels, the degree to which this

impacted on the young peoples' academic performance over time was not measured. That said, Social Support Theory offers a further explanation as to how young people can form and develop positive social relationships through AAIs. For young people with insecure attachment and in need of social support, AAIs may hold the potential to provide a social support that may be missing in the young person's home and indeed school life.

3.6.1 Social Support Theory and Equine Facilitated Programmes

Whilst social support has been shown to evolve from positive relationships, it is unlikely that all needs can be met through the one relationship. In this regard, Burgon (2011) found that equines can potentially fulfil some of the basic social support needs such as emotional closeness or intimacy, and the opportunities for nurturing through caring for equines in activities such as grooming. As equines reportedly respond to peoples' emotional state (Birke et al., 2011), feelings of intimacy may develop, resulting in feelings of social support.

Equines are herd animals with a highly developed social order and relational skills which help greatly to provide the basis for their safety (Ekesbo, 2011; Kohanov, 2010). Observing two or more equines interact with each other provides the EFP facilitator with many rich insights into how a young person perceives the interactions and dynamics between the equines, allowing an interpretation of feelings and behaviours, including the social relationships between them, and how young people describe them.

There is a scarcity of studies which have explored the role of EFPs and social support, with just two studies conducted which examined potential benefits to this author's knowledge. One study which specifically explored the relationship between an EFP and

social support was conducted by Toukonen (2011) in Ohio. This qualitative study examined the relationships between teenage girls ($n=10$) with emotional and psychological difficulties, who rode in a therapeutic riding centre and teenage girls ($n=9$) with no presenting emotional and psychological from local equestrian centres who rode regularly for pleasure riding. The programme involved a combination of riding sessions and non-riding equine care sessions, taking place over a 12 week period. Using open ended questions, the girls were asked to describe their relationship with their equines. Emerging themes from both sets of girls included sharing physical affection, being there for each other, feeling connected, and dealing with stress, being good at something and perceiving oneself as a better person.

Whilst the emerging themes were similar for both groups, the way in which each of the groups related to and benefitted from the equines varied. For example, the therapeutic group girls' relationship with the equines was marked by duty, tolerance and accommodating one's and other's (girl and horse) distress, similar to relationships based on need. By contrast, the recreational group girls' relationship with equines was characterised by love, attentiveness and intimacy, more similar to the positive human relationship. Likewise, the reported benefits from both groups varied. The therapeutic group girls described the benefits of their relationships with the equines as helping them to overcome their deficits and temporary escapism from their personal difficulties, whilst the recreational group girls reported feeling more relaxed and competent.

As this study used one interview to explore the two groups' views about their relationship with the equines, it was not possible, in the absence of a pre-test measure, to determine if the benefits in the areas, as reported by the girls, changed over time. That said, the findings of this study provides some potential insight into the benefit and

understanding of the role of EFPs for young people, particularly those with emotional and psychological difficulties. However, studies including greater sample sizes and greater methodological basis will continue to contribute to understanding how EFPs can promote the well-being of young people with social and emotional difficulties.

Hauge and colleagues (2014) in a randomised controlled trial, also explored the relationship between EFPs and social support. Teenagers ($n=49$) between 12 – 15 years participated in an EFP, combining weekly riding and non-riding activities over a 4 month time-frame. Though the participants did not present with particular diagnoses or psychological or behavioural difficulties, the findings concluded that compared to the control group, the participants showed an increase in perceived social support. Using the READ subscale to measure perceived social support, findings showed that the teenagers with the lowest level of social support demonstrated the highest increase in learning a range of equine related tasks, suggesting that EFPs may provide an environment for learning and accomplishing skills as young people may perceive it as a supportive process. Although, as stated, this study was not measuring the EFP as an intervention for particular behavioural difficulties but was designed to analyse the teenagers' experiences, findings suggest that EFPs may be more valuable for teenagers with lower levels of perceived social support.

Whilst it is not clear which active ingredients of an EFP may contribute to the findings, it is possible that the co-operation of the equine/s and other team members necessary to accomplish EFP tasks may potentially provide some explanation. For example, a group of young people asked to encourage an equine to move from one point in the arena to another requires varying degrees of communication, planning, teamwork and decision making, without which it is unlikely that the task will be achieved. Peer

support, and indeed, the co-operation of the equine may be necessary if such an activity is to be successfully achieved. As the EFP facilitator plays a non-directive role, the responsibility remains with the team, thereby requiring them to both give and receive support throughout the process, if the task is to be achieved. However, to this author's knowledge there are no studies which have specifically investigated which aspects of an EFP may potentially contribute to increased social support.

3.7. Social Cognitive Theory and Animal Assisted Interventions

The third theory which has been reported to provide further insights into the therapeutic benefit of AAIs is that of Social Cognitive Theory (Kruger & Serpell, 2006). This theory proposes that young people learn by observing others, with a reciprocal relationship between the young person's cognitions, behaviour and the environment, all of which are continuously influencing each other (Bandura, 2000). Social Cognitive Theory is based on understanding cognitive constructs, which include self-esteem, locus of control, social competencies and emotional and behavioural regulation (Bandura, 1991; 2001; Kruger & Serpell, 2006). This has been reported to be particularly useful when applied to interventions aimed at personality development and behavioural intervention programmes (Adams, 2009).

Learning behaviour through observations, or modelling, is common in the literature on AAIs (Fine, 2000) as young people can observe cause and effect particularly well with animals, due to their instant responses to young peoples' behaviour. Kruger & Serpell (2006) argue that changes in behaviour occur as a result of changes in a person's self-perception. For example, 'I think I am an aggressive person; I will behave like an aggressive person and will be treated like an aggressive person by those around me'.

As a young person's behaviour elicits either positive or negative responses, the

responsibility of these responses rests within the control of the young person. From a learning theory perspective, the quicker the feedback is provided to the learner the more effective the learning experience (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Social skills training can be taught effectively through AAIs with cognitive and behavioural changes reported in a number of studies (Kruger, Trachtenberg & Serpell, 2004). Such activities have been found to be effective for young people on the ASD, reporting an increase in verbal and non-verbal communication skills (O'Haire, 2010; Solomon, 2010; Topel & Lachmann, 2008). This is a feature of dog training programmes which require the young person to assess and adjust their own behaviour in order to regulate the behaviour of the dog. Such programmes have reported outcomes including improved self-confidence and empathy (Chandler 2005; Kogan, Granger, Fitchett, Helmer & Young, 1999; Strimple, 2003). Social Cognitive Theory would appear to have particular significance in AAIs as a result of the immediacy of the feedback to the young person and the opportunities this presents him to make the necessary adjustment in order to achieve a particular outcome (Stack, 2011). As a result, the young person may develop a more positive self-image with the potential to generalise new behaviours in school or at home (Kruger & Serpell, 2006).

3.7.1 Social Support Theory and Equine Facilitated Programme

Through the reactions and continuous behavioural changes that equines make, people are provided with numerous opportunities to engage in personal explorations of feelings and developing an understanding of self, relationships, communications, self-efficacy and self-esteem (Bizub & Davidson, 2003). Due to the immediate feedback from equines which has been cited as being a particular equine trait, due to their flight response young people can observe the cause and effect of their behaviour, allowing them to self-monitor and self-regulate during EFP sessions. For example, equine behaviour such as

ears pinned back, swishing tail, sudden movements of different parts of their body, head held high, suggests that an equine may be agitated or uncomfortable (Hartmann, Sondergaard & Keeling, 2012). The young person observing these behaviours can discuss and interpret their meaning. Conversely, other equine behaviours such as a lowering of the head, soft blinking eyes or a resting foot suggest a contented and relaxed frame of mind (Hartmann, Sondergaard & Keeling, 2012). Observing these different behaviours, facilitated by the EFP facilitator, allows a young person to reflect on thoughts and feelings, on how behaviours can change and the causes of such changes. It may also improve a young person's self and social awareness, personal responsibility and communication and relational skills. Where a young person does not see the impact of their behaviour, the facilitative nature of an EFP draws the young person's attention to the equine's behaviour, thereby avoiding a direct comment on the young person's behaviour but allowing and encouraging him or her to self-reflect and decide on possible alternatives and actions. In this context the skills and competency of the EFP facilitator is critical.

Equines, as prey creatures (Matamonasa-Bennett, 2015), are highly sensitive to their environment, operating at an emotional and intuitive level and constantly relying on non-verbal body language for survival (Rothe et al, 2004). Equines use their bodies as a vehicle for communication to give and receive information and are highly skilled at interpreting body language of others (Brandt, 2004). Equines also pay significant attention to detail, and to the things that can go unnoticed by most people. Working with equines as part of EFPs involves exploring how young people listen to and then interpret equines non-verbal communication and cues, and how this can relate to the young person's interactions and communications with others in their lives. As such, young people can learn that by adjusting their behaviour, which encourages

self-monitoring (Brooks, 2006), equines will make a corresponding adjustment to their behaviour. In this context, Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory provides some explanation and understanding as to why EFPs may be particularly effective. Lentini and Knox (2009) further discuss how equines are affected by the discrepancies between peoples' intentions and their actions and how equines respond to the former. O'Neill (2004) found that equines with especially low energy levels were particularly effective in encouraging young people with externalising behaviours to self-regulate their behaviour.

Schultz and colleagues (2007) propose that equine facilitated psychotherapy is a specialised form of psychotherapy which focuses primarily on facilitating positive engagement through an experiential and animal based modality. They further propose that equine facilitated psychotherapy is strongly allied to Gestalt Therapy as a basic tool using non-verbal communication or use of body language (Schultz et al., 2007). In discussing the benefits of this, Zilcha Mano, Mikulincer and Shaver (2011) propose that non-verbal interactions are considerably more natural for young people with emotional difficulties as they may have problems articulating their feelings and/or thoughts. Due to the heightened awareness of equines, who are always reacting to their environment, there are continuous opportunities for interpreting their behaviour which can be viewed as projections, providing an insight into the young person's internal world. This then allows the therapist (in the context of equine facilitated psychotherapy) with opportunities to explore such projections (Bachi et al., 2015).

3.8. Attachment Theory and Animal Assisted Interactions

The fourth theory which has attracted considerable attention in the field of AAIs in explaining why animals may have a therapeutic and positive effect on young

peoples' well-being is that of Attachment Theory (Brown, 2002, 2008; Brown & Katcher, 2001; Kruger et al., 2004). Attachment Theory describes the role of attachment in the development of the young person, outlining how relationships contribute to a young person's emotional regulation, mental health and psychological growth and development. Bowlby (1973, 1980, 1982 & 1992) suggests that attachment behaviour is genetically programmed and is essential for mankind's survival. He further asserts that people can only develop a sense of self through the development of social relationships provided by the mother child relationship, the provision of a secure base representing a key feature of Attachment Theory. Furthermore, he proposes that a young person's need for secure attachment is an essential part of life, ultimately buffering him/her from the harmful effects of adversity. Attachment can depend on how a young person is able to develop trust both in their caregiver and in themselves (Levy & Orlans, 2014).

Fahlberg (1994) describes how healthy attachments can allow a young person to reach their full intellectual potential, develop their emotions, trust those around them, deal with stress, overcome anxiety levels and increase their level of self-esteem. Young people with insecure attachments may develop negative self-concepts, have difficulty developing healthy relationships and lack the ability to develop empathy (Hanselman, 2001). Insecure attachments have also been associated with a variety of psychosocial difficulties, particularly in relation to poor self-esteem (Gomez & McLaren, 2007; Gullone & Robinson, 2005), empathy and pro-social behaviours (Laible, 2007) and self-efficacy (Noom, Dekovic & Meeus, 1999). In examining how Attachment Theory can provide an insight into the relationship between humans and animals, Zilcha-Mano and colleagues (2011) suggest that companion animals can serve as attachment figures and meet the four prerequisites for an attachment bond, including proximity seeking,

safe haven, secure base and separation distress. Sherman (1991) argues that happiness is not possible where reciprocal and affective relationships are absent, and that for many young people, such relationships can take the form of AAIs in addition to the relationships between people.

As discussed in Chapter 2, young people with social and emotional difficulties are reported to have particular difficulties in developing and maintaining relationships (Fraser & Blishen, 2007) and are therefore less likely to develop the same positive feelings about self as young people with well-developed social and emotional well-being. Participation in AAIs consequently holds potential to teach young people about how to form and nurture relationships which can then enhance feelings of self. Attachment orientation towards pets is therefore a useful construct for helping to understand how young people can relate to animals, particularly when an animal can act as a transitional object of attachment. This attachment may then support the therapeutic process, thereby supporting the enhancement and development of the young person's psychosocial functioning (Kruger & Serpell, 2006). However, Kruger and colleagues (2004) draw attention to the differences between attachment figures and transitional objects, highlighting that they are mutually exclusive by definition. Katcher and colleagues (2000) and Kruger and Serpell (2006) add that there is little evidence between Attachment Theory and positive therapeutic outcomes in AAIs, noting that attachment suggests an emotional bond which occurs over time, such as the relationship between a pet owner and their pet, or the development of a relationship between visiting dogs and a young person in residential care. By contrast, transitional implies changing from one place, or state, to another. In the context of AAIs which by their nature are of short duration, the development of emotional bonds with animals may therefore be ethically and therapeutically unsound. As such, the animal as a transitional object may

be preferable than an attachment figure (Kruger and Serpell, 2006). For young people with social and emotional difficulties, AAI's may however offer an opportunity to experience a secure base, allowing a young person to develop a sense of well-being, both socially and emotionally.

AAI's have also been reported as being a source of an appropriate alternative for experiencing and developing, healthy and secure attachment opportunities. Black (2012) explored attachment bonds amongst teenagers and found that as the young person transitions from childhood to adolescence, there is less reliance on parents and more reliance on peers and friends. For a young person affected by educational inequality with insecure attachment and difficulty in developing relationships with peers, this can be problematic. This transition, previously discussed in Chapter 2, is a critical stage for young people moving from primary school to secondary school and requiring particular supports at this time. Animals, as part of an AAI, may therefore serve as a transitional object in helping the young person to behave in a more socially acceptable manner (Bady, 2004).

Previous studies have shown how AAI's can benefit pet owners both psychologically and physically (Crawford, Worsham & Swinehart, 2006) with the ability to bond with animals central to this. Though there have been a number of studies which have examined attachment to animals as part of AAI's (Banks et al., 2008), there is less literature in relation to EFPs. Whilst the reasons for this are not immediately clear, it may be related to the short duration of EFPs, which can range from one day to two years (Burgon, 2011; Selby, 2009). In reviewing the necessary environment for AAI's, Tannenbaum (1995) suggests that the human animal relationship should be continuous, bi-directional and voluntary with Russow (2002) adding that it should be

reciprocal and persistent. Russow (2002) also suggests that no true relationship can exist if the animal does not recognise the client. Odendaal (2000) further highlights that the success of the AAI relationship lies in it being a two way process, with a relationship between the frequency of social behaviour exhibited and more successful bonding. Crawford and colleagues (2006) propose that true emotional bonding can only occur when a person experiences closeness, frequency and opportunity to grooming ones pet. The short duration of EFPs may not then support Attachment Theory.

3.8.1 Attachment Theory and Equine Facilitated Programmes

Bachi (2013) explored the relevance of Attachment Theory to psychotherapy as an EFP and examined the theoretical fit between Attachment Theory and the key features of EFPs. In addressing the potential for Attachment Theory to help understand equine facilitated psychotherapy as an EFP, Bachi (2013) referred to some of the therapist's tasks. Firstly, to provide the client with a secure base, which Bachi (2013) suggests can be created within the EFP setting, together with the equines' unconditional acceptance and perceived non-judgemental presence. For those EFPs which include a riding element, the equines capacity to carry the client physically can further contribute to the creation of a safe environment.

As discussed earlier, equines are highly responsive to peoples' emotions and emotional intent and respond accordingly. Bachi (2013) suggests that this attribute can be similar to affect mirroring and results in a restorative experience of mirroring. A further key task for the therapist is to encourage the client to view the present situation as it may be occurring from previous relationship, or memories, and to facilitate the client to see that his perception of self has been influenced from his past and may not be appropriate to the present. Whilst Bachi (2013) discusses how Attachment Theory can be applied to EFP,

thereby adding to the theoretical understanding of EFPs generally, to-date studies have yet to be conducted to test its application. Whilst there is some evidence in the literature of this finding amongst AAI studies, exploring this in EFP's will benefit from more methodologically robust studies.

3.8.2 Interim Summary and Discussion

The theories reviewed so far provide some understanding as to how AAI's and more importantly how and why EFPs may produce changes in a young person's social and emotional well-being. These theories were then examined further, taking into account the unique qualities and attributes of equines and, subsequently, how some theories may have distinct relevance when applied to EFPs. For example, Social Cognitive Theory would appear to be particularly relevant taking into consideration the immediacy of feedback from an equine, allowing a young person to observe and experience the consequences of emotional and behavioural changes. The equine's size may also enhance and develop this though further research into this aspect is necessary as there is little if any evidence to support this aspect of the EFP.

The need to communicate non-verbally with the equine reportedly contributes to a somatic experience, leading to feelings of relaxation and calmness. Such feelings are also reported whilst grooming, suggesting that the Biophilia Hypothesis may also have particular relevance. However, to the author's knowledge there have been no studies that have been conducted which have focused on the possible relationship between non-verbal communications and somatic experiences and how they might produce therapeutic outcomes.

Negotiating the co-operation of equines and the young person's peer/s as part of EFPs,

may then have particular application in considering Social Support Theory. As EFPs use a non-directive process, the young people have complete responsibility and control over how they interact with the equine and with each other, requiring them to explore all possible relational options. Grooming provides young people with opportunities to care for equines which in turn can provide feelings of intimacy, and feelings of reduced arousal. Though little has been written about EFPs and Attachment Theory, it would seem that it holds some potential in explaining the potential of EFPs, in particular to equine facilitated psychotherapy.

It could also be argued that all theories can be applied to an EFP session. The natural environment, contact with equines and non-verbal communication supports the Biophilia Hypothesis. Bio-feedback not only supports Biophilia Hypothesis but also Social Cognitive Theory, as it allows the young person to observe and experience the continuous emotional and behavioural changes that are occurring during EFPs for both the young people and the equines. Interacting with equines and others lends support to Social Support Theory with grooming lending support to Attachment Theory, as the physiological changes and release of oxytocin enables a greater receptiveness for communications and connections. It is perhaps this combination that potentially generates such potential for EFPs to enhance the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. That said, it would appear that future research could examine the degree to which each theoretical framework may be more effective in not only developing a better understanding of EFPs but which may be more effective in promoting social and emotional well-being.

This study is examining the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. To the author's knowledge there are

no studies which have specifically examined the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. However, a number of studies have explored the impact of EFPs on young people with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties. As highlighted in Chapter 2, young people affected by educational inequality are reported to present with such difficulties. As such, studies that have been conducted to explore the impact of EFPs with young people with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties are of relevance to the current study. Though a number of studies have examined the benefit of EFPs amongst adults (e.g. Meinersmann, Bradberry & Roberts, 2008; Peterson, 2010; Pollock; Whittlesey-Jerome, 2014) only those studies involving young people with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties will now be examined.

The next section will review the research that has been conducted on measuring the impact of EFPs amongst young people with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties.

3.9. The Impact of Equine Facilitated Programmes on Young People with Social and Emotional Difficulties

As the number of EFPs increases both internationally and nationally, so also is there a growth in studies attempting to explore their impact and efficacy. To-date, the majority of studies examining EFPs have included (EAP), (EAC) with fewer studies examining the benefits of (EFL). Despite this, the similarities between the programmes mean that studies on EAP and EAC have implications for understanding EFL. Whilst EFPs as an intervention have not been directly researched within the parameters of educational inequality, it has however been shown to be useful in addressing some of the social and emotional difficulties often associated with young people at risk of educational inequality, such as poor social and emotional well-being, low self-esteem

and behavioural problems (Burgon, 2011; Dell, Chalmers, Dell, Sauve & MacKinnon, 2008; Ewing, MacDonald, Taylor, & Bowers, 2007; Trotter et al., 2008; Trotter, 2012) together with a number of studies reporting it to be beneficial for those with extreme social and emotional difficulties (Cantin & Marshall-Lucette, 2011; Lentini & Knox, 2009). Duckers (2008), in a review of 21 EFP studies, found that teenagers classified as being ‘at risk’ made greater progress in EFPs and developed more adaptive psychosocial skills than those who did not engage in therapy.

In examining studies which explored the benefit of EFPs amongst young people, most of the studies have explored the impact on young people presenting with a range of social, emotional and behavioural difficulties. Others have included a mix of young people with and without internalising or externalising behaviours (Hauge et al., 2014; Pendry, Carr, Smith & Roeter, 2014; Pendry & Roeter, 2013; Pendry, Roeter, Smith, Jacobson & Erdman, 2013) with two studies examining the benefits of EFPs on young people who had experienced abuse (Bowers & McDonald, 2001; Kemp, Signal, Botros, Taylor & Prentice, 2014).

Findings of a number of studies showed significant improvements in the areas of social competence (Pendry et al., 2013; Pendry et al., 2014; Trotter et al., 2008). Trajectories of positive and negative behaviours were found in a study carried out by Pendry and colleagues (2013) in which sixty-four 11 – 13 year olds participated in an EFP conducted at a Premier Accredited Center of the Professional Association of Therapeutic Horsemanship, Intl (PATH Intl.) at Washington State University, USA. Although the treatment group did not have any diagnosis, a number of the young people had been referred by school counsellors suggesting that there may have been a particular psychosocial or psychological difficulty. Further studies conducted by Pendry and

colleagues (2013) and Pendry and colleagues (2014) represent an advancement in the quality of research with both studies using a randomised controlled trial to examine the causal effects of an 11 week EFP for young people between the ages of 10 and 16 years. Both studies included a programme with non-riding and riding activities, with lesson objectives stated for each session. As Pendry and colleagues (2014) is a key study in the research that has been carried out on EFPs, this study is now discussed.

Pendry and colleagues (2014) examined causal effects of participation in an 11 week programme using a randomised controlled experimental trial which examined social competence of young people between the ages of 10 – 16 years of age. This EFP was a combination of individual, team and group activities and included the principles of equitation science, horsemanship, riding and non-riding activities. The programme also focused on human equine interactions, which facilitated the young people to reflect on both their individual behaviour and communication style. The EFP was delivered once a week over 11 weeks with each session lasting 1 ½ hours. Findings showed that programme attendance was significantly associated with positive changes in behaviour. Significant increases were found in the mean levels of the young peoples' positive behaviour and a decrease in their negative behaviour. Of particular interest to the current study is how the young people referred by school counsellors appeared to have steeper declines in negative behaviour than the non-referred young people, suggesting perhaps that young people with social and/or emotional difficulties may have experienced slightly greater improvements during the EFP. However, a limitation of the study is how study findings were informed by the parents' reporting of their child's social competence and did not include either the teachers or the young persons. As discussed in Chapter 2, and for further discussion in Chapter 5, triangulation of reporting provides a more informative understanding of a young person's functioning.

Trotter and colleagues (2008) also reported improved social competence in their study of young people considered to be high at risk of academic and/or social failure. This was a 12 week intervention conducted in Texas, USA comparing equine assisted counselling as an EFP, to a school based group known as the Rainbow Days (RD) Programme. With a treatment group of 126 young people and a control group of 38 young people, study findings showed a reduction in hyperactivity levels, aggressive behaviour and conduct disorder problems. Overall, findings suggest that participation in the EFP intervention was associated with significant changes in 17 behaviour areas for the treatment group, as compared to significant changes in 5 behaviour areas for the RD school based group. Findings reported a significant decrease in negative behaviours such as name calling, hitting other pupils, breaking other students' property and arguing, and a significant increase in self-esteem, concentration and emotional self-regulation.

However, despite these findings, there were a number of study limitations. The control groups' sessions were reduced by one hour each week compared to the treatment group resulting in them receiving less intervention. This appears to be related to the length of the EFP sessions by contrast to the shorter duration required for the RD Programme. The reason for the treatment group being three times greater than the control group was reported to be attributed to the difficulty in recruiting school counsellors who then were required to undergo specific training to perform the RD programme and collect the data for the study. Anestis, Anestis, Zawilinski, Hopkins, & Lilienfeld (2014) highlight the absence of both pre-treatment scores and the comparison of pre-treatment scores between groups. In addition, Anestis and colleagues (2014) highlights how novelty effect may have undermined the validity of the study as the EFP treatment group met in the equestrian centre and the EFP control group remained in the school. Recent findings

(Flate & Berge, 2010; cited in Hauge et al., 2014) highlighted how the environment in which EFPs are delivered may be important factors for teenagers as part of EFPS, in particular for young people with less access to nature thereby reinforcing the potential relationship with the Biophilia Hypothesis. As such, resentment demoralisation may have affected the outcome.

Other studies have explored the impact of EFPs on different domains. Frederick, Hatz and Lanning (2015) examined the relationship between hope and depression and EFPs amongst 26 at risk boys aged between 14 – 17 years in a 5 week EFP, reporting significant findings. Participating in the Leading Adolescents to Successful Outcomes Programme (L.A.S.S.O), the teenagers engaged in a sequentially planned non-riding EFP. The programme involved observation of equines' behaviour, communications and interactions. Programme themes included life's obstacles, vulnerabilities and achieving personal goals. The study used an experimental design with longitudinal repeated measures with participants randomly assigned to the treatment and control groups. Measures used for the study included the Adolescent Domain-Specific Hope Scale (ADSHS, Frederick, 2011) and the Major Depression Inventory (MDI, Bech, 1998). As with many of the previous studies, this was a small sample study which relied on the young person's self-report. The study reported statistically significant findings in the young peoples' level of hope and depression as compared to the control group. However, as all participants attended the same school, study findings could not be generalised.

Hauge and Kvaem (2013) explored the impact of an EFP on the self-esteem, behaviour, fears and phobias amongst 11 females between 15 and 21 years in a Norwegian residential setting. The girls and the residential staff engaged in a series of sessions where the

participants were videoed interacting with the equines. Participants reported a sense of calmness, feelings of less anxiety and experiencing a higher degree of emotional self-regulation. Hauge and Kvalems' (2013b) study, described earlier in this chapter, also explored the relationship between persistence and EFPs with 29 teenagers concluding that an increased persistence in retrying the tasks may have indicated a greater feeling of mastery, identified as an important factor in the development of self-efficacy.

Burton (2011) conducted a two year study involving study involving 7 young people at risk between the ages of 11 – 21 years, and sought to capture the young peoples' experiences within a participative ethnography. The young people were considered to be at risk resulting from their psychosocial and individual circumstances. The number of EFP sessions attended varied across the group. For example, the minimum number attended by one young person was six sessions. Two young people attended throughout the two years and the remaining four young people attended weekly or fortnightly over a four month timeframe. Availability of funding was cited as the reason for irregular attendance. Findings from the study included enhanced self-confidence, self-efficacy and self-esteem, the ability to express affection and nurturing and the development of empathy. Similar to other studies which included a range of riding and non-riding activities (Holmes, Goodwin, Redhead & Goymour, 2012; Iannone, 2003; Pendry, 2013) this programme also included time to observe and discuss equine behaviour. Despite the potential of the study findings, the small sample size, in addition to the inconsistency in participants', attendance makes it difficult to draw generalisations.

Coping and subjective well-being and EFPs was the focus of Boshoff, Grobler and Nienabers' (2015) study amongst teenage boys ($n=39$) aged between 14 and 18 years

from different cultural groups. The boys were residing in an African custodial school as a result of behavioural difficulties. This study sought to measure the efficacy of the EFP on the boys' level of coping and subjective well-being. Over a period of eight sessions, the boys worked in groups of 10, exploring topics such as relationships, self-knowledge, empowerment, communication, teamwork, conflict resolution, empathy, problem solving and assertiveness. Pre and post test data were collected with significant improvements reported in the areas of subjective well-being, problem focused coping and emotion focused coping, in particular the boys' socio-emotion focused coping. However, there were no changes reported in the boys' dysfunctional coping. The authors concluded that the programme demonstrated modest evidence of enhancing the boys' psychological well-being.

As mentioned at the start of this section, EFPs have been reported to be especially effective for young people with social and emotional difficulties (Cantin & Marshall-Lucette, 2011; Duckers, 2008; Lentini & Knox, 2009; Trotter et al., 2008). This was also a finding of a study carried out by Schultz and colleagues (2007) involving 64 young people between the ages of 4 and 16 years with varying behavioural conditions. The study found that the greatest programme impact was observed in the youngest of the participants and where there had been a history of abuse. Similar findings were reported by Bowers and MacDonald (2001) involving 10 at risk boys between 4 and 18 years who had also experienced abuse.

Thus far, studies suggest that young people with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties may experience improvements in social competence, hope and depression, fears and phobias, increased persistence, mastery, self-efficacy, self-esteem and self-confidence resulting from participation in EFPs. Studies reviewed so far have reported

significant results in some or all domains. However, not all studies have produced significant findings. Bachi, Terkel and Teichman (2012) hypothesized that EAP would result in improvements in self-control, self-image, and trust among adolescents in an Israeli residential treatment facility between the ages of 14 – 18 years ($n=29$). The study compared an EAP treatment group ($n=14$) with a no-treatment control group ($n=15$). Placement was nonrandomized and based on case manager referral. The no-treatment control group interacted with equines as part of agricultural studies with 60 per cent receiving therapy and 40 per cent receiving other forms of therapy. The EFP took place once a week for seven months with each session lasting 50 minutes. The study examined changes in self-image and control, trust and general life satisfaction. Measures and interviews were completed pre- and post-intervention with brief interviews conducted 1- year post intervention. Although findings showed positive trends in all areas compared with the control group, the authors reported that there were no statistical significance between the two groups.

Similarly, Ewing, McDonald, Taylor and Bowers (2007) evaluated the effectiveness of an EFP for adolescents ($n=28$) between 10–13 years with behavioural emotional difficulties in Kansas, USA. The EFP comprised non-riding and riding activities and included an educational component involving both literacy and numeracy. This programme also included a process group focused on discussing individuals' experiences and goals for the day. Students waiting to participate in the EFP served as the control group. EFP sessions took place twice a week over nine weeks and lasted two hours each session. The study examined changes in the young peoples' self-esteem, empathy, locus of control, depression and loneliness. Despite positive qualitative findings, no statistical significant differences were found between pre- and post-treatment on any measure. The authors put forward a number of reasons to explain possible reasons for this including the

students' poor comprehension of questionnaires, length of time needed to complete measures, loss of focus due to their condition, for example, some students were diagnosed with ADHD. The authors also suggested that the timeframe for the EFP was too short for behavioural changes to occur. Likewise, Holmes and colleagues (2012) explored the effects of EFP on trait anxiety and self-esteem amongst 10 adolescents aged between 12-14 years with emotional and behavioural and specific learning needs. Although the findings reported a declining trend in the young peoples' anxiety, no changes were found in the young peoples' self-esteem. It was unclear from the study which features of the EFP may have contributed to the reductions in anxiety.

3.10. Overview of the Implications for Future Research for EFPs

Despite the positive findings reported in some studies, there is little evidence to suggest if reported changes are long-term (Schultz et al., 2007; Taylor, 2001). In the absence of longitudinal studies, it is therefore difficult to measure if EFPs result in temporary or long lasting changes. Whilst many study findings have been found to be associated with some positive findings, a number of studies did not report statistical significance (Bachi et al., 2012; Ewing et al., 2007). Within the studies undertaken, there were a number of differences, most notably the study design. For example, studies varied between pilot studies (Bowers & MacDonald, 2001; Schultz, et al., 2007), pre- and post-test studies, and observational pre-post experimental comparison. Three studies included a randomised trial (Hauge et al., 2014; Pendry et al., 2013; Pendry et al., 2014). Additionally, some EFPs include non-riding activities whilst others include a combination of non-riding and riding activities. A further difference in EFPs relates to their duration ranging from one day to two years. It is unclear what significance this has in relation to EFP outcomes. Finally, the size of the equine is reported to play an important feature of an EFP and one which is attributed to contributing towards positive

changes in areas such as self-confidence and self-esteem. However, to the author's knowledge an equines size has not been the focus of studies so far.

A further challenge faced by the existing research on EFPs is the considerable heterogeneity in terms of intervention structure, duration, content and participant profiles. For example, a number of programmes involve non-riding activities only and may focus solely on the interaction between the young person and the equine. By contrast, other programmes involve the young people learning about equine behaviour and communications, and include specific human equine interactions to facilitate the young people to develop insights into how their behaviour impacts on others (Pendry, 2013). Other EFPs involve riding activities. Furthermore, variations exist within the skill set and competencies of those involved in facilitating EFP activities and sessions with EFPs facilitated by psychotherapists, counsellors and those with coaching and facilitation skills. Such differences across EFPs create certain complexities not only for the practice itself but also for the potential for reliable research studies to be carried out. A review of the studies conducted so far highlights the need for more methodologically solid research which can examine in detail a number of areas. For example, the particular elements of EFPs that may be associated with positive outcomes, populations that may benefit most, comparative studies with other AAIIs and finally to conduct longitudinal studies to assess duration effect.

3.11. Summary and Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to describe EFPs, a branch of AAIIs, as one intervention aimed at promoting the social and emotional well-being of young people at risk of educational inequality. In so doing, the most frequently cited theoretical frameworks were presented including the Biophilia Hypothesis, Social Cognitive Theory, Social Support Theory,

and Attachment Theory. Each theory was discussed initially in relation to its application to AAIs and then to EFPs. Their application to EFPs was examined in the context of the attributes of equines, namely equines as prey animals, their sensitivity to the environment, non-verbal communicators, large and social animals with flee flight responses and providing immediate feedback to those around them. Empirical literature on EFPs is limited in scope with no definitive theory to explain EFPs as AAIs. That said, each of the theories reviewed help to provide an understanding relating to how EFPs may impact on a young person's social and emotional well-being. Social Cognitive Theory appears to be the most relevant theory, potentially contributing a deeper understanding of how EFPs may be considered as an alternative intervention aimed at improving the social and emotional well-being of young people at risk of educational disadvantage. However, further studies are needed to broaden practitioners' and researchers' understanding in this area.

The past twenty years have seen a significant growth in EFPs. Research findings to date are a combination of both qualitative and quantitative studies. Studies tend to be small scale with few longitudinal studies. Studies have included randomised controlled trials, indicating a positive indicator for future studies which will add to the current body of knowledge. A review of the literature highlights a number of findings. First, as the research has not as yet explored the impact of EFPs longitudinally, it is unclear whether reported changes are short-term or long-lasting. Second, the variations that exist within the EFPs, such as content and duration, results in a certain vagueness about what may or may not be associated with positive outcomes. There also exists a lack of clarity relating to which aspect of EFPs may be associated with reported outcomes. Some EFPs may include riding and/or non-riding activities, with other programmes including an educational component. It is unclear how each of these impacts on participants. In

this regard, comparative studies may also prove to be especially helpful in contributing to developing a better understanding of EFPs. The significance of the EFP environment is a further dimension for future research as it relates to the Biophilia Hypothesis.

The next chapter will provide an overview of EFPs in Ireland focusing particularly on the organisation's Equine Facilitated Learning Programme as the EFP at the centre of the current study together with the rationale for the study aim and objectives.

Chapter 4. **Present Study**

4.1. Introduction

The previous chapter highlighted the importance of AAI as one means of enhancing the social and emotional well-being of young people. Specifically, EFPs were examined as a way of working with young people with social and emotional difficulties. This chapter will make reference to the development of EFPs in an Irish context, together with a review of the studies which examined their impact on young people affected by educational inequality. The EFP at the centre of the study, will then be described, taking into consideration the different theoretical frameworks which have been discussed in the previous chapter. Finally, the rationale for the study will be presented together with the study aims and objectives.

4.2. EFPs in Ireland

In the Irish context, there has been an increase in the number of EFPs that have been developed with the objective of enhancing the psychological, psychosocial and/or physical well-being of young people experiencing social and/or economic exclusion. For example, two of the earlier projects included the Fettercairn Youth Horse Project in Tallaght (see <http://fyhp.ie/>) and the Cherry Orchard Equine Education and Training Center (COEETC) in Cherry Orchard (see <http://www.cherryorchard.ie/>). Both projects were set up in the early 1990s to provide an alternative for young people at risk of social and economic disadvantage through the provision of a range of equestrian training and/or recreational programmes. A review of the Equine Assisted Growth and Learning Association (EAGALA) website, an international not for profit association for professionals incorporating equines in order to address mental health and personal development needs shows there are currently six places offering equine facilitated

learning or equine facilitated psychotherapy in Ireland. Currently, there is no register of EFP practitioners in Ireland. EFETA (Ireland) was set up in 2009 to provide a network forum to practitioners in addition to the development of standards for EFPs and the co-ordination of research programmes. EFETA was established in response to the growth in the area of EFPs and the need for a coordinated policy for their future development.

Set out below in Table 3 is a summary of the equine related programmes that have been developed by the organisation since 1988.

Table 3. Overview of the Equine Related Programmes

Programme Name	Date of Commencement
Equestrian Vocational Training Programme	1988
Transition Training Programme	2003
Outreach Programme	2005
Equine Assisted Learning	2007
Supported Helpers Programme	2009
Equine Facilitated Educational Programme	2011

The organisation, a not-for profit organisation was established in 1988. It provided the first formal Equestrian Vocational Training Programme for young people and young adults with an intellectual disability. Since then, the organisation has developed five further equine related programmes for young people and adults with a disability and those affected by social and/or economic exclusion which are outlined below.

The Transition Training Programme was set up in 2003 and is funded by the Health Services Executive (HSE). This is a three year pre-vocational training programme for young people and young adults with an intellectual disability who have left either special education or mainstream education. The emphasis of this programme is on a Quality in Qualifications Ireland (QQI) Major Award Level 3 which includes a range of educational, pre-vocational and recreational modules. Students in this programme are also involved

in riding and equestrian non-riding activities such as stable management and equine welfare. A number of participants from this programme progress to the Equestrian Vocational Training Programme.

Set up in 2005, the Outreach Programme visits DEIS primary and post primary schools with two miniature equines between 3 and 6 times each year. The emphasis of this programme is to provide an experience to children and young people who may have no other opportunity to interact with equines. Equine behaviour and welfare considerations are also discussed with the children and young people. The third programme is the EFP at the centre of the current study which was set up in 2007. This programme is supported by both the Department of Social Protection and through private funding and was developed for primary and post primary students attending DEIS schools. Specifically, the EFP sessions focus on facilitating young people to develop their self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, responsible decision making and their ability to form positive relationships (CASEL) which may be linked to the social and emotional well-being of young people as discussed in Chapter 2. This EFP is described in greater detail in this chapter.

The fourth programme which has been developed is referred to as the Supported Helpers Programme (SHP) and is also part funded by the Department of Social Protection. Starting as a six week pilot project in 2009 with the assistance of Wicklow County Council, the focus of this programme is to support children, young people and adults with a range of intellectual and/or physical disabilities and/or mental health difficulties. The focus of the SHP is to support young people and adults to engage in various equestrian based activities such as mucking out stables, preparing feeds, bringing equines to and from the field, grooming and preparing equines for lessons. Working with a staff ratio

of between 1:1 and 1:3, participants spend varying amounts of time in this programme ranging between half an hour and three hours each week.

The most recent programme is referred to as the Equine Facilitated Educational Programme (EFEP) which commenced in 2011 and again is part funded the Department of Social Protection. The focus of the EFEP is to support primary school children attending DEIS schools who have been identified as presenting with social and emotional difficulties such that they may be at risk of not achieving their potential within the education system. The children attend this programme one morning every week for one school term or for consecutive terms if the school staff believe that the programme is of such benefit to the child that further time is warranted. The children engage in a similar range of equestrian activities as the SHP. However, the emphasis is on the development of social and emotional well-being. As such all the activities are mapped onto one or more of CASELs five core social and emotional competencies of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, responsible decision making and the ability to form positive relationships. For example, mucking out a stable when the weather is wet and cold may not be that attractive to the young people. Explaining that this needs to be done for the ponies well-being would be mapped onto responsible decision making. Similarly, a young person gets upset or angry and helping him or her to deal with the situation would be mapped onto self-management. In other words, it is a practical session which explores social and emotional well-being through an experiential process.

There is a corresponding although considerably smaller growth in the number of studies that have been undertaken to examine the effectiveness of EFPs for young people at risk of educational inequality in Ireland (Guerin & O’Gorman, 2007; Keogh, 2015). Guerin and O’Gorman’s (2007) exploratory qualitative study examined the impact of an EFP

on five young people at risk of educational inequality and included their parents ($n=5$) and teachers ($n=3$). EFP staff ($n=2$) were also interviewed at the end of the programme. Similar to previous studies, reported benefits included greater personal awareness (Frewin & Gardiner, 2005), self-confidence (Schultz et al., 2007; Burgon, 2011) and specific communications skills (Kersten & Thomas, 2004). However, despite the positive nature of the findings, this was a small scale study. A larger sample size including quantitative measures would increase the possibility of obtaining statistical significance in future studies. In addition, the parents' and teachers' views of possible changes in the young people were missing. Including the views of the young peoples' parents and teachers in future studies will help to explore where findings may converge or diverge or where there may be discrepancies.

By contrast, Keogh's (2015) pre and post study examined the impact of an EFP on the psychological well-being of early school leavers and included a control group with data collected from 31 participants in the equine group and 20 participants in the control group. Using the Flourishing Scale (FS), Socio Communicative Orientation Scale (SCO), Classroom Anxiety Scale (CLA), Non-verbal Immediacy Scale-Self Report (NIS-S), and The Compassion Scale (SCS), this study examined how the EFP impacted on the young peoples' well-being, assertiveness, non-verbal communications and compassion towards others using the young persons' self-report. Levels of anxiety in the classroom were also measured. No significant difference was found between the equine and control conditions on levels of wellbeing, assertiveness, classroom anxiety, nonverbal communications, and compassion towards others was reported at time one. Time 2 analyses reported a significant difference in the equine groups levels of wellbeing, assertiveness, classroom anxiety, nonverbal communications, and compassion towards others compared to the control. Keogh's (2015) study reported a

reduction in classroom anxiety. However, despite the positive findings reported in this study there were a number of limitations. First, a number of the young people in the equine group were already taking part in an EFP before the commencement of the study. The time between time 1 and time 2 varied between both groups with the equine group having a six week period compared to the control group who had three weeks between each time point. In addition, the equine sample size was larger ($n = 31$) compared to the control ($n = 20$). These factors may have influenced the results of the study.

Whilst both studies varied in terms of study focus, the use of quantitative or qualitative data, source of data collection and use of measures, findings from both studies reported that participation in an EFP may be associated with better psychological well-being. In particular, Keogh (2015) findings suggest that participation in an EFP may support the psychological well-being of early school leavers,

However, whilst these developments are both positive and encouraging, particularly as they reflect the international growth in this field, both studies have been exploratory and small scale. Moreover, it was not possible to establish if reported changes were temporary or if they resulted in longer lasting change. Finally, the studies did not report on the mediating factors which may have contributed to the changes, as reported by the participants.

4.3. Rationale for the Present Study

The literature review in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 highlights the importance of well-developed social and emotional competencies as factors which can promote educational equality for young people (Hallam et al., 2005; Durlak, 2011). Chapter 3 discussed the potential of EFPs as one means of promoting such competencies. The development of

EFPs in an Irish context as referred to in Chapter 3, suggests that there is a growing interest in how EFPs as an intervention can play a role in enhancing the social and emotional well-being of young people. Furthermore, initial research on the effectiveness of EFPs suggests that they may contribute to improvements in young peoples' social and emotional well-being. That two studies in Ireland have been carried out to-date to examine the potential of EFPs in the context of addressing problems associated with educational inequality, may be reflective of the growth of EFPs as one possible intervention.

Whilst the research studies suggest that EFPs may have the potential to impact positively on young peoples' well-being, consideration needs to be given to conducting studies in an Irish context which include larger samples which may therefore increase the possibility of obtaining statistical significance in the findings (Filho et al., 2013). Additionally, larger sample sizes can increase the probability of finding statistical significance between groups (Jones, Carley & Harrison, 2003). This is an important consideration as the current study includes young people of both genders in addition to the inclusion of their parents and teachers.

Future EFP studies will also be improved by adopting a mixed methods approach by contrast to the qualitative only and quantitative only approaches employed in the two Irish studies. Though both Irish studies reported positive findings, it is not possible to conclude if the reported changes remained over time, highlighting the need for longitudinal EFP studies. A further consideration for future studies include the need for external validity. The current study may therefore increase the study's potential to generalise findings. In this context, the present study is designed to address some of the gaps that currently exist within the Irish studies completed to date.

There are five key reasons which support the rationale for the current study. Firstly, there is a growing body of international research that has been carried out to date which suggests that an EFP can improve the social and emotional well-being of young people (Ewing, et al., 2007; Pendry, 2013; Schultz, 2005; Trotter et al., 2008:) which in turn can contribute to improvements in their academic performance (Durlak, 2011). Second, it is important to explore this area through further research in order that its impact can be more confidently assessed and that, if supported by empirical evidence, the EFP as an intervention can be reliably used in working with young people. Whilst the number of Irish studies exploring the impact of EFPs is relatively small (Guerin & O’Gorman, 2007; Keogh, 2015) it is nonetheless indicative of the interest and growth in this field.

The third rationale underpinning the current study relates to the inclusion of multiple informants in the study. Young people will seldom self-refer to a programme designed to deal with behavioural and/or emotional difficulties and, compared to adults, will have different perspectives and insights into their emotions and behaviour. In addition, young people may behave differently in situations or environments which may be unfamiliar to them. For these reasons, this study sought to include the reports of multiple informants including the young people, their parents and teachers.

Fourth, the growing body of research, although limited, also suggests an interest on the part of practitioners to both attempt to develop a better understanding of EFPs as an intervention, and to present it as an additional alternative to young people in order to enhance, their social, emotional and behavioural well-being. There is therefore a theoretical, and to a lesser extent, an empirical basis from which to consider the potential of EFPs for young people affected by educational inequality. Finally, in the absence of

current literature being able to identify precisely what are the ‘active ingredients’ of EFPs, this study, is also designed to assist with attempting to offer some understanding as to the underlying mechanisms of how EFPs may impact on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. The next section will present the context for the current study.

4.4. Research context

This study, which examined the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality, took place in the organisation, located in Co. Wicklow, Ireland. The background to the organisation and programmes offered were described at the start of the present chapter.

4.5. Overview of the Eight Week Equine Facilitated Programme

The EFP which is at the centre of this study, takes place over an eight week timeframe, with each weekly session lasting one and a half hours. Sessions are facilitated by a team of two staff, the facilitator of the sessions and an equine specialist. The role of the facilitator is to develop a programme based on information provided by the referral source, together with the presenting behaviours of the young people as the sessions develop over the eight weeks, and as the staff develop an understanding of and relationship with the young people. The role of the equine specialist is to ensure the safety of the young people together with ensuring the welfare of the equine/s before, during and after each session. In addition, the equine specialist and the facilitator review each session and discuss and plan for the subsequent session using a standardised form which reviews the session, particular issues that may have arisen and the plan for the subsequent session (See APPENDIX B – EFP Review Template).

The sessions are adapted on a weekly basis as they are responsive to the assessed and emerging needs of the young people. EFP sessions are conducted within an arena space and include an average of three young people and two equines. Each EFP session follows a set outline of activities as presented in Table 4 below

Table 4. Outline of the EFP and Sessions

Week Number	Activity	Topics
1	Observation of loose Equines	Relationships Self-management Caring for others
	Grooming equines	Dealing with new situations and our emotions Self-awareness and awareness of others
2	Leading	Communications (listening) Clarity of intention
3	Obstacle building	Team work (young people and equines) communications Planning and organising Decision making
4	Asking the equines to go different places	Communications, empathy, consideration of other peoples perspectives and feelings, planning, boundaries
5 & 6 & 7	Tailored programme based on previous session Outcomes	
8	Trust Ride	Self-awareness Trusting others
		Responsibility

On the first day, the young people are shown the facilities, which include an opportunity to meet the equines that live in the organisation. Session No 1 starts with an observation session during which the young people observe between two and four equines interacting with each other within an arena space. This is an important part of the EFP as it allows the facilitator to begin to develop an understanding of how the young people view and interpret the different equine interactions. For example, one equine standing separate from two equines who may be standing together, can be described by the young people as feeling lonely, not feeling part of the group *or* acting independently and not needing the need to be part of the group. Equines interacting may be described by the young people as fighting *or* playing with each other. One equine walking after another can then be interpreted by the young people as either following *or* pushing. Though projections are confined to the work equine facilitated

psychotherapy, this observation does nonetheless allow the EFP facilitator to develop some understanding of the young persons' internal worlds, without necessarily exploring the sources of such projections.

The young people then have an opportunity to approach each of the equines and for many young people, this may be the first time they have come into such close contact with an equine. Grooming allows the young people to develop their self-awareness, as any suddenness of movement on the part of the young person is likely to cause a reaction from the equine. Applying Social Cognitive Theory helps to explain how the young person is encouraged to observe the impact of their behaviour on the equine and how by regulating their behaviour, the equines behaviour may also change. Consequently, the young people were required to take responsibility for trying to ensure that their own behaviour encouraged the equines to stay calm and connected in this regard and promotes responsible decision making as one of the five core social and emotional competencies. A further benefit of grooming is how oxytocin as a stress reducing hormone (Cardoso et al., 2013), can be used to release stress (Odenaal & Meintjes, 2003). For young people who experience high anxiety levels or have ADD or ADHD, grooming can be used in an attempt to lower anxiety and emotions. Subsequent sessions feature a combination of activities which help the young people to work as a group, highlighting the need to communicate effectively with each other, resolve conflict as a team and taking personal responsibility for their behaviour. This particular activity requires that the young people communicate non-verbally. In order to work as a team, each young person requires the co-operation and support of each other as they do also of the equine. Brandt (2006) suggests that this can lead to a give and take relationship and the development of a shared meaning through a shared body language. Through the use of human equine communications and interactions, the young people are able to reflect on their

communication skills and their behaviour both towards each and towards the equines.

Discussion often focuses on the challenges young people face when trying to express their feelings and the difficulties this can sometimes cause. The young person is asked to encourage the equine to move with them to different parts of the arena. As there is no lead rope available, this can present a significant challenge for the young person and can result in him or her having to deal with a range of emotions including frustration, disappointment, anger, embarrassment and rejection. The EFP facilitator encourages discussion with the young people on developing an awareness of different emotions and how they can be managed in the context of the different EFP activities.

The young person is therefore required to explore, learn and demonstrate how to both self-manage in order to successfully influence the movement of the equine, with Social Support Theory again contributing to understanding the potential using this type of activity as part of EFPs. Self-management is also one of the five social and emotional competencies being examined in the current study. Through facilitated discussion on exploring different ways of positively influencing the equines behaviour, the young people are able to try out different behaviours with immediate responses provided by the equines. Each session also allows for time for personal and group reflection activities.

The focus of the eighth and last session is on a 'Trust Ride'. This involves each of the young people sitting on the equine and being led by his/her peers both in and outside of the arena thorough various woodland areas. As the young person who is riding has no reins and therefore no physical control of the equine, the emphasis of this activity centres on the trust that is necessary for the young person to be led safely by his peers,

again highlighting the potential of Support Social Theory and self-management. There is also an emphasis on the responsibility that is required on the part of the young people who are leading their peers, highlighting the need for responsible decision making. Each young person alternates during the trust ride session, allowing them to assume different roles.

4.6. Summary

So far, this chapter has referred to the growth of EFPs in Irish context together with the small number of Irish studies which have attempted to evaluate EFPs amongst young people affected by educational inequality. The rationale for the current study was then presented. The outline of the eight week EFP was then detailed, together with reference to the various theoretical frameworks which have been shown to provide some understanding of the potential of EFPs amongst young people presenting with social and emotional difficulties. The next section will detail the study aim and objectives.

4.7. Study Aim and Objectives

The overall aim of the present study is to examine the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being on young people affected by educational inequality. The definition of social and emotional well-being that is used for the current study is that put forward by the US based Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL) an organisation dedicated to the development of academic, social and emotional competencies for young people in education. Given CASEL's extensive work within the educational settings, it was decided to use the definition of the social and emotional competencies used by CASEL (2015). These include *self-awareness*, *social awareness*, *self-management* and *organisation*, *responsible problem solving* and finally *relationship management*. As such, the study examined the impact of an EFP on

these five areas. These areas were also chosen based on the literature review which suggests that in relation to social and emotional well-being, these areas are particularly problematic among young people affected by educational inequality (ESTYN, 2011; Cooper et al., 2008).

Specific objectives included:

1. To identify any changes in self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, responsible decision making and the ability to form positive relationships following participation in the EFP as reported by the young people, their parents and teachers.
2. To identify any evidence of significant gender differences among young people in relation to self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, responsible decision making and the ability to form positive relationships.
3. To examine young peoples' narratives for evidence of factors or aspects of the EFP which may contribute to any changes identified in Objective 1.
4. To examine young peoples', parents' and teachers' perspectives of the EFP to identify higher level patterns of convergence and divergence in their views.

4.8. Summary and Conclusion

This chapter outlined the growth of EFPs in Ireland over the past 30 years together with a review of the Irish studies that have been conducted to-date. A number of gaps in the literature were identified including the need for longitudinal and mixed methods studies with larger sample sizes which address the need for external validity. The rationale was then outlined together with a description of the EFP at the centre of the present study. Despite the evidence presented in both Chapter 3 and within the current chapter which examined the growth of EFPs both internationally and nationally, a gap continues to persist in the literature regarding the impact of EFPs on the social and emotional

well- being of young people affected by educational inequality. The EFP session activities were then described with particular reference to the overall aim of each EFP activity. The study aims and objectives were then presented.

The next chapter will present a detailed description of the methodology of the current study.

Chapter 5. Methodology

5.1. Introduction

This chapter begins by describing the design of the research, namely mixed methods, and outlines why this was considered to be the most appropriate design for this research. The philosophy underpinning mixed methods, namely *pragmatism* and *social constructionism* are also discussed. The inclusion criteria used for the study are then detailed, together with a discussion of the reasons why the study did not include a control group. The measures used in this study are presented, including the rationale for the selection of each measure. The procedures for the data collection are then presented. The pilot study, the results and issues arising are then discussed, followed by a description of the procedures used for the main study. Finally, the ethical considerations relating to the study are outlined.

5.2. Research Design

There has been an increase in the emergence of the number of research methods, most notably within the social sciences (O’Leary, 2004). In reviewing the evolution of research designs, Betti and Gregson (2001) propose that the traditional conceptualization of research was the “*systematic, objective, valid, reliable collection and analysis of empirical data to solve the problem*” or to develop and contribute to an understanding of theory. Betti and Gregson (2001) further add that the multiplicity of theories that have been developed since the dominance of quantitative research designs, puts a greater responsibility on researchers as they now need to understand a much wider range of paradigms, methods and methodologies, together with their pragmatic implications.

As with any research study, the choice of study design and approach is critically informed and guided by the research questions being asked (Stern et al., 2013) and choosing the most appropriate theoretical paradigm is an essential part of the research study (O’Leary, 2004).

Whilst it was important to quantitatively measure the changes that may be associated with participation in the EFP, it was also considered necessary to combine this with qualitative data, thereby aiming to produce a more comprehensive understanding of the outcomes that may be associated with participation in EFPs. Adopting purely either a positivist or interpretivist paradigm was therefore considered to be unsuitable for the current study. For example, Pendry et al. (2014) conducted one of the first randomised controlled experimental trials to examine causal effects of an EFP, including a combination of individual, team and group activities and based on equitation science, horsemanship, riding and non-riding activities. Despite the significant increases reported in the young peoples’ positive behaviour and the decreases in negative behaviour, the absence of qualitative data precludes developing an understanding of which aspects of the EFP may have contributed to the findings. Conversely, using a qualitative approach would have generated an understanding of the young peoples’ experiences but would not have quantitatively measured changes as a result of the intervention. A mixed methods approach was considered as potentially suitable for the current study as it includes both quantitative and qualitative data in one single study (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Koshy & Pascal, 2011) and aims to provide comprehensive answers to research questions (Tashakkori & Teddie, 2003). As such, a mixed methods approach allows for a more comprehensive approach to the current study objectives.

Building on what has been learnt from previous studies and the approach most likely to answer the research study objectives, this study used a mixed methods approach combining both quantitative and qualitative data, as it was considered that this would produce a more comprehensive understanding of the outcomes associated with participation in EFPs. The philosophical underpinning of social constructionism and pragmatism has been reported to allow the mixed methods researcher to use a variety of methods to answer the research questions that may not be answered by using a singular method. This has often been found in social research which have complex and multifaceted research problems.

A key focus of social constructionism refers to how people participate in the construction of their perceived social reality or social world through language and how social phenomena are then created (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Kim (2001) states that social constructionism is based on three assumptions where reality is constructed through a person's experiences, knowledge is socially and culturally constructed and learning is a social process happening when people are engaged in social activities (McMahon, 1997). Consequently there is no objectivity and can never be value free. It opposes positivism and post positivism or what can be termed the *hard* sciences and discusses the world of human experience, relying on a person's view, emphasising the everyday interactions between people and how they use language to construct their reality. This then becomes the focus of the research study question. Social constructionism, unlike positivism, does not begin with a theory but inductively develops a pattern of meaning (Creswell, 2008) and is interested in examining the complexity and interrelatedness of many aspects of individuals within society.

Social constructionism acknowledges that there is an objective reality and examines and

explores how knowledge is constructed. As such, social constructionism's perspective is epistemological and not ontological and can be traced in part to an interpretivist style of thinking, with links to Meads' symbolic interactionism, a major framework of sociological theory and phenomenology (Berger & Luckmann). Schwandt (2003) argues that whilst social constructionism differs from interpretism, they both share a general focus which examines the process by which meanings are created. Andrews (2012) suggests that social constructionism was instrumental in remodelling Grounded Theory and that they share strong similarities, but without the emphasis on language.

Critics of Social Constructionism however argue that it ignores the biological influences on behaviour (Sokal & Bricmont, 1999) emphasising that understanding behaviour needs to consider a persons' biological, environmental and cultural environments. In this regard, reference is made to Bronfenbrenner's bioecological model discussed in Chapter 2.

Though pragmatism as a paradigm for social research is not new (Patton, 1988) the increase in researchers and practitioners using mixed methods approaches has raised its awareness (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003) and is generally seen as the philosophical partner for mixed method approaches (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Recent developments in mixed methods methodology show how a pragmatist approach can solve the incompatibility problems with mixed methodology emerging as a separate field (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003) with Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004 arguing that mono methods present the biggest threat to the advancement of social science, and further suggesting that many research questions can be best answered through mixed methods approaches. Sieber (1973) proposes that both approaches have certain strengths and weaknesses. As such, the researcher can identify

and use the strength of each approach in order to develop a better understanding of social phenomena. The inclusion of quantitative data can compensate for the fact that qualitative data does not lend itself to generalisations and likewise, qualitative data can help to explain the relationship reported by the quantitative data. The classical pragmatists, Dewey, Peirce and James were all interested in what actions were necessary so as to understand the real world phenomena.

Pragmatism has been offered as an alternative to positivism in an attempt to understand the meaning of things (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) and focuses on identifying the factors that can make a difference proposing that the meaning of ideas are determined by their consequences. Whilst there has been considerable debate over the supremacy of quantitative and qualitative paradigms, pragmatism have put forward a third paradigm that supports the combination of quantitative and qualitative methodology in one single study. Pragmatism rejects dualism (e.g., subjectivism versus objectivism) but rather considers how philosophical dualisms can provide more insight and understanding of problems, and is not committed to any one philosophy but focuses on the what and the how of addressing the research problem (Creswell, 2003).

Pragmatism views qualitative and quantitative methods as compatible, stating that both methods can be used in research. Bryman (2006b) emphasises the need to adopt a pragmatic approach based on the research problem with Johnson & Onwuegbuzie (2004) contending that research approaches should reflect how best to answer research questions. Morgan (2007) further proposes that pragmatism uses transferability to examine if the knowledge gained can be transferred to another setting, emphasising which factors can actually make a difference and then making connections between the theory and the data. These are important aspects to be considered in the current

study due to the dearth of EFP mixed method studies and the limited understanding of the theoretical framework underpinning EFPs, both of which were discussed in Chapter 3.

However, a number of weaknesses of pragmatism have been raised. For example, Johnson & Onwuegbuzie (2004) suggest that pragmatism may foster incremental change in society rather than more fundamental change. Additionally, Johnson & Onwuegbuzie (2004) note that pragmatism may lack a certain logic when applied to philosophical disagreements. Mertens (2003) further proposes that pragmatism has been criticised for not being able to provide a satisfactory answer to the question of – for whom is a pragmatic solution useful. More recently, Morgan (2014) argues that pragmatism is not exclusive to mixed methods research as, for example, qualitative methods are associated with constructivism or quantitative methods must be connected to post-positivism. arguing that pragmatism can be viewed as a philosophical programme for social science research irrespective of the research being quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods.

In comparing and contrasting social constructionism and pragmatism, Hastings (2002) discusses how William James's pragmatism and Kenneth Gergen's approach to social constructionism, though not equivalent, appear to share a number of similarities, further suggesting that James' pragmatism is the precursor of today's social constructionist movement. In his article *Social Constructionism and the Legacy of James Pragmatism*, Hastings (2002) proposes that an important parallel between James and Gergen is *utility* as a way to evaluate truth with James advocating that there is no absolute reality as truth evolves from truth and Gergen emphasising that each perspective is a truth. In addressing the social construction of knowledge, both James pragmatism and Gergen agree on the importance of language with James pursuing the elimination of

metaphysical problems to be replaced by pluralism and utility. Although Gergen opposes knowledge as a progression of truth, Hastings (2002) argues that both James and Gergen agree that facts are constructed, change overtime and can survive as a result of the *utility function* of the truth. However, whilst both social constructionism and pragmatism believe in utility as a method for evaluating truth, Hastings (2002) suggests the impetus for both differed. James explored beyond the metaphysical arguments and Gergen attempted to draw attention to the historic and cultural biases that exist in a research arena where scientific objectivity and positivism prevails.

The past decade has seen an increasing interest in and practice of combining qualitative and quantitative research methods particularly in the fields of social and behavioural sciences (Farquhar, Ewing & Booth, 2011; Woolley, 2009). Indeed, O’Cathain, Murphy and Nicholl (2007) have suggested that mixed methods can provide insights which cannot be gleaned from quantitative or qualitative studies which have been independently undertaken. Bryman (2006) added that validating the findings of a study may be achieved when the findings of one study can be checked against the findings which have resulted from a different research approach. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) have described mixed methods research as being a combination of quantitative and qualitative research techniques in one single study, suggesting that it can offer a practical alternative to studies using either quantitative or qualitative approaches. Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007, p. 113) offer a definition of mixed methods which is used for this study: ‘*an approach to knowledge (theory and practice) that attempts to consider multiple viewpoints, perspectives, positions and standpoints (always including the standpoint of qualitative and quantitative research)*’

Whilst the quantitative data may suggest trends and patterns, the qualitative data allows

specific topics and issues to be explored through the subjective experiences of participants and in so doing, can provide insights and explanations found within the quantitative analysis, or not found as may be the case.

A review of the variety of mixed methods research approaches by Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) found that almost 40 different types of mixed methods designs had been employed as part of mixed methods research studies. Further work carried out by Creswell and Plano Clark (2007, p. 58-88) led to a simplification of these, resulting in them being classified into four major types of mixed methods designs. Table 5 below summarises the four main mixed methods designs used.

Table 5. Main Mixed Methods Designs

Mixed Methods Design Name	Key Features
Triangulation	One phase design Quantitative and qualitative data have equal weighting
Exploratory	Sequential timing with qualitative data collected and analysed first followed by qualitative data collected
Explanatory	Qualitative data collected and considered explanatory Tested and verified during quantitative phase
Embedded	One phase design where emphasis is placed on either quantitative or qualitative data.

Source: Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007

The mixed method research design selected for this study was an embedded correlational design, where the emphasis can be placed on either the quantitative or qualitative data or, where one of the data sets has a supplemental role within the overall study design (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003). The embedded design is selected when one data set is believed, in itself, to be insufficient in answering a research question, for example where the qualitative data can examine the process of an intervention, or to

explore the results of the quantitative data. In this study, the quantitative data are prioritised and the qualitative data are embedded within the study design and can help to explain the study results. A further characteristic of an embedded design is its ability to answer different questions through the collection of quantitative and qualitative data. The two variants of an embedded design can be either a correlational or an experimental design, the latter being the most frequently used (Creswell, Fetters, & Plano Clark, 2005). Selecting a mixed methods embedded correlational research design, where both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to collect the data, was considered particularly appropriate for this study for a number of reasons. First, as the focus of the research was based on the hypothesis that an EFP would be associated with changes in the target population and not on the theoretical framework of an EFP as an intervention per se, the weighting was placed on the quantitative data.

A second reason for choosing a mixed methods approach is that an EFP represents a complex intervention in so far as there are a number of components within the programme (Medical Research Council; Moore et al., 2015; Shiell, Hawe & Gold, 2008). These typically include activities such as leading, grooming, bringing horses out to the field, and culminating with a riding activity at the end of the programme which explore areas such as self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, responsible decision making and the ability to form positive relationships, all of which are addressed through exercises. In addition to the young peoples' participation in the EFP, there were other factors that may have impacted on the programme outcomes. For example, the EFP at the focus of this study takes place outside the school environment and as such, being absent from school may have been a positive factor for some. Furthermore, the young people were working in a group of between two and three with two of the organisations staff representing a considerably

higher ratio than they would be used to within the school setting (Weir et al., 2011; Weir & McAvinue, 2012). Finally, the young people may not have had much experience of green spaces and of being around equines. The degree to which one or more of these factors may have influenced the outcome of the programme is not known.

Finally, in light of the dearth of research in the field of EFPs, it was considered that this approach would help to provide a more comprehensive understanding by integrating the quantitative data with the qualitative information from the experiences and perspectives of the young people, and the observations of the parents and teachers (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Rauscher & Greenfield, 2009; Green, Carracelli & Graham, 1989).

Integration of the quantitative and qualitative data took place at the data analysis stage, allowing the qualitative data to provide further understanding of specific elements of the quantitative study. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) suggest that in order for a study to be considered a mixed methods design, that the findings must be integrated at some point, with mixed methods research incorporating a 7 stage conceptualization of the mixed methods data analysis (Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003). According to Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie (2003) the seven stages are as follows: (a) data reduction – to reduce the data through for example the use of thematic analysis, (b) data display where the data is described by charts, graphs, Venn diagrams etc., (c) data transformation where the quantitative data are converted into narrative data, and is an optional stage (d) data correlation where the quantitative data are correlated with the qualitative, (e) data consolidation which involves consolidating both data sets in order to consolidated data sets, (f) data comparison which requires comparing quantitative and qualitative data sources and finally (g) which involves integrating both the quantitative and qualitative into one coherent whole or two separate sets.

5.2.1 *Absence of a Control Group*

As the current study does not include a control group, the embedded correlational design was chosen for this study as a mixed methods study. The quantitative data were collected from the young people, their parents and teachers over three time points at T1 before the EFP commenced, at T2 after the completion of the EFP and at T3 three months after completion of the EFP. The qualitative data were collected from the young people, their parents and teachers at T2 after their completion of the 8 week EFP. Though the absence of a control group may limit the causal explanatory power, it may serve as a precursor to more experimental studies.

The importance of the inclusion of a control group is generally considered an essential part of most research designs in order to provide reliable baseline data to compare results with (Dehue, 2005; Godby, 2008). Fitzpatrick-Lewis, Ciliska and Thomas (2009) conducted a review of synthesis methods used to evaluate quantitative studies which did not include a control groups. Whilst they found that synthesising studies with no control group can be challenging, they also concluded that random controlled trials compared to non-random controlled trials can produce similar results. Fitzpatrick-Lewis and colleagues (2009) highlighted a number of precautions to be considered when including non-controlled studies including those that include a transparent study design, that the research question determines the study design and the need for detailed information relating to the study. These factors have been incorporated into the current study.

In addition, the Medical Research Council (MRC) recommend a phased approach to evaluating complex interventions which have been shown to present particular difficulties for researchers. The MRC argue that a solid theoretical understanding is needed of how an intervention happens in order that weaker dimensions of the

programme can be identified. As there is very little known about the theoretical understanding of EFPs, one emphasis of the current study is to develop this aspect (Medical Research Council). Further studies may then benefit from the inclusion of a control group. Furthermore, despite the value of the inclusion of a control group, there are occasions when their inclusion may not be appropriate. For example, Heppner, Wampold, Owen, Thompson and Wang (2015) suggest that non-controlled studies are appropriate when a participant is in need of a programme and where such a programme is considered to be effective. Study findings so far, though mixed, suggest that participation in EFPs are associated with improved well-being. In this regard, the inclusion of a control group in the current study was not considered to be practical. Many of the young people who were referred to the EFP service only became known to the referring person between four and six weeks in advance of the EFP start date. Depending on the presenting behaviours or changing circumstances of the young people, those wait listed were, on occasions, replaced with other young people with more acute needs.

5.2.2 Population and Sampling Strategy

The organisation provides services to children, young people, teenagers and adults with an intellectual or physical disability, and those affected by socioeconomic disadvantage (Organisations Annual Reports 2001 -2015). The young people at the centre of the current study are representative of a wider population of young people that avail of the services offered by the organisation. All the young people attending the EFP are the sample in the current study. Informed by the research highlighting the risks of young people from socioeconomically disadvantaged areas being affected by educational inequality, the organisation's Board of Directors approved a policy to provide the EFP Service for young people attending DEIS schools who were identified as presenting with

social and emotional difficulties (Organisations Annual Report 2008). Accordingly, contact was made by the organisation with the Home-School Community Liaison Scheme and the School Completion Programme Officers attached to the DEIS schools within the Wicklow and Dun Laoghaire catchment areas. This was considered to be the most appropriate and logical strategy organisationally as the DEIS action plan is focused on addressing and prioritising the needs of young people from socioeconomically disadvantaged areas between 3 and 18 years. The primary purpose of liaising with the schools was to offer the EFP service to young people within DEIS schools. As part of this, schools were also invited to participate in the research which is at the centre of the current study.

With interagency co-operation identified as a key feature of both the School Completion Programme and the Home School Community Liaison Scheme (DES, 2005-2006; NDP Programme for Educational Opportunity, N.d.; SCP Data Bulletin, 2012) both the emphasis and resources within DEIS schools focus on supporting young people to attend programmes such as the EFP in collaboration with the organisation which is considered to be a community based service.

The young people who were considered for the research were aged between 8 and 18 years. This age range was selected for three reasons. First, though SEL programmes have been found to be effective for young children (Powell, Dunlap and Fox, 2006; Webster-Stratton, 2004) the experience of the organisations EFP staff suggests that whilst young people less than 8 years of age can engage with an EFP, it requires a different approach including smaller equines, less session time and less focus on personal development areas. For example, spaces need to be smaller as do the equines. Though there are a number of smaller equines that live at the organisation, they were not

considered suitable for the EFP.

Second, transitioning from primary to post primary schools has been identified as a particularly difficult time for young people (ESRI, 2010; National Economic and Social Council [NESC], 2002; Smyth, McCoy & Dermody, 2004). As stated earlier in Chapter 2, social and emotional competencies have been identified as key qualities needed for young people to make this transition successfully. Finally, SEL programme evaluations were most frequently conducted amongst young people in primary schools (Durlak, et al., 2011). As such, this study aimed to address a gap in the research by evaluating an EFP as a SEL programme amongst young people in post-primary schools also.

Selection of young people for the EFP was made by the school principals in conjunction with the SCP officers. Criteria for selection was the degree to which the young peoples' social and emotional difficulties were negatively impacting on their potential for achieving educational success. The organisation did not have any input into the selection of the young people as participants in the current study. The young people who participated in the EFP were from 8 different schools. Each group of young people were from the same year within one of the 8 schools and were not mixed from different years, (e.g., first year, second year) or schools. An exhaustive sampling approach was used for this study. All the young people (N=88) referred to the EFP service at the organisation between May 2009 and March 2010, as well as their parents and teachers, were invited to participate in the study during this time-frame. Table 6 below outlines the number of young people from primary and post primary schools that participated in the study, with a higher number of pupils from post primary schools participating in the EFP.

Table 6 Number of Primary and Post Primary Schools That Participated in the Study

Group	Primary School	Post Primary School
Group 1	15	12
Group 2	5	12
Group 3	8	12
Group 4	8	17
Totals	36	52

As Table 6 above shows, the parents' response rate was the lowest with the young persons' response rate representing the highest.

5.2.3 Missing Data

Missing data in the present study constituted two types. First, those who dropped out as part of attrition and second, those who did not complete the questionnaire fully. It was decided not to rescale the missing numbers as they were quite high and adding a number of individuals was unlikely to make a significant difference. Table 7 reports on the response rate at each time point for the participants and Table 8 and Table 9 report on the participation and attrition rates for all participants. As Table 7 shows, the highest response rate is from the young people, with second highest response rate from the parents and the lowest response rate from the teachers. The response rate for each participant group varied at each time point.

Table 7 Participation and Attrition rates for all Participants

Time point	Invited	Young People	Parents	Teachers
Time one	88	83% (73)	59% (52)	70% (62)
Time two	88	77% (68)	62% (55)	72% (64)
Time three	88	72% (64)	54% (48)	59% (52)

Table 8 and Table 9 below provide an overview of the main reasons for missing data and Table 9 refers to missing data due to parental or young persons' refusal to give consent and participant refusing to give consent to participate. As Table 8 shows, difficulties in making arrangements for data collection was noted as a reason for missing

data across all time points amongst all participants. Missing data due to ‘no response’ was highest amongst the parents with ‘forms not being returned’ highest amongst the teachers.

5.2.4 Overview of Reasons why Questionnaires were not Returned by the Young People, Parents and Teachers

Table 8. Reasons why Questionnaires Were not Returned

Reasons for	YP T ₁	Parents T ₁	Teachers T ₁	YP T ₂	Parents T ₂	Teachers T ₂	YP T ₃	Parents T ₃	Teachers T ₃
Incomplete data	10		6	4		7	4	1	
Missed last session				9					
Difficulties with arrangements for data collection		2	7	2	3	3	8	8	9
Moved school/house					3	1	11	2	7
No response		12			10			15	
Forms not returned		4	13			11			17
Family Illness		2			1			3	1
Total	10	20	26	15	17	22	23	29	34

Table 9 below shows that the parents represent the highest number of participants who declined to consent to participate in the study. Four young people were refused parental consent, as illustrated in Table 9 below.

Table 9 Missing Data as a Result of Refusal to Give Consent or Consent to Participate in the Study

Reasons for	YP T ₁	Parents T ₁	Teachers T ₁	YP T ₂	Parents T ₂	Teachers T ₂	YP T ₃	Parents T ₃	Teachers T ₃
No parental consent	4			4			1		
No consent needed – yp over 18 years		2			2	2		1	
Participant did not consent	1	12		1	10			10	2
Young person did not give consent for parents being involved		2			2				
Parent did not give consent for teacher to be involved					2				
Total	5	16	0	5	16	2	1	11	2

5.3. Quantitative Data Collection Instruments

In selecting the measures for the present study (See APPENDIX F for Questionnaires), there were a number of factors that were taken into consideration. First it was important to identify measures that could potentially capture changes in the young person's self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, responsible decision making and forming positive relationships as described by the CASEL model of social and emotional learning, as this model was used as the theoretical model for the current study. It was also important to select questionnaires that would measure the young person's self-concept, as this has been shown to be strongly linked to young peoples' behaviour, emotions, academic performance and their social relationships (Emler, 2001; Guay, Marsh & Boivin, 2003). Enhanced self-concept was likely to be measured in improvements in one or more of these areas.

Table 10 below details which of the five social and emotional competencies are being addressed by one or more of the measures. As illustrated in Table 10 below, all five competencies can potentially be captured through the combination of the three measures that will be used in this study.

Table 10 Overview of Measures Used to Measure Changes in the Five Social and Emotional Competencies

Social and Emotional Competency	Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire	Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale	Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool
Self-awareness		✓	✓ (Personal Objective)
Self-management	✓		✓
Social Awareness	✓		✓
Responsible Decision Making			✓
Forming Positive Relationships	✓		✓

Second, it was important to identify a measure that could take into account the outdoor

nature of the EFP as the intervention programme. As outlined in Chapter 2, young people from socioeconomic disadvantaged areas are less likely to have access to nature based environments. As such the EFP environment and the inclusion of equines was likely to be a different, if not new, set of experiences for many of the young people.

Third, it was important to select measures that would allow parents, teachers and young people provide an observation report. Informant discrepancies have been reported in many clinical assessments (Cury & Golfeto, 2003; Smith, 2013) with the nature of a particular disorder, age and gender shown to contribute to discrepancies (Smith, 2007, 2013). Furthermore, young people have been shown to score higher scores on the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (a measure used in this study and described in section 5.2.1) than their parents and teachers (Van der Ende, Verhulst & Tiemeier, 2012).

The fourth and final reason which informed the choice of measures related to the age range of the young people. Consideration was given to identifying measures that could be completed by the young people greater than 8 years and less than 18 years, notwithstanding that assistance with questionnaire completion was offered to the young people in the event of there being a difficulty with either literacy or comprehension, or both. It was considered that the combination of measures chosen would tap into the broad areas which were most frequently cited as a result of participating in EFPs. The following measures were completed by the young people, their parents and teachers.

5.3.1 Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) (Goodman, 1997)

The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire is designed to provide an initial assessment of young peoples' to psychological well-being between the ages of 2 -17 years of age

(Goodman, 1997) with different formats for different age groups and designed to monitor changes in children's behaviour, emotions and relationships. The version selected for this research was for young people between the ages of 4 – 17 years of age involving a self-report and a questionnaire to be completed by both the parents and the teacher (Goodman, Meltzer & Bailey 1998). The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire includes 25 items (10 strengths, 14 difficulties and 1 neutral, which is scored as a difficulty on the Peer Problems subscale). It is divided between five subscales, four of which measure difficulties in the areas of i) hyperactivity/ inattention symptoms such as being restless or overactive ii) emotional symptoms such as often being unhappy or downhearted, iii) conduct problems such as often fighting with or bullying other children and iv) peer relationship problems such as the young person being rather solitary and tending to play alone. The fifth sub- scale measures pro-social behaviours. The young people, parents and teachers are asked to comment on 25 statements as they believed it best described the young person during the previous six months. Respondents can respond with 'not true', 'somewhat true' or 'certainly true'. A decrease in the emotional, conduct problems and peer relationship suggest an improvement whilst an increase in the pro-social subscale scores indicates an improvement in this area. The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire total difficulties decrease indicate an overall improvement. Responses to the Strengths and Difficulties indicate if a young person falls within internationally accepted mental health categories of normal, borderline or abnormal.

As set out in Table 10, the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire was used to measure changes in the young peoples' self-awareness, self-management and relationships. The follow up version of Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire includes two additional questions which are asked after the intervention has been delivered and asks if the young

person's problems have been reduced as a result of the intervention and if it has helped in any way. The follow up version of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire refers to changes within the last month rather than a longer timeframe as this is considered to increase the chance of detecting changes. The follow up version does not enquire about the chronicity of the young persons' problems. The questionnaire also included an impact supplement which was developed to assess the impact of the young person's difficulties in other areas of their lives including how their difficulties impact in the home, amongst their friends, in school and on recreational activities that the young person may be part of (Goodman, 1999). The Impact Supplement is reported to provide useful information for clinicians who have an interest in psychiatric caseness.

The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire is frequently used to evaluate interventions, with studies demonstrating that using the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire, together with research interviews, finds it to be sensitive to treatment effects (Goodman, 1997). It is used for screening, clinical assessments, evaluating outcomes, social, clinical and educational research (Goodman, Renfrew & Mullick, 2000) and is frequently used for young people with emotional and behavioural difficulties (Goodman et al., 2000). The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire has been found to be a better indicator when completed by parents and teachers than when completed by young people themselves only (Goodman et al., 2000). The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire has also been found to have good reliability and validity (Murris, Meesters & van der Berg, 2003). Cronbach's α coefficient is 0.73 for British total scores (Goodman, 2001) and 0.83 for USA total Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire scores (Bourdon et al., 2005). Mean re-test stability after 4 to 6 months was 0.62 (Goodman, 2001). In the Irish context, the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire has frequently been used in large scale studies including the Growing up in Ireland (Williams, et al.,

2009) and the Whole School Evaluation of the Incredible Years Ballymun Project (2012) (Morgan & Espey, 2012) (Evaluating Springboard, Impact of a Family Support Programme, 2006, McKeown, Haase & Pratschke).

Table 11 below presents the alpha coefficients for the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire total and providing favourable evidence concerning their reliability at T₁.

Table 11. Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ; Goodman, 1997)

Table No 6 Strengths and Difficulties (SDQ)			
Total Score and Subscale Scores	Number of items	M (SD)	Alpha
Total Score Young Person	25	18.9 (6.0)	0.72 (T ₂)Total
Total Score Parent	25	21.6 (6.6)	0.71
Total Score Teachers	25	21.8 (6.6)	0.72
Total Score Emotional Young Person	5	2.9 (2.6)	0.72
Total Score Emotional Parent	5	4.3 (3.0)	0.72
Total Score Emotional Teacher	5	4.6 (2.9)	0.80
Total Score Conduct Young Person	5	2.95(2.14)	0.63
Total Score Conduct Parent	5	1.9 (2.2)	0.78
Total Score Conduct Teacher	5	2.5 (2.8)	0.84
Total Score Hyperactivity Young Person	5	4.2(2.7)	0.75
Total Score Hyperactivity Parent	5	5.3 (3.3)	0.81
Total Score Hyperactivity Teacher	5	5.6 (3.0)	0.83
Total Score Peer Problems Young Person	5	1.63(1.85)	0.634
Total Score Peer Problems Parent	5	2.5 (2.5)	0.71
Total Score Peer Problems Teacher	5	2.1 (2.1)	0.70
Total Score Prosocial Young Person	5	7.8 (2.0)	0.70
Total Score Prosocial Parent	5	8.2 (2.6)	0.82
Total Score Prosocial Teacher		6.3 (2.7)	0.87

5.3.2 Life Effectiveness questionnaire – Youth at-Risk Version (Yar-Pet)

(Neill, 2003)

The EFP is delivered in an outdoor environment and, by its nature, is an experiential intervention. The Youth At Risk – Youth Evaluation Tool questionnaire was derived from the original Life Effectiveness Questionnaire (Neill, Marsh & Richards, 1997) which is increasingly being used to measure the effectiveness of outdoor education programmes (Neill, 2003). The Youth At Risk – Youth Evaluation Tool was also

designed particularly for ‘youth at risk’ (Neill, 2003) to measure youth development outcomes in outdoor education including many of the key areas which were highlighted in this study. Table 12 shows that the Youth At Risk – Youth Evaluation Programme Tool was used to measure changes in the young persons’ social and emotional competency of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, responsible decision making and forming positive relationships.

There are two parts to the Youth At Risk – Youth Evaluation Tool. The first part is completed by the young person and is designed to measure youth development objectives for adventure based or life skill experiential education programmes. It is a 65 item self-report measurement which assesses 17 youth development objectives in the Personal, Social and Environmental domains. *Personal Objectives* include self-esteem, self-confidence, and internal locus of control, effective problem-solving, goal-setting, reflective journaling, creative self-expression, health risk-taking and physical and outdoor skill development. *Social Objectives* include respecting and understanding personal boundaries, conflict resolution, communication skills, cooperative teamwork, leadership skills and community engagement. *Environmental Objectives* includes a sense of environmental stewardship and knowledge of local environmental issues. The Youth At Risk – Youth Evaluation Tool questionnaire takes approximately 30 minutes to complete and is answered on an eight point Likert scale ranging from 1 – ‘This statement doesn't describe me at all; it isn't like me at all’ to 8 – ‘This statement describes me very well; it is very much like me’.

The second part of the Youth at Risk – Youth Evaluation Tool questionnaire is completed by the parents and the teachers of the young person and is also designed to measure 17 items in the Personal, Social and Environmental domains. Respondents are asked to

score the young person's effectiveness in the areas of Personal Objectives (PO) including self-esteem, self-confidence, and internal locus of control, effective problem-solving, goal-setting, reflective journaling, creative self-expression, health risk-taking and physical and outdoor skill development. Social Objectives (SO) including respecting and understanding personal boundaries, conflict resolution, communication skills, cooperative teamwork, leadership skills and community engagement, with the Environmental Objectives (EO) including increased sense of environmental stewardship and knowledge of local environmental issues. This questionnaire takes approximately 10 minutes to complete and is answered on an eight point Likert scale ranging from 1 – 'False', to 2 -3 'More false than true'.

Although specific figures for reliability and validity are not available for Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool, it has been used in studies including wilderness therapy programmes (e.g. Allen-Craig & Miller, 2007). Although just half of the scales have been psychometrically tested, face validity appears reasonable (O'Neill, 2012). Table 12 below shows the psychometric properties for the Yar-Pet Questionnaire at T₁. Cronbach's Alpha was highest for the Youth At Risk – Youth Evaluation Tool total scales and subscales.

Table 12. Psychometric properties of Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool (O'Neill, 2003)

Total Score and Subscale Scores	Number of items	M(SD)	Alpha
Total Score Young person	51	286.03(54.02)	0.932
Total Score Parent	17	85.38(24.87)	0.896
Total Score Teacher	17	60.04 (21.89)	0.916
Total Score PO Young Person	27	146.42 (29.42)	0.883
Total Score PO Parent	9	29.87 (11.72)	0.852
Total Score PO Teacher	9	29.87 (11.72)	0.852
Total Score SO Young Person	17	105.08 (19.07)	0.845
Total Score SO Parent	6	33.84(10.93)	0.844
Total Score SO Teacher	6	22.71 (9.22)	0.864
Total Score EO Young Person	6	28.53 (9.74)	0.747
			0.731
Total Score EO Parent	2	11.11 (4.21)	0.732
Total Score EO Teacher	2	7.13 (4.2)	0.932

5.3.3 Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (Second Edition) (Piers, Dale, Harris & Herzberg, 2002)

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (2002, second edition) contains 60 self-report items for young people between the ages of 8 and 18 years of age which aims to measure self-concept. Using a 'yes' or 'no' response, it addresses 60 items covering six subscales. Measurements exist as a total score of self-concept and across specific domains of self-concept. Physical Appearance (PHY) is an 11 item scale and measures how the young person perceives his/her physical appearance in addition to his/her personality. Intellectual and school status (INT) is a 16 item scale, which evaluates the young person's intellectual and academic ability. Happiness and Satisfaction (HAP) is a 10 item scale which measures the young person's level of happiness and satisfaction with life. Freedom from Anxiety (FRE) is a 14 item scale that measures levels of anxiety and Behavioural Adjustment (BEH) is a 14 item that measures the young person's admission or denial of problem behaviours. Finally, Popularity (POP) is a 14 item scale and assesses the young person's evaluation of their social functioning. The questionnaire takes between 10 – 15 minutes to complete and is based on the young

person's perceptions of him/herself. Increases in both global and sub-scale scores suggest improved self-concept. Table 13 below shows that the Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale was used to measure changes in the young persons' social and emotional competency of self-awareness.

Reliability and validity for the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (1986) second edition have been rated between moderate to high in numerous studies (Puckett, 2008). The alpha reliability coefficient for the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale ranges between .88 to .93 (Butler & Gasson, 2005; Puckett, 2008). Test re-test reliability has not been measured for the second edition, though test re-test reliability for earlier versions found the global score was between .42 and .96 between 3 weeks and 8 months, and internal consistency was .88 to .93 (Lewis & Knight, 2000). Subsequent internal consistency was reported between .91 for the total score and between .74 and .81 for the domain scores.

Table 13 below shows the psychometric properties for the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale at T₁, providing favourable evidence concerning its reliability.

Table 13. Psychometric properties of Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale (Second Edition) (Piers, Dale, Harris & Herzberg, 2002)

Total Score and Subscale Scores	Number of items	M (SD)	Alpha
Total Score	59	46.61(6.8)	0.826
Total Score BEH	13	11.8 (3.1)	0.72
Total Score PHY	11	8.0 (2.5)	0.76
Total Score FRE	14	11.2 (2.3)	0.74
Total Score POP	12	11.2 (2.3)	0.74
Total Score HAP	9	7.92 (2.18)	0.677

In the Irish context, the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale second edition has frequently been used in large scale studies including the Growing up in Ireland report

(2009) (Williams, et al., 2009), evaluation studies measuring the impact of the work of the Irish Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (Merriman, Robbins, Canavan & Dolan, 2008) and finally, the Sibling Support Programmes in Cork (D'Arcy, Flynn, McCarthy, O'Connor & Tierney, 2005).

5.4. Interview Questions

5.4.1 Semi-Structured Interview Questions for the Young People

The focus of the research was based on the hypothesis that the EFP would be associated with a measurable positive impact on the target population and as such, the weighting was placed on the quantitative data. As previously discussed, the qualitative data provides the researcher with an opportunity to examine specific issues through the subjective experiences of participants. This can then provide insights and explanations reported in the quantitative analysis (Farquhar, Ewing & Booth, 2011; Woolley, 2009).

The interview questions were designed to collect data which could help to provide a better understanding of the reasons for any changes that may or may not have taken place amongst the young people. The interview questions were also designed to explore young peoples' experiences of the EFP sessions in terms of their understanding of the EFP and how it may impact positively on their self-awareness, emotional awareness and communications, all of which have been associated with social and emotional well-being. Finally, the young people were asked their opinions of how they believed the EFP could be improved. Interview questions are set out in Table 14 below (See APPENDIX J)

Table 14. Interview schedule topics for the young people

-
1. Understanding of the EFP
 2. Impact of an EFP on self-awareness
 3. Impact of an EFP on emotional awareness
 4. Impact of an EFP on communications
 5. Suggestions for improvements for the EFP (other comments)
-

Table 14 above shows the sequence of interview questions. The first question related to the young person's understanding of the EFP. Whilst there is considerable anecdotal evidence describing why EFP is effective in enhancing a young person's social and emotional well-being, there is a dearth of research relating to the active ingredients of the intervention that may explain the benefits. The young peoples' answers could potentially provide some insight into this unanswered question. The second question related to self-awareness, and how EFP might potentially help people to learn about themselves. Self-awareness has been cited as a fundamental issue in psychology (Rochat, 2004) with some young people developing significant self-awareness and others failing to do so (Thompson, 2008). Broadly defined, self-awareness can be viewed as one of the first factors of self-concept (Cherry, 2014) through which young people develop an awareness of their feelings and behaviour (Crisp & Turner, 2010). High levels of self-awareness require the ability to demonstrate how thoughts, feelings and actions are interconnected thereby allowing a young person to make positive changes and improvements through a process of goal setting (Durlak et al., 2008).). However, despite its importance, assessing a young person's self-awareness can be difficult due to the need for some form of self-reflection and self-report (McKeown, 2013).

The interview topic of self-awareness was identified as an important topic for two key reasons. Firstly, it is one of the five core competencies as outlined in CASEL's (2015)

model of social and emotional well-being which not only addresses recognising strengths and weaknesses but also examines a young person's ability to recognise their own emotions. Difficulties with emotional regulation was discussed in Chapter 2. Second, a young person's self-reflection and self-report are recognised as an important feature of assessing self-awareness and it was therefore important to include their experience of self-awareness in the context of the EFP and how it may have impacted on them.

The exploration of the young person's emotional awareness was the focus of the third question with interview questions focusing on how the young people felt at different stages of the EFP sessions. Greenberg, Kushche and Speltz (1990) suggest that social and emotional competence is related to emotional awareness and is reflected in a young person's internal regulation. As equines are cited as providing continuous feedback to people on their emotions, intentions and behaviour (Lentini & Knox, 2009), the young people had continuous opportunities to emotionally and behaviourally self-regulate in order to achieve different results. As the EFP was expected to result in an enhanced social and emotional well-being this question was asked to be able to discuss this topic further.

The fourth question related to how the EFP may have impacted on the young peoples' communication skills as part of the EFP sessions and if these skills improved since their participation in the EFP. As equines communicate non-verbally both with each other and with people (Brandt, 2004) the young people were therefore required to learn how to communicate non-verbally. This provided them with opportunities to pay greater attention to what both the equines and the other young people may have been communicating. The fifth and final question related to any suggestions that the young person had which they believed could improve the EFP.

5.4.2 Interview Schedule for the Parents and Teachers

Table 15 shows the sequence of interview schedule for parents and teachers. As with the young people, the first question related to parents' and teachers' understanding of an EFP based on the young peoples' description (See APPENDIX J).

Table 15. Interview Schedule Topics for the Parents and Teachers

1. Understanding of the EFP
2. Impact of the EFP on self-awareness
3. Impact of the EFP on relationships
4. Impact of the EFP on communications
5. Impact of the EFP on behaviour
6. Suggestions for improvements for the EFP (other comments)

The second question focused on any observed changes in the young person's levels of self-awareness and whether or not they believed the young person may have developed any particular insights into themselves as part of the EFP.

The third and fourth questions explored if the parents or teachers had observed improvements in how the young person related and behaved with family members or the young person's peers or teachers in school. As discussed in Chapter 2, Bradley and Hayes (2007) suggest that any intervention which fosters exposure to protective factors will likely impact positively on a young person's well-being. The fifth question examined any improvements in the young person's communication skills. The fifth and final question asked parents and teachers if they could suggest any improvements that could be made to the EFP.

5.5. Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted between March 2009 and April 2009 and included three

young people who had participated in an EFP, their parents and two teachers. This took place in the organisation. The young people were recruited on the basis of having attended an eight week EFP before approval was given for the present study. The aim of the pilot study was to evaluate the process of data collection, including time to complete the interviews, the order, content and wording of questions. The pilot study also allowed an opportunity to collect feedback on the interview process from all the participants' perspectives and make any necessary changes. The introductory letter (APPENDIX G) to the parents was sent from the Chairperson of the Board of Directors and the Co-ordinator of the EFP within the organisation. The letter outlined the nature of the study and included a plain language statement which was referred to as an 'Information Sheet' (APPENDIX H). The consent form (APPENDIX K) was sent to the parent requesting consent for the parent's involvement, their child's involvement and consent for their child's teacher to be invited to take part. Also included in the initial contact with parents was an Interview Schedule (APPENDIX J) outlining the interview process and a list of the questions that were to be asked. Finally, the parents were given the guidelines to be applied in the event of a parent becoming distressed during the interview and the guidelines to be used in the event of their child disclosing sensitive information.

On receipt of the consent forms from the parents, both the teachers and young people were contacted with introductory letters (APPENDIX H), Information Sheets (APPENDIX H), consent form for teachers (APPENDIX K), assent forms for the young people (APPENDIX K), guidelines in the event of teachers becoming upset (APPENDIX L) and guidelines in the event of their child disclosing sensitive information (APPENDIX Q). These forms were sent to the research assistant in line with the procedures for the main study which will be discussed later in this section.

Finally, the parents of the young people were required to complete a Waiver Form on behalf of their son or daughter (See APPENDIX C).

The young people, their parents and the two teachers were invited to participate in the pilot study in line with the means by which the participants for the main study were to be recruited. The young people were given the option of the questionnaire to be read to them by the research assistant¹ if assistance with reading or comprehension was needed. In each case, the three young people accepted this assistance and the research assistant read the questionnaires to them. Questionnaire completion with the young people took place at the organisation's premises. Questionnaires were completed with the teachers and parents by telephone. The interview schedule was piloted at the organisation's premises with three young people, three parents and two teachers. The interview questions for the young people focused on their understanding of the EFP and any insights that the young people may have developed in the areas of *self-awareness*, *emotional awareness* and *communications*. The interview questions for the parents and teachers related to observed changes in the areas of *self-awareness*, *relationships*, *behaviour* and *communication*. Finally, the young people, their parents and teachers were invited to contribute ideas on how the EFP could be improved in the future. The interview process was supported by either the School Completion or Home School Liaison staff member attached to each school. The primary role of the appointed person was to liaise with the family in relation to the documentation related to the study such as consent and assent forms.

5.5.1 Issues arising from Pilot study

The original role of the referral personnel as the School Completion Programme or Home School Liaison Officer or School Principle, was to liaise with the family in relation to the

documentation required by the organisation i.e. referral information, waiver forms and general information about the organisation EFP. The pilot study highlighted the difficulties that some of the parents had in relation to reading and/or comprehension of the introductory letter, and accompanying information sheet relating to the research study which had been sent to them by the Chairperson of the Board of Directors of the organisation. It also highlighted that some parents had difficulty in completing the questionnaires due to difficulty with reading and/or writing.

Informed by the outcome of the pilot study, the referral personnel's role expanded to include supporting those parents who had difficulties with reading, comprehension and/or completion of the documentation relating to the study. Where necessary, the referral personnel read out the material and discussed the contents with the parents.

Based on the feedback from the young people, their parents and teachers on the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire there were no changes that needed to be made. However, in order to help the young people remember the options for answers, particularly if the questionnaire was being read to them, flash cards were used with the possible answers to the questions. The words 'certainly true', 'somewhat true', 'not true' were written on the flash cards. Following the administration of the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool, some changes were made specifically in the wording of six questions. When clarification was sought by the young person on the meaning of the questions, it was the use of words rather than the concept contained within the question such as changing sea kayaking to canoeing, external things to things outside of your control, journal to diary, in harmony with nature to with nature, Casco's Bay Ecosystem to Bray or Shankhill environment (i.e. the local area), and handling waves and high winds to things that happen during stormy weather. Having changed the

wording, the questions were answered by the young person (APPENDIX F). In relation to completing the questionnaire with the parents by phone, the young person's name replaced the reference to 'your son/daughter'. There were no changes made to the Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale Questionnaire. Following the administration of the interview questions no changes were reported to be necessary.

5.6. Procedure for Main Study

The young people, their parents and the teachers were invited to participate in the main study with an initial introductory letter which was sent by the Chairperson of the Board of Directors of the organisation (APPENDIX M). The initial letter was sent to the parent of the young person who had been referred to the EFP. The School Completion Officer provided the research assistant with the name and contact details for the parents. The initial letter included the information sheet about the programme including the Guidelines describing the protocol to be adhered to in the event of parents or teachers becoming upset. It also included the procedure to be used in the event that their son or daughter disclosed sensitive information. They were also asked for their consent to contact their child and to contact the teacher of their child (APPENDIX P). As such they were identified by the parents' consent form. The consent form was signed by one parent and did not require the signature of both parents. Upon receipt of the consent form a letter relating to the study was sent to the young person and the young person's teacher (APPENDIX M). The introductory letters were sent out three weeks in advance of the start of each EFP to each young person and who had been referred to the EFP and the young persons' teacher who had been named by the parent via their consent form. If a young person, their parents and teacher agreed to take part in the study, they completed the assent and consent forms respectively and posted it to the research assistant in Dublin City University (DCU). The young people were given the option of

the questionnaire being read to them by the research assistant if needed. In some cases, the young people accepted this choice and the research assistant read the questionnaires to them. Where a teacher or parent did not return the consent forms, a follow up phone call was made by the research assistant, and a maximum of three phone calls were made, after which there was not further contact made.

Questionnaire completion with the young people took place on site at the organisations premises at T_1 and T_2 and the referral person remained outside of the room. Questionnaires were completed with the young person in their school at T_3 . Questionnaires were completed with the teachers and the parents by telephone. Quantitative data were collected from the young people, their parents and teachers before each young person started in the EFP (T_1), on completion of the eight week EFP (T_2) and three months after the end of the EFP (T_3) as set out in Table 16 below. The quantitative data at T_3 was collected at the young persons' school. The qualitative data were collected at the end of the eight week EFP.

Table 16. Quantitative Data Collection Timeframe

Time Point	Young people, parents and teachers	Venue
T_1	Before the start of the 8 week EFP	The organisations premises
T_2	End of the 8 week EFP	The organisations premises
T_3	Follow up 3 months after the completion of the 8 week EFP	The young persons' school

In order to select the participants for the interviews, it was necessary that the young person, their parent and their teacher had each completed the questionnaires at each of the three time points. A total of 8 young people, 6 parents and 9 teachers participated in the interviews.

5.6.1 Interview Procedure

All interviews were carried out in person and were recorded by the research assistant using a dictaphone. It should be noted that in the interviews with two parents, it became apparent that two of the young people had participated in an additional equine related programme at the organisation over a summer holiday period. Accordingly the sections of both transcripts which were linked to and or referenced the non EFP were excluded from the analysis. These data were stored separately in line with the storage of all other data but were not included in the study.

This section has focused on the research design in a study which explored the impact of EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. Attention will now turn to discussing the ethical issues relating to the present study.

5.7. Ethical Issues

There were two ethical considerations that needed to be addressed as part of a study where the researcher was also the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the organisation which provides the EFP. This section will now address each of these.

5.7.1 Conflict of Interest

This study was an evaluation of an EFP for which the researcher was responsible as Chief Executive Officer and was also the focus of a Ph.D. This introduced a potential conflict of interest (Curzer & Santillanes, 2012). A further conflict of interest was the possibility that positive results from the study could potentially benefit future funding for organisation in which the researcher is also the CEO. In order to deal with both of these conflicts of interest, a number of procedures were put into place. First, an

independent research assistant was appointed to gather data from all the participants. Second, the transcribing of interviews was done by the research assistant under the guidance and supervision of the research supervisors to preserve anonymity. Third, the research supervisors directly oversaw the thematic analysis of the data which was carried out by the researcher in order to ensure that it was undertaken in a rigorous way and any conflict of interest was managed.

A further additional potential conflict of interest highlighted was that the organisations Guidelines on Non-accidental Injury and Alleged Abuse (NAI [See APPENDIX Q for copy of the organisation s Guidelines]) identified the researcher, as the Chief Executive Officer, as the coordinator of the investigation and management of an allegation. In the event of a disclosure being made by the young person, their parent or teacher at any stage throughout the EFP or as part of the data collection process, the NAI Policy would have required an immediate report to be made to the Chief Executive Officer. In order to remove possible or potential bias, the Chief Executives Officer's coordinating role in the NAI Policy was replaced with a Senior Manager employed by the organisation with responsibility for two Health Service Executive (HSE) funded programmes managed by the organisation. The Chairperson of the Board of Directors of the organisation was also to have been advised of any allegation. The third and final procedure which was put in place to deal with a potential conflict of interest was the researcher maintaining a reflective weekly diary in the initial stages of the study to record insights relating to any conflicts of interest that may have arisen. However, no conflicts of interest arose during the study. Ethical approval was obtained for the study from Dublin City University in 2009 (APPENDIX A).

5.7.2 Autonomy and Informed Consent

An important part of the study was that of ensuring informed consent from the parents and teachers, and informed assent from the young people. An information sheet for parents was designed giving information about all aspects of the study. As part of this, a consent form was sent requesting permission for their child to participate in the study and also requesting permission to contact the young person's teacher. Parents were told that they could refuse to participate in the study but could give their consent for their child to participate. Similarly, both the young person and the teacher were given information sheets about the study requesting assent and consent respectively. All young people, parents, and teachers were told at each stage of the data collection process that they could withdraw from the study at any time and that this would not prevent or compromise the young person's participation in the EFP. All consent and assent forms were received in advance of the young people participating in the study. As part of this, the young people their parents and teachers were asked if they would be willing to take part in the interviews after the completion of EFP.

5.7.3 Privacy and Confidentiality

Maintaining the anonymity of the young people, their parents and teachers was explained in the information sheets that were sent to participants. The support person for each young person reviewed the information sheet with the young person in order to ensure that each young person fully understood its content. This information sheet content was explained at each stage of the data collection interview process by the support person.

The subject of confidentiality was also an important consideration. The young people, their parents and teachers were assured that the information they provided would be treated in the strictest of confidence. The exception to this was any information

which may have suggested that a young person was at risk of physical, sexual or emotional abuse. Each participant was informed that in this event the matter would be referred to the Co-ordinator of the EFP Service who in turn, would refer to the organisation's Guidelines on NAI. These guidelines clarified that information given to others for the protection of a young person did not constitute a breach of confidentiality, in line with The National Guidelines for the Protection and Welfare of Children.

It was explained that each participant was to be given an identification number and that this would be used for any information relating to the study. The information which linked participant names and numbers was stored separately in a secure location in DCU. Participants were also informed that whilst the interviews would be recorded and transcribed, the participant's information such as names and places would be removed. Participants were also told that it was possible that some quotes would be used in the research report and subsequent academic research publications.

As stated earlier in Section 5.2.2 all the young people attending the organisation's EFP were the sample for the current study which highlighted possible questions regarding their anonymity. However, as hundreds of young people availed of the EFP over the lifetime of this thesis, the identification of the sample within this population was considered to minimise any ethical issues.

5.7.4 Protection of Participants

The type of data collected as part of the research could have potentially highlighted personal issues for participants. For example, a young person who may not have been achieving in school tests over time could have been upset by a Youth At Risk –

Programme Evaluation Tool statement '*Most things I do I do well*', or a child who has poor interpersonal skills and difficulty making friends could potentially be upset by being asked to comment on '*I co-operate well when working with a team*'. Likewise, for a parent of a child who does not demonstrate any empathy or consideration for family members or others, the opening Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire statement '*Considerate of other peoples' feelings*' could trigger a strong emotional response.

Consequently, it was acknowledged that support structures were needed for participants. If during the course of data collection or the research, a participant became upset, the interview was to cease immediately but in a sensitive manner (See APPENDIX L for copy of Protocol for Participants). Depending on the location, contact would have been made immediately with the referral person of the young person. Depending on the location of the data collection or research the young person would have been reunited with their family or referral personnel. Participants were informed of this in advance of the sessions. In the event that a young person, parent or teacher disclosed an incident of alleged abuse (physical, emotional, sexual) or where there was reasonable suspicion of alleged abuse, the matter was to have been reported to the Co-ordinator of the EFP Service who would have implemented the organisation's Guidelines on NAI. The young people, their parents and teachers were informed of this in advance of the sessions. Each participant was given the contact details of the research assistant in the event that they had queries about the research.

5.8. Summary

This chapter described the design and methodology of the current study. As this was the largest EFP Irish study involving young people affected by educational inequality,

a mixed methods research design was chosen. This allowed the quantitative data to suggest possible patterns and allow the qualitative data to explore the subjective experiences of the young people in the areas self-awareness, emotional awareness and communications, and their parents and teachers observations in the areas of emotional awareness, relationships, communications and behaviour. The inclusion criteria used for the study were then described together with a discussion of the reasons why the study did not include a control group. The measures used for this study were then described including the rationale for the selection of each measure and referencing which of the CASEL SEL competency they were addressing. The pilot study was then outlined together with changes that were made to the study. Finally, the ethical considerations related to the study were outlined.

The next two chapters will review the findings of the quantitative and qualitative data.

Chapter 6. Quantitative Analysis and Findings

6.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the quantitative findings pertaining to the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. The main focus of this chapter consists of One-Way repeated measure ANOVAs which examined possible changes over time on the young peoples' self-awareness, social awareness, self-management, responsible decision making and their ability to form positive relationships. The chapter also consists of Two-Way repeated measures ANOVAs which were used to examine if there was a significant interaction between males and females and those in the normal/borderline and those in the clinical range of social and emotional difficulties. The chapter is divided into three sections. The *first* part of this chapter starts with an overview of the plan of analysis. This includes an overview of the study aims and objectives and presents the measures that were used to capture change in the areas of the young peoples' self-awareness, social awareness, self- management, responsible decision making and the young peoples' ability to form positive relationships. *Second*, a profile of the young people at the centre of the current study is outlined. This includes the gender and age breakdown of the young people. The number of EFP sessions is also presented in addition to the details of the number of young people, parents and teachers who responded at T₁, T₂ and T₃. An overview of the participating schools is also presented. A descriptive profile of the young people, which was derived from the data analysis at T₁ from the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire, Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool and Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale measures as reported by the young people, their parents and teachers is detailed. The *third* and final section consists of analyses exploring

possible changes over time on the social and emotional well-being of the young people as measured by standardised assessment outcomes.

6.2. Plan of Analysis

Figure 10 below illustrates the overall study aims and objectives highlighting which aspects of social and emotional well-being were addressed by the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire, Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale or the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool. Study objectives are highlighted in yellow to emphasise those being examined in this chapter.

Table 17. Reference to the Strengths and Difficulties, Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale and Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool

Measure
Strengths and Difficulties
Hyperactivity
Emotional difficulties
Conduct Problems
Peer Relationship Problems
Prosocial
Youth At Risk Programme Evaluation
Personal objectives
Social objectives
Environmental objectives
Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale
Physical Appearance
Intellectual and School Status
Happiness and Satisfaction
Freedom from Anxiety
Behavioural Adjustment
Popularity

The statistical analyses chosen for the present study included One-Way repeated measures ANOVA and Two-Way repeated measures ANOVA. The One-Way repeated measures ANOVA were used to help understand if there was a difference in the social and emotional well-being of the young people as reported by each of the three participant groups over T₁, T₂ and T₃. By using these analyses, it was possible to examine what differences might exist between the young peoples', their parents' and their teachers' reports on changes over time. Two-Way repeated measures ANOVAs were chosen to examine if there was a significant interaction between time and gender and reflects one of the objectives of the current study.

The next section provides an overview of the participants in the current study.

6.3. Profile of young people at T₁

6.3.1 Gender and age Breakdown of the Young People

There were a total of eighty eight young people, their parents and teachers invited

to participate in the study. Of the eighty eight young people, 70.5 % ($n=62$) were male and 29.5 % ($n=26$) were female. Chapters 2 and 3 discussed how males are reported to be at greater higher risk of social and emotional difficulties than females. These figures may be reflective of this.

The young people were aged between 8 and 18, with an average age of 13 years of age ($SD=2.20$). These figures may replicate the current literature which highlights that transitioning from primary to post primary school has been reported to represent a particularly challenging time for young people, in particular for young people with social and emotional difficulties.

6.3.2 Number of EAL Sessions completed by Young People

Figure 11 below shows the number of sessions completed by the young people over the four EFPs that were delivered. The number of sessions completed by each young person varied for a number of reasons. These included where an EFP session was scheduled to take place on a public or school holiday, medical appointments, lack of available transport, suspension from school, school exams, school related events, school closure for teacher training or staff meetings. Each EFP was made up of eight sessions which were delivered once a week lasting one hour and a half. The mean number of sessions attended by each young person was 5.72 ($SD=1.82$).

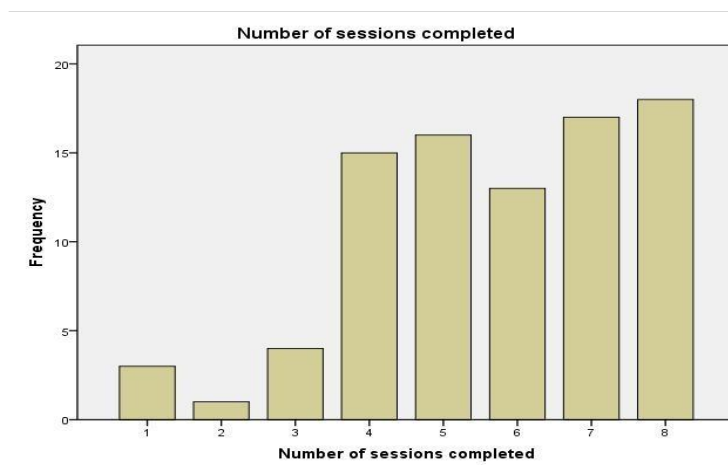


Figure 11. Number of Sessions Completed by the Young People

6.3.3 DEIS Schools That Took Part in the Study

A total of eight DEIS urban primary and post primary schools participated in the current study. As the identification of the participating schools could potentially disclose the identity of the young people, school names are not disclosed. The primary schools ($n=4$) that participated are classified as participating in Band 1 of DEIS which are those schools located in areas where the level of disadvantage is greatest as compared to Band 2. There is no classification of urban or rural post primary schools participating in DEIS. Four post primary schools referred young people to the EFP.

6.3.4 Detailed Description of the Young People at T_1

Chapter 2 discussed general profiles of young people attending DEIS primary and post primary schools in Ireland as reported in the literature. Whilst not all young people who attend primary or post primary DEIS schools have social and emotional difficulties, a percentage of young people are reported as having a range of ‘some’ to ‘high’ need in this area. The School Completion staff refer young people to the EFP as one intervention which is considered to promote social and emotional well-being.

Developing a deeper understanding of the young people who took part on the study was

considered an important part of this chapter. It provided a more detailed description of the young peoples' social and emotional difficulties rather than the more generic and general description of young people attending DEIS schools with social and emotional difficulties as presented in the literature and discussed in Chapter 2. The involvement of the young peoples' parents' and teachers' reports also provided the study with different perspectives on the young peoples' social and emotional difficulties. Young people with social and emotional difficulties are reported to have underdeveloped emotional awareness, can demonstrate less empathy and self-awareness than their peers and experience relational difficulties. As such it was important to gather the parents' and teachers' experiences of the young peoples' social and emotional difficulties.

The following section provides a profile of the young people at the centre of the present Study. In order to do this, the T₁ data from the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire, Youth at Risk–Programme Evaluation Tool and Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale questionnaires were analysed as reported by the young person, parent and teacher. The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Total scales and subscales were compared to the published descriptive ranges of normal, borderline and clinical (www.sdqinfo.org) (See APPENDIX T for copy of Analysis of Standardised Scales for SDQ). As there were no descriptive data for the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total score and subscales, the young persons', parents' and teachers' mean scores were compared against the maximum possible Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total scores (n=8). The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total scale and subscales were compared against the ranges of 'very low', 'low', 'low average', 'average', 'high average', 'high' and 'very high' (See APPENDIX U for copy of Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale T-Score Range). As discussed in Chapter 5, the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire measures a young person's psychosocial functioning. Table

18 below presents the findings of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Total Difficulties scores at T₁.

Table 18. Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire TD Score T₁ for Young Peoples', Parents' and Teachers' Report

Group	Normal	Borderline	Clinical
Young People	58.8% (30)	13.7% (8)	27.5 % (14)
Parent	49% (25)	13.7% (8)	37.3% (19)
Teachers	33.3% (23)	24.6 % (17)	42% (29)

The scores above demonstrate that with the exception of the young people and parent reports in the borderline range, the young peoples', parents' and teachers' scores were all reported between the normal, borderline and clinical range. The young peoples' and parents' scores both reported 13.7% % in the borderline range. By contrast, the teachers reported over twice as many with 24.6% in the borderline range.

Of note to the current study is the number of young people reported in the clinical range by the young peoples' scores ($n=14$), parents' ($n=19$) and teachers' ($n=29$). As can be seen in Table 18 above, the teachers scores were twice those of the young persons' and again higher than the parents' scores. There was some similarity between the young people, their parents' and teachers' on the total scores in the normal range. However, the differences between teachers', young persons' and parents' scores varied in the borderline and clinical ranges. As the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire classification of scores is presented through the three bands of normal, borderline and clinical, a clinical score may be used to identify 'cases' that may have significant social, emotional and behavioural difficulties. As the young persons', parents' and teachers' scores suggest a number of young people were presenting with high levels of social and emotional difficulties it was decided to run an exploratory Two-Way ANOVAS Two for Time and Caseness for the young people's, parents' and teachers'.

6.3.5 Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Total and Subscale Scores at T₁

Table 19 below also shows a continuing pattern of differences between the subscale scores as reported by the young people's, parents' and teachers' scores. The young peoples' subscale scores increased within the normal range and were also noticeably higher than the parents and teachers scores. Differences in the subscale scores continued to be highlighted, particularly as teachers reported the highest number of young peoples' scores in the clinical range for the Emotional and Hyperactivity subscale and the lowest scores in the PRO subscales, as compared to either the young people or the parents.

Table 19. Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Subscale Scores for Young Peoples' Report, Parents' Report and Teachers' Report at T₁

Group	normal		borderline	clinical
Emotional				
Young People	65	(82.3%)	9 (11.4%)	5 (6.3%)
Parents	22	(44.9%)	5 (10.27%)	22 (44.9%)
Teachers	34	(51.5%)	6 (9.1%)	26 (39.4%)
Hyperactivity				
Subscale				
Young Person	54	(65.9%)	11 (13.4%)	17 (20.7%)
Parent	21	(42.0%)	8 (9.1%)	21 (42.0%)
Teacher	33	(49.3%)	9 (10.2%)	25 (37.3%)
Conduct Problems				
Subscale				
Young Person	47	(58.8%)	12 (15.0%)	21 (26.3%)
Parent	30	(58.8%)	7 (13.7%)	14 (27.5%)
Teacher	37	(61.7 %)	4 (6.7%)	19 (31.7%)
Peer Problems				
Subscale				
Young Person	71	(88.87%)	5 (6.3%)	4 (5.0%)
Parent	28	(56.0%)	5 (10.0%)	17 (34.0%)
Teacher	37	(42%)	10 (11.4%)	15(17%)
Prosocial Skills				
Subscale				
Young Person	65	(82.3%)	9 (11.4%)	5 (6.3%)
Parent	40	(81.6%)	1 (2.0%)	8 (16.3%)
Teacher	35	(55.6%)	12 (19.0%)	16 (25.4%)

It is also worth noting that the number of young people whose scores indicated they were in the clinical range of the Emotional, Conduct Problems and Peer Problems subscale

totalled 5, 4 and 4 respectively. By contrast however, the number of young people whose scores indicated that they were in the clinical range in the Hyperactivity and Conduct Problems subscale was 17 and 21 respectively, suggesting that the young people may have had some insight into how they perceived their social and emotional difficulties. Of particular note is that the young peoples' scores were classified in the clinical range of the Conduct Problems subscale which was higher than the parents and teachers who reported 14 and 19 respectively.

6.3.6 Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Total and Subscale Scores at T₁ for the Young People, Parents' and Teachers' Score

There were no published descriptives available for the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool measure. As such, the maximum possible scores ($n=8$) were used to compare the total mean scores and subscale scores. For the young people, the eight point Likert scale ranged from 1-2 (False – not like me), 3 - 4 (More False than true), 5 – 6 (More True than False) to 7-8 (This statement describes me very well). For the parents and teachers, the eight point Likert scale ranged between 1 (False), 2 – 3 (More false than true), 4 – 5 (Neither true nor false), 6 – 7 (More true than false) to 8 (True). Table 20 below shows the young peoples', parents' and teachers' total mean and subscale scores as compared to the maximum possible scores for the total and subscale scores. In all cases, the maximum score was eight.

Table 20. Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Total Scores for Young Peoples', Parents' and Teachers' Report at T₁

Total Score	T₁ (SD)	Maximum Score
Total score Yar-pet Young Person	5.41 (1.29)	8
Total score Yar-pet Parent	5.02 (1.16)	8
Total score Yar-pet Teacher	3.53 (1.28)	8

In developing the profile of the young people at the centre of the present study, Table 20 above illustrates the young peoples' total scores of 5.41. However, the parents' total score of 5.02 report the young people between 'effective' and 'ineffective'. The teachers' scores reported the young people as being more 'ineffective' and 'effective'. This reflects the patterns observed in the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire total and subscale scores. Table 16 above also illustrates the degree of effectiveness as reported by the young people's, parents' and teachers' scores.

Table 21 below shows a similar pattern with the young persons' scores suggesting they perceive themselves as being 'effective' in the Social Objective indicators and similarly by the parents' scores.

Table 21. Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Young Persons', Parents' and Teachers' Report Social Objective Subscale Scores

Total Subscale Scores	T₁ (SD)	Maximum Score
Total Subscale score SO Young person	6.14 (1.07)	8
Total Subscale score SO Parent	5.64 (1.82)	8
Total Subscale score SO Teachers	3.78 (1.53)	8

However, the teachers' scores suggests the young people are 'ineffective' as measured by the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Social Objective sub-scale.

Table 22 below suggests a similar pattern to the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Social Objective subscale scores, with the young peoples' reports suggesting that they perceive themselves as more 'effective' in the Social Objective than in the Personal Objective. The parents did not report the young person as 'effective' or 'ineffective' in the Personal Objective indicators and the teachers reported the young people as being less 'effective' in the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Personal Objective subscale than effective.

Table 22. Yar-Pet Young Persons', Parents' and Teachers' Report Personal Objective Subscale Scores

Total Subscale Scores	T ₁ (SD)	Maximum Score
Total Subscale score PO Young person	5.25 (1.16)	8
Total Subscale score PO Parent	4.45 (1.41)	8
Total Subscale score PO Teacher	3.31 (1.30)	8

Finally, Table 23 below illustrates how the young peoples' reports are the lowest in the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Environmental Objective compared to the other Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool sub-scales, with the parents reporting the young person as more 'effective' than 'ineffective' as measured by the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Environmental Objective . The teachers' scores indicate they believe the young people to be more 'ineffective' than 'effective' in the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Environmental Objective subscale.

Table 23. Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Young Persons', Parents' and Teachers' report EO Subscale Scores

Total Subscale Scores	T ₁	Maximum Score
Total Subscale score EO Young person	5.35 (2.09)	8
Total Subscale score EO Parent	5.11 (2.23)	8
Total Subscale score EO Teachers	3.56 (2.10)	8

6.3.7 Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale Total and Subscale Scores at

T₁

Table 24 below shows the mean scores for young people on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale measure. The total scores of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale measure ranges from < 29, 'very low', 30-39 'low', 45-55 'average', 56-59 'high average', 60-69 'high average' and >70 'very high'. The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale subscales range from < 29, 'very low', 30-39 'low', 45-55 'average' and >56 'above average'.

Table 24. Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale Young Persons' Report Total and Subscale Scores at T1

Scores	T ₁ (Std. Deviation)		Maximum score
PH Total score	53.85	(8.72)	>70 (very high)
Subscales			
BH	50.91	(9.48)	>56 (above 'average')
INT	49.56	(8.44)	>56 (above 'average')
PHY	50.10	(10.98)	>56 (above 'average')
FRE	53.07	(7.61)	>56 (above 'average')
POP	53.85	(8.43)	>56 (above 'average')
HAP	52.38	(6.7)	>56 (above 'average')

As is evident from Table 24 above, the young peoples' scores reported them in the 'average' range in relation to both the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total self-concept and subscale scores. However, there are variations within these reports. For example, the lowest reports were in the areas of Behavioural Adjustment, Intellectual and School Status and Physical Appearance and Attributes followed by Happiness and Satisfaction. The young people reported similarly in the Freedom from anxiety and Popularity subscales.

6.3.8 *Interim Summary and Discussion*

T₁ data using the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire, Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool and Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale measures were reviewed in order to develop an understanding of the profile of the young people at the centre of this study. In addition, it allowed the study to develop a broader and more comprehensive understanding of the young people through the inclusion of parents' and teachers' reports.

The data highlight a number of factors. The first observation relates to the variation in the young peoples', parents' and teachers' reports of the young peoples' social and emotional difficulties. For example, the young peoples' scores reported less social and

emotional difficulties than the parents' or teachers' scores as measured by the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire and Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total and subscale scores. The exception to this was the young peoples' Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Environmental Objectives subscale score (4.93) which was lower than the parents subscale score (5.11). There were also variations between the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire, Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool and Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total and subscale young peoples' scores. The Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool and Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total and subscale young persons' scores reported less social and emotional difficulties than the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire total and subscale young persons' scores, with the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total and subscale young peoples' reports indicating the least difficulties.

That the young peoples' ($n=30$), parents' ($n=25$) and teachers' ($n=23$) scores were reported in the normal range reflects the literature that many young people are developing without any significant social and emotional difficulties. This is also reflected in the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool and Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total and subscale scores. However, in reviewing those reported in the borderline range by the young peoples' ($n=8$), parents' ($n=8$) and teachers' scores ($n=17$) and those reported in the clinical range by the young peoples' ($n=14$), parents' ($n=19$) and teachers' scores ($n=29$), and despite the variations between the young peoples', parents' and teachers' scores, it is evident that there is a group of young people with some or high level of need in relation to social and emotional difficulties. Of particular note and concern is the number of young people whose Conduct Problems subscale scores were reported in the clinical range ($n=21$) and that this figure was higher than the parents ($n=14$) and the teachers ($n=19$), in addition to the number of young people whose HYP

subscale scores were reported in the clinical range ($n=17$) compared to parents ($n=21$) and teachers ($n=25$).

A second observation relates to the teachers' scores which overall reported the lowest number in the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire total and subscale normal range and the highest number in the borderline and clinical range as compared to the young people and parents. Similarly, the teachers' scores were lowest in the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total and subscale scores. This suggests that the teachers may be experiencing the most negative impact of the young persons' social and emotional difficulties. The parents' scores indicate that the young people have some to high social and emotional difficulties as measured by the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire and Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total and subscale scores. However, the parents do not appear to experience these difficulties to the same degree as the teachers do.

Chapter 2 discussed the importance of involving young people in assessments of their social and emotional well-being. Whilst the young peoples' scores indicate that they see themselves as having less social and emotional difficulties than the parents' or teachers' scores suggest, they do nonetheless also indicate that some of the young people are experiencing social and emotional difficulties. The findings also illustrate the importance of including the parents and teachers as they provide a more comprehensive understanding of the social and emotional difficulties of the young people at the centre of the present study.

The next section examines the question of whether significant changes over time occurred in the young peoples', parents' and teachers' scores on the dependent measures, the

Strengths and Difficulties, Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool and Piers Harris Self- Concept Scale.

6.4. One-way Repeated Measures ANOVA

6.4.1 One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVAs Results for the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Total and Subscale Scores for the Young People over Time

A series of One-Way repeated measures ANOVA were conducted to examine possible changes and differences in the young peoples', parents' and teachers' reported Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire total scale and subscale scores at T₁, T₂ and T₃. This reflects the main focus on identifying any evidence of change over time within the group attending the EFP.

Table 25 below reports the findings for the Total Difficulties (TD) scale, presenting the descriptive statistics for the three groups at each time period.

Table 25. One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Total Scores for Young Persons', Parents' and Teachers' Report

Interval	Young People Mean (SD)	Parents Mean (SD)	Teachers Mean (SD)
Time 1	13.10 (7.49)	13.85 (7.89)	14.00 (6.71)
Time 2	10.16 (5.87)	11.81 (7.18)	10.56 (6.89)
Time 3	10.67 (4.7)	11.03 (7.20)	14.12 (7.56)
F=	F=2.427	F=4.101	F=6.307
df	df=2,60	df=2,50	df=2,48
p=	p = >0.05	p =<0.05	p = <0.05
Post-hoc tests	n/a	T ₁ > T ₃	T ₁ > T ₂
(Significant at	0.05		T ₂ < T ₃

The results show there was a significant difference in parents' Total Difficulties scores, $F(2, 50) = 4.01$, $p = 0.04$, and teachers TD scores, $F(2, 48) = 6.30$, $p = .004$. Table 25 above presents the results of the Bonferroni Post hoc tests which illustrate the differences between each of the three time points. Parents' scores reported significance

between T₁ and T₃ but not between T₁ and T₂, or T₂ and T₃. Examination of the mean scores suggests that there was a significant decrease in difficulties between T₁ and T₃ as measured by the Total Difficulties scale.

Post-hoc tests on the teachers' Total Difficulties scores showed that significant differences were evident between T₁ and T₂ and T₂ and T₃ but not between T₁ and T₃. Again, examination of the teachers' mean scores reports a significant decrease between T₁ and T₂, but a significant increase in difficulties between T₂ and T₃, with the result that there was no consistent evidence of change from T₁ to T₃.

Table 26 below presents the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire subscales showing changes over time as reported by the young people.

Table 26. One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire subscale Scores for Young Person's Report

Variable	T₁ Young People Mean (SD)	T₂ Young People Mean (SD)	T₃ Young People Mean (SD)	F= df p=
Hyperactivity	4.28(2.37)	3.97 (2.76)	4.02 (2.05)	F=5.02 df =2,76 , p=>0.05
Emotional	3.00 (2.42)	2.51 (2.09)	2.70 (2.43)	F=1.276 df=2,72, p=>0.05
Conduct	2.79 (2.15)	2.33 (2.33)	2.38 (1.85)	F=1.942 df =2,76, p=>0.05
Peer problems	1.84 (1.83)	1.57 (1.74)	1.45 (1.60)	F=.854 df =2,72, p=>0.05
Prosocial	8.22 (1.84)	7.80 (2.18)	8.10 (1.76)	F=1.115 df =2,78, p=>0.05

The results indicated however, that no significant difference was found between the mean scores across time for any of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire subscales for the young people. The results indicate that the young peoples' mean score decreased between T₁ and T₂ in the Hyperactivity, Emotional and Conduct Problems subscale but then increased at T₃. Although the mean scores increased again at T₃, the scores did not revert to their original score at T₁. The PP mean score decreased over time. By contrast,

the young persons' Prosocial Skills mean score decreased at T₂ and increased at T₃.

Table 27 below reports significant difference in the parents reports on the Peer Problems subscale score, $F(2, 50) = 3.91, p = 0.026$. Post-hoc analysis using the Bonferroni correction for significance showed that the changes in the parents' scores were significant between T₁ and T₂ but not between T₂ and T₃, or T₁ and T₃. Examination of the mean score suggests that there was a significant decrease in Peer Problem difficulties between T₁ and T₂. Table 27 below presents the One-Way Repeated measures ANOVA Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire subscale scores for the parents and teachers.

Table 27. One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Subscale Scores for Parents' and Teachers' Report

Variable	T₁ Mean (SD)	T₂ Mean (SD)	T₃ Mean (SD)	F= df = p=
Parents				
Hyperactivity	5.75 (3.56)	5.29(3.42)	4.75 (1.90)	F=.712 df =2,54 p= >0.05
Emotional	4.08 (3.14)	3.20 (2.46)	3.20 (2.94)	F=2.425 df =2,48 p> 0.05.
Conduct problems	2.30 (2.31)	2.00 (2.31)	1.73 (2.20)	F=1.383 df =2,50 p = > 0.05
Peer problems	2.31 (2.29)	1.50 (1.86)	1.61 (1.67)	F=3.912 df =2,50 p=<0.05
Prosocial	8.23 (2.65)	8.50 (2.04)	8.57 (1.83)	F=.890 df =2,50 p= >0.05
Teachers				
Hyperactivity	5.22 (2.82)	4.09 (2.95)	4.86 (2.89)	F=2.358 df =2.46 p = > 0.05
Emotional	4.08 (3.03)	3.25 (2.67)	4.08 (2.74)	F=1.764 df =2.46 p > 0.05
Conduct problems	2.10 (2.27)	1.71 (2.43)	1.57 (2.58)	F=2.036 df =2.40 p > 0.05.
Peer problems	3.00 (1.80)	1.88 (2.06)	2.76 (2.14)	F=8.137 df =2.48 p= < 0.05
Prosocial	6.79 (2.55)	8.00 (2.12)	8.50 (2.02)	F=7.53 df =2.46 p < 0.05

Teachers' scores also showed a significant difference in the Peer Problems subscale, $F(2, 48) = 8.13, p = .001$. Post-hoc tests on the teachers' Peer Problems subscale scores showed significant differences were evident between T₁ and T₂, and T₂ and T₃, but not between T₁ and T₃. A review of the mean scores suggests a significant decrease between T₁ and T₂ but a significant increase in Peer Problems difficulties between

T₂ and T₃ and as such there was no evidence of change the teachers' scores.

Significant differences was reported in the teachers' Prosocial Skills subscale score, $F(7.53) = 2, 46, p = .001$. Post-hoc tests on the teachers' Prosocial Skills scores reported significance difference between T₁ and T₂, and T₁ and T₃, but not between T₂ and T₃. A review of the mean scores suggests a significant increase in Prosocial Skills between T₁ and T₂, and T₁ and T₃.

Whilst the parents' mean scores reported an improvement in the young persons' Conduct Problems, a decrease in the Hyperactivity subscale and a sustained improvement in the Prosocial subscale, this was not significant. Table 23 also shows the teachers' score on the Emotional subscale decreasing at T₂ to below the upper end of normal but again reverting to T₁ levels at T₃. The teachers' scores on the Conduct Problems subscale, although not statistically significant, reported that the teachers' scores decreased from the lower end of borderline at T₁ to the upper end of normal at T₂, continuing to decrease at T₃. Similarly, the teachers' scores on the Hyperactivity subscales, although not statistically significant decreased from the lower end of borderline at T₁ to the upper end of normal at T₂ and remained at the upper end of normal at T₃.

6.4.2 Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact Supplement

The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact scores measure the impact of the young persons' difficulties in their home life, amongst friends, within the classroom and within leisure activities. The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact score contains an impact supplement *in addition* to the 25 items contained in the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire. The young people, their parents and teachers were asked

to report on whether or not the young person had difficulties with emotions, concentration, behaviour and relationships with others and how these difficulties impacted on home life, friendships, classroom learning or leisure activities. As illustrated in Table 28 below, the teachers' Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire impact scores suggests that the young persons' difficulties interfered less with 'Peer Relationships' and 'Classroom Learning' following their participation in the EFP, $F(2,22) = 6.45, p = 0.006$.

Table 28. One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Strengths and Difficulties Impact Supplement for Young People, Parents' and Teachers' Report Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact Score over Time

Interval	Young People Mean (SD)	Parents Mean (SD)	Teachers Mean (SD)
Time 1	.6250 (.7440)	4.83 (.9910)	3.00 (1.906)
Time 2	.9750 (5.87)	4.83 (7.18)	2.166 (1.403)
Time 3	1.325 (4.7)	4.16 (7.20)	1.500 (1.446)
F=	F= .636	F= .255	F= 6.452
df=	df = 2,14	df = 2,10	df = 2,22
p=	p = > 0.05	p = > 0.05	p = <0.05
Post-hoc tests (Significant at 0.05)			T ₁ > T ₃

Post-hoc test on the teachers' scores reported changes between T₁ and T₃. Examination of the mean score indicates significant decrease between T₁ and T₃ as measured by the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact score. However, this score does not necessarily indicate that the teachers attributed these changes to the EFP. Neither the young people or the parents Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire impact scores reported significant changes.

6.4.3 Summary of Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Total and

Subscale Findings

This section reviewed the One-Way repeated measures ANOVAs for the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire total difficulties and subscale findings in addition to the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact Supplement. T₁, T₂ and T₃ data using the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire total, subscales and Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact Supplement were reviewed in order to examine changes over time, as reported by the young peoples', their parents' and teachers' scores. A summary of these are illustrated in Table 29 below. As can be seen from Table 29 below, there were no significant decreases in the young peoples' total or subscale scores.

Table 29 Summary of One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Results Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Total Difficulties and Subscale Findings and Strengths and Difficulties Impact Supplement

Total Scales and subscales	One-Way ANOVA		
	Time YP	Time P's	Time T's
SDQ Total Score		✓ T ₁ > T ₃	
Conduct Disorder			T ₁ > T ₂
Hyperactivity			T ₂ < T ₃
Peer Problem's		✓ T ₁ > T ₂	T ₁ > T ₂
Emotional			T ₂ < T ₃
Prosocial			✓ T ₁ > T ₃
SDQ Impact over time			✓ T ₁ > T ₃

Turning then to reviewing the scores which indicate consistent evidence of change, the parents' scores, as illustrated in Table 29 above, show the parents' scores reported a significant decrease in total difficulties between T₁ and T₃. The teachers' scores also reported significance in the young peoples' Prosocial skills in addition to the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact Score, indicating that the young peoples' social and emotional difficulties interfered less with peer relationships and classroom learning at T₃ follow up than at T₁ and T₂.

The parents' scores also reported a significant decrease in the young peoples' Peer Problems at T₂. Similar to the teachers' Total Difficulties score, the teachers' Peer Problems scores reported a decrease in PP at T₂ but a significant increase at T₃, again resulting in no evidence of consistent change. Whilst the teachers' scores also reported a significant decrease in Total Difficulties between T₁ and T₂, the T₃ score was higher than the T₁ score.

The next section will review the One-Way repeated measures ANOVA for the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool and Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale

6.4.4 One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA for Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Total for the Young People, Parents and Teachers

Table 30 below presents the ANOVA results for the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total scores for the young peoples', parents' and teachers' scores. The young peoples' total scores report statistical significance, $F(2, 46) = 5.08, p = .010$. Post-hoc tests reported a significant difference between T₁ and T₃.

Table 30. Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Total Scores for Young People, Parents and Teachers over Time

Interval	Young people Mean (SD)	Parents Mean (SD)	Teachers Mean (SD)
Time 1	5.62 (.902)	5.53 (1.36)	4.23 (1.18)
Time 2	5.78 (.863)	5.24 (1.50)	5.86 (1.74)
Time 3	6.00 (.850)	5.71 (.614)	5.41 (1.17)
F=	F=5.08	F=.921	F=11.52
df	df =2,46	df =2,22	df =2,22
P	p = < 0.05	p = >0.05	p = < 0.05
	T ₁ < T ₂		
Post-hoc tests (Significant at 0.05)	T ₁ < T ₃		T ₁ < T ₂ T ₁ < T ₃

Teachers' total score also reported significance on the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total score, $F(2, 22) = 11.52, p = .000$. Post-hoc tests showed

significance between T₁ and T₂, and T₁ and T₃. A review of the mean score suggests significant increase between T₁ and T₂, and T₁ and T₃. No significance was found in the parents' total scores.

Table 31 below presents the findings of the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool PO subscales for the young peoples', parents' and teachers' scores.

Table 31. Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Total PO Subscales for Young People, Parents and Teachers

Interval	Young people Mean (SD)	Parents Mean (SD)	Teachers Mean (SD)
Time 1	5.40 (.952)	3.89 (1.03)	3.74 (1.35)
Time 2	5.58 (.922)	4.76 (1.44)	5.27 (1.72)
Time 3	5.63 (0.836)	4.86 (1.38)	4.96 (1.28)
F=	F=2.287	F=.488	F=11.59
df	df =2,58	df =2,24	df =2,26
P	p = > 0.05	p = >0.05	p = < 0.05
Post-hoc tests (Significant at 0.05)			T ₁ < T ₂ T ₁ < T ₃

Table 31 reports the teachers' Personal Objectives scores show statistical significance, $F(2, 26) = 11.59, p = .000$ with Post-hoc tests indicating a significant difference between T₁ and T₂, and T₁ and T₃. Examination of the mean scores suggests a significant increase between T₁ and T₂, and T₁ and T₃. No significance was reported in the young peoples' or parents' PO subscales scores.

Table 32 below illustrates that the young peoples' Social Objectives subscale scores were significant, $F(2,60) = 4.33, p = 0.017$.

Table 32. Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool SO Subscale for Young People, Parents and Teachers

Interval	Young people Mean (SD)	Parents Mean (SD)	Teachers Mean (SD)
Time 1	6.05 (1.11)	5.83 (1.480)	4.25 (1.43)
Time 2	6.22 (1.43)	5.83(1.48)	5.51 (2.17)
Time 3	6.43(.953)	5.87 (1.47)	4.94 (1.77)
F=	F=4.33	F=.035	F=7.15
df	df =2,60	df =2,52	df =2,34
p	p = <0.05	p = >0.05	p = <0.05
Post-hoc tests (Significant at 0.05)	T ₁ < T ₃		T ₁ < T ₂

Post-hoc tests reported no significance between T₁ and T₂, and T₂ and T₃ with a review of the mean scores showing a significant decrease between T₁ and T₂ and a significant increase between T₁ and T₃, as such there was no evidence of difference. In addition, the teachers' SO subscale score was significant, $F(2, 34) = 7.15, p = .003$. Post-hoc tests reported significance between T₁ and T₂ with an examination of the mean scores indicating a significant increase between T₁ and T₂.

Table 33 below shows that there was no statistical significance found in the young peoples', their parents' or teachers' Environmental Objectives subscale scores.

Table 33. Environmental Objective Subscale for Young People, Parents and Teachers

Interval	Young people Mean (SD)	Parents Mean (SD)	Teachers Mean (SD)
T ₁	5.35 (1.44)	5.53 (1.36)	4.90 (2.48)
T ₂	5.28 (1.60)	5.24 (1.50)	4.90 (2.48)
T ₃	5.27 (1.83)	5.71 (0.61)	5.22 (2.54)
F=	F= 0.075	F=0.921	F=1.597
df =	df =2,56	df = 2,22	df =2,38
P =	p= > 0.05	p= > 0.05	p= > 0.05

6.4.5 Summary

Table 34 below summarises the significant increases in the One-Way repeated Measure ANOVAs Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total and subscale findings for the young peoples', parents' and teachers' scores. Table 34 shows a significant increase in the young peoples' total score between T₁ and T₃, but not between T₁ at T₂.

Table 34. Summary of Significant Increases in One-Way Repeated Measure ANOVA Yar-Pet

Measure	Young Person	Parent	Teacher
Yar-pet total score	$T_1 < T_2$		□ $T_1 < T_2$ ┘ $T_1 < T_3$
Yar-pet PO			□ $T_1 < T_2$ □ $T_2 < T_3$
Yar-pet SO	$T_1 < T_3$		┘ $T_1 < T_2$
Yar-pet EO			

By contrast, the teachers' total scores show a significant difference between T_1 and T_2 and between T_1 and T_3 for both the total and Personal Objective subscale scores. This suggests that participation in the EFP may be associated with changes in the young peoples' total life effectiveness not only on completion of the EFP at T_2 but three months after their completion of the EFP at T_3 . This was also the case in the teachers' Personal Objective subscale score again suggesting that the young persons' personal effectiveness was maintained over time. However, there was no significance as reported by parents' Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total or subscale scores and no significance reported in the young persons', parents' or teachers Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Environmental Objective scores.

6.4.6 One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Results for Piers Harris Self

Concept Scale

Table 35 presents the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total and subscale scores as reported by the young peoples' scores. Using a One-Way repeated measure ANOVA with the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale measure, a significant difference was observed in the young persons' total score, $F(2,92) = 16.54$, $p = .000$. Post-hoc tests showed these changes were reported between T_1 and T_3 , and T_2 and T_3 but not between T_1 and T_2 . An examination of the mean scores suggests a significant increase in the young peoples' self-concept between T_1 and T_3 , and T_2 and T_3 .

Table 35. Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale Self-Concept Scale Total and Subscale Scores

Scale and subscale	T ₁ Mean (SD)	T ₂ Mean (SD)	T ₃ Mean (SD)	F= df = p=	Post-hoc tests Significant at 0.05
Total Score	44.79 (8.17)	46.74 (9.24)	51.30 (12.39)	F = 16.544 df= 2,92 p =<0.05	T ₁ <T ₃ T ₂ <T ₃
BEH	53.45(9.58)	54.16 (9.10)	55.48 (9.01)	F= 1.783 df = 2 p = >0.05	
INT	51.11 (8.85)	51.22 (9.24)	53.72(9.68)	F= 2.084 df = 2 p = >0.05	
PHY	49.16 (12.08)	53.72 (8.09)	55.04 (9.96)	F= 4.59 df = 2,48 p =< 0.05	T ₁ <T ₃
FRE	51.36 (8.20)	54.48 (9.44)	54.30 (8.90)	F= 3.86 df = 2,64 p = < 0.05	T ₁ <T ₂
POP	52.69 (7.26)	57.34 (7.81)	57.03 (7.49)	F=8.46 df = 2,62 p = < 0.05	T ₁ <T ₂ T ₁ <T ₃
HAP	54.72 (5.54)	56.66 (4.47)	55.69 (56.02)	F= 2.32 df = 2 p = > 0.05	

A significant difference was also observed in the Physical Appearance subscale, $F(2, 48) = 4.59, p = .015$ with post-hoc tests on the Physical Appearance subscale reporting significance difference between T₁ and T₃. A review of the mean score indicates a significant increase between T₁ and T₃. Significance was also reported on the Freedom from Anxiety subscale, $F(2, 64) = 3.86, p = .026$ with a post-hoc test reporting a significant increase between T₁ and T₂. A significant increase was also reported between T₁ and T₂, and T₁ and T₃ in the Popularity subscale, $F(2.62) = 8.46, p = .001$. A review of the mean score for both Physical Appearance and Freedom from Anxiety subscale scores shows a significant increase between each time point.

6.4.7 Interim Discussion

As outlined at the start of this chapter and illustrated in the opening figure, the measures used for the present study were selected to examine changes in the areas of the young peoples' self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, responsible decision making and their ability to form positive relationship as reported by the young people, their parents and teachers. A series of analyses using One-Way repeated measures ANOVA resulted in a combination of mixed findings across both the total and subscale totals of the quantitative measures used in the present study (**Strengths and Difficulties**

Questionnaire, Youth At Risk-Programme Evaluation Tool and Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale).

Findings can be categorised into four areas. Firstly, where there is evidence of significant increases over time as measured at T3. Second, where there is evidence of significant increases at T2. Third, where there is evidence of significant increase at T2 but a decrease at T3 and finally, where there is no evidence of any significant increases.

In reviewing the changes three months after the EFP, parents reported a significant decrease in the young peoples' total difficulties (**Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Total score**). Teachers also reported changes in the young peoples' general life effectiveness and in their self-esteem, self-confidence and problem solving skills (**Youth At Risk-Programme Evaluation Tool total and Personal Objective**). Teachers likewise reported that the young peoples' difficulties were impacting less on their peer relationships and classroom learning difficulties (**Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact Supplement**). The young peoples' reports indicate that their self-concept had increased and was maintained at T₃ (**Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale total score**) as well as positive increases in the young peoples' self-concept of their physical appearance (**Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale Physical Appearance and Attributes**) and their social functioning (**Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale Popularity**). Turning then to the significant changes at T2. The young people, parents and teachers all reported a decrease in the young peoples' social and emotional difficulties at the end of the EFP. In particular, improvements in the young peoples' relational skills were reported by the parents and teachers (**Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Peer Problem subscale**). However, the teachers reported that the young peoples' total difficulties and

PP had reverted to the T_1 level at T_3 . Teachers also reported a significant increase in the young peoples' Prosocial Skills as measured by the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Prosocial Skills subscale and a significant increase in their effectiveness in social relationships (**Youth at Risk-Programme Evaluation Tool Social Objective**). The young peoples' scores reported significant improvements in their personal effectiveness (**Youth at Risk-Programme Evaluation Tool Total Score**) in addition to a decrease in the young peoples' anxiety levels (**Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale Freedom from Anxiety**).

Though the mean scores increased in the remaining young people, parents' and teachers' Strengths and Difficulties, Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total and Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total subscale scores, the absence of significant changes in these areas indicate that the young people, parents and teachers did not notice significant improvements in these areas. The variations across the young peoples', parents' and teachers' reports may be reflective of the variations of responses at T_1 , highlighting the different perspectives and experiences of the parents and teachers and the young peoples' self-assessment of their levels of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, responsible decision making and their ability to form positive relationship. This again emphasises the value of the inclusion of multiple informants in the current study.

The next section presents a summary of Two-Way repeated measures ANOVA relating to time and gender *and* time and caseness, using the Strengths and Difficulties, Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool and Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale measures.

6.4.8 Interim Summary Time and Gender Strengths and Difficulties Total and Subscale Scores Young People, Parents and Teachers

Two-Way repeated measures ANOVAs were used to examine if there was a significant interaction between time and gender as current literature reports that males experience a higher risk of social and emotional difficulties than females, placing them at greater risk of educational inequality than females. Table 36 below presents a summary of the significant differences for Time and Gender effects as reported by the young peoples', parents' and teachers' scores. Cell counts that fell below the basic rate of ten per cell were excluded due to concerns about the validity of the analysis. As such, reporting of patterns that did not meet this criterion were excluded and are bolded. Table 36 below shows that by applying this rule excludes all reported significant differences for the Time and Gender effect.

Table 36. Summary of Significant Differences for Time and Gender

Measure	Young Person		Parents		Teacher	
	Time	Gender	Time	Gender	Time	Gender
SDQ total			$T_1 > T_3$		$T_1 > T_2$ $T_1 < T_2$	Males higher than Females
PRO					$T_1 > T_2$ $T_1 > T_3$	
PP			$T_1 > T_2$ $T_1 > T_3$		$T_1 > T_2$ $T_1 < T_2$	
EMOT		Females higher than Males		Males higher than Females		Males higher than Females
HYP CON SDQ Impact Supplement					$T_1 > T_3$	Males higher than Females

The Two-Way ANOVAs showed that there was no evidence of significant interactions between gender and time as reported by the young people, parents' or teachers' scores, suggesting that there was no significant difference between the males and females in the current study. In reviewing the findings for the main effect of Time, the Two-Way ANOVAs reflected the results of the result of the One-Way ANOVA reported earlier. There was no significant difference for the Time effect in the young persons' scores.

The next section will examine the Two-Way ANOVAs for the Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total and subscale scores for the young people, parents and teachers by gender.

6.4.9 Interim Summary Two-Way Repeated Measures ANOVAs: Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool and Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale Total and Subscale scores for Young People, Parents and Teachers

Table 37 below presents a summary of the significant differences for Time and Gender effects as reported by the Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool and Piers-Harris

Children's Self-Concept Scale total and subscales for young people, parents' and teachers' scores. As there was no significant interaction between Time and Gender, Table 37 reports on the main effect for Time and the main effect for Gender.

Table 37. Summary of Significant Differences for Time and Gender Youth at Risk Evaluation Tool and Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale

Measure	Young Person		Parents		Teacher	
	Time	Gender	Time	Gender	Time	Gender
Yar-Pet Total	$T_1 < T_3$				$T_1 < T_2$ $T_2 < T_3$	Males higher than Females
PO					$T_1 < T_2$ $T_1 < T_3$	
SO						
PH Total	$T_1 < T_3$				$T_1 < T_2$	
Score						
BA						
INT		Males score higher				
PHY						
FRE						
POP						
HAP						

A review of the Two-Way repeated measures ANOVA shows that there was no evidence of significant interaction between Gender and Time as reported by the young people, parents' or teachers' scores. These findings replicate the findings in the previous section which suggest that there is no significant difference between the males and females in the present study. Possible reasons for this are discussed in Chapter 9.

In reviewing the findings for the main effect of Time, the Two-Way Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total and subscale ANOVAs reflected the results of the result of the One-Way ANOVA reported earlier. However, there was no significant difference for the Time effect in the young peoples' Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total and subscale scores in comparison to the One-Way ANOVAs for

the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total, Physical Appearance and Attributes, Popularity or Happiness and Satisfaction subscale scores which reported a significant difference. Table 45 also shows the patterns that did not meet the criterion of ten or more in each cell count and as such are excluded.

There was significant difference reported in the young peoples' Social Objectives subscale scores suggesting that the young peoples' general life effectiveness had improved at T₃. Table 45 above also reports the findings for the main effect of Gender for the young people, parents and teachers. As the reported differences did not meet the criterion, there was no significant differences reported for the main effect of Gender.

The next section will report on the Two-Way ANOVA caseness by time for the Strengths and Difficulties, Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool and Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale. As outlined in Chapter 2, the profile of the young people reported

6.4.10 Interim Summary Two-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Caseness by Time Two-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Caseness by Time Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Total and Subscales

This section reviewed the findings of the Two-Way ANOVAs for Time and Caseness for the young people, parents' and teachers' Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire total and subscale score as illustrated in Table 38 below.

Table 38. Summary of Significant Differences for Time and Caseness Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Total and Subscale Scores Young Peoples', Parents' Teacher's Reports

Measure	Young Person			Parents			Teacher		
SDQ total	Int. $T_1 < T_2$ $T_1 < T_3$	Time $T_1 < T_2$ $T_1 < T_3$	Caseness Atypical higher than typical	Int.	Time $T_1 < T_3$	Caseness Atypical higher than typical	Int.	Time $T_1 > T_2$ $T_1 < T_3$	Caseness Atypical higher than typical
CON									
HYP									
PP									
EMOT									
PRO									
IMPACT SCORE									

Table 38 above highlights that cell counts fell below the basic rate of ten per cent in the parents' Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact Score and as such is excluded from this section. Similarly, teachers' Strengths and Difficulties Peer Problem and Prosocial subscales for the main effect of Time and teachers' Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Peer Problem and Emotional subscales for the main effect of Caseness did not meet the criterion of more than ten in each cell count and were also excluded. Cell counts that fell below the basic rate of ten per cell are bolded. As illustrated in Table 38 above, there was a significant interaction between caseness and time for the young peoples' scores between T_1 and T_2 , and T_1 and T_3 with the young people in the clinical range reporting a significant decrease in total difficulties as compared to the young people in the normal to borderline range. This finding suggests that those in the clinical range may have benefited more from the EFP than those in the normal to borderline range. This is further supported by the significant differences reported by the parents' and teachers' scores for the main effect for Caseness which also suggests that those in the

clinical range may have benefitted more than those in the normal to borderline range. Parents' and teachers' scores also suggest that those in the clinical range with hyperactivity and emotional difficulties may also have benefited more than those in the normal to borderline range.

Significant differences were reported for the main effect for Time on the young peoples' and parents' scores three months after their participation in the EFP, also reflecting the results of the One-Way ANOVAs. However, although significant difference for the main effect for Time were reported in the teachers' scores at T₂, the T₃ scores had reverted to T₁ scores three months after their participation in the EFP.

The young peoples' scores did not report significant interaction for time and caseness, main effect for time or main effect for caseness on the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire subscales. The young peoples', teachers' or parents' Conduct Problems scores did not report significance in either the main effect for Time or for Gender.

The next section will review the summary of the Two-Way repeated measures ANOVAs caseness by time Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Total and Subscale scores for the young people, parents and teachers.

6.4.11 Interim Summary Two-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Caseness by Time Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Total Scores Young People, Parents and Teachers

Table 39 below highlights that cell counts fell below the basic rate of ten per cell in the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total for the young peoples' and teachers scores, Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Personal Objective subscale

parents' and teachers' scores, Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Social Objective subscale teachers' scores and Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and as such are excluded. Cell counts that fell below the basic rate of ten per cell are bolded.

Table 39. Summary of Significant Differences for Time and Caseness

Measure	Young Person			Parents			Teacher		
	Inter.	Time $T_1 < T_3$	Caseness	Inter	Time	Caseness	Inter	Time $T_1 < T_2$ $T_1 < T_3$	Casenes
Yar-Pet Total									
PO				✓	$T_1 < T_2$ $T_1 < T_3$		✓	$T_1 < T_2$ $T_1 < T_3$	
SO								$T_1 < T_2$	
PH Total Score									
BA		$T_1 < T_2$ $T_2 T_1$							
INT									
PHY									
FRE									
POP		$T_1 < T_2$ $T_2 T_1$							
HAP		$T_1 < T_2$ T_1							

6.5. Summary and Conclusion

This study used three separate measures as part of a study aimed at measuring the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. In particular, the study examined changes in CASELs' five core social and emotional competencies which include a young persons' self-awareness, social awareness, self-management, responsible decision making and their ability to form positive relationships. The data collected at T1 using the Strengths and Difficulties, Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool provided a profile of the young people who participated in the study. The chapter then reviewed the findings of One-Way repeated measures ANOVAs which explored changes over time. Finally, the chapter explored the

findings of Two-Way repeated measures ANOVAs relating to gender and time *and* caseness and time. Where the cell count fell below the basic rate of ten per cell in the Two-Way repeated measures ANOVA for time and gender and time and caseness for the young peoples, parents' and teachers Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool and Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire total and subscale scores and the young peoples' Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total and subscale scores, these findings were excluded due to the concerns about the validity of the findings. The main effects were established by the One-Way ANOVAs which have an appropriate sample size.

The first part of this chapter focused on developing an understanding of the young people at the centre of the current study. This was achieved by examining the reports of T1 data from the Strengths and Difficulties, Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool and Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale questionnaires for the young people, their parents and teachers. The findings of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire, Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool and Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale highlighted the variations between the young peoples', parents' and teachers' reports. The young peoples' scores suggest that overall that they do not experience the same degree of social and emotional difficulties as the parents' or the teachers' scores report they experience. Teachers' reported the highest level of young peoples' social and emotional difficulties, with teachers' scores reporting a greater number of young people in the borderline to clinical range of difficulties. The value of adopting a multi-format approach in studies involving young people was discussed in Chapter 3.

However, whilst the findings of the T₁ Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire total and

subscales used in the present study support this, there were some contradictory findings which could suggest that the young people at the centre of this study may have some insight into their behaviours. For example, the young peoples' Hyperactivity and Conduct Problems scores were reported highest in the clinical range ($n=17$) and ($n=21$) compared to Emotional ($n=5$), PP ($n=4$) and PRO ($n=4$). It is interesting to note however, that the young peoples', parents' or teachers' scores did not report a significant difference over time in either the young persons' Hyperactivity or Conduct Problems (**Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Hyperactivity and Conduct Problems**). These findings however are not reflected in the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total and subscale scores which showed that the young people perceive themselves within the 'average' range in the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale subscales scores and 'very high' in the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total score. That said, One-Way ANOVAs reported significant increases in young peoples' Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total score and PHY, POP subscale scores at T3 suggesting that the young peoples' overall self-concept had increased in addition to an improvements in their self-concept of both their physical appearance (**Piers Harris Self-Concept Physical Appearance and Attributes**) and the young person's evaluation of their social functioning (**Piers Harris Self-Concept Popularity**). Though the young people reported their anxiety levels decreased at T₂, this was not maintained overtime at T₃.

A review of the data collected at T1 therefore highlights the differences between how the young people, their parents' and teachers' experience and assess the young persons' social and emotional difficulties. Whilst the reasons for the differences are unclear, the findings of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire and Youth at Risk – Programme

Evaluation Tool data illustrate the differences between the teachers' reports of the young peoples' social and emotional difficulties as compared to the parents' and similarly compared to the young peoples' reports. Findings from the One-Way ANOVA Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool also suggests the young people experienced significant increases in their general life effectiveness upon completion of the EFP at T₂ (**Youth at Risk Programme Evaluation Tool Total Score**), a finding replicated by the teachers (**Youth at Risk Programme Evaluation Total Score**). Teachers also reported significant increases in the young peoples' self-esteem, self-confidence, internal locus of control, effective problem-solving and goal-setting (**Youth at Risk Programme Evaluation Tool Personal Objective**) at T₂ and at T₃, in addition to their ability to respect and understand personal boundaries, manage conflict resolution, communication skills, cooperative teamwork and leadership skills (**Youth at Risk Programme Evaluation Tool Social Objective**) at T₂.

In reviewing the possible impact of the EFP on the young peoples' social and emotional Difficulties, parents reported that the young peoples' total difficulties had decreased at the end of the EFP and that these improvements were maintained three months after the end of the EFP at T₃. Although the teachers reported a significant decrease in the young peoples' total difficulties at T₃ this score reverted to the T₁ levels at T₃ and as such there was no evidence of difference. Despite this, both the parents and teachers reported a significant decrease in the young peoples' total difficulties at T₂.

Significant decreases in the young peoples' Peer Problem at T₂ were also reported by the parents and teachers though the teachers' reported that the decrease in the young peoples' Peer Problem was not maintained at T₃. The teachers also reported an increase

in the young peoples' prosocial behaviour at the end of the EFP at T₂ and again at T₃. The impact of the young peoples' social and emotional difficulties on their classroom learning and peer relationships was also reported to have decreased when they completed the EFP and three months later at T₃ as reported on the teachers' Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact scores.

In reviewing the findings of the Two-Way repeated measures ANOVA relating to time and gender, no significant interaction was reported. There was no main effect for Gender reported in the young peoples', parents' or teachers' scores. This finding does not reflect the current literature which provides strong evidence relating to males experiencing higher levels of social and emotional difficulties than females. Possible reasons for this are discussed in Chapter 9.

In moving to discussing the findings of the Two-Way repeated measures ANOVAs relating to time and caseness, the young peoples' scores reported a significant interaction between caseness and time for the young people in the clinical range suggesting that the young people with the highest level of social and emotional difficulties may have benefited more from the EFP than the young people with normal to borderline difficulties. It is interesting to note that the young peoples' decrease in their social and emotional difficulties was evident not only on completion of the EFP after eight weeks at T₂ but three months after their participation in the programme at T₃.

Main effects relating to time and caseness found significant differences in the young peoples', parents' teachers' total difficulties (**Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Total Difficulties**). Similar to the findings for the main effect of Time, Parents' Peer

Problem score also identified a significant decrease in the young peoples' peer problems.

The next chapter will review the findings of the qualitative data which were collected through a series of interviews with the young people and their parents and teachers.

Chapter 7. Qualitative Analysis and Findings

7.1. Overview

The previous chapter presented the quantitative findings of the current study. This chapter presents the qualitative data which explores the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. In particular, the areas of self-awareness, emotional awareness and communications as reported by the young people and self-awareness, relationships, communications and behaviour as reported by the parents and teachers are presented. Integration of the quantitative and qualitative data is then discussed in Chapter 8.

This chapter is divided into four sections. The *first* section, illustrated in Figure 12 below, presents an overview which links the study aim and objectives to the qualitative data collected and the analyses that were performed. The *second* section presents a discussion on the criteria by which to evaluate the trustworthiness and credibility of qualitative research. *Third*, a review of the different approaches that were considered for the analyses of the qualitative data are reviewed. A description of thematic analysis, as the approach selected for the current study together is presented. The fourth and final section presents the individual and global themes that emerged from the qualitative data. The *fourth* section is divided into three sub-sections. First, the individual themes pertaining to the impact of the EFP on the young peoples' self-awareness, emotional awareness, communications, relationships and behaviour is discussed. Second, a presentation of the global themes are discussed. The process for identifying the individual themes and global themes is also detailed. The third and final sub-section of section four reviews the descriptions and experiences of the EFP by the young people, their parents and teachers together with the young peoples' narratives for evidence of

factors or aspects of the EFP which may contribute to any changes in the young peoples' social and emotional difficulties. Recommendations from the young people, parents and teachers for future EFPs are also outlined. A selection of quotes from the young people, their parents and teachers are used to support the presentation of the findings. Study objectives are highlighted in yellow to emphasise those being examined in the current chapter.

7.2. Overview of Study Objectives and Qualitative Data Collection

Study Aim				
To explore the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality				
Study Objectives – Quantitative			Study Objectives – Qualitative	
<ul style="list-style-type: none">To identify any changes in self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, responsible decision making and the ability to form positive relationships following participation in the EFPTo identify any evidence of significant gender differences among young people in relation to self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, responsible decision making and the ability to form positive relationships			<ul style="list-style-type: none">Review the impact of the EFP on self-awareness, relationships, behaviour & communicationsTo examine young peoples’ narratives for evidence of factors or aspects of the EFP which may contribute to any changes identified in the first quantitative study objectiveTo examine young peoples’, parents’ and teachers' perspectives of the EFP to identify higher level patterns of convergence and divergence in their views.	
Strengths and Difficulties (SDQ) YP, P’s & T’s	Youth at Risk Programme Evaluation Tool (Yar-pet) YP, P’s & T’s	Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale YP	Semi-structured Interviews Young People Teachers Parents and	
Social Emotional Competency Self-management Social awareness Relationships	Social Emotional Competency Self-management Social awareness Relationships	Social Emotional Competency Self-awareness	Understanding of the EFP Impact of an EFP on self-awareness, emotional awareness and communications Suggestions for improvements for the EFP	Understanding of the EFP Impact of the EFP on self-awareness, relationships, communications & on behaviour Suggestions for improvements for the EFP
Quantitative Analysis			Qualitative Analysis	
Integration of Quantitative and Qualitative Data				
Findings				

Figure 12. Overview of Study Objectives and Qualitative Data Collection

The next section examines a number of factors that need to be considered when conducting qualitative research in order to ensure its credibility and trustworthiness.

7.3. Ensuring the Credibility and Trustworthiness of Qualitative Data

The qualitative data were collected for two keys reasons. First, to examine changes that may have occurred in the areas of self- awareness, emotional awareness, communications, relationships and behaviour. Second, to examine the young peoples, their parents' and teachers' descriptions, experiences of and recommendations for the EFP.

Whilst there has been an increase in the growth in popularity of qualitative research designs, there have also been concerns raised over the rigour of qualitative research and which has been questioned by positivists (Shenton, 2004). As qualitative research cannot easily be replaced by the quantitative paradigm, Guba and Lincoln (2005) have developed four constructs which they suggest correspond to the criteria used by positivists where internal validity is replaced by credibility, external validity is replaced by generalisability, reliability with dependability and objectivity is replaced with confirmability. The use of these four constructs may then be used to test the soundness of qualitative research.

Credibility in a study is reported as being one of the most important considerations in establishing trustworthiness (Shenton, 2004). There are a number of ways that have been put forward which may increase the internal validity of a study which were integrated into the current study. The inclusion of a multiple informant approach as a form of triangulation has been shown to increase qualitative research internal validity and was an important consideration in the current study. The use of multiple informants

was designed to add credibility to the qualitative findings. The current study included eight DEIS schools involving a total of eighty eight young people, their parents and teachers. Identifying ways to try and ensure that informants are answering questions as honestly as possible reflects an additional strategy to improve credibility. Chapter 5 addressed a number of ways that were likely to facilitate study participants to answer the interview questions frankly. These included the involvement of the research assistant to gather data from the participants. In addition, procedures were put in place to enable the participants to withdraw from study at any time they chose to do so. Frequent study meetings were a feature of the current study which have also been reported to support a study's credibility as they provide a forum to be able to discuss study problems as they may arise by discussing alternative approaches and in particular, in interpreting study findings independent of biases.

As outlined in Chapter 4, the EFP programme was provided to young people in primary and post primary DEIS schools who had been referred resulting from a range of social and emotional difficulties. As such, there were certain homogeneities amongst the young people, parents and teachers which may potentially contribute to the transferability of the qualitative data. As stated, this study included a homogenous group of young people from eight different DEIS schools. Depending on the findings of the current study, it is possible that the EFP as an intervention designed to promote social and emotional well-being may have potential to be applied in other DEIS primary and post primary schools as they represent similar settings to the DEIS school at the center of the study. Though the number of interviewees in the current study is less than originally projected, the integration of the quantitative and qualitative data will be considered in the context of transferability.

Dependability is the third construct which can contribute to trustworthiness, referring to the degree to which the study design, data collection, data management and data analysis processes are clearly defined (Stringer, 2004), all of which were detailed in Chapter 5. A further feature of dependability relates to participant checks whereby interview participants can verify their findings based on their experiences either by transcript or interpretive verification (Pittney, 2004). As discussed in Chapter 5, the role of the DEIS referral staff member changed following the pilot study in order to support the literacy difficulties of some of the parents. In light of this it was decided to use the interview process to clarify interviewees' responses throughout the interview process.

The final construct which can further the trustworthiness of qualitative data is that of confirmability referring to the degree to which the study outcomes can be confirmed by another person or persons. This study addressed this through the use of use of interrater reliability, the process whereby two or more people evaluate the same data using the same rating or coding system (Bailey, 1998) and subsequently review the degree to which their ratings or observations are consistent with each other (Tashakkori & Teddlie 1998). As both raters measure agreement this may then infer reliability (Neuendorf, 2002). When interrater reliability has been used with qualitative studies, it is generally used as a solidification tool as the raters are expected to demonstrate a basic understanding of the topic and are required to delve deeper into the meaning of the data (Marques, 2005). However, Armstrong, Gosling, Weinman and Marteau (1997) suggest that expecting another researcher to produce the same insights from restricted data can be unrealistic and suggests that it is almost impossible to achieve consistency when dealing with qualitative data due to the individual rater's interpretation of the criteria.

Despite these concerns however, Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson and Spiers (2002) argue that with appropriate implementation strategies, interrater reliability can in fact, produce reliability and validity (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2010). In reviewing the research on coder reliability, Neuendorf (2002) notes that reliability coefficients of 0.80 or greater are acceptable, but also states that 0.75 is also acceptable in most situations. In the interest of validity and reliability, 25 per cent of the 23 interview transcripts within the current study were independently verified by a second coder ($n=6$). These included interview transcripts from two young people, two parents and two teachers. The second coder, who was completely independent of the research project, was given the coding framework and the six randomly selected interview transcripts. The second coder was then asked to code the transcripts using the coding framework which included the topic, the theme and an explanation of each theme. When the coding frame was applied to the six individual interview transcripts there was a coding agreement between 92 per cent and 95 per cent. Although the coding agreement is high; this is likely due to the concrete codes that emerged from the thematic analysis which can produce a higher reliability as there is less scope for interpretative work. This was discussed in Chapter 5 as part of the discussion of latent and semantic themes within thematic analysis. This is discussed in more detail in section 7.11 and in Chapter 9.

The next section discusses thematic analysis as the approach chosen for the analysis of the qualitative data.

7.4. Thematic Analyses

There are numerous approaches that can be applied when analysing qualitative data, all of which represent a wide range of theoretical and disciplinary perspectives (Holloway & Todres, 2003). As with all research designs, choosing which approach to use will

depend on the research objectives (Walliman, 2011) and should be driven by both theoretical assumptions and the research questions (Guest & Gregg, 2012). In reviewing suitable qualitative approaches for the current research a number of factors were taken into account. First, there is no one empirically accepted theoretical framework which explains the underlying mechanism of EFPs. Though there are a number of theories that have been put forward to explain how EFPs as a branch of AAI's may be effective, as discussed in Chapter 3, further research in this area will contribute to the gap in the literature. As such, Grounded Theory for example, may not have been a suitable approach as it is designed to construct theories that are grounded in the data themselves (Charmaz, 2006; Faggiolani, 2011). Grounded theory could, however, be an appropriate approach in the future with the advancement of a deeper understanding of EFPs.

Second, and as discussed in Chapter 5, the rationale for using a mixed methods study design was chosen to allow for a more comprehensive approach to both examine the study objectives and outcomes that may be associated with participation in EFPs. It was expected that the qualitative data would help to develop a deeper understanding of the impact of EFP on the young people as measured by the quantitative data. As such, it was necessary to choose an approach which would capture the experiences and opinions of the young people, their parents and teachers and would be thematic by nature. In this regard, consideration was given to using either phenomenological data analysis or thematic analysis.

Both approaches are considered to be quite similar as they each seek to identify the meaning that people give to their experiences, perceptions and feelings (Wertz, 2005). However, whilst both approaches share many similarities, there is perhaps a difference in how thematic analyses procedures guide and help the researcher to identify

patterned meaning across the data set (Braun & Clark, 2006; Smith, Flowers & Larkin, 2009). Accordingly, participants' responses which are analysed by thematic analyses may contribute more to developing a deeper understanding of EFPs as they seek to identify patterns. This was an important consideration in the current study.

Thematic Analysis is described as an inductive approach designed to identify themes or patterns across the data set and may be particularly useful in capturing the complexities of meaning within a textual data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006) and has become one of the most commonly used approaches in analysing qualitative data. This study used the form of thematic analysis described by Braun and Clarke (2006) involving six main stages as shown in Table 61 below.

The *first* stage of the Thematic Analysis, as set out in Stage 1 of Table 40 below was becoming familiar with the transcripts by reading and re-reading them. This stage represents Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie's (2003) first of the seven stages of conceptualisation of mixed methods analysis.

Table 40. Stages of Thematic Analysis

Phase	Description of the process
1. Familiarising oneself with the data:	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.
2. Generating initial codes:	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code.
3. Searching for themes:	Collating codes into potential individual and global themes, data relevant to each potential theme.
4. Reviewing themes:	Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic 'map' of the analysis.
5. Defining and naming themes:	On-going analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells; generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
6. Producing the report:	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

Source: Braun & Clarke, 2006 Using Thematic Analysis in Psychology

Stage 1 of Thematic Analysis began with a review of the participants transcripts. As outlined at the start of the present chapter, the interview topics for the young people, their parents and teachers focused on their descriptions, experiences of and recommendations for future EFPs. In particular, the young peoples' interview topics focused on the impact of the EFP on *self-awareness*, *emotional awareness* and *communication*. Interview topics for the parents and teachers explored the impact of the EFP on the young persons' *self-awareness*, *relationships*, *communications* and *behaviour*. The transcripts were analysed to explore any changes that may have occurred in relation to these areas, in keeping with Stage 1 of the Thematic Analysis.

As illustrated in Table 42 above, the *second* stage of the thematic analysis involved reviewing the transcripts in order to identify potential themes both within each participant group and potentially across all data sets. These data were then grouped into different categories which allowed for the development of initial codes. The *third* stage

of Thematic Analysis involves a review of the data in relation to the coded extracts in order to generate a thematic map of analysis. Rechecking the themes for the young people, their parents and teachers took place as a *fourth* stage as set out in Stage 4 in Table 42 above. Braun and Clarke (2006) describe how themes can be identified at a semantic or latent level. Semantic approaches identify themes purely based on the participants statements and do not go beyond what the participant has said. In contrast, a latent approach begins to examine possible underlying ideas and ideologies. As such it informs the semantic content of the data. Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest that using a latent approach comes from a constructionist paradigm and can overlap with forms of discourse analysis. The fifth stage involved re-reading the themes in each of the participant groups and across the entire dataset. At this stage, the themes were given names and definitions. The *sixth* stage involved the selection of quotes from the dataset that best illustrated and supported each individual theme in each participant group and then within the global themes. As illustrated in Figure 12 at the start of this section which presented an overview of study objectives and data collection process, the next section outlines the description and experiences of the EFP as described by the young people, their parents and teachers. In addition, the recommendations for future EFPs are also presented.

The next section presents the themes that emerged from the inductive analysis. First, the individual themes that emerged are presented and discussed. These include self-management, perseverance and dealing with frustration. Second, the global themes that emerged across both data sets and identified by the young people, parents and teachers are then discussed. These include changes in the young peoples' self-confidence, communications and feelings of calmness.

7.5. Individual Themes and Global Themes

This section describes the thematic analyses of the interviews with the young people, their parents and teachers. As such it represents the main area of interest in the current study as it explores the impact of the EFP on the young peoples' self-awareness, emotional awareness, relationships, behaviour and communications. These domains have been linked to social and emotional well-being and were discussed in Chapter 2. Following this, the section reports on each of the individual themes using text segments from the interview transcripts which are used to illustrate and support the themes. The second part of this section starts with a discussion on how the global themes were derived. This is followed by a presentation of the global themes that predominate the data set. Text segments from the interview transcripts are also used to illustrate and support the global themes. The selection of quotes for both the individual and the global themes was informed by how they represent the emerging themes. Quotes that match with the emerging theme and quotes that reflect the theme are used.

As outlined earlier in this chapter, thematic analysis is a method that is used to identify, analyse and report themes within data, involving the identification of patterns and relationships between the themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In line with the first stage of thematic analysis, the data from the interviews with the young people, their parents and teachers were transcribed which, in the current study, was done by the research assistant. Following this, the researcher of the current study read, reviewed and re-read all transcripts in order to become familiar with the data, consistent with Stage 1 of Thematic Analysis. As part of this stage, initial ideas from the transcripts were noted and recorded. The transcripts were re-read a number of times allowing for the emergence of codes. The data that were relevant to the code were then collated. Once the codes had been identified, the next stage involved collating codes into potential individual themes

together with supporting data for each theme, in keeping with Stage 3 of Thematic Analysis. The themes were then reviewed and transcripts re-read. At this stage some codes were grouped under different themes. Where there was uncertainty relating to which codes could be best described by the different themes, the transcripts were re-read until a satisfactory set of themes could be finalised (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Following this, the complete data set were reviewed in order to confirm the patterns as set out in Stage 4 in Table 61. Once all data had been reviewed and examined, with all data represented firstly by codes and then themes, a coding frame was developed. Individual themes that were identified by the young people, the parents and teachers were then classified as global themes in keeping with Stage 5 of Thematic Analysis. A sample coding frame is included in APPENDIX E.

Figure 13 below presents both the individual themes and the global themes identified by the young people, their parents and their teachers and represents Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie's (2003) second of the seven stages of conceptualisation of mixed methods analysis. As Figure 13 below illustrates, the two individual themes for the young people included self-management and dealing with perseverance and frustration. The individual themes that emerged from the teachers' thematic analysis referred to self-management. In total, eight young people, six parents and nine teachers were interviewed. The two individual themes of self-management and perseverance and dealing with frustration will first be discussed. Following this, the *global themes* of self-confidence, communication skills and calmness are discussed.

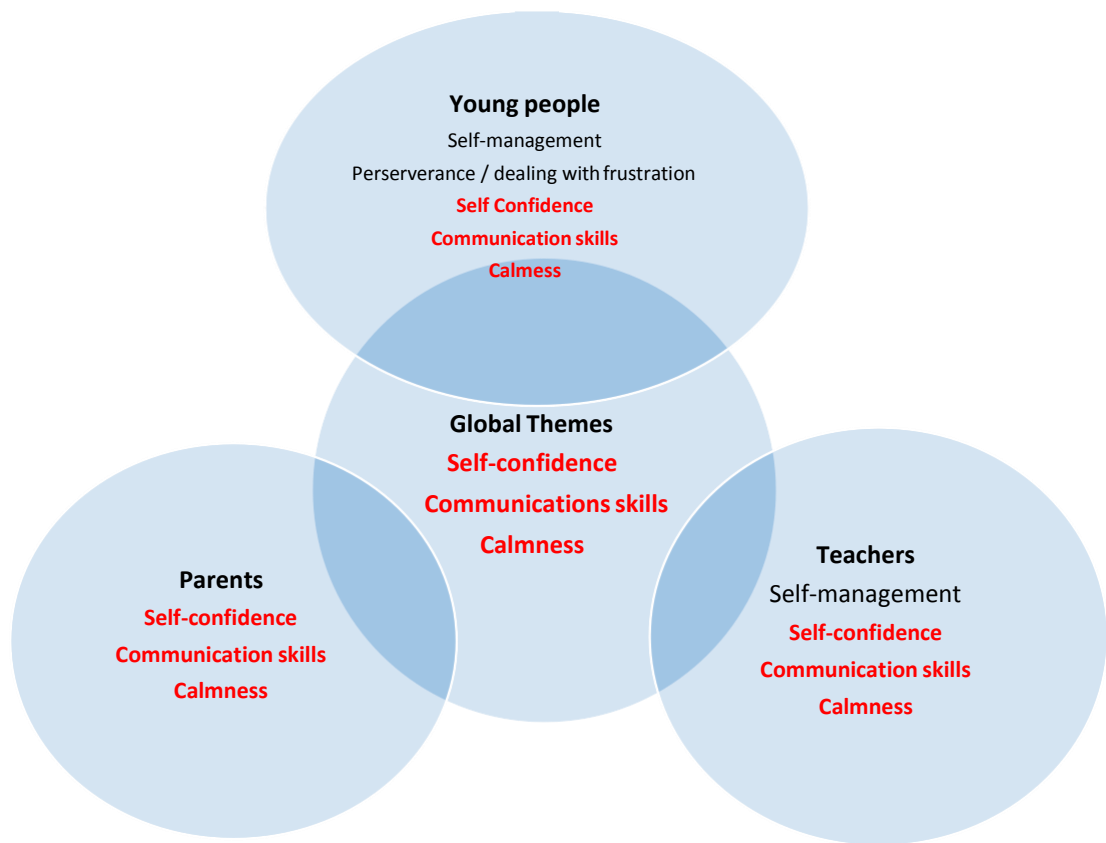


Figure 13. Themes and Global Themes

7.6. Themes Pertaining to the Impact of the EFP

7.6.1 Self-management

Three teachers observed how the young people had to change their behaviour in order to influence the behaviour of the equine:

“There was always a good conversation about the different personalities that the horses had and how different they were and from week to week what equine they had and how it reacted and what they had to change about themselves, what <name> had to change to get a different response” (YP No. 5 and 6).

One young person further commented on the emotional empathy that is required when asking an equine to do something. In so doing, he suggests that it is important to employ

a different approach and still persevere in the activity, thereby integrating the perseverance theme:

“Sometimes they (the horses) have bad moods like us, so it’s hard....sometimes they wake up in bad moods, you just need to understand and relate, as in I haven’t had a good mood, they won’t like it either...so just try and compensate and if the equine was not doing what I wanted ...try a different approach and tough it out for a while longer“(YP No. 37)

The effect that the young person can have on the equines was noticed by one young person who noted: *“normally, when we were tired, eh like, like the horses won’t move, they just practically fall asleep where they’re standing”* (YP No. 6)

Trying different approaches in order to influence the outcome of the activity was something that the young people talked about having to deal with each week. It is unclear from the data if the young person empathised with the equines as part of adjusting their own behaviour or if they adjusted their behaviour in order to work successfully through the activity. One young person commented:

“they (horses) react to everything you do and your body language”

“cos like you couldn’t just say like walk and then they’d walk like you had to get your energy level up and then he’d walk with you, he or she would walk with you“(YP No. 37)

Five of the young people described how they had dealt with emotions such as fear, nervousness and shyness when first introduced to the equines. The young people also described how they felt about their initial experiences of being with equines which moved

freely around the arena space, and how their feelings about being around horses changed overtime:

“Before I came here I loved horses, but like I was a bit nervous around them as well, and whatchamacallit, I used to, like, on the first day we came here and we were watching the horses going around together, galloping and stuff and we were allowed to go in with them and I was a bit nervous to go in with them, so I went as far as with (EFP staff member) and from then on, like, I’ve not been afraid of them and feel much better around them and all” (YP No. 5)

Another young person also described how he felt when he initially started to participate in the EFP and how he wanted to keep a physical barrier between him and the equines. He also commented on how despite this apprehension, he nonetheless wanted to see what they were doing, suggesting a slight conflict between his anxiety of the equines and his eagerness to be closer to them:

“at the start, I was a little shy, with the horses.....as if, they’re really big of course...I just, overtime, I feel comfortable around them now” “The first week I was afraid to go near the horses. I was asking can I stand outside the barrier. They’re very large things when you’re that close to them. But I was, most weeks, I was eager to see what we were doing” (YP No 37)

The young people were able to describe their initial feelings of being nervous and shy when first introduced to the equines in an arena space. They also reported on recalling how they sought to deal with these emotions by either staying beside the EFP staff member or remaining inside the barrier area. These changes overtime suggest that the young person had the ability to recognise these emotions and as they became more comfortable with the equines, the feeling of fear was replaced with feelings of comfort

and confidence.

7.6.2 Perseverance and Dealing with Frustration

Six of the young people described how they responded to varying levels of frustration whilst engaged in a range of different activities. One young person referred to the difficulties encountered when trying to ask an equine to do something: “When the equine would not do what I wanted I’d just get really frustrated and then I’d just keep on trying the rounds and eventually it worked” (YP No. 6).

Another young person described how he needed to try different approaches as part of working through an exercise with one equine: “Most of the time, it was to try a different approach or tough it out for a little longer and if that was still not working try a different approach” (YP No. 37). This was also commented on by another young person: “Well, sometimes, I felt, it felt impossible, like, to do a task and all. But like, we, I always managed to do it all” (YP No. 6)

In the above mentioned examples, the young people, similar to describing their initial feelings of fear and nervousness in the previous theme of self-regulation, were able to recall their feelings of frustrations and perseverance. They also identified the need to remain calm as part of this process. The young people reported how they persevered amidst feelings of ‘frustration’, trying different approaches in order to achieve the expected outcome of the activity.

7.6.3 Interim Summary and Conclusion

So far, the themes from the young people and teachers interviews have been reviewed, highlighting a number of themes which were evident across the three groups to varying

degrees. These included self-management, perseverance and dealing with frustration. The young people commented on how they had been able to regulate their fears and anxieties of being around equines and how, over time, had been able to feel more comfortable and confident in the presence of and interaction with equines. Some of the teachers then highlighted how they had seen the EFP impact on some of the young people including areas of emotional and behavioural self-regulation. Two of the young people also commented on their empathic listening to the equines throughout the EFP sessions.

The themes from the first part of the thematic analysis have been presented. The next section will present the three global themes. These refer to improvements in the areas of self-confidence, communications and experiencing a sense of calmness which were commented on by the young people, parents and teachers.

7.7. Global Themes: Self-confidence, Communication Skills and Calmness

The global themes in the current study were identified by reviewing the themes from the young people, their parents and teachers. Though the previously discussed themes varied across the three participant groups, the themes of self-confidence, communication skills and experiencing a sense of calmness were evident in all three groups and were extracted from and supported by the data. The next section will now discuss each of these themes.

7.7.1 Global Theme No. 1 - Self-Confidence

The first of the three global themes was a change in the young persons' level of self-confidence. The self-reports' of the young people suggest that not only did their self-confidence improve whilst working with the equines but that this change had also helped

them to become more confident with people. Changes in self-confidence was reported by six of the eight young people that were interviewed and by five of the six of the parents and 6 of nine teachers.

One young person described how the experience of being around horses involved in the EFP sessions resulted in him feeling more confident: *“I felt nervous when I heard of it but then when I was doing it I felt real confident”* (YP No. 68)

The ability to translate the changes in self-confidence to being able to relate more confidently with people was also reported by one young person: *“I’m more confident around horses and creatures and even humans now. I feel more confident in school and around people”* (YP No. 37)

Teachers also observed changes in the young persons’ confidence levels following participation in the EFP:

“I know for a fact that <name> is a different child now, than when she came in in September. She’s one of those one we’re preparing for confirmation.....said to me Miss, can I do a solo for that part. If somebody said to me last September, see that little one there, she’ll be volunteering a solo, I would have said you’re joking.....so that didn’t come out of nowhere.....she has definitely come on in confidence...there is no doubt about that” (T No. 37)

The teacher also reported how he believed one of the young peoples’ confidence levels had changed specifically because he had participated in the trust ride at the end of the programme:

“...but when <name> was there , he was sitting and when we were waiting he

talked a lot about the fact that his confidence had improved, like it reinforces with <name> how far his confidence has come because he actually got on a horse and like that can in itself be quite scary for people” (T No. 37)

The teachers made a number of observations about the ways in which they saw positive changes in their pupils’ confidence levels:

“He did say that he was more confident when he finished and I even noticed as I was, as we’re going through the weeks when I’d meet him on the corridor like he would walk a little bit taller, he’d make eye contact with you better and even if you were to take him out of the class now to talk to him, he’d certainly, that would be different about him where I remember talking to him, before we went down and he was giggling and laughing and not too sure...” (T No. 68)

One teacher commented on changes in the young person’s self-confidence in making particular comments as part of the qualitative data collection interview process: “absolutely, he’s far more confident than when he left even the fact that he walked in here and was willing to ...even his remark” (T No. 31). A further teacher referred to discussions he had with a young person and a parent and stated: “I think from talking to her mam and her just after they’d finished, then again her confidence was a big thing” (T 5 and 6). Changes in this young persons’ confidence was also observed by the young person’s parent who reported: “Biggest change is the confidence and willingness to talk” (P No. 37)

One teacher measured positive changes in the young person’s confidence by being the first person to put her hand up (in class): “she was the first person to put her hand up and that was a big change. She probably learned to be a little more herself.....her

character came alive and you'd hear her a little more". (T No. 6). Volunteering to talk about another young person's experience was further reported by another teacher : *"he said he would like to volunteer to talk to staff about his experience...he said that was a real sign of what he had learnt as he would never have done that sort of thing"* (T. No. 37).

7.7.2 Global Theme No. 2 - Communication

The second of the two global themes was that of change in the young persons' communication skills and how in particular, the young people began to listen more to others. Eight young people, six parents and five teachers reported improved communication skills. The improvement in the young persons' ability to listen in such a way as to understand the point of view of another person was illustrated by one young person who observed:

"It makes me listen a lot more to what people say. Before I'd listen, hear it, but wouldn't really listen to it, like take consideration ...I'd listen, I'd hear people, but I wouldn't listen...but now I'm a listener, I'd sit down and listen to someone talk for hours and I'd understand and say how I feel" (YP No. 37)

One parent also commented:

"He mightn't have shrugged as much now. When he got told off last week for being grounded, now usually he just would have a tantrum and go hit something in his room if he got grounded. He did that this time, but then he did open up and speak a little bit more, not a lot, but did open up a little bit....he's accepted he's grounded this time if you get me, that would be the difference, he's accepted and seems to understand the reasons why he's grounded....more understanding of it.....I would say maybe he is open a little bit more to communication, not a lot,

a little bit more and a little bit maybe of understanding of why things are the way they are...but would not be very communicative with you, but a little bit more open, a little foot in the door...”(P No. 68)

One of the teachers further reported: *“I think it’s the start of her maybe, you know, being better about communicating and talking about what’s happening for her”* (T No. 5 & 6).

Improvements in engaging was further noted by another teacher: *“he’s certainly a lot easier to engage with than was he was (before)”* (T No. 68)

So whilst the changes may not be as compelling as reported by the young person, there is nonetheless a sense of a shift in the young persons’ ability to listen. Engaging with others was also seen as an improvement by teachers and parents with one parent commenting:

“He just seemed to be, he’d be more open about talking about stuff. He’d come home sit there and you’d ask him how he got on whereas before you kind of had to drag it out of him, where he was more enthusiastic telling you what he’d actually done, if you know what I mean” (P No. 37)

Changes in the young persons’ communication skills appear to be associated with being able to contribute to conversations and discussions when they returned home after the EFP sessions. The young person appeared to be keen to share their experiences of EFP with others with one parent commenting: *“He would be able to relay what he had done by telling his older sister and brother, he was quite excited about it, you know”* (P No. 69)

One teacher observed the difference in a young person's communication style:

"They'd always say talk about what they did and you know (name) like, she's kinda bubbly, but you could nearly see after the session that something hit home with her and she'd tend to be little bit more composed after a sessions and when she'd be kind of talking about it"(T No. 5 and 6)

7.7.3 Global Theme No. 3 - Experiencing a Sense of Calmness

Five parents and six teachers described the young people being calmer after the EFP sessions and programme. This observed sense of calmness was noted as being present both immediately after the sessions and then also over time. One young person observed how the EFP sessions helped them to be calmer: *"....it makes you calmer and everything... well, it makes me calmer"* (YP No. 6). Commenting on the immediate impact of the EFP on her daughter a parent reported how she believed the equine had affected her: *"But I think when she comes out of there she's more relaxed....you see I think when she is around the horses, the horses have a calming effect"* (P No. 5)

One teacher commented on how two of his pupils had improved during class time: *"that <name> is much better, much calmer in class as are, not all of the boys, but two in particular...<name> and one of the other lads have improved enormously"* (T No. 31).

Another teacher reported their observations of the young person enjoying the quietness, stillness and relaxed experiences of the EFP sessions:

"He'd definitely say quietness and stillness and being relaxed as things he enjoyed most. I don't know if he ever got to the stage of being able to link those things, to himself and quite often like, he was in a lads group, where they were kind of high energy here in school and I found with them that going and coming back, he was

certainly in that kind of high energy kind of one of the lads, but when he was talking about initially what he had done, he was a very very different child, but then he'd revert into being one of the lads again. I thought that was quite interesting" (T No. 68)

The calmness observed in the young person immediately after the EFP session was also reported by a parent who commented:

"Well, he seemed a lot calmer while he was doing it and he was getting on pretty ok in school at the time as well. Actually the week after he was finished he hadn't had a note (from school).... that he hadn't had in a long time in school, so in that sense he seemed a lot better" (P No. 68)

A further perspective on calmness was the need for the young people to remain calm within themselves in order to deal with a difficult or frustrating task during an EFP session. When asked about communicating with the horse, one young person replied: *"We would have to get our energies up.....but you would not be frustrated or anything....so you had to keep calm": "well, it's made me calmer...you connect with the horses....if they're calm you're calm"* (YP No. 5).

The above quote highlights the frustration of particular activities and how the young person was required to maintain a particular level of energy but also to maintain calmness. The young person appeared to have some insight into how their expressed levels of frustration would be unhelpful in managing the EFP activity. The young person also recognised the value and importance of remaining calm. The reasons as to why the parents and teachers reported the young person being calmer after the EFP sessions is unclear, particularly as only one young person commented on the calmness

experienced by connecting with the equines. However, the young person who did report on this theme described how he had had to manage a balance between the need to produce higher energy levels and at the same time to maintain certain calmness. He also described (how in return) connecting with the equines who are calm made him feel calm also.

7.7.4 Global Themes: Summary

Three global themes emerged from the qualitative data analysis including improvement in the young peoples' self-confidence, communication skills and an increased sense of calmness. Six parents and five teachers believed that the young peoples' ability to communicate had improved with eight of the young people also believing this to be the case. The parents and teachers reported how the young persons' interactions with their peers, family members and teachers had improved. However, the young people reported how their communication skills had improved whilst working with the equines as part of the EFP sessions only.

The second global theme reported was the improvement in the young persons' self-confidence. The young people were also able to illustrate how they felt their self-confidence had improved not only in working with the equines, but also within their school and/or home life. The reason why the young people could not identify the improvements in their communications outside of the EFP sessions is not clear from the transcripts but will be discussed further in Chapter 10.

The third global theme reported was how the young people were reported to have developed a strong sense of calm following the sessions with one young person also reporting on the need for calmness during the EFP session. The value of EFPs in

promoting self-management in order to influence the behaviour of the equine was discussed in Chapter 3 and draws on Social Cognitive Theory as one theory to explain how EFPs may be effective for young people with social and emotional difficulties.

Attention is now turned to the final part of this sub-section and explores the descriptions and experiences of the EFP by the young people, their parents and teachers together with their recommendations for future EFPs.

7.8. Themes Pertaining to the Description, Experiences and Possible Mediating Features of the EFP

As detailed at the start of the current chapter, all participants were asked to describe their experiences and descriptions of the EFP. Whilst the opinions of the young people represented the more significant area of interest as they had participated in and experienced the EFP, it was also important to explore the parents' and teachers' views as these would have been informed by the young peoples' explanations and descriptions of the EFP. By asking the parents and teachers these questions it was expected that their descriptions might reflect in some ways those of the young people. It was also expected that the young peoples', parents' and teachers' descriptions and experiences of the EFP might provide some understanding about the EFP mediating features.

The final question asked related to identifying the young peoples' experiences of the EFP with the young people, their parents and teachers asked to suggest ways that they believed the EFP could be improved. This was another important feature of the interview process given the need to include the views of the young people and their parents and teachers of a programme which is designed and delivered with the ultimate aim of enhancing the

social and emotional well-being of young people at risk of educational inequality. Parents and Teachers reference to not observing any changes in the young persons' behaviour is also included in this section.

7.8.1 No Changes in Behaviour: Parents

Four of the parents reported that they had not seen any changes in the behaviour of the young person. When asked if a parent had seen any changes in the behaviour of their son, the parent reported *"I wish I could say, but he's still very hyper and that, but I'm realising now he has more issues.... It's much the same"* (P No 69).

In addition, one of the teachers also reported no observed change in behaviour *"I would love to say there was – I can't say thatI can't"* (T. 52)

7.8.2 Learning about Equines

The young people, their parents and teachers were asked to describe the EFP. The majority of respondents described it as a programme where people learnt about equine behaviour and how equines communicate with each other. All the young people described how they learnt about and looked after the horses: *"we looked after the animals.....we take care of them and we groom them* (YP No. 53 & 54); *"it's just all about fun and learning how horses are creatures.....like I thought it was just like a dog ...but it's a lot different* (YP No. 37).

7.8.3 Grooming

In describing the EFP, all three participant groups further commented on the enjoyment factor of grooming, an activity which is mostly done on a one to one basis involving one young person and one equine. The process of grooming was something that the young people appeared to enjoy, a view confirmed by their parents and teachers. One of the

teachers observed the quiet time that the pupil experienced during grooming: *“talked a lot about grooming and for (name) he loved the kind of quiet time with individual horses rather than group work”* (T No. 68) *“Like they would have described the grooming. There was always a good conversation afterwards about the different personalities that the horses had”* (T No. 37).

In describing the EFP, the young people also commented on the positives of how equines ‘reflect’ their attitudes and how they react to the young person’s actions and body language. Throughout the EFP sessions, the young people reported on how they began to realise that the equines react and respond to energy levels and body language and in order to elicit a particular response from an equine, the young person has to make certain personal and behavioural adjustments. This is seen as both positive and educational by the young people: *“It’s a course where you get to connect with horses and they reflect with what you give them; they reflect your attitude and it’s a very good thing to do”* (YP No. 68).

One parent also noted her child’s highlighting of the grooming as part of EAL: *“I’d just say how your day out – great Ma was, we were just grooming the horses”* (P No. 31).

7.8.4 Trust and the Trust Ride

Two young people and two teachers highlighted the trust ride as representing a very positive element of the EFP:

“One thing that really struck me about the group was the trust ride on the very last day. <name> in particular had a very moving experience that day on the horse, and again, obviously his first time on the horse, but it was very, very quiet and very calming, it really kind of brought home to him, I think, what he had

learned. I do think the trust ride for him, gave him something special.....maybe it reinforced to him the relationship they had built up with the horses” (T No 37)

The trust ride as described in Chapter 4, is designed to develop the young persons’ awareness of self, of others and of the environment. As one young person described this: *“cos I had to trust my leader to bring the equine around by the rope while I sat on his back, listening to the music to calm us down, you could feel the equine moving”* (YP No. 37).

A further variation of the concept of trust is described by one young person who, as part of the EFP session activity, was required to lead the equine to and from different parts of the arena – without touching it, or attaching a head collar or rope. He described his experience of this by noting: *“because the equine was like doing what I was doing, it wasn’t stopping or anything, it just kept on following me, so that means like always like a good leader or something to it”* (YP No. 68).

An additional dimension of the concept of trust is described by a young person who had asked an equine to walk with them: *“well, if you walk somewhere and the equine trusts you the equine will probably like walk with you – and if the equine doesn’t trust you, it’ll just stay there....and put its down like – it’ll hide”* (YP No. 68)

One young person also elaborated on how the trust of the equine could foster trust on the part of the young person: *“and that the horses were trustful and I like was trustful then”*

7.8.5 Size of the Group

Five of the young people identified the small group as being a suitable environment for them: *“Because there was a small group I was able to talk more.....yeah, in a big classroom it’s very hard to talk because it’s real noisy, everyone is talking like* (YP No. 69).

7.8.6 General Enjoyment

All interviewees described the EFP in positive terms with one teacher noting: *“Oh yes, they would and they would have loved going, and would have been quite energized by going. They certainly did not find it too much and they would have been sorry that it finished at the end of 8 weeks”* (T No. 52)

The young people also commented positively on the EFP: *“I had an amazing time. It was the best weeks of my life”; “I thought the first couple of weeks dragged by, but then the rest shot by and I was a bit upset after that in the end.....I’d definitely go back and do it again...I thought it did go by pretty quickly in the end”* (YP No. 37)

7.8.7 Interest in the Equines

Furthermore, the teachers commented on how interested the young people were in discussing the different personalities of the horses: *“it was the horses they were most interested in rather than what they were doing. But I think probably they got an awful lot out of it...but it was always the horses...the names of the horses....they seemed to identify with the horses”* (T No. 31).

Another teacher described the young peoples’ reaction to the EFP session on returning to school: *“they’d both come up and explain to me or describe any activity that they*

had been doing during the day, just really excited about it”(T No. 53 and 54).

7.9. Recommendations for Future EFPs

7.9.1 Number and Duration of EFP and Sessions

In concluding the interviews with the young people, their parents and teachers, participants were invited to put forward any suggestions that they believed might improve the EFP. Two young people and one teacher reported that they felt the programme could have been longer than eight weeks and a longer session timeframe. However, the young people did not elaborate on their reasons for expressing an interest in having an extension to the EFP. *“I wanted it to go on for longer.....it was really good”* (YP No. 6). One teacher observed that for one particular group another 6 – 8 weeks would be necessary: *“...I think for some groups they could probably do a lot in in a small space and maybe finish work with them, but I think for lads in particular, I think 6-8 weeks is not enough”* (T No. 68)

By contrast to the young person who identified more sessions as a recommendation, one young person expressed a wish for the sessions themselves to be longer: *“I’d like them to (sessions) to be longer because they were so much fun. I thought the sessions were too short.....like maybe one hour and forty minutes...two hours”* (YP No 5).

7.9.2 Transfer of Learning from the EFP

The main theme emerging from the recommendations from two of the teachers was the need for the young person to be able to process the experiences of the EFP sessions. This was identified as one way to help the young person transfer their learning from the EFP session into their school life: *“To process the process a little bit for the young person and help with the transfer of any learning from EFP session to their school*

experiences.....more discussion at the end of the programme to concretely discuss the journey with more reflections” (T 31).

Formalising the sessions was also identified as something that would help the integration of the EFP sessions into the young peoples’ school life:

“I think possibly to kind of formalise the feedback sections. ...so maybe it could be just built into sessions, that feedback would happen 10 minutes in the office...we kind of miss something on helping them to process the experience....to make what happens here more part of what their experience in school has been because sometimes they can be two separate things and schools mightn’t always embrace what’s happening (T 5 & 6).

I’ve often thought too, I’ve often mentioned it to (EAL Facilitators name),I think the schools, when we bring people here in other groups, that we kind of miss something on helping them process the experience and I think maybe if there was some kind of, for all groups that come here, if there was one set time in the week after they come here, whatever their certain needs were at school or project or whatever else, that maybe sit down and there’s some questions or something to ask them. So if there was something, a standardised sheet of questions that someone could take back....sit down and talk about it and you know, get them to process but also make what happens here more part of what their experience in school has been, because sometimes they can be, it can be two separate things and schools might not always embrace what is happening here because they might not know about it...

7.9.3 Summary

Most of the interviewees described the EFP as a learning programme centred on equine behaviour, welfare and management. Whilst some of the young people may find it difficult to describe an EFP as an intervention aimed at promoting well-being, it seems contradictory that the parents and in particular the teachers identified the improvements in a variety of personal development areas but yet described the EFP as a learning programme centred on equine behaviour, welfare and management.

Grooming was reported as being an especially enjoyable aspect of the EFP and parents and teachers also reported this, making reference to how it allowed the young person to experience 'quiet time'. Variations of the concept of trust were reported by the young people who interpreted different equine behaviours as signifying being trusted, with one teacher suggesting that it had helped to consolidate the relationship that had developed between the young person and the equine. The final theme to emerge related to how the EFP allowed the young person to talk as compared to the class where everybody is talking. Although there were recommendations in relation to extending the EFP in addition to extended EFP sessions time, the main recommendation referred to the need to develop a way to maximize the possibility of a transfer of learning from the EFP to the young persons' school and home environment.

7.10. Summary and Conclusion

This chapter reviewed the findings of the qualitative data in relation to the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. A thematic analysis approach was selected to analyse the qualitative data. In doing so, the chapter addressed two main areas. First, to review the impact of the EFP on the young peoples' self-awareness, emotional awareness and

communications as reported by the young people and the impact of the EFP on the young peoples' self-awareness, relationships, behaviour and communications, as reported by the parents and teachers. Second, the themes pertaining to the description and experiences of the EFP together with recommendations for future EFPs from the young people, parents and teachers were discussed.

The chapter reviewed the qualitative findings and found that the participants reported positive changes in the areas of self-management, perseverance and dealing with frustration, self-confidence, communication skills and developing a sense of calmness, the latter three representing the three global themes as highlighted by the young people, their parents and teachers. Whilst positive changes in the young peoples' communication skills was one of the interview topics, the global themes of self-confidence and calmness were not. The study objectives were designed based on the reading of the literature and the nature of the programme. The interviews and the measures were chosen and designed to cover these. The thematic analysis was based on the topics explored but it also looked for other issues and calmness was an issue that emerged. This finding, as with previously discussed themes, highlights the value of thematic analysis for a study for which there is as yet, no solid theoretical framework.

However, the young peoples' interviews, as well as the parents and teachers interviews, did not contain a lot of depth, with responses to the interview questions being very concrete and not very reflective. Furthermore, the themes were not very intricate. Braun and Clarke (2006) refer to both latent and semantic themes, as discussed in Chapter 5 and in this regard, a semantic approach applied to the thematic analysis as the responses were at a very explicit and concrete level.

The young people, parents and teachers all described the EFP as a programme which addressed equine communication, behaviour, welfare and management. The young people may not have had the necessary language to describe the EFP as an intervention designed to enhance their social and emotional well-being. It is possible that the young peoples' parents' and teachers' may also have had difficulty in describing the EFP as they were not directly involved in the programme and relied on the feedback from the young person. This could suggest that there may be a need to provide a clearer description of the EFP to both parents and teachers.

Second, it raises the question of whether the EFP should include an educational component in addition to the experiential aspect of an EFP which was the case in some EFPs discussed in Chapter 3. Both parents and teachers described the enthusiasm expressed by the young people in their interactions with the equines suggesting that it was a feature of the EFP that they valued. This will be discussed further in Chapter 9.

Recommendations for future EFPs suggest that there may be scope for a more in depth de-briefing with the young people, with particular reference to discussing how to bring new learning experiences into home and school contexts. The importance of this was discussed in Chapter 2. A further recommendation related to how teachers could become more involved in discussions with the EFP facilitator and how this might play a stronger supportive role to the young person. Whilst there may be advantages to this in some instances, the involvement of teachers may deter the young people from fully engaging with the EFP process if they felt that they were going to be discussed after each session.

The next chapter will present the findings of the integration of the quantitative and qualitative data.

Chapter 8. Integration of the Quantitative and Qualitative Data

8.1. Introduction

This section presents the integration of the quantitative and qualitative data which were collected as part of this study aimed at measuring the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. Specifically, the study objectives set out to examine changes in the young peoples' self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, responsible decision making and their ability to form positive relationships with others. As such, it reflects the seventh stage of a mixed method approach (Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003). A key stage of mixed methods is the search for convergence, divergence and discrepancy between the quantitative and qualitative data (O'Cathain et al., 2007).

Figure 14 below illustrates the time points for data collection of the quantitative and qualitative data used for the current study, which was followed by the data integration stage.

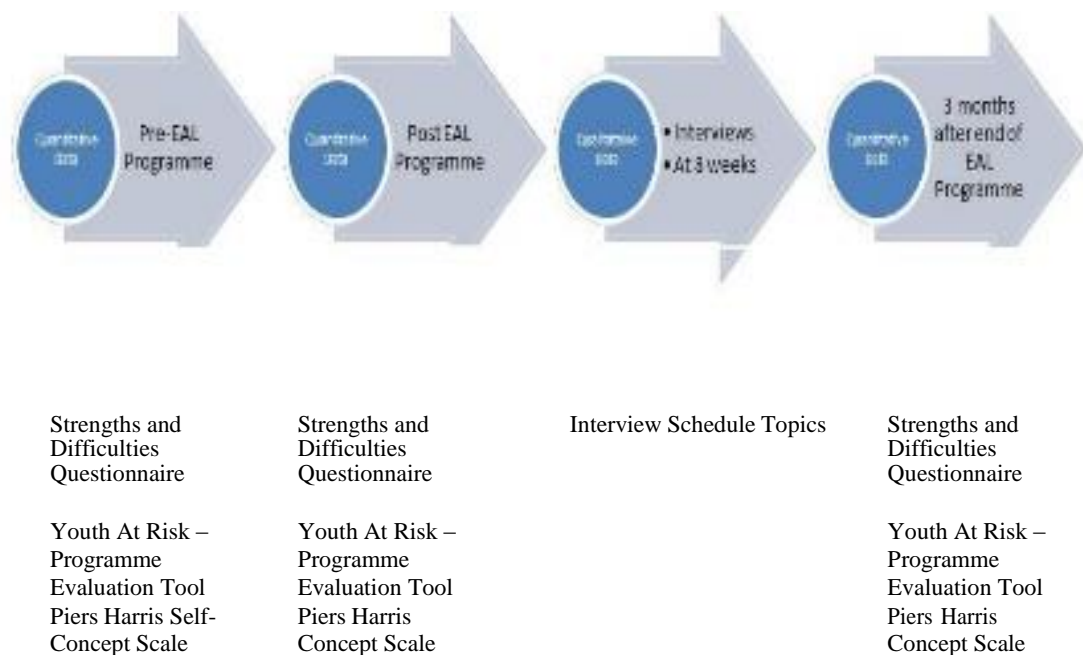


Figure 14. Quantitative and Qualitative Data Collection Process

As outlined in Chapter 5, the integration of quantitative and qualitative data is the core process of mixed methods, representing an intentional process where both data sets are brought together in the one study and “*producing a whole through integration that is greater than the sum of the individual qualitative and quantitative parts*” (Fetters, 2015). The aim of integrating the quantitative and qualitative data were to examine the present study research questions relating to the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality and reflects the seventh stage of the mixed methods data analysis process (Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie 2003) discussed in Chapter 5. Specifically, the study explored the impact of EFP on the five key areas associated with social and emotional well-being. The *first* area relates to the young persons’ *self-awareness* and the young peoples’ ability to recognise their own emotions and values as well as being able to recognise their own strengths and limitations and being able to maintain a sense of self-confidence. The *second* area is that of *self-management* and how a young person can learn to manage their emotions and behaviours in order to achieve a desired goal. The *third* theme is that of *social awareness* and the young persons’ ability to demonstrate an understanding and empathy for others. The *fourth* area describes the young persons’ ability to *make responsible decisions* and positive choices about their personal and social behaviour. The *fifth* and final area centres on the skill set required for the development of *positive relationships* and helping young people work in teams and to deal effectively with conflict.

This chapter addresses four areas. *First*, the main quantitative and qualitative findings are presented. These were discussed in Chapters 6 and 7 respectively. *Second*, the integration of patterns from the quantitative and qualitative data will be discussed. The *third* section addresses the sub-group patterns relating to differences between males and females and young people in the clinical range and those in the normal to borderline

range. Also included is how the young peoples' narratives provided evidence of aspects of the EFP which may have contributed to any changes identified. The *fourth section* presents the young peoples', their parents' and teachers' descriptions and experiences of and recommendations for future EFPs are considered in Chapter 9.

8.2. Integration of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings

This section gives an overview of the process of the integration of the quantitative and qualitative findings relating to the five social and emotional competencies at the centre of this study using the CASEL model of social and emotional learning. Figure 15 below illustrates the main quantitative and qualitative findings across informants groups and represents stage four of Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie's (2003) seven stages of conceptualisation of mixed methods analysis.

The integration of the quantitative and qualitative data followed Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie's (2003) seven stage conceptualisation of mixed methods data analyses. First, thematic analysis was used for *data reduction*. Second, Venn diagrams were used to display the data (Section 7.5 page 219). Third, *data transformation* where quantitative data are converted into narrative data was addressed in Chapter 6. The fourth stage of data correlation illustrated in Figure 15 which also compares the quantitative and qualitative data sources as stage 6. Stage seven is the integration of both the quantitative and qualitative findings into one coherent whole and is discussed in Section 8.2.1

Key Quantitative Findings One –Way & Two-Way ANOVA	Key Qualitative Findings Thematic Analyses
<p><u>One-Way ANOVAs</u></p> <p>Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire</p> <p>Evidence of Significant decrease in:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • TD Score P's & T's • Peer problems P's & T's • Prosocial P's • Strengths and Difficulties Impact T's <p>Yar-Pet : Evidence of Significant increases in</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Total effectiveness YP & T's • Social effectiveness YP & T's • Personal effectiveness T's <p>Piers Harris: Evidence of Significant increase in</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-concept • Physical appearance • Freedom from anxiety • Social functioning <p><u>Two-Way ANOVAs</u></p> <p>Evidence of Significant interactions associated with caseness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengths and Difficulties YP atypical <p>Main effect time (gender)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yar-pet S.O YP <p>Main effect time (caseness)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengths and Difficulties total YP, P's & T's • Strengths and Difficulties PP P's <p>Main effect caseness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengths and Difficulties total YP, P's & T's (clinical) • Peer Problems P's (clinical) • HYP P's (clinical) • EMOT P's (clinical) • PRO P's (normal/borderline) 	<p>Global themes (YP, T's & P's)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-confidence • Communication • Sense of Calmness <p>Themes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-management/self-regulation (YP & T's) • Perseverance/dealing with frustration (YP)

Figure 15. Quantitative and Qualitative Data Collection Process

In approaching the data integration, particular attention was paid to identifying the quantitative and qualitative findings that were explicitly related to each other in such a way that they were mutually illuminating, reflecting a key and critical part of a mixed methods study. The data integration process presents the main findings and then examined where findings converged, diverged or where discrepancies were identified. As such, significant findings and global themes represented areas of convergence and were considered to be more likely associated with participation on the EFP. Divergent results are considered in the context of the degree to which the young peoples', parent' and teachers' reports diverged. Discrepancies are also discussed within the data

integration and serve to suggest that where this was reported that there are few or no changes in a young person's social and emotional well-being. Where a global theme emerged but was not reported quantitatively as significant, this finding was excluded from the data integration process. For example, whilst experiencing a sense of calmness emerged as a global theme, identified by the young people and their parents and teachers, there was no quantitative reporting of this theme through the Strengths and Difficulties Hyperactivity subscale.

The five social and emotional well-being areas as contained within and defined by CASELs model will now be discussed.

8.2.1 Self-awareness: Ability to Recognise Emotions and Values, to Recognise Strengths and Limitations and Being Able to Maintain a Sense of Self-Confidence

Changes in the young persons' ability to recognise self-awareness of their emotional well-being was one of the five areas at the centre of this study and represents the first of the five CASEL social and emotional learning competencies. The young people discussed their feelings of anxiety and nervousness at the start of the EFP and how over time, they felt less anxious and more self-confident. This finding was supplemented by the young persons' scores on the **Piers Harris Self-Concept Scale Physical Appearance and Attributes and Freedom from Anxiety** subscale analyses which highlighted a decrease in the young persons' anxiety levels between T1 and T2, but not at T3, suggesting that the young peoples' ability to recognise their emotions may have been in relation to their participation in the EFP and not generalised into other areas of their life such as school or family life. There was however a discrepancy noted as neither the young peoples', parents' or teachers' scores reported a significant decrease in the

young peoples' emotional difficulties as measured by the **Strengths and Difficulties Emotional subscale**. The parents and teachers qualitative reporting of positive changes in the young peoples' ability to recognise and manage their emotions was mentioned with less frequency.

A further finding which emerged from the present study was the change in the young persons' self-confidence following participation in the EFP, which is also linked to self-awareness using CASELs model of social and emotional learning. Positive changes in the young persons' self-confidence emerged as one of the three global themes in the qualitative data, which was supplemented quantitatively by the **Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale** total score which measures self-concept. Young peoples' reports showed a significant increase in self-concept between T1 and T3, and T2 and T3. Significant increases between T1 and T2 in the and teachers' **Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Personal Objective**, which measures self-esteem, self-confidence, locus of control, goal setting and problem solving, also supplemented this finding.

8.2.2 Forming Positive Relationships: how People Work in Teams and Deal Effectively with Conflict

A second competency outlined in the CASEL model of social and emotional competencies relates to relational management. The quantitative and qualitative findings indicated strong patterns in relation to positive changes in the young peoples' ability to relate more effectively with others. Young peoples' **Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale POP** subscale reported a significant increase in the young peoples' social functioning between T₁ and T₂ and T₁ and T₃. Significant decreases were also reported in the parents' **Strengths and Difficulties Peer Problem** subscale scores

between T_1 and T_2 suggesting that there were positive changes in the young peoples' ability to engage more appropriately with their peers, although these were not maintained beyond the young peoples' participation in the EFP at T_3 .

Significant increases between T_1 and T_2 and T_1 and T_3 in the teachers' **Strengths and Difficulties PRO** subscale also indicates that there were improvements in the young peoples' prosocial skills. Improved communication and team work skills were further reported in the young peoples' and teachers' **Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Social Objective** which measures teamwork and conflict resolution and reported significant increases. Though the teachers reported these increases between T_1 and T_2 , positive changes in the young peoples' teamwork skills were reported at T_3 by the young peoples' **Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Social Objective** subscale scores. Furthermore, the teachers' **Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact Score** suggested that the young peoples' social and emotional difficulties interfered less with peer relationships between T_1 and T_3 indicating the young people were having less peer problems. Qualitative findings illustrated the specific ways in which the young people had made positive changes in how they communicated with others, most notably the young people themselves commented on how they believed their communication skills had improved with other people.

A further qualitative finding which may be relevant to the positive changes in communications was reflected by parents and teachers qualitatively reporting of the young persons' excitement and enthusiasm when they returned home on the day of the EFP. The young people were able to share their new knowledge and experiences of the EFP session activities with other family members.

An additional area related to forming positive relationships is reflected in the changes in the young peoples' behaviour. The teachers **Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Personal Objective** subscale scores further supports this finding reporting a significant increase in the young peoples' self-esteem, self- confidence and effective problem-solving between T₁ and T₂ and T₁ and T₃. These findings suggest that the young people had made certain positive changes in their ability to self-manage and self-regulate. The young peoples' qualitative findings also reported how they recognised the need to emotionally self-regulate when trying to influence the equines' behaviour.

8.2.3 Self-management: Managing Emotions and Behaviours in Order to Achieve a Desired Goal

As outlined in Figure 15, self- management was measured quantitatively using the **Strengths and Difficulties** and **Youth At Risk Programme Evaluation Tool**. As this study was not a triangulation study not all of the social and emotional competencies were measured both quantitatively and qualitatively. Although the quantitative findings reported significance in the teachers and young peoples' **Youth at Risk Programme Evaluation Tool** total score, and the teachers **Youth at Risk Programme Evaluation Tool Personal Objectives**, this did not emerge at the data integration stage.

The young people described how they had to manage both their emotions and behaviour in order to achieve different activities within the EFP sessions, reflecting the third competency in the CASEL model. The young people provided various accounts of the challenges they experienced in order to influence the behaviour of the equine during the sessions. The EFP session activity of grooming also required the young people to regulate both their emotions and behaviour and was described by the young people,

parents and teachers.

A further theme associated with *self-management* was the need for perseverance and dealing with frustration as described by the young people. This related to some of the EFP session activities which the young people found difficult and in which they persevered until they managed to complete the task. The young people referred to their resilience in relation to their management of certain EFP activities which they found to be the most challenging. It is possible that the young persons' self-confidence improved as a result of being able to complete what they considered to be very difficult and challenging tasks and that their perseverance contributed to improved self-confidence also.

8.2.4 Social awareness: Ability to Demonstrate an Understanding and Empathy for Others

The fourth CASEL social and emotional competency is the young persons' ability to demonstrate an understanding and empathy for others. Teachers reported significant positive changes in the young peoples' prosocial skills with **Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Prosocial** subscale scores increasing between T₁ and T₂ and T₁ and T₃. However, these increases were not reported by the young people or parents in any of the total or subscales. The young people referred to how they had to consider the needs of the equines when completing an EFP activity. Although their need to self-regulate in order to achieve the task was reported in the section which discussed 'forming positive relationships', there does nonetheless appear to be some indication that the young person had some insight into the need to empathise with the equine in order to manage the EFP task. Furthermore, the young person spoke empathically about the need to accommodate the 'mood' of the equine and to try different approaches to achieve the task,

further indicating a recognition of the need to appreciate a situation from a different perspective other than from the young person himself. One parent described the young persons' improvement in beginning to understand another persons' view point. The teachers did not report on any changes in this area.

8.2.5 Responsible Decision Making; Positive Choices about Their Personal and Social Behaviour

The fifth and final CASEL social and emotional competency is how a young person makes choices about their personal and social behaviour. A review of the quantitative and qualitative data suggests that the area of responsible decision making yielded the least notable findings across all the groups. However, it could be the case that the findings from the four previous areas of self-awareness, self- management, social awareness and forming positive relationships required the young people to make responsible decisions which appeared to reflect these social and emotional competencies more so than making responsible decisions. For example, 'getting on better with people', 'improved teamwork', 'being more considerate towards others', 'effective problem-solving and goal-setting' as items from subscales do require the young people to make decisions. However, the effect of such decisions may be reported as the young people demonstrating greater prosocial behaviours or demonstrating more respect for others.

This suggests that there may be a hierarchy of social and emotional competencies, similar for example, to Maslow's Hierarchy of Need where a fulfillment of a person's basic need is followed physiological need and reaching a stage of self-actualisation and the absence of one need being met can prevent progression to the subsequent one. The findings of the current study point to the possibility that the foundation of social and

emotional hierarchy is the development of one's self-awareness followed by the ability to form positive relationships. Further research will be helpful to examine the potential of viewing social and emotional competencies in hierarchical terms and holds potential for planning and researching EFPs.

Furthermore, absence of positive changes in all SEL competencies may also be explained by Farrell and Vulin-Reynolds (2009) discussions on how SEL programmes are likely to produce certain changes in certain domains of functioning during the early stages of the intervention. Farrell and Vulin-Reynolds (2009) state that when delivered over a longer period of time that a greater degree of significant changes are likely to occur in more domains and at different levels when the intervention is delivered overtime.

The parents' and teachers' reported on how they had observed young people making decisions about organising themselves and their belongings on the day of the EFP sessions. This could be considered both 'self-management' and 'responsible decision making'. The young people also described how they had to display 'leadership' whilst trying to influence the behaviour of the equine, thereby demonstrating their ability to make positive choices about their personal behaviour. An interesting finding associated with decision making or making positive choices, relates to how the young people behaved in the EFP sessions when they were given the responsibility for achieving different tasks. Not only did they describe the way in which they would persevere until they achieved the task but they also took the needs of the equine into consideration, a finding that was also reported by a teacher. This seems to have placed a distinct sense of responsibility on the young person who now found himself in sole charge of his own behaviour not because he was being 'asked' to do something but

because he wanted to. However, despite some evidence of the positive changes in the young peoples' decision making, little change was noted overall.

8.2.6 Sub-group patterns

This study examined possible changes in one or more of CASELs model of social and emotional well-being amongst young people affected by educational inequality. Whilst this was the main focus of the study design, the results of Two-way repeated measures ANOVA were also considered in exploring whether or not there were differences between males and females. This represented one of the study objectives as males are reported to be at greater risk of social and emotional difficulties than females. The results of the Two-Way measures ANOVA did not show statistical significance between males and females.

Two-way repeated measures ANOVA then explored if there were differences between young peoples' social and emotional well-being for those in the 'normal borderline' range and those in the 'clinical range'. The young peoples' quantitative reports showed that those in the 'clinical' range reported a greater decrease in **Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire** total difficulties than those in the 'normal to borderline' range. However, no further significance was reported in the young persons' **Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire** subscales or the **Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale** or **Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool** total and subscale scores. Parents' quantitative findings reported that those in the 'normal/borderline' range had improved more the young people in the clinical range.

8.3. Summary and Conclusion

This chapter presented the integration of the quantitative and qualitative findings in a study designed to explore the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. As discussed earlier in Chapters 3 and 4, both internationally and nationally, a gap continues to persist in the literature regarding the impact of EFPs. The limited number of studies informed the selection of a mixed methods approach for the present study, with multiple perspectives expected to provide further insight and learning into the potential of EFPs.

In concluding the discussion on the integration of the quantitative and qualitative findings, Table 41 below outlines the five social and emotional competencies which are the focus of the current study and summarises the description for each one. These are used to cross reference both the quantitative and qualitative findings with one or more of the five social and emotional competencies of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, responsible decision making and the ability to form positive relationships.

Table 41. Summary Description of Five Social and Emotional Competencies

Social and Emotional Competency	Description
Self-awareness	Recognising emotions and values, strengths and limitations. Encompasses the ability to accurately assess how one feels, recognising ones interests, values and strengths, and being able to maintain a sense of self-confidence.
Self-management	How a young person can learn to manage their emotions and behaviours in order to achieve a desired goal.
Social awareness	Ability to demonstrate an understanding and empathy for others.
Forming positive relationships	To help young people work in teams and to deal effectively with conflict.
Responsible decisions	Including making ethical, productive and positive choices about their personal and social behaviour.

This is followed by a presentation of the key quantitative and qualitative findings in Figure 16 below, and the highlights the three areas where there appears to be an overlap

of both the quantitative and qualitative findings. It also highlights the areas which are not supported by the integration of the quantitative and qualitative findings. The social and emotional competencies which relate to each of the quantitative and qualitative findings are referenced beside each quantitative or qualitative finding as illustrated in Table 42 below.

Table 42. CASEL's Social and Emotional Competencies

Social and Emotional Competency
Self-awareness
Self-management
Social awareness
Responsible decision making
Forming of positive relationships

As illustrated in Figure 16 below, the young persons' *self-confidence*, *communication skills* and *teamwork/relationship* skills emerged as the three areas which are supported both quantitatively and qualitatively reported the highest level of convergence. Self-confidence falls within the definition of self-awareness as defined by CASEL's model of social and emotional well-being with communications and team work categorised under forming positive relationships with both reporting the highest level of convergence. This suggests that the young persons' participation in the EFP may be associated with positive changes in the young persons' *self-awareness* and *relationship skills*. The importance of the development of a young persons' self-awareness was discussed in Chapter 5 and as such represents an important finding in the current study. Similarly, the importance of a young persons' ability to form positive relationships was also discussed in Chapter 2.

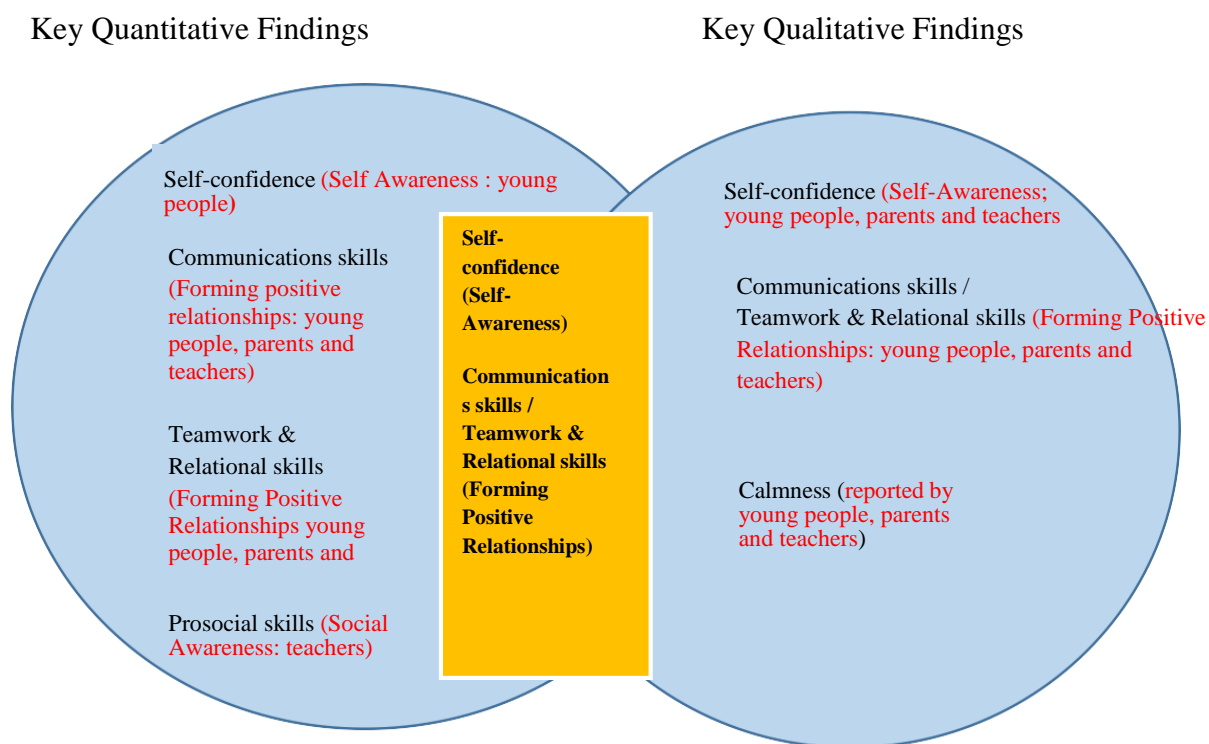


Figure 16. Key Quantitative and Qualitative Findings

The areas of self-management, social awareness and responsible decision making represent three social and emotional competencies which were not supported by the integration of the quantitative and qualitative data. For example, in reviewing the area of self-management and the young persons' ability to manage their emotions and behaviours in order to achieve a desired goal, the young people described how they had to self-regulate as part of the EFP sessions and illustrated this with clear examples. However, generalising this to other areas of life was not supported by parents' or teachers' reports. It may be the case that acquiring and using a new set of skills could take a longer timeframe. The implications of this are discussed in Chapter 9.

Turning to the area of social awareness, which describes the young persons' ability to demonstrate an understanding and empathy for others, resulted in contradictory findings. The young people and teachers both reported

qualitatively on the young persons' empathetic approach in working with the equines. It could be the case that the young people were able to generalise this into other settings in their life as reported by the teachers who reported a significant increase in the young persons' prosocial behaviour. However, this was not reported by the parents.

The third area which was not supported by the integration of the quantitative and qualitative data is that of responsible decision making. As discussed earlier in this chapter, this may be explained by the young peoples', parents' and teachers' reports reporting on the overall impact of the young persons' decisions rather than reporting on the young person making positive choices about their personal and social behaviour per se. That said, it was the areas which reported least notable findings.

A further dimension of the data integration is the emergence of themes which were not measured either quantitatively or qualitatively. For example, the resilience and perseverance that was described by the young people was not measured quantitatively and was not included as an interview topic. As referred to in section 7.6.2, the young people experienced varying levels of frustration whilst trying to work through different EFP session activities and they described the resilience that was necessary in order to complete the activities. That said, the young persons' resilience in achieving one or more EFP session objectives may have contributed towards an improved self-awareness and self-confidence. This finding highlights the value of using a mixed methods approach, particularly for examining a relatively new intervention and one for which there is little research available.

Apart from the area of resilience being considered for future studies, its emergence

emphasises the value of using a mixed methods approach for a relatively new intervention such as an EFP. For example, the emergence of calmness as a theme is a further example of the benefit of using a mixed methods approach. In light of the literature which discusses how physical contact with an animal has been shown to reduce anxiety and stress levels, this finding has particular significance of the benefits of EFPs for young people with social and emotional difficulties. Quantitative measures in the current study did not address this area.

Having discussed the integration of both the quantitative and qualitative data, the next chapter will present a discussion on the findings of the integration of the findings and the quantitative and qualitative results.

Chapter 9. **Discussion and Recommendations**

9.1. Overview

There is a volume of literature relating to the increase and prevalence of the number of young people presenting with social and emotional difficulties (Cooper et al., 2009), with evidence demonstrating how such difficulties prevent a young person from fully engaging in the educational system and increasing the likelihood of early school leaving (Quiroga, Janosz, Lyons & Morin, 2012). Educational policies reflect a recognition of the importance of a young persons 'social and emotional well-being' and its association with academic performance (Durlak, 2011; Vision for Change, 2006; Zin, Elias & Clarke, 2010). Both internationally and nationally, there has been a growth in the number of schools which are developing SEL programmes and providing a combination of multimodal, universal and/or targeted programmes. However, there has also been an increase in the number of SEL programmes for young people affected by socioeconomic disadvantage. One such SEL programme is that of EFPs. However, there is a limited but growing body of evidence that attests to its effectiveness.

However, few studies to-date have specifically addressed the issue of the impact of EFPs on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. Additionally, few attempts have been made to address the gap in the research of EFP studies that include both mixed methods design and multiple informants (Selby & Smith –Osborne, 2013). This study set out to address a number of the gaps in the research. The current study explored the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality.

The present chapter opens with a brief overview of the study objectives and a summary

of the key findings. CASELs model of Social and Emotional competencies are used to discuss the impact of the EFP on the social and emotional well-being of the young people at the centre of the present study. Following this, the key findings of the current study with reference to other studies that have been conducted to-date are interpreted and discussed. The next section outlines the unique contribution of the study. The fourth section examines the study and study design limitations, followed by the fifth section which outlines the implications for practice and policy for young people with social and emotional difficulties affected by educational inequality are examined. Finally, recommendations for future research are detailed.

9.2. Overview of Study Objectives and Summary of Key Findings

The overall aim of the current study was to measure the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. The CASEL model of social and emotional learning was used as the theoretical framework for this study. In order to do this, four key objectives were outlined. *First*, the study sought to identify any changes in the social and emotional well-being of the young people at the centre of the current study. Specifically, the study sought to identify any changes in the areas of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, responsible decision making and the young persons' ability to form positive relationships following participation in the EFP as reported by the young people, their parents and teachers. *Second*, the study set out to identify any evidence of significant gender differences among young people in relation to self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, responsible decision making and the ability to form positive relationships. The

third objective was to examine young peoples' narratives for evidence of factors or aspects of the EFP which may contribute to any changes identified in the first study objective. The *fourth* and final objective was to examine young peoples', parents' and teachers' perspectives of the EFP to identify higher level patterns of convergence and divergence in their views.

The changes in the five social and emotional competencies are summarised in Figure 17 below. Using the CASEL Model of social and emotional learning, each of the five areas were reviewed and reflect the key quantitative and qualitative findings, which were reviewed in section 8.2. Figure 17 presents each of the competencies together with the key quantitative and qualitative findings which were discussed in the previous chapter. As such, Figure 17 is informed by the integration of the data and is designed to allow for ease of referencing across changes in each social and emotion competency.

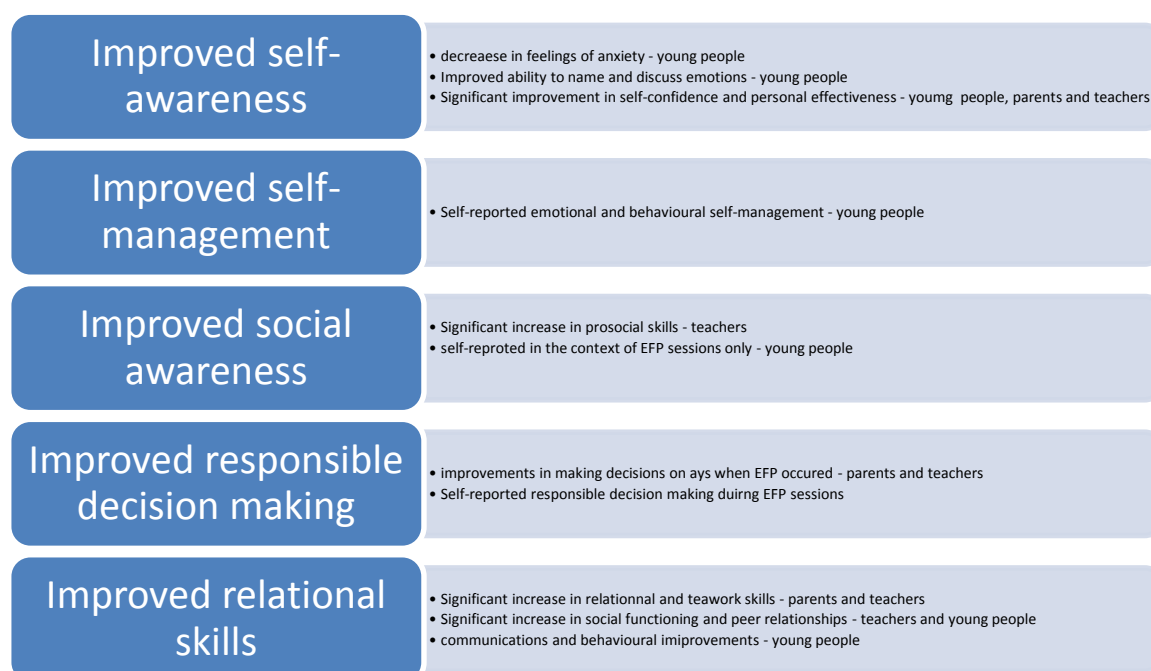


Figure 17. Study Objectives with Key Findings from the Integrated Data Analyses

9.3. Interpretation of Key Findings from the Integrated Data

As previously discussed in Chapter 2, social and emotional well-being is associated with a young persons' ability to demonstrate *self-awareness*, *self- management*, *social awareness*, and *organisation, responsible problem solving* and finally *relationship management* (CASEL, 2005; Conceição & Bandura, 2008; Redmond & Hamilton, 2010). Each of these domains were discussed in greater detail in Chapter 2. The theoretical framework of this thesis, discussed in Chapter 3, focuses on a number of key theories frequently applied to AAI, including Social Support Theory, Social Cognitive Theory, Attachment Theory and Biophilia Hypothesis (Kruger & Serpell, 2010). These theories contribute to the discourse which attempts to explain why the EFP may be effective intervention for young people with social and emotional difficulties. The theories were then applied to EFPs and examined to evaluate if any one particular theory could elucidate how EFPs may potentially play a role in promoting social and emotional well-being for young people affected by educational inequality. The key findings are discussed with reference to these theories and relevant research studies in the following sections.

9.3.1 Positive Changes in Self-Awareness

The CASEL model defines self-awareness as an ability to recognise emotions and values, strengths and limitations, encompasses the ability to accurately assess how one feels, recognising one's interests, values and strengths, and being able to maintain a sense of self-confidence. Study findings showed that the young people demonstrated positive change in their ability to name and discuss their emotions in the context of the EFP sessions. In addition, positive change in the young peoples'

self- confidence, as one factor contained in the CASEL definition of self-awareness emerged as one of the two areas that was supported by the integration of quantitative and qualitative data.

The literature is clear that young people with social and emotional difficulties have a poor self-image and low self-confidence, which negatively impacts on their ability to develop and sustain relationships, thereby compromising their ability to positively engage in their education (Fraser & Blishen, 2007). Recognising and regulating one's emotions has been reported as an essential feature of social and emotional well-being (Goleman, 1995) with Hallam and colleagues (2005) positioning its importance as fundamental to a young persons' learning, arguing that it acts as a foundation to a young persons' academic performance and attainment. Increasingly, educational policies both internationally and nationally appear to reflect this idea, with most schools delivering a variety of social and emotional competency programmes (Durlak et al., 2011; Hallam et al., 2005; Malecki & Elliot, 2002). However, for young people with social and emotional difficulties, and in particular those affected by socioeconomic disadvantage, a more targeted approach is provided through the School Completion Programme as part of the DEIS School Support Programme, as discussed earlier in Chapter 3. Although the findings of the impact of SEL programmes on academic improvements are mixed, there does appear to be evidence that participation in SEL programmes is associated with improvements in academic attainment (Clarke, 2010; Morgan & Epsey, 2012).

The findings suggest that the young people experienced a decrease in their feelings

of anxiety in the context of the EFP. One particular feature of the EFP which appears to be associated with this finding is the young peoples' experience of overcoming their fears of being around equines. The young people named and described their emotions at the start of the EFP and how these changed over the eight week programme moving from feelings of stress and anxiety to feeling comfortable around equines. As Miyake et al., (2000) discusses, when young people are feeling stressed and anxious, it affects their ability to concentrate, thereby reducing their capacity to problem solve or deal with conflict. In contrast, a young person's positive emotional state reduces stress levels, resulting in a higher level of receptiveness to deal with and manage situations. That the young people were able to recognise the decrease in their anxiety whilst around the equines is one aspect of these findings.

In reviewing interventions aimed at promoting emotional regulation, Heath (1998) discusses the importance of 'real world' experiences which provide authentic feedback. The importance of the equines size is a finding in previous studies (e.g. Chandler, 2005) and consistent with Brandt's (2004) theory that the equines size can present a perceived threat, thereby encouraging a person to increase their attentiveness and stay present in the moment. This, Brandt (2004) proposes, produces a 'sense of calm' within the person. Although achieving feelings of calmness did not emerge in the integrated data, it was referred to by the young people, parents and teachers as something all three participant groups noticed after the EFP sessions.

There appear to be therefore a number of factors to consider in the participants

reports as to how the equines size may contribute to the young people feeling a greater sense of calmness through emotional regulation. Though watching animals has been shown to produce a reduction in anxiety and arousal, Serpell (2006) argues that any stimulus which concentrates the mind can also have a calming effect on the body. The equine may not therefore be unique in creating this reported outcome, with similar results created by other animals, as has been noted, for example Friedman et al. (1990). The equines size (and the significance of this whilst at liberty) brings a further dimension to contributing to an enhanced understanding of how an EFP session can help a young person to feel calmer within themselves. However, few studies have examined the equines size in isolation and whilst Waite and Bourke (2013) for example, found that equines size appeared to have the potential to capture a young person's attention, comparative studies exploring how for example, the involvement of other animals in this area, will help to develop a deeper insight into the significance and potential of this factor. In addition, to the author's knowledge, there have been no studies which have examined the significance of size and its relationship with emotional regulation and self-confidence. The size of the equine therefore appears to be an important mediating feature of EFPs and should be researched in the future.

The third suggested cause for the reported sense of calm is put forward by Brandt (2004) suggesting that developing an ability to communicate with a large equine requires, and even results, in a higher level of attentiveness. As equines flight response has been shown to be triggered by sudden movements, and as Gehrke (2011) suggests, equines can detect and avoid incoherent heart rate variability, the need for the young people become more aware of their body language as a means

of communicating with the equine appears to explain how EFPs may produce this result. The fourth explanation is linked to the physiological changes that may take place when grooming. Whilst physiological changes have been reported when people are petting their pets (Cardosa et al., 2011), it is possible that the act of grooming may also produce a similar outcome. It may be a combination of increased body awareness and grooming which contributed to the reported outcome.

Developing emotional awareness describes both perceiving emotions in oneself but also in others (Goleman, 1995). These two perspectives of emotional awareness are key features of EFP sessions as young people are required to observe the equines, notice and assess their emotions and then reflect these back to the facilitator using a variety of 'feeling' words. These emotional reflections are used interchangeably throughout the EFP session. The facilitator encourages the young people to notice and interpret the equine's feelings. The facilitator also facilitates the young person to examine and identify how they may be contributing to how the equine may be experiencing different emotions. The facilitator also facilitates a discussion in raising an emotional awareness within the young person himself. That the young people were able to self-regulate within the EFP sessions in order to achieve a particular goal would appear to be supported by Goleman (1998) who proposes that emotional intelligence can be learned and translated into success in a variety of settings.

Self-confidence is cited as necessary for young people making the transition from primary to post primary school (INTO, 2008) and is a key feature of emotional well-

being (NICE, 2013). Young people with social and emotional difficulties are reported to have poor self-confidence (e.g. Terzian, Hamilton & Ericson, 2011) as can young people living in socioeconomic disadvantaged areas. Developing the self-confidence of young people affected by educational inequality and who are presenting with social and emotional difficulties therefore has particular importance. The findings also show that the young people reported improvements in their self-confidence and personal effectiveness, a finding supported by AAI studies (e.g. Strimple, 2003) and EFP studies (e.g. Chandler, 2005). Such is the importance a young person's self-confidence that future studies could attempt to isolate the particular features of an EFP that contribute to improvements in this area.

9.3.2 Ability to Form Positive Relationships: How People Work in Teams and Deal Effectively With Conflict

A clear pattern emerged associating improvements in the young peoples' social and communication skills and participation in the EFP. The quantitative and qualitative findings indicated strong patterns in relation to positive changes in the young peoples' ability to relate more effectively with others and represented one of the two CASEL's social and emotional competencies which was supported by the findings. The young persons' difficulties were also reported to interfere less with peer relationships in the classroom setting after participating in the EFP though it is not possible to say if this was as a result of the young persons' participation in the EFP. These findings are in line with several previous studies which have reported positive changes in social and communication skills (e.g. Pendry et al., 2014). Although there is a dearth of studies which have examined

the impact of EFPs on young people at risk of educational inequality, this finding is consistent with Trotter and colleagues (2008) who also reported improved social competence in their study of young people considered to be at risk of academic and/or social failure, although as outlined in Chapter 2, a number of limitations were noted in this study.

Teamwork is an important part of school and family and is considered essential in the workplace, requiring people to collaborate and co-operate as part of the teamwork process and managing opposing views and opinions in a non-conflicting manner. Young people with social and emotional difficulties, in particular those with externalising behaviours, have been shown to experience specific difficulties in their relationships with peers (Cooper, & Cefai 2010) and teachers (Drugli, Klokner & Larson, 2011). As relationships have been shown to play a key role in the lives of adolescents, especially in the transition to adulthood (Vaquerra & Kao, 2008) the move from primary to post primary school represents a particularly challenging time for young people with social and emotional difficulties. Though further studies are needed to examine the potential of this finding, it has significant potential when consideration is given to the numbers of Irish pupils with social and emotional difficulties currently attending primary and post primary schools (GUI Report No. 4, 2012). Whilst Irish schools are working towards equipping young people with social and emotional competencies, there still remains a large number of young people with social and emotional difficulties, highlighting the challenges faced by young people and teachers in both primary and post primary schools.

The young people identified aspects of the EFP that appear to have contributed to changes in their social and communication skills. For example, team exercises require the young person to pay particular attention to the equines' non-verbal body language in order to both communicate and understand. This finding is supported by Brandt's (2004) theory of developing a 'shared body language' where non-verbal communications lead to the development of a give and take relationship. The young people use only non-verbal body language as part of the EFP sessions with each other and the equine. Though this can take a while for the young people to get used to and manage as it represents a different way of communicating (Brandt, 2004) it requires each young person to explore areas such as empathy, listening and clarity of communication. Positive changes in the young persons' ability to form better relationships is also supported Bradley and Hayes (2007) who argue that any intervention that fosters exposure to protective factors, will impact on a young persons' well-being. It is useful at this point to consider the role of Social Cognitive Theory and how it can add an additional dimension to Brandt's (2004) theory as the equine is continuously giving feedback to the young person.

9.3.3 Self-management: Learning to manage emotions and behaviours in order to achieve a desired goal

Unlike self-awareness, the first of CASEL's social and emotional competencies which includes the ability to *recognise* emotions, self- management describes how the young people learn to *manage* their emotions and behaviour in order to achieve a particular goal. This is the third of the social and emotional competencies of CASEL's framework. The young people in the present study were faced with a series of activities and exercises over the eight week EFP. Depending on the

behaviour of the young person or the group, the equine/s reacted and responded differently, allowing for discussions on how the young peoples' behaviour was affecting them. Henry et al. (2015) and Gerhke's (2011; 2013) provide interesting considerations which illustrate how human behaviour can impact on equines. Through the facilitated process of the EFP and the equines immediate behavioural changes, the young people were then able to self-direct in order to change their behaviour and complete the task, lending particular support to Social Cognitive Theory. The young people provided various descriptions of how they had to self-regulate during the EFP sessions in order to achieve a particular goal, a view also supported by the teachers.

Changes in the young peoples' self-management were reported by the young people and teachers in the context of the EFP sessions but not in other settings. There are a number of possible explanations for this. First, changing behaviour usually requires a certain level of motivation. Whilst the young people were motivated to achieve the particular EFP related activities or tasks, they may not have had the same motivation to change their behaviour, for example in the classroom. Second, changes in the young peoples' behaviour in an EFP session were responded to by very noticeable changes in the equines' behaviour. As such, the young people received clear feedback on both their individual and collective behavioural changes. The relationship between immediate feedback and effective learning is noted by Hattie and Timperley (2007). It may be possible that a young persons' behavioural changes were not responded to with the same clarity and timing within the classroom or family setting. Finally, the EFP provided a purposefully designed environment to help the young people learn how to self-manage other areas more

effectively. Generalising new ways of self-management across different settings happens gradually over time (Fitzpatrick & Knowlton, 2009). For example, the young people were able to identify how their behaviours were contributing to either positive or negative changes within the EFP sessions. The young people began to learn how to self-manage in the EFP with little minimal input from the facilitator and thereby encouraging the young person's independence reflecting the first of Pupil Self-Directed Interventions; self-management (Fitzpatrick & Knowlton, 2009).

Learning how to self-manage can be especially difficult for young people in a classroom setting as they may not have learnt these skills at home and may find the classroom setting overwhelming and frustrating (Prior, 2001). Nonetheless, as with emotional awareness self-management skills can be learned overtime, ultimately allowing a young person to self-direct and self-manage (Bandura, 1994). Self-directed learning strategies have been shown to be effective for young people with social and emotional difficulties, involving the young person developing awareness of their behaviour as it affects others and progressively, over time, learning to replace their behaviour with self-directed strategies. The young person's newly acquired behavioural skill set can then be generalised in other settings such as home and school. As such, there are two parts to learning self-directed strategies. First, developing an insight into the consequences or impact of the young persons' behaviour and second learning how to self-direct in order to achieve a particular objective with new learning, which can eventually be used across other settings (Fitzpatrick & Knowlton, 2009).

9.3.4 Responsible decision making: Making Positive Choices about Personal and Social Behaviour

As discussed in Chapter 8, there were no significant findings in improvements in the young peoples' ability to make positive choices about personal and social behaviour, representing CASELs fourth social and emotional competency. Chapter 8 highlighted the potential of a hierarchy of social and emotional competencies and considers how self-awareness and social awareness may form the first of five stages. Evidence of positive changes in the young peoples' self-awareness and social awareness but not in the remaining three competencies may support this possibility.

When the young people were reported to have made positive choices about their personal and social behaviour it was generally related to the EFP. In other words, the young persons' decisions were motivated by their involvement in the EFP sessions or programme. For example, a young person making a decision to organise himself both at home and in school in order to be ready for going to the EFP, or making decisions to do things differently during an EFP session in order to complete the task. That said, there were significant improvements in the young peoples' prosocial skills suggesting that the young people were making some level of decision to behave differently towards others. It is possible that generalising the learning from making decisions in the sessions may be similar to self-management and it may take longer to see evidence of this. Fitzpatrick and Knowlton (2009) discussion on self-directed strategies illustrates the staged approach to how to support social and emotional changes over time. In this regard, longitudinal studies will be helpful for further research.

9.3.5 Social awareness: Young Persons' Ability to Demonstrate an

Understanding and Empathy for Others

The fifth and final of CASELs social and emotional competency refers to the young peoples' ability to demonstrate an understanding and empathy for others. The findings of the current study appear to reflect other studies in this area. There was some indication in the lower level findings that the young people developed a greater awareness and demonstration of empathic behaviours towards the equines as part of the EFP sessions, a finding supported by Burgon (2011). The teachers reported significant increases in the young peoples' prosocial behaviour (notably amongst those in the clinical range). Empathy is a characteristic considered essential for the development of working and personal relationships (Lexman & Reeves, 2009) and plays a key part in SEL programmes (Cain & Carnellor, 2008). Young people with externalising behaviours typically present with non-empathic behaviours (Ghafoori & Tracz, 2004). The relationship between improved social and emotional competencies and an increase in empathy and prosocial behaviour (Eisenberg; 2010; Roots of Empathy, 2009) is an area that has been the focus of a number of EFP studies and was an expected outcome of this study. Though increased empathy amongst young people has been reported as part of AAIIs (e.g. Lange et al., 2006), there have been mixed findings in the area of EFPs (e.g. Bowers & McDonald, 2001; Ewing et al., 2007) despite studies employing measures designed to assess changes in empathic behaviour. Qualitatively, some studies report an increase in the young persons' empathic behaviour (e.g. Burgon, 2011) though this appears to be in the context of an EFP session and not a generalisation across other settings.

9.3.6 Descriptions and Experiences of the EFP

Overall, young people, parents and teachers described the EFP as a positive experience with parents and teachers referring to the young persons' excitement when they returned to school and home. Teachers also referred to how energised the young people were after the EFP sessions. There was a significant difference for the Time effect in the young peoples' **Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale HAP** subscale in the Two-Way ANOVAs for time and caseness at T₃. The young peoples', parents' and teacher' findings were useful in providing additional insights into the EFP and the value of the programme to young people from a less 'programmatic' perspective. However, two main themes emerged from this section. Firstly, the enjoyment of being with the equines and in particular, grooming was reported as being an especially valued feature of the EFP and second, *learning* about the equines.

Chapter 3 referred to various theories which may explain the value of grooming as an EFP activity. For example, physiological changes that have been reported to occur whilst people groom their pets have been shown to produce a release of stress (Cardoso et al., 2013; Odenaal & Meintjes, 2003) and may be a particularly helpful activity for young people with anxiety or emotional difficulties. The number of young peoples' ($n=17$), parents' ($n=21$) and teachers' ($n=25$) reports in the clinical range of the **Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Hyperactivity** suggest that the young people experienced high levels of anxiety. The young peoples' **Physical Appearance and Attributes and Freedom from Anxiety** subscale reports show a significant decrease in anxiety levels, indicating that the young people experienced lower levels of anxiety after the EFP at T₂. The

value of grooming as explained by Attachment Theory was also discussed. Although Crawford and colleagues (2006) argue that true emotional bonding can only occur when a person experiences the opportunity to groom one's pet, it does however emphasise the value of grooming as an activity. It would appear that the impact of grooming may be one of the mediating features of the EFP, though further research will contribute to developing a deeper and more comprehensive understanding of its value. Grooming as an activity which requires the young person to self-regulate in order that the equine will stand sufficiently still to allow himself to be groomed. Self-regulation was a key theme discussed by both the young people and teachers. It is possible that the success the young person experienced in influencing the equine to remain still in addition to the grooming could be supported by the young persons' **Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Total** which reported a significant increase between T₁ and T₂ and the **Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Social Objective** which reported a significant increase between T₁ and T₂. The **Youth at Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Social Objective** measures locus of control, problem solving and self-confidence. The immediacy of the equine's feedback would also appear to be a mediating feature of the EFP. It may be that the large body movements of the equines provided very clear communications to the young people allowing the young people to and receive continuous feedback and self-regulate.

Turning then to the second area of learning about equines, the young people, parents and teachers all described the EFP as a programme which addressed equine communication, behaviour, welfare and management and consequently raises two

issues. *First*, this suggests that there may be a need to consider the development of more accurate and realistic descriptions of EFPs for the young people, parents and teachers. As the SPHE programme is delivered in all primary and post-primary schools, irrespective of the inclusion in the DEIS School Support Plan, consideration could be given to describing an EFP as an extension or practical application of the SPHE. In this way, the young people, parents and teachers may be able to conceive it in more practical terms. It may also provide a more grounded context for the delivery of the EFP for the EFP facilitators. *Second*, it raises the question of whether the EFP should include an educational component in addition to the experiential aspect of an EFP. Chapter 3 presented a range of EFPs and highlighted the differences in the programmes in terms of their duration, time-frame, content and expected outcomes. A number of EFPs include an educational element which address how equines communicate and behave with each other. Due to the wide variations that exist within EFPs, it is difficult to assess the degree to which an educational component may contribute to a more meaningful and beneficial experience for the young people. The young peoples', parents' and teachers' reports strongly suggest this is a feature of the EFP that was highly valued by the young people. That said, it is unlikely that this could be considered as a mediating feature.

9.3.7 Recommendations for Improvements to the EFP

The main theme emerging from the recommendations from two of the teachers was the need for the young person to be able to process the experiences of the EFP sessions which could help with the transfer of the learning from the EFP context into school and home life. These recommendations are discussed in detail in in

reviewing the implications for practice.

9.4. Unexpected findings

The rationale for selecting a mixed methods for the current study was discussed in Chapter 5. Adopting a mixed methods approach is increasingly being used in the fields of social and behavioural sciences (Farquhar, Ewing & Booth, 2011; Woolley, 2009) allowing insights which cannot be gathered from independent quantitative or qualitative studies (O’Cathain, et al., 2007). As part of a mixed methods approach, the qualitative analysis can allow for findings to emerge which were not grounded in the study objectives. There were four unexpected findings which emerged from the study which will now be discussed.

The *first* unexpected finding relates to the potential of EFPs for young people with extreme levels of social and emotional difficulties, or those diagnosed in the ‘clinical’ range of social and emotional difficulties. The number of young people reported to be in the clinical range was not originally anticipated. However, given the number of young peoples’, parents and teachers’ reports of young people in the clinical range, it was decided to conduct exploratory Two-Way repeated measure ANOVAs for time and caseness in order to explore this further. Although this has not been the focus of EFP studies carried out to-date, some studies have noted that young people with greater levels of social and emotional difficulties may benefit more than young people with less social and emotional difficulties (e.g. Holmes et al., 2012; Pendry et al., 2014). That said, the current study findings suggest that the young people in the ‘clinical’ range appeared to have benefitted more than those in the ‘normal’ or ‘borderline’ range. However, neither

studies nor any studies conducted to date to the authors knowledge have examined the impact of EFPs on young people with normal/borderline social and emotional difficulties as compared to young people with acute levels of social and emotional difficulties, and as such Holmes et al. (2012) and Pendry et al., (2014) studies could inform future studies in this area. Young people in the 'clinical' range in the education system are at greater risk of early school leaving (Quiroga, Janosz, Lyons & Morin, 2012) with the subsequent consequences of early school leaving described in Chapter 1. In this regard, EFP, as an intervention aimed at promoting social and emotional well-being, may have particular potential for young people in the 'clinical' range as a targeted intervention.

A second surprising finding is the absence of statistical significance relating to changes over time between males and females participating in the EFP. A review of the literature suggests that males are more likely to present with social and emotional difficulties than females (Cooper et al., 2009; Lober et al., 2000) and it was therefore expected that this would be replicated in the current study findings. Sixty two males and twenty six females were referred to the EFP in the present study. One possible explanation for the absence of significant differences between males and females might be that all the young people referred to the EFP were already presenting with social and emotional difficulties such that a targeted intervention was deemed necessary. As such, the differences between the social and emotional difficulties between males and females were less than might have been detected in a random selection of young people within the DEIS schools who had not been identified as having social and emotional difficulties. As discussed in Chapter 2, whilst the majority of nine year olds have been reported as developing

without any social and emotional difficulties, between 15 per cent and 20 per cent of children, present with significant levels of social and emotional difficulties. The finding also draws attention to the needs of females who according to the research are more likely to present with internalising behaviours and who potentially can go unnoticed as compared to boys whose externalising behaviours require and receive more immediate attention.

A third unexpected finding which emerged from the qualitative data analyses refers to how the young people, the parents and teachers described the EFP. This finding emerged from one of the study objectives which was to explore the young peoples' experiences of the EFP as reported by the young people, parents and teachers. Including part of their responses in this section which is reviewing unexpected findings is based on the significance that this has for future EFPs. The EFP, as an intervention, is an experiential process which engages the young people in EFP sessions, focusing on a number of areas including self-awareness, self-regulation, problem solving, teamwork and verbal and non-verbal communication. The young people, the parents and teachers described the EFP in terms of equine ethology, how equines behave and communicate with each other, including the significance of their behaviour and the general care and management requirements for equines. This was an unexpected finding for two different reasons.

First, though the young people may have lacked the necessary vocabulary to articulate or describe an intervention which focused on a range of social and emotional areas, the parents and teachers were aware of the purpose of the young person attending the EFP. Second, it is possible that the young people acquired

knowledge and understanding of equines, in addition to the EFP itself, may have contributed to some of the reported changes. The young people, by virtue of their social and emotional difficulties may have been benefitting less from education than their peers. In this case, learning about equines equipped them with a new body of knowledge that their peers may not have had, which may also have contributed to their increased self-confidence. This has implications for the on-going development of the EFP and merits a review of introducing an educational component into the programme. The current range of EFPs reviewed illustrate the wide variation of EFP content, with some EFPs including an educational and experiential programme (e.g. Pendry et al., 2014) and others confining the programme to an experiential approach only (Schultz et al., 2007). With so little known about the mediating features of EFPs, future studies could examine the impact of both or more approaches. This finding highlights the value of including young people in the study in line with Williams' (2011) view of young peoples' involvement in assessing the impact of interventions designed for them.

The fourth and final unexpected finding relates to the theme of resilience which emerged from the young peoples' interviews and to a lesser degree from the teachers' interviews. This theme was not measured quantitatively. It may not be possible to prevent adversity and stress in life, particularly in the years during which young people are growing up and are expected to assume increasingly greater levels of responsibility. However, it may be possible to equip young people with skills that can assist them to think and behave in a more resilient way when confronted with problems. Bradley and Hayes (2007) argue that any intervention that enables a young person to deal more effectively with stressful events will impact positively

on their well-being.

9.5. Unique Contribution of the Study

Chapter 4 discussed the small number of studies that have been conducted to examine the impact of EFP on young people affected educational inequality. That this is the first Irish large scale mixed methods study which has been conducted to explore the relationship between EFPs and social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality is not therefore a significant factor. Of more significance however, is that it is also one of largest International studies that has used a mixed methods approach to examine the impact of an EFP as many studies have tended to be qualitative or quantitative (Selby, 2009; Selby & Smith–Osborne, 2013). To the author’s knowledge, there are no previous studies which have incorporated Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie (2003) 7 stage conceptualization of the mixed methods data analysis in examining the benefit of EFPs on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality.

In addition, this is one of the few studies that involved multiple informants including the young people, their parents and teachers. The use of three groups of participants in assessing young peoples’ emotional and behavioural difficulties is important (APA, 2000), as different informants can vary with regard to their perception and relationship to various aspects of a young persons’ behaviour. The present study findings not only confirmed this, but also underscored the divergence, convergence and discrepancies of the participants’ reports, thereby contributing to the richness and depth of the findings. Considering that the research on EFPs is still growing and that this study was the first large Irish mixed methods study which

explored the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality, it is important to continue to gather multiple informants' opinions and experiences in order to contribute to a better understanding of EFPs.

However, future studies focusing on the impact of EFPs amongst people affected by educational inequality may need to examine how best to support parents participation in the data collection process in order to increase parental input. For example, Clarke's (2010) study reported how the lack of parental input resulted in the parental data being removed from the study. Parents' response rate in the current study, though lowest of the participant groups, was not that low that parental data needed to be removed. However, the support needed for questionnaire completion by parents was identified during the pilot stage of the current study. Whilst it is not clear how this may have impacted on the response rate, it is possible that it could have been a contributory factor.

There has been an increased interest in applying mixed methods to social and behavioural sciences (Woolley, 2009) as it can provide insights that independent quantitative or qualitative studies are unable to offer (O'Cathain, Murphy & Nicholl, 2002). Chapter 5 discussed the rationale for applying mixed methods. Although the research into EFPs is promising, there is a need to develop a much deeper understanding of its value and potential. For example, the inclusion of a mixed methods study in Pendry and colleagues (2013, 2014) studies, which represent the first randomised controlled trials, may have contributed to developing a deeper understanding of the study findings as well as reporting on the positive

changes. Braun and Clarke' (2006) discussion on latent and semantic themes which was reviewed in Chapter 5, and again in Chapter 7 in the context of the participant interviews. Whilst the young peoples' interview responses in particular were quite concrete and not very reflective, the potential for developing a better understanding of the EFPs through latent themes has been highlighted.

A key stage of mixed methods is the search for convergence, divergence and discrepancy (O'Cathain, et al., 2002) with the inclusion of multiple informants providing various examples of differences in perspectives from participants in the current study. For example, greater levels of divergence were noted between the teachers' scores and those of the young people and their parents in reporting on the young people' social and emotional difficulties with teachers' scores reporting higher levels of social and emotional difficulties. There was further evidence of divergence in the parents and teachers scores on examining the impact of the EFP and a discrepancy reported in the young peoples' scores as measured by the Strengths and Difficulties. Further examples of different perspectives are reported also in the qualitative data. The absence of convergence is not unusual and though it can present with certain challenges has been shown to contribute unique information on experiences of an intervention. Applying thematic analysis identified themes and patterns (Wertz, 2005) thus contributing to a better understanding of impact of the EFP on the young peoples' social and emotional well-being. Morgan (2007) proposes that pragmatism uses transferability to examine if the knowledge gained can be transferred to another setting, allowing an exploration of the connection between the theory and the data. Whilst the findings suggest that the young people transferred some of the learning gained from the EFP

into school and family settings, the findings also suggest that more time and perhaps a review of the debriefing session of the EFP could strengthen the transferability of new learning findings. This recommendation is discussed later in this section.

A further important element of this study is its unique focus on exploring how EFPs may impact on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. Studies to-date have examined the impact of EFPs on specific social and emotional areas (e.g. Burgon, 2011; Hauge & Kvalem; 2013; Pendry et al., 2014). As the relationship between social and emotional well-being and a young persons' academic performance and attainment becomes increasingly recognised (Luiselli, Putnam, Handler & Feinberg, 2005; Zins et al., 2004), the current study and study findings contribute to the growing discourse and examination of interventions focusing on enhancing the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. The need for implementation and evaluation of targeted interventions for young people with high levels of social and emotional difficulties is well documented (Durlak et al., 2011; NICE, 2013; Weare, 2015) and was discussed in detail in Chapters 2 and 4.

The young people at the centre of the present study were referred as a result of a range of social and emotional difficulties. Although nineteen young people were reported to be in the 'clinical' range by parents and twenty nine by teachers, fourteen of the young people self-reported as being in the 'clinical' range. A small number of studies indicate that young people experiencing greater levels of social and emotional difficulties may benefit more than those with lesser difficulties. Although requiring further research, study findings suggest that EFPs

may have particular significance and potential for this group of young people. This finding is worthy of further examination.

Much of the research on EFPs has been based on small sample sizes making it difficult to draw generalisations across populations and affecting external validity (Anestis et al., 2014; Selby, 2009; Selby & Smith-Osborne, 2013). Despite the significance of study findings, the provision of EFPs in one location only has been identified as being a study limitation. For example, whilst Frederick, Hatz and Lanning (2015) reported significant findings in a five week EFP, participants attended the same school, resulting in difficulty in generalising across populations. The current study included eighty eight young people from over eight schools in two distinct sub-urban geographical areas with all schools participating in the DEIS School Support Programme. As outlined in Chapter 4, primary schools participating in the DEIS Programme qualify on the basis of the percentage of unemployment, local authority accommodation, lone parenthood, members of the travelling community, families with more than 5 children and those pupils eligible for free books. Qualifying factors for secondary schools include medical cards for Junior Certificate pupils, Junior Certificate retention and exam rates, and Leaving Certificate retention rates. Schools qualifying for the DEIS School Support Programme suggests a certain homogeneity amongst the young people which increases further when their social and emotional difficulties qualify them for referral to the EFP. However, it is not possible to assess if the impact of an EFP amongst young people affected by educational inequality in a rural area may have produced the same findings and in this regard it may be difficult to generalise findings across all DEIS primary and post primary schools. Though larger scale

studies are necessary to be able to generalise findings, in both sub-urban and rural areas, the preliminary findings of this study are promising as one intervention that could be considered for this group of young people affected by educational inequity presenting with social and emotional difficulties.

9.6. Critique of Methodology and Methods

In advance of drawing conclusions based on the findings of the current study, the main limitations to the present study which will now be discussed.

9.6.1 *Research Sample*

An exhaustive sampling approach was used in the current study. A total of eighty eight young people, their parents and teachers were invited to participate in the present study which represented the largest studies conducted to date both nationally and one of the largest internationally. The retention rate varied both between participant group and at each time point. The young peoples' response rate was highest, the parents' response rate was second highest followed by the teachers. The high response amongst the young people is not surprising however, as the interviews were done in advance of and after the EFP and then conducted at the young peoples' school. Attrition was lower amongst parents than teachers. The findings as represented therefore from the parents and teachers reports have to be taken as perhaps less credible as they were more likely to drop out or fail to consent.

The original study design predicted qualitative data collection from twenty participants from each group. Eight young people, six parents and nine teachers participated in the interviews, resulting in 24 participants in total. It is difficult to

speculate how this may have affected the findings. Taking into consideration that the number of interviews was less than half of the projected number, it is unclear if the individual and global themes would have been replicated or not. That said, the insights gained from the participant interviews have contributed to a better understanding of the potential of EFPs and will be of value for future research, in particular to trying to explore and identify latent themes as well as semantic themes and thereby develop a better understanding of the potential of EFPs.

As mentioned in Section 9.5 above, the young people are a particular snapshot of a particular type of young person and could therefore be considered as a specific limitation as it is difficult to assess how the findings might generalise as widely to young people who are similar to those living in an the inner city or in a rural area. However to be able to successfully secure a large sample of young people with low levels of attrition gives confidence that the young people who finished the study are representative of those that started the study. That said, what is not known is how the young people at the start of the study are representative of other pupils in DEIS primary and post primary schools. Generalising findings across all DEIS primary and post primary schools will require further research.

9.6.2 Impact of Extraneous Variables

The findings of this study suggest that participation in an EFP may be associated with positive changes in the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. However, there are a number of extraneous factors that may have contributed to the study findings which will now be discussed.

The environment in which EFPs takes place has been identified as playing an important role, in particular for young people with limited access to nature (e.g., Flate & Berge, 2010; cited in Hauge et al., 2014). As all of the young people referred to the EFP attend DEIS schools, there is a strong probability that the young people reside in areas of low socioeconomic status and high residential density, with less access to nature or green environments (Satterthwaite, McGranham & Tacoli, 2010) than their peers not affected by socioeconomic disadvantage. Mallar and colleagues (2006) for example, argue that contact with nature based activities is especially beneficial for people removed from nature based environments and experiences, whilst Ulrich (1993) draws attention to the relationship between nature and stress reduction. As the majority of EFPs are located in green areas (though acreage may vary), this element of EFPs may affect the young persons' emotional frame of mind and consequently their reporting of the impact of the EFP on their social and emotional well-being as an intervention, though further research into this aspect of EFPs will be helpful. However, rather than this feature of EFPs be viewed as an extraneous variable, consideration should perhaps be given to how this enhances the researchers understanding of EFPs and the importance of the intervention in the context of a nature based setting. Not only would the aforementioned increase the understanding of Biophillic Hypothesis in the context of EFPs, but it could also assist researchers to be able to isolate the environment as an important variable.

A second extraneous variable relating to the study findings and the young peoples' participation in the EFP meant '*time out*' from school of between two and three hours each week. As referral to the EFP is a result of the young people presenting

with social and emotional difficulties it is likely that their behaviour was interfering with their learning and their relationships with others, as was reported by teachers' Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact Score. For example, young people with externalising behaviours not only interfere with other pupils but require more attention than other pupils, representing a strong focus of pupil teacher conflict (Drugli, Klokner & Larson, 2011). It is probable that the young people in this study were challenged by the educational system. Time away from the classroom and school in an environment designed to accommodate young people with social and emotional difficulties may therefore have influenced their responses.

A further factor may be related to the size of the group, or the number of young people that participated in each EFP session, which averaged three young people per session. The majority of DEIS classes have less than 20 young people in junior schools and twenty four young people in senior schools (Weir & McAvinue, 2012). Being in a group of between two or four young people with two facilitators potentially provided a staff pupil ratio of between 1:2 or 1:4. Where the equine specialist was involved, this ratio increased to between 1:1 or 1:2. The value of the small group was reported by five out of the eight young people, as they referred to and described this as a positive feature of the EFP. It is unclear how this higher level of attention and support may have affected the young peoples' emotional state of mind and their responses to the quantitative data collection at T₁ and T₂. However, the qualitative data provides a greater insight into the value of the EFP to young people for reasons other than the value of the small group size. The young people described a variety of EFP session activities and different emotional and

behavioural changes which they experienced over time, suggesting that the EFP as an intervention may be associated with positive changes rather than the group size in and of itself. Furthermore, of the five social and emotional areas examined significant changes were reported in two, again indicating that whilst the group size might have had some influence it may not have been a significant factor. Nonetheless, this element of an EFP is worthy of further research as it will help to isolate elements of the EFP that are associated with positive outcomes.

A further factor which may have impacted on the programme outcome is that of staff skills. To counter this a number of actions were put in place. Both staff were recruited to the programme based on the job specifications for the role of EFP facilitator and EFP equine specialist. In addition, initial training was provided to both staff in advance of the programme start date. The EFP facilitator was an occupational therapist with extensive experience of working with young people with disabilities and those from disadvantaged backgrounds. The equine specialist had an educational background in working with young people from disadvantaged backgrounds and extensive experience of working with equines. In addition, each programme followed a series of session plans and objectives ensuring a consistency of session delivery, as outlined in Section 4.4.1. Each session was followed by a debriefing which used a pre-set debriefing format (See Appendix B). Of particular relevance of this process is the section which refers to anything that may have happened during an EFP session that could have potentially affected one of the staff with this debriefing providing a forum to discuss such situations. A key benefit to the programme is that the same two staff were involved in the delivery of the EFP during the lifetime of the thesis.

9.6.3 *Absence of a Control Group*

The inclusion of a control group is generally considered a critical part of most research designs (Dehue, 2005; Godby, 2008). A small number of EFP studies have included a control group as part of the studies conducted to date. However, as discussed in Chapter 5, the inclusion of a control group was not considered feasible as there was no assurance that those on a waitlist would be able to participate in the EFP as a result of the referral of a young person with greater needs (Happner, Wampold and Owen, 2015).

Chapter 5 also presented the factors that can be applied to a study where there is no control group (Fitzpatrick-Lewis et al., 2009). As there was no control group involved, it is not possible to generalise the findings of the study, notwithstanding the contribution to the study discussed in the previous section. In addition, in drawing on the literature review in Chapter 5 on mixed methods, the Medical Research Council recommends a phased approach to evaluating complex interventions before conducting randomised control trials. In this context, the aim of the research was not to make generalisations but rather to first examine what is a relatively new intervention in an Irish context and second, to examine an EFP amongst a population not generally reflected in the literature.

9.6.4 *Acquiescence Bias*

Chapter 5 presented and discussed the different steps that were taken in order to avoid potential bias during both the planning and the data collection stages of the study. For example, the appointment of an independent research assistant ensured that there was no conflict of interest as the researcher of the current study was

also the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the organisation which provides the EFP. In addition, the research supervisors closely supervised the thematic analysis of the data by the researcher, ensuring any conflict of interest was managed. Despite this however, it was not possible to control the respondents as a potential source of bias, where such bias was intentional or unintentional. For example, whilst the independence of the research assistant was explained to the participants, it is possible that the young people, their parents and teachers gave the answers they thought she wanted to hear or, that giving the 'right' answers would ensure they could continue on the EFP. Furthermore, some of the interviewees may have found the interview questions difficult which could have affected either the brevity or content of their answers. For example, Ewing and colleagues (2007) reported that study findings may have been influenced by study participants' inability to fully comprehend questionnaires and a loss of concentration, for example in the case of young people with ADHD.

9.6.5 Conclusion

Despite the study limitations, the mixed methods used in the current study to address the study aim and objectives is a key strength of the study. In particular, Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie's (2003) 7 stage conceptualisation was used to integrate the quantitative and qualitative data into one coherent set, providing a better understanding of how EFPs can promote enhanced social and emotional well-being rather than using either a quantitative or qualitative approach. Consequently, the researcher's choices of research approaches were not restricted.

The involvement of the young people, parents and teachers is also considered to be

a strength of the study, and in particular how changes to the main study supported parental input to the study. The divergence, convergence and discrepancies of participants' reports were beneficial in a number of ways. First, they highlighted the different perspectives reported by each participant group thereby helping to understand how the young peoples' social and emotional difficulties impact on the young people and those around them. Second, and in relation to the data integration process, the converging views of each participant group were integrated into one coherent set. This is seen as adding strength to the findings. Third, it is in keeping with the underlying philosophy embedded within the School Support Programme of engaging parents in the education of son or daughter. It is also in keeping with best practices of involving young people not only in research (Balen et al., 2006) but also their involvement in contributing to interventions designed to improve their social and emotional wellbeing (McAuley, 2010; as cited in Smyth, 2015). Furthermore, the sample size and participant retention rate is a positive element of the study.

Whilst further studies will help to be able to generalise the findings across inner city and rural areas, the findings of the current study strongly suggest that they may be able to be generalised across similar DEIS primary and post primary schools. The limited young peoples' qualitative data was a challenge for the study. However, the overall integration of the data provided significant findings into the benefit of the EFP on the social and emotional well-being for young people affected by education inequality.

9.7. Implications for Practice and Policy

The findings of the current study have implications for those working with young people with social and emotional difficulties affected by educational inequality, in addition to education policy makers with responsibility for the School Completion Programme as part of the DEIS School Support Programme. The findings also have implications for providers of EFPs and those interested in conducting research into its effectiveness. The implications for practice and policy are discussed in the following sections.

9.7.1 Implications for Practice

The findings of this study have implications for EFPs designed to promote social and emotional well-being for this particular group of young people. A number of recommendations emerged from the study which could be considered for the future development of EFPs. The first area relates to the number of EFP sessions and how this may impact on the young peoples' social and emotional well-being. Many of the EFP studies reviewed are reported to take place between five to twelve weeks (Selby & Smith-Osborne, 2013), with the current study's time frame spanning eight weeks. Some of the young people and teachers suggested longer sessions or a longer timeframe for the EFP. As this suggestion was made on the basis of the young persons' social and emotional difficulties, EFPs could take the individual needs of the young person into consideration.

The second recommendation refers to more time and emphasis on the debriefing process which could address specific areas in the young persons' life where they could apply improvements in one or more of the five social and emotional

competencies. EFP session learning could help to generalise self-directed learning which has been learnt and practiced in EFP sessions. Goleman (1995) emphasises that emotional awareness, for example, can be learned whilst Fitzpatrick and Knowlton (2009) discuss how young people can transfer self-directed strategies to new settings. Such an approach may be helpful for transferring new skills from an EFP session to home or school life. For example, an EFP session might address teamwork, with the young person developing an insight into the need to listen to the views and opinions of other team members. Debriefing might then discuss how the young person could identify situations in which he could apply new learning either at home or in school. The young people described very clearly how self-regulation resulted in more positive outcomes during the EFP sessions. Debriefing could support the young people to consider ways of applying improvements in this area, for example, to school or home situations.

The third recommendation focuses on the content and time-frame for the EFP. The young people demonstrated considerable enthusiasm in learning about equine welfare and management and how they behave and interact with each other. This was also relayed to and reported by their parents and teachers. The role that this may have played in the findings is unclear. Future EFPs could review this aspect, especially in light of the rationale of including young people in research (Clay, Surgenor & Frampton, 2008), who, in this study, reported positively on the new knowledge of equines.

There are substantial variations between EFP content with no research to the authors knowledge of studies undertaken to examine how such variations may

impact on study findings. A review of EFPs illustrate the broad range of areas addressed including psychosocial functioning (Schultz, 2005) hope and depression (Frederick, Hatz & Lanning, 2015) and social competence (Pendry et al., 2013; Pendry et al., 2014). With social and emotional well-being identified as playing such a critical and essential role in the well-being of young people and its link to educational success (Weare, 2015), there is potential for EFPs to be standardised so that research can be carried out in order to understand the aspects of the intervention that might contribute to changes in social and emotional well-being. It may be a case that certain social and emotional competencies are acquired, or indeed, necessary before others which might lend support to a phased introduction of competency areas into the EFP. That the current study findings report significance in two of the five social and emotional competencies of self-awareness and relational skills supports consideration of a phased approach to EFPs.

9.7.2 Implications for Policy

DEIS is the national programme aimed at promoting educational equality. The School Completion Programme, as part of this multi-dimensional approach, supports young people with social and emotional difficulties affected by educational inequality and considered to be at risk of poor engagement with the educational system and/or early school leaving. To-date, to the author's knowledge, there have been no evaluations of the DEIS Support Programmes specifically in relation to its impact on a young person's social and emotional well-being, with this study representing the first evaluation of an intervention aimed at promoting the social and emotional well-being of young people attending DEIS primary and post primary schools. Findings suggest that the young people involved

in the EFP may be associated with improved social and emotional well-being.

As the EFP is provided to young people attending DEIS primary and post-primary schools, it is part of a bioecological approach to countering educational inequality. The range of additional supports for young people and their families was presented in Chapter 2. As such, the referral of the young people to the EFP is one part of the DEIS School Support Programme as a multi-dimensional and multi-faceted approach designed to reduce the scale of educational inequality. The EFP as one intervention aimed at reducing a young person's social and emotional difficulties would therefore appear to play an important part of the overall bioecological approach.

9.8. Recommendations for Future Research

This study has implications for future research in how EFPs as one alternative intervention, can potentially enhance the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. As previously discussed, mixed methods has not been a feature of EFP studies. The use of mixed methods in the current study reflects the increase in combining qualitative and quantitative studies (Farquhar, Ewing & Booth, 2011). It also highlighted how each approach yielded different but equally valuable findings (e.g. O' Cathain, Murphy & Nicholl, 2002). In order to continue to understand the potential of EFPs, mixed methods studies should be considered for future research. However, the present study highlighted the challenges involved in obtaining the young persons' qualitative data. Understanding the young persons' experience of the EFP and more critically understanding the mediating features of the EFP is an underdeveloped area.

Adopting an interpretative phenomenological study design is likely to gain a much deeper insight into the young peoples' experience of EFPs, particularly when done so against the theoretical framework discussed in Chapter 3.

As such, attention to using age-appropriate qualitative data collection methods should also be considered as part of future mixed methods studies. Additionally, consideration could be given to qualitative data collection after each EFP session to avoid difficulties that may be associated with the young person's memory recall at the end of a series of EFP sessions. The use of video recording, including reflective de-briefing sessions with the young people would greatly assist the young people to discuss their experiences based on both their experiences and in being able to observe and self-assess in reviewing video footage.

As discussed earlier in Chapter 1, the involvement of multiple informants in assessing young peoples' emotional and behavioural difficulties is customary (Clay, Surgenor & Frampton, 2008) where the involvement of young people is not only based on their right to be involved as an active participant, but can also contribute to the quality of the interventions being provided. Recent years have witnessed a departure from traditional approaches where a young persons' opinion may be interpreted just by adults. When involving young people as a multiple informant, there is an acknowledgement that young people are still growing and will likely have different opinions and views to adults with regard to what is important to them, and may disagree in their perception of their behaviour (Dirks, De Los Reyes, Briggs-Gowan, Cella, & Wakschlag, 2012). Findings of the current study illustrate this and highlight how the young peoples', parents' and teachers'

reports varied with regard to their perception of and relationship to various aspects of their social and emotional difficulties. Studies that include multiple informants are reported to provide a better understanding of interventions that may be difficult to measure (Bellocco, 2011). This has particular significance for EFP studies given the lack of understanding that currently exists. In addition, although the inclusion of multiple informants is reported in some EFP studies (Selby, 2009; Selby & Smith-Osborne, 2013) most studies rely on one respondent. With such gaps in the research, future studies should aim to include multiple informants.

While the current study reported on changes that may be associated with an EFP, it represents one example of a social and emotional learning intervention. Comparing EFPs with other social and emotional well-being learning interventions will be useful both in terms of cost efficiency and programme effectiveness. For example, the current School Support Programme supports young people with social and emotional difficulties. Future studies could consider an evaluation of the effectiveness of an EFP with alternative programmes that are currently available. Such studies could also include a cost benefit analysis as part of the study design.

Study findings indicate that the young people's self-awareness and ability to form positive relationships improved following participation in the EFP. Analyses of the data integration did not report the same positive changes in the areas of social awareness, self-management or responsible decision making. A focus of future studies could examine the existence of a hierarchy of social and emotional well-being competencies. This would allow a greater emphasis to be directed to the first foundation of the social and emotional competencies before moving to the

subsequent competencies.

There is a further need to develop a deeper understanding with regard to identifying which aspects of the EFP process may be associated with particular outcomes. Addressing this could be approached firstly by developing a manualised programme similar to that delivered by the organisation where the EFPs are delivered. Examining the impact of the EFP, the environment, the degree to which the reduced group size, may affect participant responses, the size of the equine are all aspects of the EFP which should be examined overtime in line with the Medical Research Council's recommendations for a phased approach to examining complex interventions.

However, this represents a major challenge. For example, some EFPs include riding and non-riding elements, others vary in their timeframe, while others take place in more than one setting. The degree of methodological diversity within EFPs makes comparisons difficult to measure. Reducing this diversity will help practitioners, researchers and policy makers identify which elements of an EFP may be attributed to certain outcomes, thereby making the referral process more transparent, effective and most appropriately suited to particular needs.

Whilst the present study addressed the necessary factors that can be applied in a study where there is no control group (Fitzpatrick-Lewis et al., 2009), the impact of EFPs will be enhanced by conducting randomised control trials. Finally, there is a dearth of longitudinal studies resulting in little evidence on the duration effect of EFPs despite the significant findings of some studies. With social and emotional

well-being cited as a key precursor to educational engagement (Durlak et al., 2004), measuring the longer term impact of EFPs designed to promote social and emotional well-being should be considered in future research. In an Irish context, it should be as much an integral part of the DEIS evaluation programme as other indicators currently used which include improvements in literacy levels, school attendance and numbers of young people remaining in school to complete the state exams. For example, future studies could examine the effectiveness of EFPs for young people transitioning from primary to post primary school particularly as this transition has been reported to be extremely challenging for young people with social and emotional difficulties. Conducting longitudinal studies as part of this could contribute to exploring the duration effect.

9.9. Conclusion

This study explored the impact of an EFP on the social and emotional well-being of young people affected by educational inequality. Findings suggest that the young peoples' participation in the EFP may be associated with enhanced social and emotional well-being. The findings of the present study contribute to the growing body of research that provides an insight into the impact of EFP on the young peoples' social and emotional well-being. This finding is also supported by a small number of EFP studies, though further studies are necessary to examine this in more detail.

The use of mixed methods contributed to interpreting the study findings and appears to be a particularly suitable approach for research in this area (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007), especially in the context of the current gaps in the literature and the absence of larger scale studies. The young peoples' accounts which provide particularly useful insights into their individual experiences, together with the parents and teachers observations, help to further the understanding of how EFPs can potentially benefit young people with social and emotional difficulties when integrated with the quantitative data. The inclusion of multiple informants provided rich and varied perspectives of the experiences and impact of the EFP. Collecting multiple perspectives will greatly help to develop a deeper understanding of EFPs.

Though the study of various theoretical frameworks has been studied to some degree in AAI, less attention has been given to their application in EFPs. Though this area will benefit from further research, the present study suggests that Social Cognitive Theory and Biophilia Hypothesis may have particular relevance for an

EFP for young people with social and emotional difficulties. Indeed, it is the combination of both theories which may hold most promise rather than exploring one theory independent of the other.

The prevalence of young people with social and emotional difficulties in Irish society is the focus of concern for young people, their families, communities, policy makers, educators and society in general. The findings of the current study make an important contribution to the understanding of the role of EFPs for young people with social and emotional difficulties affected by educational inequality. As such, the findings of the current study play an important role in understanding EFPs as one intervention, which may potentially support young people with social and emotional difficulties to engage more positively with their education.

I just felt like I could tell the horse what I want and he'd understand and if he

doesn't want to do that - he has his way of telling me


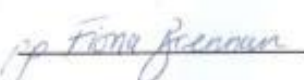

I'm more confident around horses and creatures and even humans now. I feel

more confident in school and around people

It was the best weeks of my life

Appendices

APPENDIX A. ETHICAL APPROVAL

	<p>Dublin City University Oifiscoil Chathair Bhaile Átha Cliath</p> <p>Office of the Vice-President for Research Dublin 9, Ireland</p>
<p>Dr. Gemma Kiernan School of Nursing 19th February 2009</p>	
<p>REC Reference:</p>	<p>DCUREC/2008/098</p>
<p>Proposal Title:</p>	<p>The impact of equine assisted learning as an intervention aimed at promoting psychological and social well-being amongst young people with behavioural issues</p>
<p>Applicants:</p>	<p>Dr. Gemma Kiernan, Dr. Suzanne Guerin. Ms. Jill Carey</p>
<p>Dear Gemma</p>	
<p>Further to clarification of the issues raised, the DCU Research Ethics Committee approves this research proposal. Should substantial modifications to the research protocol be required at a later stage, a further submission should be made to the REC.</p>	
<p>Yours sincerely,</p>	
<p> Mr. Brian Trench Chair DCU Research Ethics Committee</p>	
<p>Telephone: 153 (0)1 700 8000 Facsimile: 153 (0)1 700 0002 Email: research@dcu.ie Website: www.dcu.ie</p>	

APPENDIX B. EAL REFERRAL AND DEBRIEFING TEMPLATE

Date of Session:	Time :	Session No:
Participants: Staff:		
Horses:		
Reasons for referral		
Session Objective for this week:		
Activities:		
Equipment:		

Issues Covered: (possibilities): Relate to reasons for referral.

<i>Abandonment</i>	<i>Dignity</i>	<i>Integrity</i>	<i>Remorse</i>
<i>Abuse</i>	<i>Disappointment</i>	<i>Intention</i>	<i>Resentment</i>
<i>Aggression</i>	<i>Displacement</i>	<i>Interference</i>	<i>Resistance</i>
			<i>Respect</i>
<i>Agitation</i>	<i>Expression</i>	<i>Intuition</i>	<i>Responsibility</i>
<i>Altruism</i>	<i>Empathy</i>	<i>Jealousy</i>	<i>Restraint</i>
<i>Anger</i>	<i>Enthusiasm</i>	<i>Joy</i>	<i>Rewards</i>
<i>Anxiety</i>	<i>Envy</i>	<i>Justification</i>	<i>Risk</i>
<i>Apprehension</i>			
<i>Assertiveness</i>	<i>Energy</i>	<i>Leadership</i>	<i>Rituals</i>
<i>Atoning</i>	<i>Failure</i>	<i>Loss</i>	<i>Rivalry</i>
<i>Attachment</i>	<i>Fears</i>	<i>Love</i>	<i>Roles</i>
<i>Avoidance</i>	<i>Focus</i>	<i>Lying</i>	<i>Sadness</i>
<i>Balance</i>	<i>Honesty</i>	<i>Maturity</i>	<i>Safety</i>
<i>Betrayal</i>	<i>Honour</i>	<i>Modelling</i>	<i>Self-awareness</i>
<i>Bonding</i>	<i>Hope</i>	<i>Nervousness</i>	
		<i>Nurturing</i>	<i>Self-destructiveness</i>
<i>Boundaries</i>	<i>Hygiene</i>	<i>Pain</i>	<i>Self-esteem</i>
<i>Bribes</i>	<i>Identity</i>	<i>Patience</i>	<i>Self-reliance</i>
<i>Commitment</i>	<i>Immaturity</i>	<i>Planning</i>	<i>Separation</i>
<i>Communication</i>	<i>Individual Differences</i>	<i>Power</i>	<i>Strength</i>
<i>Compliance</i>	<i>Inhibitions</i>	<i>Pressure</i>	<i>Stress</i>
<i>Concentration</i>	<i>Injury</i>	<i>Pride</i>	<i>Sympathy</i>
<i>Confidence</i>	<i>Insight</i>	<i>Punishment</i>	<i>Tolerance</i>
<i>Confusion</i>	<i>Forgiveness</i>	<i>Purpose</i>	<i>Trust</i>
		<i>Perseverance</i>	<i>Team work</i>
<i>Control</i>	<i>Friendship</i>	<i>Rage</i>	<i>Understanding</i>
<i>Cooperation</i>	<i>Frustration</i>	<i>Rebellion</i>	<i>Validation</i>
<i>Danger</i>		<i>Relaxation</i>	
<i>Decision making</i>	<i>Goal Setting</i>	<i>Rejection</i>	<i>Values</i>
<i>Depression</i>	<i>Grief</i>	<i>Relationships</i>	<i>Violence</i>
<i>Detachment</i>	<i>Health</i>	<i>Release</i>	<i>Worthiness</i>

Presentation of group on arrival

<p>How did the activities respond to the session's objective? Describe what happened during the sessions: Use Language such as: The participants demonstrated <i>(Some examples: comprehension, sustained interest, attention, creativity, verbal support, camaraderie, established goals and outcomes, worked well together as a group, showed determination to complete their assigned tasks, with integrity and success, able to make good use of each group members' strength and weaknesses, emotions were freely expressed ... or ... appeared frustrated, lost interest, demonstrated difficulty with emotional control, expressed his/her need for, explores his/her values).</i></p> <p>Session Objectives this week:</p>

<p>Comments on horse/s behaviour Was the horses/s at liberty or have choices to disengage Reactions to the activities – reactions to the people General level of contentment with the session</p>
<p><u>Session Objectives-</u></p> <p><u>Plan for next week</u> What ... Horses Equipment.....</p>

Using the SPUDS acronym to record information

S SHIFT
P PATTERNS
U NIQUE
D ISCREPANCY
S ELF-AWARENESS : Facilitator
S ELF-AWARENESS : Horse advocate

APPENDIX C EFP WAIVER FORM

CONFIDENTIAL – Equine Assisted Learning Programme Waiver Form

First Name: Surname:

Address:

Phone: Mobile: Email:

DOB: Age:

Throughout the term the EAL group may leave the grounds of THE ORGANISATION in An organisations vehicle to feed our retired horses in Enniskerry. Do you give permission for your child to do this?

☐ YES ☐ NO

Name & contact details of person in the event of emergency:

Name: _____

LandlineTelephone No. _____

Mobile Telephone Number: _____

I acknowledge THAT BEING AROUND HORSES HOLDS A POTENTIAL DANGER and that all horses may react unpredictably on occasions. I understand working with ponies forms part of the Equine Facilitated Education Programme. I confirm that to the best of my knowledge all the above details are correct. A PARENT OR GUARDIAN of an EFEP participant under the age of 18 years must sign this form. I accept full responsibility for my child and confirm that the above details are correct.

DATA PROTECTION ACT: Statement: I understand that the information I have given will be held in accordance with the Data Protection Act, 1998 but may also be made available to Insurers and other parties in the event of injury or incident.

Signature: _____ Print Name: _____

Relationship to Rider: _____ Date: _____

Photograph Permission Slip: Please indicate:

I give / I do not give permission to Festina Lente to use photographs taken during the course of EFEP Sessions to promote Festina Lente.

APPENDIX D EXPLORATORY TWO WAY ANOVAs GENDER AND CASENESS

Two-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA for Young People, Parents and Teachers for Gender and Time *and* Caseness and Time

As stated at the start of the current chapter, Two-Way repeated measures ANOVAs were chosen to examine significant interactions between time and gender and time and caseness. Chapters 2 and 3 discussed how males are reported to experience a higher risk of social and emotional difficulties than females, placing them at further risk of educational inequality than females. As such, the study also sought to explore if there was a difference relating to time and gender.

Although, as outlined in Chapter 5, the young people referred to the EFP had been identified as having social and emotional difficulties, it was likely that there would be some variation across these difficulties, depending on their circumstances. Chapter 3 examined studies which suggest that EFPs, as indicated programmes, may be more effective for young people with higher levels of social emotional difficulties.

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Two-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA relating to Time and Gender for Young People, Parents and Teachers

Tables 32 below presents the descriptive statistics for the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire TD. Looking first to the higher order effect, there was no evidence of significant interactions between gender and time as reported by the young peoples', parents' or teachers' scores. Moving then to the lower order effects, Table 32 reports that that there was a significant difference for the Time effect in the parents' Total Difficulties scores, $F(2,48) = 3.45$, $p = .040$ and teachers' Total Difficulties score, F

(2.46) 4.64, $p = .015$, but not in the young persons' score.

Table 32. Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Total Mean Scores for Young People, their Parents and Teachers

Time interval	T ₁	T ₁	T ₁	T ₂	T ₂	T ₁	T ₃	T ₃	T ₁
Gender	Male	Fem	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
<i>SDQ total</i>	14.30	10.11	13.10	10.77	8.67	10.16	10.7	10.44	10.67
<i>Score YP</i>	(6.61)	(9.04)	(7.49)	(5.73)	(6.30)	(5.87)	(5.04)	(4.03)	(4.70)
<i>SDQ total</i>	14.21	12.86	13.85	12.53	12.53	11.81	11.47	9.85	11.03
<i>Score P's</i>	(7.57)	(9.28)	(7.89)	(7.28)	(7.26)	(7.18)	(6.97)	(8.25)	(7.20)
<i>SDQ total</i>	15.33	10.57	14.00	12.00	6.86	10.56	15.94	9.42	14.12
<i>Score</i>	(7.12)	(4.19)	(6.71)	(6.92)	(5.64)	(6.89)	(7.77)	(4.68)	(7.56)

Teachers

Scale	Interaction	Main effect time	Main effect gender	Pattern of Difference
<i>SDQ total</i>	F = .761, df =	F = 1.29, df =	F = 1.93, df = 1,29	
<i>Score YP</i>	2,58	2,58	p > 0.05	
	p > 0.05	p > 0.05		
<i>SDQ total</i>	F = .180, df =	F = 3.45, df =	F = .380, df = 1,24	T ₁ > T ₂
<i>Score Parents</i>	2,48	2,48	p > 0.05	
	p > 0.05	p < 0.05		
<i>SDQ total</i>	F = .257, df =	F = 4.64, df =	F = 4.40 df = 1,23	T ₁ > T ₂
<i>Score Teachers</i>	2,48	2,46	p = < 0.05	T ₂ < T ₂
	p = > 0.05	p = < 0.05		* Post hoc tests significant at 0.05

This reflects the result of the One-Way ANOVA reported earlier. Post-hoc tests on the parents' and teachers' TD scores also replicated the pattern of difference noted earlier, with parents' reports showing a significant decrease between T₁ and T₃, while teachers' reports highlighted an initial significant decrease, but a return to T₁ levels at T₃. Table 32 also reports the findings for the main effect of Gender for the three groups. There is no evidence of a significant difference for males and females as reported by Young People $F(1.93) = 1.59, p = .175$ and parents $F(3.80) = 1.23, p = .543$. However there was a significant difference in teachers' reports $F(4, 40) = 1.23, p = .047$. Examination of the mean scores suggests that overall teachers reported Males to score higher than Females on the Total Difficulties.

Table 32 above shows that there was no evidence of significant interaction between gender and time.

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire HYP Subscale for Young People, Parents and Teachers

Similar to the previous findings, there was no significant difference for the Time effect in the young persons', parents' or teachers scores, again reflecting the result of the One-Way ANOVA reported earlier. In reviewing the main effect of Gender, Table 33 below illustrates that there was no significant difference for Males or Females as reported by the Young Peoples', Parents' or Teachers' HYP subscale scores.

Table 33. Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Total mean scores for young people, their parents and teachers

Time interval	T ₁	T ₁	T ₁	T ₂	T ₂	T ₂	T ₃	T ₃	T ₃
Gender	Male M (SD)	Female M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Male M (SD)	Female M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Male M (SD)	Female M (SD)	Total M (SD)
SDQ Hyperactivity Subscale YP	5.71 (3.33)	5.86 (3.97)	5.75 (3.44)	5.47 (3.67)	4.86 (2.91)	5.29 (3.42)	4.82 (3.28)	4.57 (3.55)	4.75 (3.28)
SDQ Hyperactivity Subscale Ps	5.71 (3.33)	5.86 (3.97)	5.75 (3.44)	5.47 (3.67)	4.86 (2.91)	5.29 (3.42)	4.82 (3.28)	4.57 (3.55)	4.75 (3.28)
SDQ Hyperactivity Subscale Ts	5.94 (2.93)	3.57 (1.81)	5.22 (2.82)	4.69 (2.93)	2.71 (2.69)	4.09 (2.95)	5.50 (2.78)	3.42 (2.82)	4.86 (2.89)
Scale	Interaction			Main effect time			Main effect gender		
SDQ Subscale HYP YP	F = 3.09, df = 2,74 p = > 0.05			F = .019, df = 2,74 p = > 0.05			F = .030, df = 1,37 p = > 0.05		
SDQ Subscale HYP Ps	F = 1.00 df = 2,52 p = > 0.05			F = .077, df = 2,52 p = > 0.05			F = 2.93, df = 1,26 P = > 0.05		
SDQ Subscale HYP Ts	F = .058, df = 2,42 p = > 0.05			F = 1.63, df = 2,42 p = > 0.05			F = 4.15, df = 1,21 p = > 0.05		

Table 33 above shows that there was no evidence of significant interaction between Gender and Time for any of the groups. In reviewing the Time effect in the young persons', parents' or teachers' scores, there was no significant difference, again reflecting

the result of the One-Way ANOVA reported earlier. Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire CON subscales young people, parents and teachers

In reviewing the main effect for Gender, Table 34 shows that there was no significant difference for Males or Females as reported by the Young Peoples', Parents' or Teachers' CON subscale scores.

Table 34. Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire CON Subscale for Young People, Parents and Teachers

Time interval	T1	T1	T1	T2	T2	T2	T3	T3	T3
Gender	<i>Male</i> <i>M</i> <i>(SD)</i>	<i>Fem</i> <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>Total</i> <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>Male</i> <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>Female</i> <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>Total</i> <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>Male</i> <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>Female</i> <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>Total</i> <i>M (SD)</i>
Conduct Disorder Subscale YP	2.93 (2.30)	2.50 (1.83)	2.79 (2.15)	2.52 (2.29)	1.92 (1.62)	2.33 (2.10)	2.48 (1.98)	2.16 (1.58)	2.38 (1.85)
Conduct Disorder Subscale Ts	2.32 (2.62)	2.29 (2.05)	2.31 (2.44)	2.05 (2.36)	1.86 (2.34)	2.00 (2.31)	2.05 (2.36)	.857 (1.46)	1.73 (2.20)
Conduct Disorder	2.57 (2.56)	1.14 (1.21)	2.10 (2.27)	2.21 (2.77)	.71 (1.11)	1.71 (2.43)	2.07 (2.89)	.571 (1.511)	1.57 (2.58)
Scale	Interaction			Main effect time			Main effect gender		
<i>CON Problems YP</i>	F = .132, df = 2,74 p > 0.05			F = 1.71, df = 2,74 p > 0.05			F = .494, df = 1,37 p > 0.05		
<i>CON Problems Ps</i>	F = 1.31, df = 2,48 p > 0.05			F = 2.39, df = 2,48 p > 0.05			F = .256, df = 1,24 p > 0.05		
<i>CON Problems Ts</i>	F = .010, df = 2,38 p > 0.05			F = 1.80, df = 2,38 p > 0.05			F = 1.96, df = 1,19 p > 0.05		

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire PRO Subscale for Young Peoples', Parents' and Teachers' Reports

As can be seen from Table 35 below, there was no evidence of a significant interaction between gender and time for the young people, their parents or teachers. In reviewing the lower order effects, Table 35 reports that there was a significant difference for the Time effect in the teachers' PRO score, $F(2,44) = 6.95$, $p = .002$, but not in the young

peoples' or parents' PRO scores, again reflecting the result of the One-Way ANOVA. Post-hoc tests on the teachers' PRO scores report significant difference between T1 and T2, and T1 and T3.

Table 35. Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire PRO Subscales Young People, Parents and Teachers

Time interval	T1	T1	T1	T2	T2	T2	T3	T3	T3
Gender	<i>Male</i>	<i>Fem</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>M</i>
	(<i>SD</i>)	(<i>SD</i>)	(<i>SD</i>)	(<i>SD</i>)	(<i>SD</i>)	(<i>SD</i>)	(<i>SD</i>)	(<i>SD</i>)	(<i>SD</i>)
SDQ YP	8.00	8.90	8.22	7.47	8.80	7.80	7.76	9.10	8.10
Prosocial Subscale	(1.91)	(1.52)	(1.84)	(2.19)	(1.93)	(2.18)	(1.77)	(1.37)	(1.76)
SDQ P's	8.16	8.43	8.23	8.32	9.00	8.50	8.52	8.71	8.57
Prosocial Subscale	(2.73)	(2.63)	(2.65)	(2.13)	(1.82)	(2.04)	(1.95)	(1.60)	(1.83)
SDQ T's	6.37	7.63	6.79	7.38	9.25	8.00	8.00	9.50	8.50
Prosocial Subscale	(2.52)	(2.56)	(2.55)	(2.18)	(1.38)	(2.12)	(2.22)	(1.06)	(2.02)
Scale	Interaction		Main Effect time		Main effect gender		Pattern of difference		
<i>SDQ Subscale PRO YP</i>	F = .269, df = 2,76	p > 0.05	F = .546, df = 2,76	p > 0.05	F = 4.38, df = 1,38	p > 0.05			
<i>SDQ Subscale Prosocial Parents</i>	F = .365, df = 2,48	p > 0.05	F = .831, df = 2,48	p > 0.05	F = .170, df = 1,24	p > 0.05			
<i>SDQ Subscale Prosocial Teachers</i>	F = .207, df = 2,44	p = > 0.05	F = 6.95, df = 2,44	p = < 0.05	F = 4.24, df = 1,22	p = > 0.05	T ₁ > T ₂ T ₁ > T ₃		
							<i>Post hoc tests significant at 0.05</i>		

Table 35 also shows that there was no significant difference for the Gender effect for Males or Females as reported by the Young Peoples', Parents' or Teachers' scores.

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Peer Problem Subscale for Young People, Parents and Teachers

Tables 36 below presents the descriptive statistics for the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Peer Problem subscale. Looking first to the higher order effect, there was no evidence of a significant interaction between genders as reported by the young peoples', parents' or teachers' reports. Moving then to the lower order effects, Table 36 reports that there was a significant difference for the Time effect in the parents' $F(2,48) = 3.57, p = .026$ and teachers' score, $F(2,46) = 7.72, p = .001$, again reflecting the result of the One-Way ANOVA reported earlier in this chapter. Post-hoc tests on the parents' and teachers' TD scores also replicated the pattern of difference noted earlier, with parent reports reporting a significance between T1 and T2, and T1 and T3, and teachers' reports reporting a significant difference between T1 to T2, and T1 to T3. Whilst the teachers' scores reported an initial significant decrease, there was a return to T1 levels at T3 and a decrease over time in the male and female mean scores.

Table 36 below shows that there was no significant difference for the Gender effect for Males or Females as reported by the young peoples', parents' or teachers' PP subscale scores.

Table 36. Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire PRO Subscales Young People, Parents and Teachers

Time interval	T1	T1	T1	T2	T2	T2	T3	T3	T3
Gender	Male M (SD)	Fem M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Male M (SD)	Female M (SD) (SD)	Total M (SD)	Male M (SD)	Female M (SD) (SD)	Total M (SD)
SDQ YP Peer Problems Subscale	1.89 (1.93)	1.67 (1.58)	1.84 (1.83)	1.54 (1.75)	1.67 (1.80)	1.57 (1.74)	1.50 (1.64)	(1.33) (1.58)	1.45 (1.60)
SDQ P s Peer Problems Subscale	2.53 (2.29)	1.71 (2.36)	2.31 (2.29)	1.84 (2.06)	.57 (.53)	1.50 (1.83)	1.84 (1.83)	1.61 (1.00)	1.61 (1.67)
SDQ T s Peer Problems Subscale	3.22 (1.66)	2.43 (2.14)	3.00 (1.80)	2.28 (2.05)	.86 (1.86)	1.88 (2.06)	3.16 (2.12)	1.71 (1.97)	2.76 (2.14)
Scale	Interaction		Main effect time		Main gender effect		Pattern of difference		
<i>SDQ Subscale PP YP</i>	F = .148, df = 2,70 p > 0.05		F = .533, df = 2,70 p > 0.05		F = .005 df = 1,35 p > 0.05				
<i>SDQ Subscale PP Parents</i>	F = .258, df = 2,48 p > 0.05		F = 3.57, df = 2,48 p < 0.05		F = .002 df = 1,24 p > 0.05 T1 > T2 T1 > T3				
<i>SDQ Subscale PP Teachers</i>	F = .641, df = 2,46 p = > 0.05		F = 7.72, df = 2,46 p = < 0.05		F = .960 df = 1,23 p = > 0.05 T1 > T2 T1 < T3				
Post hoc tests significant at 0.05									

The descriptive statistics for the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Emotional subscale are presented in Table 37 below.

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Emotional Subscale for Young People, Parents and Teachers

Table 37 Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Emotional Subscales for Young People, Parents and Teachers

Time interval	T1	T1	T1	T2	T2	T2	T3	T3	T3
Gender	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M</i>
	<i>(SD)</i>		<i>(SD)</i>	<i>(SD)</i>		<i>(SD)</i>	<i>(SD)</i>		<i>(SD)</i>
SDQ YP	2.68	4.00	3.00	2.36	3.00	2.51	2.39	3.66	2.71
EMOT									
Subscale	(2.35)	(2.50)	(2.42)	(2.11)	(2.06)	(2.09)	(2.13)	(3.16)	(2.43)
SDQ	4.26	3.50	4.08	3.63	1.83	3.20	3.15	3.33	3.20
Parents									
EMO	(2.96)	(3.93)	(3.14)	(2.29)	(1.94)	(2.46)	(2.83)	(3.55)	(2.94)
Subscale									
SDQ	4.50	3.25	4.08	3.63	2.50	3.25	4.37	3.50	4.08
Teachers									
EMOT	(3.03)	(3.05)	(3.03)	(2.96)	(1.92)	2.67)	(2.98)	(2.26)	(2.74)
Subscale									
Scale	Interaction			Main effect time			Main effect gender		
SDQ	EMOT	F=.553, df = 2,70			F= 1.68, df = 2,70			F = 1.92, df = 1,3	
Subscale YP		P > 0.05			P > 0.05			P < 0.05	
SDQ	EMOT	F=1.72, df = 2,46			F= 2.33,df = 2,46			F = .437,df = 1,23	
Subscale P		P > 0.05			P > 0.05			P < 0.05	
SDQ	EMOT	F=.059, df = 2,44			F = 1,54,df = 2,44			F = 1.06, df = 1.22	
Subscale T		P > 0.05			P > 0.05			P < 0.05	

Again, looking first to the higher order effect, there was no evidence of significant interaction between genders as reported by the young peoples', parents' or teachers' scores. Moving to the lower order effects, Table 37 reports that that there was no significant difference for the Time effect in the young peoples' parents' or teachers' scores. Table 37 also reports the findings for the main effect of Gender for the three groups which show a significant difference for males and females as reported by the young people, $F(1,68) = 2,70$, $p = 1.74$, parents $F(2,33) = 2,46$, $p = .515$ and teachers $F(1,54) = 2,44$, $p = .312$. However, as cell counts fell below the basic rate of ten per cell for the young peoples' parents' and teachers' scores, these analyses were excluded due to concerns about the validity of the analyses.

Table 38 below presents the descriptive statistics for the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact Supplement scores.

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact Supplement

Table 38 Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact Supplement Subscales for Young People, Parents and Teachers

Time interval	T1	T1	T1	T2	T2	T2	T3	T3	T3
Gender	Male M (SD)	Female M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Male M (SD)	Female M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Male M (SD)	Female M (SD)	Total M (SD)
SDQ Impact YP	.600 (.547)	.666 (1.15)	.625 (.744)	.800 (1.30)	1.00 (.000)	.875 (.991)	.600 (.547)	2.00 (1.73)	1.12 (1.24)
SDQ Impact P's	4.83 (3.76)	-	4.83 (3.76)	4.83 (2.85)	-	4.83 (2.85)	4.16 (1.72)	-	4.16 (1.72)
SDQ Impact T's	3.87 (1.55)	1..25 (1.25)	3.00 (1.28)	2.75 (1.28)	1.00 (.816)	2.16 (1.40)	2.12 (1.35)	.250 (.500)	1.50 (1.44)
Scale	Interaction			Main effect time		Main effect gender		Pattern of difference	
SDQ Impact YP	F= 1.35 df = 2,12 P > 0.05			F= 1,12 df = 2,12 P > 0.05		F = 1.17 df = 1,6 P > 0.05			
SDQ Impact Subscale P	F = 0, df = 2,20 P > 0.05			F = .255, df = 2,10 P > 0.05		F = 0, df = 1,5 P > 0.05			
SDQ Impact T	F = .545, df = 2,20 P = > 0.05			F = 4.60, df = 2,20 P = < 0.05		F = 12.94, df = 1,10 P = < 0.05		T ₁ >T ₂	
									Post hoc tests significant at 0.05

As illustrated in Table 38, there was no evidence of significant interaction between gender and time as reported by the young peoples', parents' or teachers' scores. Moving to the lower order effects, there was a significant difference for the Time effect in the teachers' Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact scores, $F(4.60) = 2, 20, p = .023$ but not on the young peoples' score $F(1.12) = 2, 12, p = .356$ or the parents' score $F(.255) = 2, 10, p = .780$. Post hoc tests on the teachers' scores reported significance between T1 and T3 but not between T1 and T2 or between T2 and T3, suggesting that the young peoples' difficulties impacted less on their classroom learning and peer relationships

since their participation in the EFP. Table 38 also illustrates the main effect of Gender. There was a significant difference in the teachers Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire impact score $F(12.94) = 1, 10, p = .005$ but not on the young persons' score $F(1.17) = 1, 6, p = .321$ or the parents' score $F(0) = 1, 15, p = -.1$. Examination of the teachers' mean scores indicate that overall teachers reported males to score higher than females at T1 and T2 with females scoring higher at T3.

Interim Summary

Two-Way repeated measures ANOVAs were used to examine if there was a significant interaction between time and gender as current literature reports that males experience a higher risk of social and emotional difficulties than females, placing them at greater risk of educational inequality than females. Table 39 below presents a summary of the significant differences for Time and Gender effects as reported by the young peoples', parents' and teachers' scores. Cell counts that fell below the basic rate of ten per cell were excluded due to concerns about the validity of the analysis. As such, reporting of patterns that did not meet this criterion were excluded and are bolded. Table 39 below shows that by applying this rule it excludes all reported significant differences for the Time and Gender effect.

Table 39 Summary of Significant Differences for Time and Gender

Measure	Young Person		Parents		Teacher	
	Time	Gender	Time	Gender	Time	Gender
SDQ total			T ₁ > T ₃		T ₁ > T ₂ T ₁ < T ₂	Males higher than Females
PRO					T ₁ > T ₂ T ₁ > T ₃	
PP			T ₁ > T ₂ T ₁ > T ₃		T ₁ > T ₂ T ₁ < T ₂	
EMOT		Females higher than Males		Males higher than Females		Males higher than Females
HYP						
CON						
SDQ Impact Supplement					T ₁ > T ₃	Males higher than Females

The Two-Way ANOVAs showed that there was no evidence of significant interactions between gender and time as reported by the young peoples', parents' or teachers' scores, suggesting that there was no significant difference between the males and females in the current study. In reviewing the findings for the main effect of Time, the Two-Way ANOVAs reflected the results of the result of the One-Way ANOVA reported earlier. There was no significant difference for the Time effect in the young persons' scores.

The next section will examine the Two-Way ANOVAs for the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total and subscale scores for the young people, parents and teachers by gender.

Two-Way Repeated Measures ANOVAs: Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Total scores for Young People, Parents and Teachers

Table 40 below presents the descriptive statistics for the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total score at T₁, T₂ and T₃ by gender.

Table 40. Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Total Score for Young People, Parents and Teachers

Time interval	T1	T1	T1	T2	T2	T2	T3	T3	T3
Gender	Male M (SD)	Female M (SD)	Total M(SD)	Male M (SD)	Female M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Male M (SD)	Female M (SD)	Total M (SD)
Yarpet Total Score YP	5.82 (.862)	5.28 (.915)	5.62 (.902)	6.00 .812	5.42 (.866)	5.78 (.863)	6.31 (.786)	5.49 (.728)	6.00 (.850)
Yarpet Total Score Parents	5.08 (1.27)	6.88 (.269)	5.53 (1.36)	5.03 (1.62)	5.86 (1.05)	5.24 (1.50)	5.62 (.591)	5.98 (.734)	5.71 (.614)
Yarpet Total Score Teachers	4.03 (1.44)	4.51 (.731)	4.23 (1.18)	5.30 (2.00)	6.65 (.987)	5.86 (1.74)	5.19 (1.34)	5.71 (.930)	5.41 (1.17)
Scale	Interaction		Main effect time		Main effect gender		Pattern of difference		
Yar-pet Total YP	F=.721, df = 2,44 P > 0.05		F= 3,87, df = 2,44 P < 0.05*		F = 4,11, df = 1,22 P > 0.05		T ₁ < T ₃		
Yar-pet Total P	F=1.78, df = 2,20 P > 0.05		F= .964,df = 2,20 P > 0.05		F = 2,47,df = 1,10 P > 0.05				
Yar-pet Total T	F= .953, df = 2,20 P > 0.05		F = 11.9154,df = 2,24 P < 0.05*		F = 1.28, df = 1,10 P < 0.05		T ₁ < T ₂ T ₁ < T ₃ Post hoc tests significant at 0.05		

Looking to the higher order effect, there was no evidence of significant interactions between genders as reported by the young peoples', parents' or teachers' scores. In reviewing the lower order effects, Table 40 shows that there was a significant difference for the Time effect in the young persons' scores, $F(2, 44) = 3.87$, $p = .028$, again reflecting the result of the One-Way ANOVA reported earlier. Post-hoc tests on the young persons' scores reported significance between T1 and T3. Mean scores indicate there were significant increases between T1 and T3. Table 40 also shows that there was a significant difference for the Time effect in the teachers' scores, $F(2, 20) = 11.91$, $p = .000$. The teachers' Post-hoc scores tests reported significance between T₁ and T₂, and T₁ and T₃ with the mean scores suggesting a significant increase between T₁ and T₂, and T₁ and T₃. There was no significant difference for the Time effect in the parents' scores. Table 40 also reports the findings for the main effect of Gender for the three groups.

There was no evidence of a significant difference for males and females as reported by Young People $F(4, 11) = 1, 22, p = .078$ and parents $F(2, 47) = 1, 10, p = .710$. However there was a significant difference in Teachers' reports $F(1.28) = 1, 10 p = .002$ with teachers' scores at T1 less than T2, but T1 higher T3. Examination of the mean scores suggests that overall teachers' scores reported Males to score higher than Females on the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total score suggesting that Males have more social and emotional difficulties.

Table 41 below presents the descriptive statistics for the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool PO subscale scores

Table 41. Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool PO Subscales for young people, parents and teacher

Time interval	T ₁	T ₁	T ₁	T ₂	T ₂	T ₂	T ₃	T ₃	T ₃
Gender	<i>Male M (SD)</i>	<i>Female M (SD)</i>	<i>Total M (SD)</i>	<i>Male M (SD)</i>	<i>Female M (SD)</i>	<i>Total M (SD)</i>	<i>Male M (SD)</i>	<i>Female M (SD)</i>	<i>Total M (SD)</i>
Yar-pet PO YP Subscale score	5.55 (.900)	5.09 (1.02)	5.40 (.952)	5.76 (.864)	5.23 (.976)	5.58 (.922)	5.87 (.779)	5.17 (.777)	5.63 (.836)
Yar-pet PO P Subscale	4.06 (.783)	3.62 (1.40)	3.89 (1.03)	4.84 (1.01)	4.64 (1.44)	4.76 (1.44)	4.91 (.826)	4.77 (2.12)	4.86 (1.38)
Yar-pet PO T Subscale	3.59 (1.62)	4.02 (.742)	3.74 (1.35)	4.70 (1.86)	6.31 (.783)	5.27 (1.72)	4.75 (1.41)	5.35 (1.05)	4.96 (1.28)
Scale	Interaction		Main effect time		Main effect gender		Pattern of difference		
Yar-pet PO Subscale score	F = .511, df = 2,56 p = > 0.05		F = 1.48, df = 2,56 p = > 0.05		F = 3.35, df = 1,28 p = > 0.05				
Yar-pet PO Subscale P	F = .155, df = 2,22 p = > 0.05		F = 7.11, df = 2,22 p = > 0.05		F = .145, df = 1,11 p = > 0.05				
Yar-pet PO Subscale T	F = 1.73, df = 2,24 p = > 0.05		F = 13.29, df = 2,,24 p = < 0.05*		F = 1.60, df = 1,12 p = > 0.05		T ₁ <T ₂ T ₁ <T ₃		
Post hoc tests significant at 0.05									

In reviewing the higher order effect, there was no evidence of significant interaction

between gender and time as reported by the young peoples', parents' or teachers' scores. In reviewing the lower order effects, Table 41 reported significant differences in the teachers' PO subscale score, $F(2, 24) = 13.29$ $p = .000$, but not in the parents' or young persons' score, reflecting the result of the One-Way ANOVA. Post-hoc testing on the teachers' PO score showed a significant difference between T1 and T2, and T1 and T3 with a review of the mean score suggesting significant increases over time.

Table 41 also reports the findings for the main effect of Gender for the three groups. There is no evidence of a significant difference for males and females as reported by young peoples', parents' or teachers' scores.

Table 42 below presents the descriptive statistics for the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool SO.

Table 242 Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool SO Subscales for young people, parents and teachers

Time interval	T1	T1	T1	T2	T2	T2	T3	T3	T3
	Male M (SD)	Female M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Male M (SD)	Female M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Male M (SD)	Female M (SD)	Total M (SD)
Yar-pet YP SO Subscale	6.08 (1.07)	6.00 (1.23)	6.05 (1.11)	6.21 (1.10)	6.24 (1.17)	6.22 (1.11)	6.49 (.969)	6.34 (.961)	6.43 (.953)
Yar-pet P's SO Subscale	5.84 (1.55)	5.83 (1.42)	5.83 (1.48)	5.84 (1.55)	5.83 (1.42)	5.83 (1.48)	5.79 (1.58)	6.01 (1.27)	5.87 (1.14)
Yar-pet SO T's Subscale	3.92 (1.53)	4.97 (.956)	4.25 (1.43)	4.86 (2.26)	6.83 (1.29)	5.51 (2.17)	4.47 (1.93)	5.88 (.922)	4.94 (1.77)
Scale	Interaction		Main effect time		Main effect gender		Pattern of difference		
Yarpet SO Subscale YP	F = .253 df = 2,58 p = > 0.05		F = 3.611 df = 2,58 p = < 0.05		F = .032 df = 1,29 p = > 0.05		T ₁ < T ₃		
Yarpet SO Subscale P	F = .429, df = 2,50 p = > 0.05		F = .154, df = 2,50 p = > 0.05		F = .013 df = 1,25 p = > 0.05				
Yarpet SO T Subscale Total	F = .821, df = 2,32 p = > 0.05		F = 7.87, df = 2,32 p = < 0.05*		F = 3.91, df = 1,16 p = > 0.05		T ₁ < T ₂		
							Post hoc tests significant at 0.05		

Looking first to the higher order effect, there was no evidence of significant interactions between gender and time, as reported by the young peoples', parents' or teacher' scores. Moving to the lower order effects, Table 42 reports that that there was a significant difference for the Time effect in the young peoples' Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool SO scores $F(3.611) = 2,58, p = .032$ and teachers' Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool SO scores $F(7,87) = 2,32, p = .000$, but not in the parents scores $F(1.54) = 2,50, p = .857$. Post-hoc tests on the young peoples' scores reports significance between T1 and T3 with the mean score suggesting a significant increase between T1 and T3. Post-hoc tests on the teachers scores reported significance between T1 and T2 and similar to the young peoples' mean score, suggesting a significant

increase between time points. These findings reflect the result of the One-Way ANOVAs. Table 42 also reports the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool SO subscale findings for the main effect of Gender for the three groups which shows there was no significant difference for the Time effect in the young persons', parents' or teachers' scores.

Table 43 below presents the descriptive statistics for the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool EO and shows that there was no evidence of significant interactions between gender as reported by the young people, parents or teachers'.

Table 43. Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool EO Subscale for young people, parents and teachers

Time interval	T ₁	T ₁	T ₁	T ₂	T ₂	T ₂	T ₃	T ₃	T ₃
Gender	Male <i>M (SD)</i>	Female <i>M (SD)</i>	Total <i>M (SD)</i>	Male <i>M (SD)</i>	Female <i>M (SD)</i>	Total <i>M (SD)</i>	Male <i>M (SD)</i>	Female <i>M (SD)</i>	Total <i>M (SD)</i>
Yarpet EO YP Subscale	5.60 (1.61)	4.81 (.792)	5.35 (1.44)	5.41 (1.80)	5.41 (1.80)	5.28 (1.60)	5.50 (1.88)	4.75 (1.70)	5.27 (1.83)
Yarpet EO P's Subscale	4.50 (2.19)	5.37 (2.48)	4.75 (2.27)	4.50 (2.19)	5.37 (2.48)	4.75 (2.27)	4.97 (2.13)	4.81 (2.08)	4.92 (2.08)
Yarpet EO T's Subscale	4.03 (2.43)	6.91 (1.02)	4.90 (2.48)	4.03 (2.43)	6.91 (1.02)	4.90 (2.48)	4.39 (2.63)	7.16 (.408)	5.22 (2.54)
Scale	Interaction			Main effect time			Main effect gender		
Yarpet EO Subscale YP	F = .772, df = 2,54 p > 0.05			F = 117.16, df = 2.54 p > 0.05			F = 1.22, df = 1,27 p > 0.05		
Yarpet EO Subscale P	F = 3.55, df = 2,52 p > 0.05			F = .025, df = 2,52 p > 0.05			F = .350, df = 1,26 p > 0.05		
Yarpet EO Subscale T	F = .035, df = 2,36 p > 0.05			F = 1.11, df = 2,36 p > 0.05			F = 7.68, df = 1,18 p > 0.05		

Moving then to the lower order effects, Table 43 reports that that there was no significant difference for the Time effect in the parents' Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool EO subscale, again reflecting the result of the One-Way ANOVA reported earlier. Table 43 also reports the findings for the main effect

of Gender for the three groups which shows there is no evidence of a significant difference for males and females as reported by the young peoples', the parents' or teachers' scores.

Table 44 below presents the descriptive statistics for the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total and subscale score.

Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale Total and Subscale for Young People

Table 44 Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale Total and Subscale scores

Time interval	T1	T1	T1	T2	T2	T2	T3	T3	T3
Gender	Male Mean (SD)	Fem Mean (SD)	Total Mean (SD)	Male Mean (SD)	Female Mean (SD)	Total Mean (SD)	Male Mean (SD)	Female Mean (SD)	Total Mean (SD)
PH Total Score	50.45 (6.72)	46.79 (9.62)	49.36 (7.77)	53.82 (11.70)	48.50 (11.33)	52.23 (10.29)	53.52 (11.70)	46.07 (12.80)	51.30 (12.39)
BA	11.71 (2.79)	13.00 (1.63)	12.13 (2.25)	12.29 (2.28)	12.50 (2.75)	12.35 (2.40)	12.52 (2.20)	12.80 (2.48)	12.61 (2.26)
INT	13.08 (2.72)	10.40 (4.07)	12.33 (3.25)	13.23 (2.35)	10.00 (4.30)	12.33 (3.23)	13.92 (2.29)	10.60 (3.31)	13.00 (2.89)
PHY	8.26 (2.37)	8.00 (1.26)	8.20 (2.14)	9.32 (1.70)	7.67 (1.75)	8.92 (1.8)	9.47 (2.06)	7.67 (2.06)	9.04 (2.30)
FRE	11.00 (2.34)	9.57 (3.30)	10.70 (2.59)	11.62 (2.81)	10.57 (2.82)	11.39 (2.80)	11.96 (2.28)	9.43 (3.30)	11.42 (2.69)
POP	9.32 (1.93)	9.43 (1.52)	9.34 (1.82)	10.48 (1.68)	9.43 (1.61)	10.25 (1.70)	10.52 (1.32)	9.14 (2.03)	10.22 (1.58)
HAP	9.32 (1.93)	9.43 (1.51)	9.34 (1.82)	10.48 (1.68)	9.43 (1.61)	10.25 (1.70)	10.52 (1.32)	9.14 (2.03)	10.22 (1.58)
Scale	Interaction			Main effect time			Main effect gender		
PH Total Score YP	F = 1.135 df = 2,90 p > 0.05			F = 2.046, df = 2,90 p > 0.05			F = 3.626 df = 1,45 p > 0.05		
BEH	F = 1.91, df = 2,58 p > 0.05			F = .588, df = 2,58 p > 0.05			F = 4.78, df = 1,29 p > 0.05		
INT	F = .202, df = 2,32 p > 0.05			F = .780. df = 2,32 p > 0.05			F = 5.02, df = 1,16 p = < 0.05		
PHY	F = 2.07, df = 2,46 p > 0.05			F = .627, df = 2,46 p > 0.05			F = 2.23, df = 1,23 p = > 0.05		
FRE	F = 1.58, df = 2,62 p > 0.05			F = 1.73, df = 2,62 p > 0.05			F = 2.76, df = 1,31 p = > 0.05		
POP	F = 2.62, df = 2,60 p > 0.05			F = 1.61, df = 2,60 p > 0.05			F = 1.64, df = 1,30 p = > 0.05		
HAP	F = 1.11, df = 2,54 p = > 0.05			F = 2.92, df = 2,54 p > 0.05			F = .001, df = 1,27 p = > 0.05		

Looking first to the higher order effect, there was no evidence of significant interactions between gender and time as reported by the young people. Moving then to the lower

order effects, Table 44 above reports that there was no significant difference for the Time effect in the young peoples' Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total and subscale scores. This is the first time that the Two- Way ANOVAs did not replicate the findings of the One-Way ANOVAs.

Table 44 also reports the findings for the main effect of Gender. There was a significant difference in the young peoples' INT subscale $F(5.02) = 1,16, p = .040$. However, there was no significant difference in the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total, BEH, PHY, FRE, POP or HAP subscale scores. Examination of the mean scores suggests that overall the young people reported Males to score higher than Females on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale INT subscale score.

Interim summary

Table 45 below presents a summary of the significant differences for Time and Gender effects as reported by the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool and Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total and subscales for young peoples', parents' and teachers' scores. As there was no significant interaction between Time and Gender, Table 45 reports on the main effect for Time and the main effect for Gender.

Table 45 Summary of Significant Differences for Time and Gender

Measure	Young Person		Parents		Teacher	
	Time	Gender	Time	Gender	Time	Gender
Yar-Pet Total	T₁ < T₃				T₁ < T₂ T₁ < T₃	Males higher than Females
PO					T₁ < T₂ T₁ < T₃ T₁ < T₂	
SO	T₁ < T₃					
PH						
Score						
BA						
INT						
PHY						
FRE						
POP						
HAP						

A review of the Two-Way repeated measures ANOVA shows that there was no evidence of significant interaction between Gender and Time as reported by the young peoples', parents' or teachers' scores. These findings replicate the findings in the previous section which suggest that there is no significant difference between the males and females in the present study. Possible reasons for this are discussed in Chapter 9.

In reviewing the findings for the main effect of Time, the Two-Way Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total and subscale ANOVAs reflected the results of the result of the One-Way ANOVA reported earlier. However, as illustrated in Table 45, there was no significant difference for the Time effect in the young peoples' Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total and subscale scores in comparison to the One-Way ANOVAs for the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total, PHY, POP or HAP subscale scores which reported a significant difference. Table 45 also shows the patterns that did not meet the criterion of ten or more in each cell count and as such are excluded.

There was significant difference reported in the young peoples' SO subscale scores suggesting that the young peoples' general life effectiveness had improved at T3. Table 45 above also reports the findings for the main effect of Gender for the young people, parents and teachers. As the reported differences did not meet the criterion, there was no significant differences reported for the main effect of Gender.

The next section will report on the Two-Way ANOVA caseness by time for the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire, Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool and PH.

Two-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Caseness by Time Two-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Caseness by Time Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Total and Subscales

Table 46 below presents the descriptive statistics for the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire total scores. Looking first to the higher order effect, there was no evidence of significant interaction between caseness as reported by the parents or teachers. Table 46 shows that there was a significant interaction between caseness and time for the young peoples' scores, $F(19.67) = 2, 46, p = .000$. Test of Simple Effects was conducted which reported significant difference in the 'atypical' group. Post-hoc tests on the young peoples' 'atypical' scores reported significance between T1 and T2, and T1 and T3. Examination of the mean scores indicates that a significant decrease in total difficulties was evident between T1 and T2, and T1 and T3.

Table 46. Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Total Scores Young People, Parents and Teachers

Time Interval	T ₁	T ₁	T ₁	T ₂	T ₂	T ₂	T ₃	T ₃	T ₃
	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)
SDQ	8.81	22.10	13.10	10.33	9.80	10.16	10.23	11.60	10.67
YP	(4.21)	(3.87)	(7.49)	(5.88)	(6.16)	(5.87)	(5.09)	(3.83)	(4.70)
SDQ P	7.71	21.00	13.85	7.43	16.92	11.81	6.78	16.00	11.03
	(4.14)	(4.22)	(7.89)	(5.03)	(5.86)	(7.18)	(5.68)	(5.46)	(7.20)
SDQ T	7.70	18.20	14.00	5.40	14.00	10.56	10.00	16.86	14.12
	(2.71)	(5.03)	(6.71)	(4.76)	(5.92)	(6.89)	(4.47)	(8.06)	(7.56)
Scale	Interaction		Main effect time		Main effect caseness		Pattern of difference		
SDQ Total	F=19.67, df = 2,58		F=11.75, df = 2,58		F=12.37, df = 1,29		T ₁ > T ₂		
Score YP	p= <0.05*		p = <0.05*		p = <0.05*		T ₁ > T ₃		
SDQ Total	F = 2.67, df = 2,48		F = 4.88, df = 2,48		F = 41.47, df = 1,24 p		T ₁ > T ₃		
Score P	p = >0.05		p = <0.05*		= <0.05*				
SDQ Total	F = 1.23, df = 2,46		F = 6.16, df = 2,46		F = 21.00, df = 1,23		T ₁ > T ₂		
Score T	p = >0.05		p = <0.05*		p = <0.05*		T ₁ < T ₃		
							Post hoc tests significant at 0.05		

Moving then to the lower order effects a significant difference relating to time was reported in the young persons' scores, $F(2, 58) = 11.75, p = .000$ and not reflective of the One-Way ANOVAs reported earlier. Post-hoc tests on the young persons' scores reported significance between T₁ and T₂, and T₁ and T₃ with a review of the mean scores again suggesting a significant decrease in the young peoples' total difficulties between both time points. A main difference relating to time was also found in the parents scores, $F(2, 48) = 4.88, p = .012$. Post-hoc tests on the parents' total score reported significance between T₁ and T₃ with mean scores again suggesting a significant decrease in the young peoples' total difficulties between T₁ and T₃. A main difference relating to Time was found in the teachers' scores, $F(2, 46) = 6.16, p = .004$. The teachers' Post-hoc tests reported significance between T₁ and T₂, and T₂ and T₃. This reflects the result of the One-Way ANOVA reported throughout the reporting of the Two-Way ANOVAs. However, unlike the young people and their

parents, which suggest a significant decrease between T1 and T2, and T1 and T3, the teachers' mean score indicates a significant decrease between T1 and T2 but an increase in difficulties between T2 and T3, a pattern evidenced in previous reports.

Table 32 then reports the findings for the main effect of caseness. There was a significant difference in the young persons' $F(12, 37) = 1, 29, p = .001$, parents' $F(41, 47) = 1, 24, p = .000$ and teachers' $F(21.00) = 1, 23, p = .000$ scores.

Table 47 below presents the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire CON subscales for the young people, parents and teachers. Looking first to the higher order effect, there was no evidence of significant interaction between gender and time for any of the groups. Table 47 below illustrates no evidence of significant interaction between caseness and time or main effect relating to time for any of the groups. This replicated the findings of the One-Way ANOVA reported throughout the reporting of the Two-Way ANOVAs.

Table 47. Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire CON Subscales Young People, Parents and Teachers

Time Interval	T1	T1	T1	T2	T2	T2	T3	T3	T3
	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M(SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M(SD)
SDQ	2.67	2.64	2.66	2.14	2.45	2.25	2.23	2.27	2.25
CON	(2.24)	(2.11)	(2.16)	(1.74)	(2.20)	(1.88)	(1.75)	(1.79)	(1.74)
YP									
SDQ	1.00	3.83	2.31	1.07	3.08	2.00	1.14	2.41	1.73
CON P	(.961)	(2.79)	(2.44)	(1.26)	(2.81)	(2.31)	(1.65)	(2.60)	(2.20)
SDQ	1.13	2.69	2.10	1.25	2.00	1.71	.875	2.00	1.57
CON T	(.835)	(2.68)	(2.27)	(2.00)	(2.76)	(2.43)	(1.35)	(3.08)	(2.58)
Scale	Interaction			Main effect time			Main effect caseness		
SDQ CON YP	F = .162, df = 2,60 p = > 0.05			F = .929, df = 2,60 p = > 0.05			F = .028, df = (1,30) p = > 0.05		
SDQ CON P	F = 2.67, df = 2,48 p = > 0.05			F = 1.78, df = 2,48 p = > 0.05			F = 7.87, df = 1,24 p = > 0.05		
SDQ CON T	F = 1.10, df = 2,38 p = > 0.05			F = 1.48, df = 2,38 p = > 0.05			F = 12.1, df = 1,19 p = > 0.05		

Turning then to the main effect of caseness, there was no evidence of a significant difference for those in the typical range and those in the atypical range as reported by young people, parents and teachers on the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire CON subscale.

The next Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire subscale reviewed is the HYP subscale as set out in Table 48 below showing that there was no significant interaction between caseness and time *or* main effect relating to time, again highlighting the replication of the One-Way ANOVAs.

Table 48 Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire HYP Subscales Young People, Parents and Teachers

Time Interval	T1	T1	T1	T2	T2	T 2	T3	T3	T3
	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)
SDQ H YP	4.19 (2.37)	4.67 (1.93)	4.33 (2.23)	4.38 (2.45)	3.22 (2.43)	4.03 (2.47)	4.19 (1.77)	3.88 (1.53)	4.10 (1.68)
SDQ H P	3.00 (2.64)	7.73 (2.86)	4.86 (5.60)	3.59 (2.95)	7.27 (2.93)	5.04 (3.42)	4.41 (2.09)	4.09 (1.64)	4.28 (1.90)
SDA H T	3.89 (6.07)	6.07 (3.17)	5.22 (2.82)	2.44 (2.45)	5.14 (2.82)	4.09 (2.95)	4.33 (2.44)	5.21 (3.19)	4.75 (3.28)
Scale	Interaction			Main effect time			Main effect caseness		
SDQ H YP	F = 1.83, df = 2,56 p = > 0.05			F = 1.09, df = 2,56 p = > 0.05			F = 13.55, df = 1,28 p = > 0.05		
SDQ H P	F = 10.66, df = 2,52 p = > 0.05			F = 2.63, df = 2,52 p = > 0.05			F = 13.23 df = 1,26 p = < 0.05		
SDQ H T	F = 1.45, df = 2,42 p = > 0.05			F = 2.66, df = 2, 42 p = > 0.05			F = 3.71, df = 1,21 p = >0.05		

Table 48 also reports the findings for the main effect of caseness for the three groups. There is no evidence of a significant difference for typical and atypical as reported by the young people $F(13.55) = 1, 28, p = .647$ and teachers $F(13.23) = 1, 26, p = 0.68$. However there is a significant difference in parents' reports $F(13.23) = 1, 21, p = .000$. Examination of the mean scores suggests that overall teachers scored those in the atypical range higher than those in the typical range on the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire HYP subscale.

Table 49 presents the findings of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Peer Problem subscale. Looking first to the higher order effect, there was no evidence of significant interactions between caseness and time for any of the groups.

Table 49 Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire PP subscale young people, parents and teachers

Time Interval	T1	T1	T1	T2	T2	T 2	T3	T3	T3
	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)
SDQ PP YP	1.38 (1.56)	2.44 (1.42)	1.70 (1.57)	1.38 (2.11)	2.11 (2.31)	1.60 (1.67)	1.28 (1.41)	2.22 (2.79)	1.56 (1.73)
SDQ PP P	1.71 (1.89)	3.00 (2.59)	2.31 (2.94)	1.43 (1.78)	1.58 (2.02)	1.50 (1.86)	1.00 (1.51)	2.33 (1.61)	1.61 (1.67)
SDQ PP T	2.11 (1.53)	3.50 (1.78)	3.00 (1.80)	.56 (2.63)	2.63 (2.18)	1.88 (2.06)	1.00 (1.22)	3.75 (1.91)	2.76 (2.14)
Scale	Interaction		Main effect time			Main effect caseness		Post hoc tests significant at 0.05	
Scale	Interaction		Main effect time			Main effect caseness		Pattern of difference	
SDQ PP YP	F = .114, df = 2,56 p = > 0.05		F = .143, df = 2,56 p = > 0.05			F = 3.18, df = 1,28 p = > 0.05			
SDQ PP P	F = 2.39, df = 2,48 p = > 0.05		F = 4.40, df = 2,48 p = < 0.05*			F = 1.91, df = 1,24 p = > 0.05		T ₁ > T ₂	
SDQ PP T	F = 2.67, df = 2,46 p = > 0.05		F = 8.75, df = 2,46 p = < 0.05*			F = 10.52 df = 1,23 p = < 0.05*		T ₁ > T ₂ T ₁ < T ₃ Post hoc tests significant at 0.05	

Moving then to the lower order effects, Table 35 reports that that there was a significant difference for the Time effect in the parents' PP scores, $F(4,40) = 2,48$, $p = .040$ and teachers' subscale score, $F(2,46) = 2,46$, $p = .001$, but not in the young persons' score, again replicating the result of the One-Way ANOVAs previously reported. Post-hoc tests on the parents' scores showed significance between T1 and T2 with a review of the mean scores suggesting a significant decrease in Peer Problem difficulties between T1 and T2. Post-hoc tests on the teachers' scores reported significance between T1 and T2, and T2 and T3 with mean scores showing a significant decrease between T1 and T2 but a significant increase in PP difficulties between T2 and T3.

Table 49 also reports the findings for the main effect of caseness for the three groups. There is no evidence of a significant difference for typical and atypical as reported by Young People $F(3, 18) = 1, 28$, $p = .085$ and parents $F(1,91) = 1, 24$, $p = .180$. However

there was a significant difference in teachers' reports $F(10.52) = 1, 23, p = .004$. Examination of the mean scores suggests that overall, the young people, parents and teachers reported Atypical to score higher than Typical on the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire PP subscale.

Table 50 below presents the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire EMOT subscale scores for the young people, parents and teachers.

Table 50. Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire EMOT Subscale for Young People, Parents and Teachers

Time interval	T1	T1	T1	T2	T2	T2	T3	T3	T3
	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M(SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M(SD)	Total M(SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)
YP	SDQ EMOT	3.61 (2.06)	3.00 (2.40)	3.39 (2.16)	2.94 (2.28)	2.90 (1.85)	2.93 (2.10)	3.00 (2.40)	3.36 (2.09)
P	SDQ EMOT	2.14 (1.79)	6.55 (2.77)	4.08 (3.14)	2.00 (1.46)	4.73 (2.68)	3.20 (2.46)	1.78 (1.80)	5.00 (3.19)
T	SDQ EMOT	1.44 (1.23)	5.67 (2.66)	4.08 (3.03)	1.11 (1.69)	4.53 (2.32)	3.25 (2.67)	2.77 (2.16)	4.86 (2.82)
Scale	Interaction		Main effect time		Main effect gender				
SDQ	F = .110, df = 2,60		F = 3.75, df = 2,52		F = .542, df = 1,30				
EMOT YP	p = > 0.05		p = > 0.05		p = > 0.05				
SDQ	F = 1.77, df = 2,46		F = 2.97, df = 2,46		F = 20.67, df = 1,23				
EMOT P	p = > 0.05		p = > 0.05		p = < 0.05*				
SDQ	F = 2.18, df = 2,44		F = 2.01, df = 2,44		F = 17.16, df = 1,22				
EMOT T	p = > 0.05		p = > 0.05		p = < 0.05*				

Looking first to the higher order effect, there was no evidence of significant interactions between caseness and time for any of the groups. Moving then to the lower order effects, Table 50 reports that that there were no significant differences for the Time effect in the young peoples', parents or teachers EMOT subscale scores. Table 50 also reports the findings for the main effect of Caseness for the three groups. There is no evidence of a significant difference for Typical and Atypical as reported by young people $F(.542) = 1, 30, p = .799$. However there was a significant difference in parents' reports $F(20, 67)$

= 1, 23, $p = .000$ and Teachers' reports $F(17, 16) = 1, 22, p = .000$. Examination of the mean scores suggests that overall the teachers reported Atypical to score higher than Typical on the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire EMOT.

Table 51 presents the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire PRO subscale scores for the young people, parents and teachers and unlike the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire total and subscales that measure improvements as *decreases* in scores over time, the PRO subscale measures improvements as *increases* over time.

Table 51. PRO Subscales Young People, Parents and Teachers

Time Interval	T ₁	T ₁	T ₁	T ₂	T ₂	T ₂	T ₃	T ₃	T ₃
Time Interval	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M(SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)
SDQ Prosocal YP	8.05 (2.01)	8.60 (1.35)	8.22 (1.82)	7.91 (2.02)	8.20 (2.20)	8.00 (2.04)	8.18 (1.59)	8.30 (1.63)	8.21 (1.58)
SDQ Prosocial P	9.50 (1.28)	6.75 (3.10)	8.23 (2.65)	9.21 (1.31)	7.67 (2.46)	8.50 (2.45)	9.50 (.940)	7.50 (2.06)	8.57 (1.83)
SDQ Prosocial T	6.44 (2.12)	7.00 (2.82)	6.79 (2.55)	7.67 (2.59)	8.20 (1.85)	8.00 (2.12)	9.22 (1.09)	8.06 (2.34)	8.50 (2.02)
Scale	Interaction		Main effect time		Main effect caseness		Pattern of difference		
SDQ PRO YP	F = .191, df = 2,60 p = > 0.05		F = .299, df = 2,60 p = > 0.05		F = .313, df = 1,30 p = > 0.05				
SDQ PRO P	F = 2.62, df = 2,48 p = > 0.05		F = 1.15, df = 2,48 p = > 0.05		F = 8.84, df = 1,24 p = < 0.05*				
SDQ PRO T	F = 2.33, df = 2,44 p = > 0.05		F = 9.15, df = 2, 44 p = < 0.05*		F = .001 df = 1,22 p = > 0.05		T ₁ > T ₂ T ₁ > T ₃		
							Post hoc tests significant at 0.05		

As illustrated in Table 51 above, there was no evidence of significant interaction between caseness and time for young people, parents or teachers. Moving to the lower order effects, Table 51 reports that there was a significant difference for the Time effect in the teachers' PRO subscale scores, $F(9,15) = 2,44, p = .000$. There was no significant difference in the young peoples' scores $F(2, 60) = .299, p = .827$ or the parents' scores $F(2, 44) = 9.15, p = .083$. Post-hoc tests on the teachers' PRO scores show a significant decrease from T₁ to T₂, and T₁ to T₃.

Table 51 also reports the findings for the main effect of Caseness for the three groups. There is no evidence of a significant difference for Typical and Atypical as reported by young people $F(1, 30) = .313, p = .580$ and teachers $F(1, 22) = .001, p = .978$, however there was a significant difference in parents reports $F(1, 24) = 8.84, p = .007$. Examination of the mean scores suggests that overall the teachers reported Atypical to score higher than Typical on the PRO subscale.

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact Score Caseness

Table 52 below presents the descriptive statistics for the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact scores and shows that there was no evidence of significant interaction between caseness and time on the young peoples', parents' or teachers' scores.

Table 52. Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact Score Caseness for the Young People, Parents and Teachers

Time interval	T1	T1	T1	T2	T2	T2	T3	T3	T3
	<i>Atypical</i>								
Time Interval	<i>Typical</i>	<i>Atypical</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Typical</i>	<i>Atypical</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Typical</i>	<i>Atypical</i>	<i>Total</i>
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
Time	<i>Typical</i>	<i>Atypical</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Typical</i>	<i>Atypical</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Typical</i>	<i>Atypical</i>	<i>Total</i>
SDQ Impact YP	.666 (.577)	.750 (.957)	.714 (.755)	.667 (.577)	1.250 (1.25)	1.000 (1.00)	.333 (.577)	2.00 (1.54)	1.28 (1.25)
SDQ Impact P's	.666 (.577)	.750 (.957)	.713 (.755)	.666 (.577)	1.25 (1.25)	1.00 (1.00)	.333 (.577)	2.00 (1.15)	1.28 (1.25)
SDQ Impact T's	4 (2.06)	4 (-)	3.00 (1.87)	1.75 (.957)	3.00 (-)	2.00 (1.00)	1.500 (1.73)	3.00 (-)	1.800 (1.64)
Scale	Interaction			Main effect time			Main effect caseness		
SDQ Impact YP	F= 1.30 df = 2,10 P > 0.05			F= .419 df = 2,10 P > 0.05			F = 1.33 df = 1.5 P > 0.05		
SDQ Subscale P	F = 2.491 df = 2,8 P > 0.05			F = .258, df = 2,8 P > 0.05			F = 8.114 df = 1,4 P < 0.05		
SDQ Impact T	F = .634 df = 2,20 P = > 0.05			F = 1.861, df = 2,20 P = > 0.05			F = .2914, df = 1,10 P = > 0.05		

Likewise, there was no significant difference for the Time effect on the young peoples',

parents' or teachers' scores. Table 52 also reports the findings for the main effect of Caseness for the three groups. There is no evidence of a significant difference for caseness and non-caseness as reported by young people $F(1, 5) = 1.33, p = .135$ and teachers $F(1, 10) = .2.91, p = .461$. However there was a significant difference in parents' reports $F(1, 4) = 8.11, p = .046$. Examination of the mean scores suggests that overall, teachers reported that those in the clinical range scored higher than those in the normal/borderline range.

Interim Summary

This section reviewed the findings of the Two-Way ANOVAs for Time and Caseness for the young peoples', parents' and teachers' Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire total and subscale score as illustrated in Table 53 below.

Table 53. Summary of Significant Differences for Time and Caseness Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Total and Subscale Scores Young Peoples', Parents' Teacher's Reports

Measure	Young Person			Parents			Teacher		
SDQ total	Int. $T_1 < T_2$ $T_1 < T_3$	Time $T_1 < T_2$ $T_1 < T_3$	Caseness Atypical higher than typical	Int.	Time $T_1 < T_3$	Caseness Atypical higher than typical	Int.	Time $T_1 > T_2$ $T_1 < T_3$	Caseness Atypical higher than typical
CON									
HYP						Atypical higher than typical			
PP	$T_1 < T_2$					$T_1 > T_2$ $T_1 < T_3$			Atypical higher than typical
EMOT						Atypical higher than typical	Atypical higher than typical		
PRO						Typical higher than Atypical	$T_1 > T_2$ $T_1 > T_3$		
IMPACT SCORE						Atypical higher than typical			

Table 53 above highlights that cell counts fell below the basic rate of ten per cent in the parents' Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Impact Score and as such is excluded

from this section. Similarly, teachers' SDQ PP and PRO subscales for the main effect of Time and teachers' Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire PP and EMOT subscales for the main effect of Caseness did not meet the criterion of more than ten in each cell count and were also excluded. Cell counts that fell below the basic rate of ten per cell are bolded.

As illustrated in Table 53 above, there was a significant interaction between caseness and time for the young peoples' scores between T1 and T2, and T1 and T3 with the young people in the clinical range reporting a significant decrease in total difficulties as compared to the young people in the normal to borderline range. This finding suggests that those in the clinical range may have benefited more from the EFP than those in the normal to borderline range. This is further supported by the significant differences reported by the parents' and teachers' scores for the main effect for Caseness which also suggests that those in the clinical range may have benefitted more than those in the normal to borderline range. Parents' and teachers' scores also suggest that those in the clinical range with hyperactivity and emotional difficulties may also have benefited more than those in the normal to borderline range.

Significant differences were reported for the main effect for Time on the young peoples' and parents' scores three months after their participation in the EFP, also reflecting the results of the One-Way ANOVAs. However, although significant difference for the main effect for Time were reported in the teachers' scores at T2, the T3 scores had reverted to T1 scores three months after their participation in the EFP.

The young peoples' scores did not report significant interaction for time and caseness,

main effect for time or main effect for caseness on the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire subscales. The young peoples', teachers' or parents' CON scores did not report significance in either the main effect for Time or for Gender.

The next section will review the Two-Way repeated measures ANOVAs caseness by time Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Total and Subscale scores for the young people, parents and teachers. Two-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Caseness by Time Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Total Scores Young People, Parents and Teachers

As illustrated in Table 54 below there was no evidence of significant interaction between Caseness and Time for the young peoples', their parents' or teachers' Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total scores.

Table 54. Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Total Scores for Young People, Parents and Teachers

Time Interval	T ₁	T ₁	T ₁	T ₂	T ₁	T ₁	T ₃	T ₃	T ₃
	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)
Yarpet YP	5.52 (.89334)	5.79 (1.12)	5.361 (.978)	5.75 (.914)	6.11 (.795)	5.87 (.873)	5.98 (.845)	6.23 (.968)	6.06 (.866)
Yarpet P	5.82 (.94501)	2.29	5.53 (1.36)	5.51 (1.24)	2.29	5.24 (1.50)	5.82 (.49667)	4.47	5.71 (.61482)
Yarpet T	4.17 (.506)	4.26 (1.44)	4.23 (1.18)	7.41 (.000)	5.09 (1.65)	5.86 (1.74)	5.26 (.674)	5.48 (1.39)	5.41 (1.17)
Scale	Interaction			Main effect time		Main effect caseness		Pattern difference	of
Yarpet Young People	F = .076, df = 2,34 p = > 0.05			F = 4.69, df = 2,34 p = < 0.05*		F = .478, df = 1,17 < T ₃ p = > 0.05		T ₁	
Yarpet Parents	F = 1.863, df = 2,20 p = > 0.05			F = 2.481, df = 2,20 p = > 0.05		F = 15,125, df = (1,10) p = > 0.05			
Yarpet Teachers	F = 20.223, df = 2,20 p = > 0.05			F = 41.247, df = 2,20 p = < 0.05*		F = .810, df = 1,10 p = > 0.05		T ₁ < T ₂ T ₁ < T ₃	
									Post hoc tests significant at 0.05

A review of the lower order effects indicates there was a significant difference for the Time effect in the young peoples' $F(2, 34) = 4.69, p = .016$ and teachers $F(2, 20) = 41.24, p = .000$ scores but not in the parents' scores $F(2, 20) = 2.481,$

$p = .642$. Post-hoc tests on the young people 'score reported significance between T1 and T3 with the mean score suggesting significant increase between T1 and T3 with Post-hoc tests on the teachers' scores reporting significance between T1 and T2, T1 and T3 but not T2 and T3. A review of the teachers' mean scores suggests a significant increase between T1 and T2, and T1 and T3. Table 54 also reports the findings for the main effect of Caseness for the three groups. There is no evidence of a significant difference for Typical and Atypical as reported by young people, teachers or parents on the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool PO subscale.

Table 55 presents the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Personal Objective for the young people, parents and teachers scores. Looking first to the higher order effect, there was evidence of significant interactions between caseness and time in the parents' and teachers' Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool PO subscale scores.

Table 55. Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool PO Young People, Parents and Teachers

Time Interval	T ₁	T ₁	T ₁	T ₂	T ₂	T ₂	T ₃	T ₃	T ₃
	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)
Yarpet	5.29	5.61	5.40	5.52	5.89	5.64	5.55	5.97	.874
PO YP	(.898)	(1.21)	(1.00)	(.930)	(1.00)	(.951)	(.914)	(.763)	
Yarpet	4.25	4.00	4.16	5.44	3.86	4.86	5.52	4.11	5.01
PO P's	(.94219)	(.88889)	(.88661)	(1.20)	(1.72)	(1.54)	(1.21)	(1.09)	(1.32)
Yarpet	3.91	3.67	3.74	6.88	4.63	5.27	4.88	5.00	4.96
PO T's	.643)	1(.58)	(1.35)	(.0000)	(1.63)	(1.72)	(.865)	(1.46)	(1.28)
Scale	Interaction		Main effect time		Main caseness		effect	Pattern of difference	
Yarpet PO	F = .081, df = 2,44		F = 2.88, df = 2,44		F = .948 df = 1,22				
YP	p = > 0.05		p = > 0.05		p = > 0.05				
Yarpet PO	F = 4.045, df = 2,18		F = 4.02, df = 2,18		F = 2.53, df = 1,9		T ₁ > T ₂		
P's	p = < 0.05		p = < 0.05*		p = > 0.05		T ₁ > T ₃		
Yarpet PO	F = 9.927, df = 2.24		F = 23.68, df = 2,24		F = 1.119 df = 1,12		T ₁ > T ₂		
T's	p = < 0.05*		p = < 0.05*		p = > 0.05		T ₁ > T ₃		
							Post hoc tests significant at 0.05		

Table 55 shows that significant interaction was reported in the parents' PO subscale scores, $F(2, 18) = 4.045$, $p = .035$ and in the teachers' PO subscale scores, $F(2, 24) = 9.927$, $p = .001$. Test of simple effects in the parents' scores reported significance within the 'typical' group and post-hoc tests showed significance between T₁ and T₂, and T₁ and T₃. An examination of the mean score indicates significant increases from T₁ to T₂, and T₁ to T₃. Test of Simple Effects in the teachers' scores was conducted which reported significance in the 'atypical' group with Post-hoc tests reporting significance between T₁ and T₂, and T₁ and T₃ and a review of the mean scores suggesting there was a significant increase at both sets of time points. There was no significant interaction reported in the young persons' PO subscale score $F(2, 44) = .081$, $p = .922$.

Moving to the lower order effects there was a significant difference for the Time effect in the parents' PO subscale score, $F(2, 24) = 4.022$, $p = .036$ and the Time effect in

the teachers' scores $F(2, 24) = 23.68, p = .000$ but not in the young peoples' scores $F(2, 44) = 2.88, p = 0.76$. Post-hoc tests on the parents' scores reported significance between T1 and T2, and T1 and T3 with mean scores suggesting significant increase between T1 and T2 and again from T1 to T3. Main effect relating to Time was also found in the teachers' PO subscale score. Post-hoc tests on the teachers' scores showed a similar trend as the parents' with significance reported between T1 and T2, and T1 and T3 and mean scores suggesting significant increases at both time points. As illustrated in Table 55 there is no evidence of a significant difference for Typical and Atypical as reported by the young people, parents or teachers.

Table 56 presents the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool SO subscale scores for the young people, parents and teachers.

Table 56. Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Social Outcomes Young People, Parents and Teachers

Time Interval	T1	T1	T1	T2	T2	T2	T3	T3	T3
	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)
Yarpet	5.83	6.34	5.98	6.07	6.54	6.21	6.22	6.73	6.37
SO YP	1.18	1.21	1.18	1.27	.869	1.17	1.02	.845	0.985
Yarpet	6.80	5.11	5.92	6.80	5.11	5.92	6.74	5.26	5.97
SO P	.933	1.385	1.45	.9333	1.385	1.45	1.11	1.38	1.44
Yarpet	4.33	4.21	4.25	6.66	4.78	5.51	4.71	5.09	4.94
SO T	1.20	1.62	1.43	2.05	1.99	2.17	1.50	1.98	1.77

Scale		Interaction	Main effect time	Main caseness	effect	Pattern of difference
Yarpet young people	SO	F = .007, df = 2,44 p = > 0.05	F = 2.56, df = 2,44 p = > 0.05	F = 1.159, df = 1,22 p = > 0.05		
Yarpet parents	SO	F = .300, df = 2.42 p = > 0.05	F = .056, df = 2,42 p = > 0.05	F = 11.734, df = 1,21 p = < 0.05		
Yarpet teachers	SO	F = 8.74, df = 2,32 p = > 0.05	F = 13.25, df = 2,32 p = < 0.05*	F = .458 df = 1,16 p = > 0.05		T ₁ > T ₂ Post hoc tests significant at 0.05

Looking first to the higher order effect, Table 56 above illustrates that there was no

evidence of significant interaction between caseness and time for any of the groups. Moving then to the lower order effects, Table 56 reports that there was a significant difference for the Time effect in the teachers' Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool subscale scores $F(2, 32) = 13.25, p = .000$ but not in the young persons' score $F(2, 44) = 2.56, p = .088$ or the parents' scores $F(2, 42) = .056, p = .946$. The young persons' scores do not replicate the One-way ANOVAs which reported significant decrease in the young peoples' Yar-Pet SO scores. Post-hoc tests on the teachers' scores reports that there was significance between T1 and T2. A review of the mean score suggests there was a significant increase in the young persons' Yar-Pet SO between T1 and T2.

Table 56 also reports the findings for the main effect of Caseness for the three groups. There was no evidence of a significant difference for Typical and Atypical as reported by young peoples' $F(1, 22) = 1.15, p = .293$ and teachers' scores $F(1, 16) = .458, p = .508$. However there was a significant difference in parents' reports $F(1, 21) = 11.734, p = .003$. Examination of the mean scores suggests that overall parents reported Typical to score higher than Atypical on the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool SO subscale.

The third Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool EO subscale is presented in Table 57 below and shows there was no evidence of significant interactions between Caseness and Time or significant difference for the Time effect in the young peoples', parents' or teachers scores reflecting the result of the One-Way ANOVA reported earlier.

Table 57 Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool Environmental Subscale Young People, Parents and Teachers

Time Interval	T ₁	T ₁	T ₁	T ₂	T ₂	T ₂	T ₃	T ₃	T ₃
	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)
Yarpet	5.29	5.71	5.42	5.36	5.30	5.34	5.23	5.83	5.42
EO YP	(1.35)	(1.84)	(1.48)	(1.47)	(2.01)	(1.61)	(1.49)	(2.17)	(1.70)
Yarpet	5.75	3.75	4.75	5.75	3.75	4.75	5.71	4.14	4.92
EO P	(2.08)	(2.05)	(2.27)	(2.08)	(2.05)	(2.27)	(1.39)	(2.39)	(2.08)
Yarpet	6.42	4.07	4.90	6.42	4.07	4.90	5.92	4.84	5.22
EO T	(2.20)	(2.28)	(2.48)	(2.20)	(2.28)	(2.48)	(2.24)	(2.70)	(2.54)
Scale	Interaction			Main effect time			Main effect caseness		
Yarpet EO young people	F = .643 df = 2,42 p = > 0.05			F = .259, df = 2,42 p = > 0.05			F = .240, df = 1,21 p = > 0.05		
Yarpet EO parents	F = .671, df = 2,52 p = > 0.05			F = .466, df = 2,52 p = > 0.05			F = 6.508, df = 1,26 p = < 0.05		
Yarpet EO teachers	F = 7.40, df = 2,36 p = > 0.05			F = .333, df = 2,36 p = > 0.05			F = 3.148, df = 1,18 p = > 0.05		

Table 57 also reports the findings for the main effect of caseness for the three groups. There was no evidence of a significant difference for Typical and Atypical as reported by young peoples' $F(1, 21) = 2.40$, $p = .629$ and teachers' $F(1, 18) = 1.48$, $p = 0.93$. However there was a significant difference in the parents' reports $F(1, 26) = 6.508$, $p = .017$. Examination of the mean scores suggests that overall parents reported Typical to score higher than Atypical on the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool EO subscale.

Two-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Caseness by Time Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale Total Scores Young People

The Two-Way repeated measures ANOVA Caseness by time Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale young peoples' total scores are presented in Table 58 below.

Table 58. Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale Total Score Young People

Time Interval	T1	T1	T1	T2	T1	T1	T3	T3	T3
	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)
Piers Harris	46.26 (6.50)	42.07 (10.66)	44.68 (8.43)	47.43 (7.42)	44.29 (12.31)	46.24 (9.53)	47.61 (11.82)	38.00 (19.41)	43.97 (15.61)
Scale	Interaction			Main effect time			Main effect caseness		
Piers Harris	F = 1.938, df = 2,70			F = 1.510, df = 2,70			F = 731.988, df =		
Total Score	p = > 0.05			p = > 0.05			1,35 p = > 0.05		

Looking first to the higher order effect, there was no evidence of significant interactions between caseness and time. Table 44 reports that that there was no significant difference for the Time effect in the young peoples' Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total score. Table 58 also reports the findings for the main effect of caseness. There is no evidence of a significant difference for Typical and Atypical as reported by Young People on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total score.

Finally, the Two-Way repeated measures ANOVA Caseness by time Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale young peoples' subscale scores are presented in Table 59 below.

Table 59. Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale Behavioural Adjustment, Intellectual and School Status, Freedom from Anxiety, Happiness and Satisfaction and Physical Appearance and Attributes Total and Subscales

Time Interval	T ₁	T ₁	T ₁	T ₂	T ₁	T ₁	T ₃	T ₃	T ₃
Time Interval	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M(SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M(SD)	Typical M (SD)	Atypical M (SD)	Total M (SD)
Beh	12.65 2.47	11.25 2.76	12.20 2.59	12.76 1.85	12.25 2.18	12.60 1.93	13.24 1.43	12.25 1.58	12.92 1.52
Int.	12.22 2.86	12.83 3.54	12.47 3.04	12.00 3.00	13.83 1.94	12.73 2.71	12.78 3.07	13.17 3.06	12.93 2.96
Phy.	8.07 2.46	8.86 1.77	8.32 2.25	8.60 2.02	10.00 1.05	9.05 1.88	9.00 2.59	9.29 1.97	9.09 2.36
Fre.	10.63 2.15	10.44 2.74	10.56 2.32	11.19 3.27	10.78 2.16	11.04 2.87	11.00 2.60	11.33 2.82	11.12 2.63
Pop	9.31 1.35	8.75 1.16	9.13 1.29	10.06 1.48	10.38 1.40	10.17 1.43	9.94 1.73	10.13 1.72	10.00 1.69
Hap	9.29 1.047	9.43 .787	9.33 .963	9.53 .874	10.00 .000	9.67 .761	9.53 .800	10.00 .000	9.67 .702
Scale	Interaction		Main effect time		Main effect caseness		Pattern of difference		
Beh	F = 1.059, df = 2,46 p = > 0.05		F = 3.617, df = 2,46 p = < 0.05*		F = 944.295, df = (1,23) p = > 0.05		T ₁ < T ₂ T ₁ < T ₃		
Int.	F = 1.231, df = 2,26 p = > 0.05		F = .477, df = 2,26 p = > 0.05		F = 311.532, df = (1,13), p = > 0.05				
Phy.	F = .882, df = 2,40 p = > 0.05		F = 2.24, df = 2,40 p = > 0.05		F = 419.917, df = 1,20 p = > 0.05				
Fre	F = .364, df = 2,54 p = > 0.05		F = 6.26, df = 2,54 p = > 0.05		F = .014, df = 1,27 p = > 0.05				
Pop	F = 1.317, df = 2,44 p = > 0.05		F = 9.584, df = 2,44 p = < 0.05*		F = 1223.340, df = 1,22 p = > 0.05		T ₁ < T ₂ T ₁ < T ₃		
Hap	F = .593, df = 2,44 p = > 0.05		F = 3.417, df = 2,44 p = < 0.05*		F = 1.32, df = 1,22 p = > 0.05		T ₁ < T ₂ T ₁ < T ₃ Post hoc tests significant at 0.05		

Looking to the higher order effect in the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale total score, Table 59 illustrates there was no evidence of significant interactions between caseness and time in the young people's scores. Moving then to the lower order effects, Table 59 reports that there was a significant difference for the Time effect in the young peoples' scores in the BEH subscales $F(2, 46) = 3.617, p = .035$, HAP subscale $F(2, 44) = 3.417, p = .042$, POP subscale, $F(1, 22) = 1223.340, p = .000$. Contrary however to the One-Way ANOVAs, there was no significant difference for the Time effect in the young peoples' Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale Total $F(2, 70) = 1.93, p = .228$, INT $F(1, 13) = 311.532, p = .626$ or the FRE subscale $F(1, 27) = .014, p = .373$. Post-hoc tests reported significance between T1

and T2, and T1 and T3. A review of the mean scores suggests a significant increase at both time points. There was no significance observed in the main effect relating to caseness.

Summary and Interim Discussion

Table 60 below highlights that cell counts fell below the basic rate of ten per cell in the Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool total for the young peoples’ and teachers scores, Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool PO subscale parents’ and teachers’ scores, Youth At Risk – Programme Evaluation Tool SO subscale teachers’ scores and Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale and as such are excluded. Cell counts that fell below the basic rate of ten per cell are bolded.

Table 60 Summary of Significant Differences for Time and Caseness

Measure	Young Person			Parents			Teacher		
	Inter.	Time $T_1 < T_3$	Caseness	Inter	Time	Caseness	Inter	Time $T_1 < T_2$ $T_1 < T_3$	Caseness
Yar-Pet Total									
PO				✓	$T_1 < T_2$ $T_1 < T_3$		✓	$T_1 < T_2$ $T_1 < T_3$	
SO								$T_1 < T_2$	
PH Total Score									
BA		$T_1 < T_2$ $T_1 < T_3$							
INT									
PHY									
FRE									
POP		$T_1 < T_2$ $T_1 < T_3$							
HAP		$T_1 < T_2$ T_1							

APPENDIX E ALL SAMPLE CODING FRAME

Summary codes for young people, their parents and teachers

Theme	Topic Number	Theme letter
Learning about horses	A	1
Trust	A	2
Leadership	A	3
Emotional regulation	B	1
Confidence	B	2
Teamwork	B	3
Communications	B	4
Calmness	B	5
Empathy	B	6
Perseverance / managing challenges	B	7
Positive experience	C	1
Understanding staff	C	2
Timeframe for EAL Programme	C	3
Trust ride	C	4
Small group	C	5
Getting out of school	C	6
No change	D	1
No music	D	2

Theme	Theme Letter	Topic Number
Learning about horses	A	1
Confidence	B	1
Calmness	B	2
Communication	B	3
Behaviour	B	4
No changes in behaviour	C	1
Positive Experiences	C	2

Learning about horses	A	1
Self-awareness	B	1
Self-regulation	B	2
Dealing with frustration	B	3
Relationships	B	4
Social Skills (communications)	B	5
Self-management	B	6
Confidence	B	7
Leadership	B	8
Calmness	B	9
Positive experience	C	1
Duration of Programme	C	2
Body Self-awareness	D	1
Formalise feedback sessions	D	2
To have trust ride half way through the programme	D	3
Small group	E	1
Quiet Time	E	2
Leading	E	3
Change of routine	F	1

APPENDIX F. ALL QUESTIONNAIRES

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire	Young Person
Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire	Parents
Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire	Teachers
Yar-Pet Questionnaire	Young Person
Yar-Pet Questionnaire	Parent
Yar-Pet Questionnaire	Teacher
Piers Harris	Young Person
Yar-Pet Questionnaire (revised post pilot)	Young Person

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (Goodman, 1997)

Since coming to the clinic, are your problems:

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire

S11-17

Much worse A bit worse About the same A bit better Much better

FOLLOW-UP

For each item, please mark the box for Not True, Somewhat True or Certainly True. It would help us if you answered all items as best you can even if you are not absolutely certain or if the item seems difficult. Please give your answers on the basis of how things have been for you over the last month.

Your Name

Male/Female

Has coming to the clinic been helpful in other ways, e.g. providing information or making the problems more bearable?

Date of Birth

	Not at all	Only a little	Quite a lot	Not True	Somewhat True	Certainly True
I try to be nice to other people. I care about their feelings	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am restless, I cannot stay still for long	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I get on better with others than I have in the past. I have fewer difficulties in one or more of the following areas: emotions, concentration, behaviour or being able to get on with other people?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I usually share with others (food, games, pens etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I get very angry and often lose my temper	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am usually on my own. I generally play alone or keep to myself	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I usually do as I am told	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I worry a lot	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If you have answered "Yes", please answer the following questions about these difficulties. I am helpful if someone is hurt, upset or feeling ill	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am constantly fidgeting or squirming	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I do the difficulties upset or distress you?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have one good friend or more	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I fight a lot. I can make other people do what I want	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am often unhappy, down-hearted or tearful	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other people my age generally like me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do the difficulties interfere with your everyday life in the following areas?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am easily distracted, I find it difficult to concentrate	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am nervous in new situations. I easily lose confidence	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am kind to younger children	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am often accused of lying or cheating	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other children or young people pick on or bully me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I often volunteer to help others (parents, teachers, children)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I think before I do things	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I take things that are not mine from home, school or elsewhere	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do your difficulties make it harder for those around you (family, friends, teachers etc.)?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I get on better with adults than with people my own age	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have many fears, I am easily scared	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I finish the work I'm doing. My attention is good	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Do you have any other comments or concerns?

Your signature

Today's date

Thank you very much for your help

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Please turn over - there are a few more questions on the other side

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire

T4-16
FOLLOW-UP

For each item, please mark the box for Not True, Somewhat True or Certainly True. It would help us if you answered all items as best you can even if you are not absolutely certain or the item seems daft! Please give your answers on the basis of the child's behaviour over the last month.

Child's Name

Male/Female

Date of Birth

	Not True	Somewhat True	Certainly True
Considerate of other people's feelings	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Restless, overactive, cannot stay still for long	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Often complains of headaches, stomach-aches or sickness	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Shares readily with other children (treats, toys, pencils etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Often has temper tantrums or hot tempers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Rather solitary, tends to play alone	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Generally obedient, usually does what adults request	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Many worries, often seems worried	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Helpful if someone is hurt, upset or feeling ill	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Constantly fidgeting or squirming	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Has at least one good friend	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Often fights with other children or bullies them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Often unhappy, down-hearted or tearful	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Generally liked by other children	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Easily distracted, concentration wanders	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nervous or clingy in new situations, easily loses confidence	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Kind to younger children	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Often lies or cheats	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Picked on or bullied by other children	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Often volunteers to help others (parents, teachers, other children)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Thinks things out before acting	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Steals from home, school or elsewhere	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Gets on better with adults than with other children	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Many fears, easily scared	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sees tasks through to the end, good attention span	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Do you have any other comments or concerns?

Please turn over - there are a few more questions on the other side

P 4-16

For each item, please mark the box that is Not True, Somewhat True or Certainly True. It would help us if you answered all items as best you can even if you are not absolutely certain or the item seems dull. Please give your answers on the basis of the child's behaviour over the last six months.

Child's Name	No difficulties	minor difficulties	definite difficulties	severe difficulties	Male/Female
1					
2					
3					
4					
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9					
10					
11					
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97					
98					
99					
100					

Date of Birth:

Not True **Somewhat True** **Certainly True**

If you have answered "Yes", please answer the following questions about these difficulties:

Often complains of headaches, stomach-aches or sickness	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
* How long have these difficulties been present?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Shares readily with other children (toys, pencils etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Often has temper tantrums or hot tempers	Less than a month	1-5 months	6-12 months	<input type="checkbox"/>	Over a year	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Rather solitary, tends to play alone				<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Generally obedient, usually does what adults request	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Many worries, often seems worried				<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

• Do the difficulties unsettle or distress your child? ☐ ☐ ☐

Constantly fidgeting or squirming				<input type="checkbox"/>	A great deal	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Has at least one good friend	Not at all	Only a little	Quite a lot	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Often fights with other children or bullies them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Often unhappy, down-hearted or tearful				<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Generally liked by other children				<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

• Do the difficulties interfere with your child's everyday life in the following areas?

Nervous or clingy in new situations, easily loses confidence.	Only a little	Quite a lot	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Kind to younger children	at all	a lot	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

[illegible]

Printed or bottled by other children	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
--------------------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	-------------------------------------	-------------------------------------	-------------------------------------	-------------------------------------

Often volunteers to help others (parents, teachers, other children)

CLASSROOM LEARNING

[illegible]

Steals from home, school or elsewhere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
How often did you steal from home, school or elsewhere in the last 12 months?	Never	Once	2-3 times	4-5 times	6-7 times	8-9 times	10-11 times	12-13 times	14-15 times	16-17 times	18-19 times	20 or more times

Gets on better with adults than with other children	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
the difficulties are a burden on you or the family as a whole?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Sees tasks through to the end, good attention span.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
---	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------

Do you have any other comments or concerns?

Figure	Figure Description	Figure Title	Figure Subtitle
Figure 1	Figure 1: A diagram showing a rectangular box with a vertical line segment labeled 'x' and a horizontal line segment labeled 'y'.	Figure 1: A diagram showing a rectangular box with a vertical line segment labeled 'x' and a horizontal line segment labeled 'y'.	Figure 1: A diagram showing a rectangular box with a vertical line segment labeled 'x' and a horizontal line segment labeled 'y'.
Figure 2	Figure 2: A diagram showing a rectangular box with a vertical line segment labeled 'x' and a horizontal line segment labeled 'y'.	Figure 2: A diagram showing a rectangular box with a vertical line segment labeled 'x' and a horizontal line segment labeled 'y'.	Figure 2: A diagram showing a rectangular box with a vertical line segment labeled 'x' and a horizontal line segment labeled 'y'.
Figure 3	Figure 3: A diagram showing a rectangular box with a vertical line segment labeled 'x' and a horizontal line segment labeled 'y'.	Figure 3: A diagram showing a rectangular box with a vertical line segment labeled 'x' and a horizontal line segment labeled 'y'.	Figure 3: A diagram showing a rectangular box with a vertical line segment labeled 'x' and a horizontal line segment labeled 'y'.
Figure 4	Figure 4: A diagram showing a rectangular box with a vertical line segment labeled 'x' and a horizontal line segment labeled 'y'.	Figure 4: A diagram showing a rectangular box with a vertical line segment labeled 'x' and a horizontal line segment labeled 'y'.	Figure 4: A diagram showing a rectangular box with a vertical line segment labeled 'x' and a horizontal line segment labeled 'y'.

Please turn over - there are a few more questions on the other side

Signature: _____

Date _____

Mother/Father/Other (please specify:)

Thank you very much for your help

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Since coming to the clinic, are the child's problems:

Much worse	A bit worse	About the same	A bit better	Much better
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Has coming to the clinic been helpful in other ways, e.g. providing information or making the problems more bearable?

Not at all	Only a little	Quite a lot	A great deal
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Over the last month, has the child had difficulties in one or more of the following areas: emotions, concentration, behaviour or being able to get on with other people?

No	Yes-minor difficulties	Yes-definite difficulties	Yes-severe difficulties
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

If you have answered "Yes", please answer the following questions about these difficulties:

• Do the difficulties upset or distress the child?

Not at all	Only a little	Quite a lot	A great deal
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

• Do the difficulties interfere with the child's everyday life in the following areas?

	Not at all	Only a little	Quite a lot	A great deal
PEER RELATIONSHIPS	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
CLASSROOM LEARNING	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

• Do the difficulties put a burden on you or the class as a whole?

Not at all	Only a little	Quite a lot	A great deal
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Signature _____

Date _____

Class Teacher/Form Tutor/Head of Year/Other (please specify): _____

Thank you very much for your help

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P.E.T. – A[©]

NAME: _____	AGE: _____ (years)	DATE TODAY: _____
MALE / FEMALE (circle one)		PROGRAM: _____

Important Instructions:

This is NOT a test – respond to the statements honestly, the way you feel now.
 The results are only used for improving Rippleffect's programs, not for reporting on you.
 In response to each statement, CIRCLE one number, using this rating scale:

FALSE NOT LIKE ME	TRUE LIKE ME
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
This statement doesn't describe me at all; it isn't like me at all	More false than true More true than false This statement describes me very well; it is very much like me.

STATEMENT	FALSE Not like me	TRUE Like me
01. Overall most things I do turn out well.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
02. I work hard at solving what's causing my problems.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
03. I write about my thoughts and feelings in a journal or diary.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
04. People understand me when I'm talking.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
05. I know I have the ability to do anything I want to do.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
06. Goals are important to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
07. I cooperate well when working in team.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
08. I have an in-depth knowledge about the local natural environment.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
09. My own efforts and actions are what will determine my future.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
10. I respect other people.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
11. I express myself in creative ways.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
12. I resolve my conflicts with other people.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
13. I enjoy living in my community.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	

STATEMENT	FALSE Not like me	TRUE Like me
14. I am good at deciding whether a risk is worth taking.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
15. I believe humans must live in harmony with nature in order to survive.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
16. As a leader, I get people working well together.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
17. I am a competent sea kayaker.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
18. Overall I have a lot to be proud of.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
19. I solve problems to the best of my ability.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
20. I use a journal or diary to record my life experiences.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
21. I communicate effectively with other people.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
22. When I apply myself to something I am confident I will succeed.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
23. I have specific goals to aim for.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
24. I like cooperating in a team.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
25. My life is mostly controlled by external things.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
26. I know a lot about Casco Bay's ecosystem.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
27. I think carefully about the consequences of my risky actions.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
28. I behave appropriately towards other people.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
29. I like to use creative ways of exploring my thoughts and feelings.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
30. I avoid unnecessary conflicts with others.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
31. If I have problems, there are people in my community who help me to solve them.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
32. I think conserving natural resources is necessary.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
33. I am a capable leader.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
34. I am confident in my ability to handle waves, high winds, and capsizees.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
35. Most things I do I do well.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	

STATEMENT	FALSE Not like me	TRUE Like me
36. I am effective at solving the cause of my problems.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
37. I use a journal as a way of dealing with things that are happening to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
38. I understand other people when they are talking to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
39. I believe I can do it.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
40. I prefer to set my own goals.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
41. I am good at cooperating with team members.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
42. I understand local environmental issues.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
43. If I succeed in life it will be because of my efforts.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
44. I understand issues of personal space, touch, and appropriate behavior towards other people.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
45. I explore my thoughts and feelings creatively, such as through art, drama or music.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
46. I can't deal with conflict.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
47. I help people in my community to get along with each other.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
48. I balance my risk-taking behaviors -- I am not too risky or too cautious.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
49. I believe humans have a responsibility to solve environmental problems.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
50. I am a good leader when things need to get done.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
51. I am capable of completing sea kayaking trip of more than six miles.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	

The End – Thankyou



PROGRAM EVALUATION TOOL – Observer Sheet

Program: _____ **Observation Number:** 1st 2nd 3rd 4th **Role of Observer:** e.g. Instructor

Name of Observer: _____ **Date of Observation:** / / 2004 **Day of Program:** _____

INSTRUCTIONS: Described below are 17 different aspects of young people's personal, social and environmental capacities. Please rate YOUR PERCEPTION of the degree to which each individual appears to be effective in each of the areas. Simply rate based on what you've observed of each participant - do not discuss with other staff or students. Writing your ratings in the boxes, using a scale from 1 to 8, as follows:

False	More false than true		Neither true or false		More true than false		True
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

Youth development areas	Participant Names (one per column - room for 16)															
1 Self-Esteem exhibits a high level of self-esteem																
2 Self-Confidence has the self-confidence to manifest what he/she desires in life																
3 Locus of Control believes that his/her actions and efforts determine what happens to him/her																
4 Effective Problem Solving effective at solving problems																
5 Ability to Set & Achieve Goals effective at setting and achieving goals																
6 Reflective Journaling uses journaling to reflect on his/her experiences																

		Participant Names (one per column - room for 16)																	
Youth development areas																			
7	Creative Self-Expression expresses thoughts and feelings creatively, such as through art, drama or music																		
8	Healthy Risk-taking takes healthy risks (not too cautious, not too risky) for the sake of his/her growth and well-being																		
9	Seakayaking Competence possesses good sea kayaking skills																		
10	Respect/Understand Personal Boundaries appropriately respects personal space, touch, and rules of conduct																		
11	Conflict Resolution effectively heads off and resolves interpersonal and group conflicts																		
12	Communication Skills communicates effectively with others in interpersonal and group settings																		
13	Cooperative Teamwork cooperates well working with other team members																		
14	Effective Leadership leads effectively when a task needs to be done																		
15	Community Engagement has a positive sense of community																		
16	Environmental Stewardship is actively concerned and interested in issues in the ecosystem.																		
17	Local Environmental Knowledge has in-depth knowledge about the Casco Bay environment and ecosystem.																		

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THE WAY I FEEL ABOUT MYSELF	
THE PIERS-HARRIS CHILDREN'S SELF-CONCEPT SCALE	
Step Y. Piers, Ph.D. and Dale B. Harris, Ph.D.	
1. My classmates make fun of me	yes no
2. I am a happy person	yes no
3. It is hard for me to make friends	yes no
4. I am often sad	yes no
5. I am smart	yes no
6. I am shy	yes no
7. I get nervous when the teacher calls on me	yes no
8. My looks bother me	yes no
9. When I grow up, I will be an important person	yes no
10. I get worried when we have tests in school	yes no
11. I am unpopular	yes no
12. I am well behaved in school	yes no
13. I usually cry when something goes wrong	yes no
14. I cause trouble to my family	yes no
15. I am strong	yes no
16. I have good ideas	yes no
17. I am an important member of my family	yes no
18. I usually want my own way	yes no
19. I am good at making things with my hands	yes no
20. I give up easily	yes no
21. I am good in my school work	yes no
22. I do many bad things	yes no
23. I can draw well	yes no
24. I am good in music	yes no
25. I have trouble at home	yes no
26. I am slow in finishing my school work	yes no
27. I am an important member of my class	yes no
28. I am nervous	yes no
29. I have pretty eyes	yes no
30. I can give a good report in front of the class	yes no
31. In school I am a dreamer	yes no
32. I pick on my brother(s) and sister(s)	yes no
33. My friends like my ideas	yes no
34. I often get into trouble	yes no
35. I am obedient at home	yes no
36. I am lucky	yes no
37. I worry a lot	yes no
38. My parents expect too much of me	yes no
39. I like being the way I am	yes no
40. I feel left out of things	yes no

THE WAY I FEEL ABOUT MYSELF

THE PIERS-HARRIS CHILDREN'S SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

Step Y. Piers, Ph.D. and Dale B. Harris, Ph.D.

Name: _____

Grade: _____

Age: _____

Gender: _____

Teacher: _____

Parent: _____

Directions

Here is a set of statements that tell how some people feel about themselves. Read each statement and decide whether or not it describes the way you feel about yourself. If it is true, or mostly true for you, circle the word "yes" next to the statement. If it is false or nearly false for you, circle the word "no." Answer every question, even if some are hard to decide. Do not circle both "yes" and "no" for the same statement. If you want to change your answer, cross it out with an X, and circle your new answer.

Remember that there are no right or wrong answers. Only you can tell us how you feel about yourself, so we hope you will mark the way you really feel inside.

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WPS-89

P.E.T. – A[©]

NAME: _____	AGE: _____(years)	DATE TODAY: _____
MALE / FEMALE (circle one) PROGRAM: _____		

Important Instructions:

This is NOT a test – respond to the statements honestly, the way you feel now.
 The results are only used for improving Rippleffect’s programs, not for reporting on you.
 In response to each statement, CIRCLE one number, using this rating scale:

FALSE NOT LIKE ME	TRUE LIKE ME
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
This statement doesn’t <u>describe</u> me at all; it isn’t <u>like</u> me at all	More false than true More true than false This statement describes me very well; it is very much like me.

SOME EXAMPLES

- A. I am a fast thinker. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
 (Fred circled 6 because he believes that “I am a fast thinker” is sometimes true – it is sometimes like him.)
- B. I am a good storyteller. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
 (Mary circled 2 because she believes that “I am a good storyteller” isn’t like her much at all - she doesn’t really tell good stories.)

STATEMENT	FALSE Not like me	TRUE Like me
01. Overall most things I do turn out well.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7 8
02. I work hard at solving what’s causing my problems.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7 8
03. I write about my thoughts and feelings in a journal or diary.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7 8
04. People understand me when I’m talking.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7 8
05. I know I have the ability to do anything I want to do.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7 8
06. Goals are important to me.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7 8
07. I cooperate well when working in team.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7 8

08. I have an in-depth knowledge about the local natural environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
09. My own efforts and actions are what will determine my future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
10. I respect other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
11. I express myself in creative ways.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
12. I resolve my conflicts with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
13. I enjoy living in my community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
STATEMENT		FALSE Not like me			TRUE Like me			
14. I am good at deciding whether a risk is worth taking.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
15. I believe humans must live in harmony with nature in order to survive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
16. As a leader, I get people working well together.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
17. I am a competent at canoeing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
18. Overall I have a lot to be proud of.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
19. I solve problems to the best of my ability.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
20. I use a journal or diary to record my life experiences.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
21. I communicate effectively with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
22. When I apply myself to something I am confident I will succeed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
23. I have specific goals to aim for.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
24. I like cooperating in a team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
25. My life is mostly controlled by things outside of my control	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
26. I know a lot about Bray and Shankhill's ecosystem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

27. I think carefully about the consequences of my risky actions. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

28. I behave appropriately towards other people. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

29. I like to use creative ways of exploring my thoughts and feelings. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

30. I avoid unnecessary conflicts with others. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

31. If I have problems, there are people in my community who help me to solve them. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

32. I think conserving natural resources is necessary. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

33. I am a capable leader. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

34. I am confident in my ability to handle things that happen stormy weather handle waves, high winds, and capsizes. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

35. Most things I do I do well. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

**APPENDIX G. INTRODUCTORY LETTERS TO THE PARTICIPANTS PILOT
STUDY**

Introductory Letter for the Pilot Study	Young Person
Introductory Letter for the Pilot Study	Parent
Introductory Letter for the Pilot Study	Teacher

LETTER TO YOUTH – PILOT STUDY

Date

Dear Name

The organisation is currently offering an Equine Assisted Learning programme for young people within the greater Dublin area. As part of this two year programme the organisation would like to conduct research study to see how Equine Assisted Learning may be affecting the young people who take part in the programme.

I am writing to ask you if you would be prepared to participate in the main study. We have already written to your parents who have given their permission for you to take part.

I have attached an Information Sheet which gives more information on the main study.

Please understand that you are free to refuse to take part. The main study is not related to your taking part in the programme. If you are not interested in taking part in this study, please indicate this on the form and return this form in the stamped addressed envelope provided

The information provided by the study will be of great importance in helping us to both continue with the programme and to improve it.

Thank you for your considering the information in this letter. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact *Mairead Dowling*:
0868569541

While there is no reward to you – your views will help The organisation with running the equine assisted learning service in the future.

If you have any questions about this study please feel free to contact me at the number above.

Thank you for your help

John Green

Chairperson

Organisation

Jacinta Holly

Co-Ordinator

Equine Assisted Learning Service

LETTER TO PARENTS – PILOT STUDY

Date

Dear parent

The organisation is currently offering an Equine Assisted Learning programme within the greater Dublin area. The sponsorship for this is from Allied Irish Banks which started in January 2008 and is due to end in December 2009.

As part of this two year programme The rganisation would like to conduct research study into how Equine Assisted Learning may be impacting on the young people that participate in the programme.

We are writing to you to ask you if you would be prepared to take part in the Main study and if you would be prepared to give your consent for your son/daughter to take part and consent for his/her teacher to take part.

Taking part would mean completing three questionnaires and taking part in an interview. The questionnaires will take approximately 45 minutes to complete. The interview will take approximately 30 minutes. I have attached an Information Sheet which gives more information on the Main study.

Please understand that you are free to refuse to take part and that the study is not related to your pupils' participation in the programme. If you are not interested in taking part in this

Main study, please indicate this on the attached form and return this form in the stamped addressed envelope provided

The information provided by the study will be of great importance in helping us to both continue with the programme and to improve it.

Thank you for your considering the information in this letter. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact *Mairead Dowling*:
0868569541

John Green

Chairperson

Organisation Foundation

Jacinta Holly

Co-ordinator

Equine Assisted Learning Service

LETTER TO TEACHERS – PILOT STUDY

Date

Dear Teacher

The organisation is currently offering an Equine Assisted Learning programme within the greater Dublin area. The sponsorship for this is from Allied Irish Banks which started in January 2008 and is due to end in December 2009.

As part of this two year programme The organisation would like to conduct research study into how Equine Assisted Learning may be impacting on the young people that participate in the programme.

We are writing to you to ask you would be prepared to take part in the Main study.

Taking part would mean completing three questionnaires and taking part in an interview. The questionnaires will take approximately 45 minutes to complete. The interview will take approximately 30 minutes. I have attached an Information Sheet which gives more information on the Main study.

Please understand that you are free to refuse to take part and that the study is not related to your pupils' participation in the programme. If you are not interested in taking part in this Main study, please indicate this on the attached form and return this form in the stamped addressed envelope provided

The information provided by the study will be of great importance in helping us to both continue with the programme and to improve it.

Thank you for your considering the information in this letter. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact *Mairead Dowling: 0868569541*

John Green

Jacinta Holly

Chairperson

Co-Ordinator

Organisation Foundation

Equine Assisted Learning Service

**APPENDIX H. INFORMATION SHEETS ABOUT THE RESEARCH FOR
PARTICIPANTS - PILOT STUDY**

Information Sheet about the research for the Pilot Study	Young Person
Information Sheet about the research for the Pilot Study	Parent
Information Sheet about the research for the Pilot Study	Teacher

INFORMATION SHEET FOR YOUTH PILOT STUDY

Research Study: Evaluation of the Equine Assisted Learning

Programme Contact details for the research team: Mairead Dowling

0868569541

Background and Purpose:

As part of a two year Equine Assisted Learning Programme, Jill Carey, as part of her PhD, is planning to carry out a research study on the impact of this programme on young people.

This research will be supported by The organisation , the School of Nursing in Dublin City University and the School of Psychology in University College Dublin. Young people between the ages of 11-17, their parents and their teachers are being invited to participate. This study will start in January 2009 and end in March 2010. While there is no direct benefit or reward to you, The organisation will benefit from understanding peoples' views of the work they do with young people through equine assisted learning.

As part of this study there is a need to carry out a Main study – to see how people get on with the questions and if they need to be changed in any way.

What happens if we take part? We are inviting you to take part in this study as someone who is involved in the Equine Assisted Learning programme at or through The organisation .

- **If you agree to take part yourself** we will invite you to complete three questionnaires and to take part in an interview. The questionnaires take approximately 45 minutes to complete. The interview will take approximately 30 minutes.
- The interviews will be conducted by a researcher appointed by Dublin City University. Interviews will be tape-recorded to ensure that all relevant information is collected.
- There are no known risks associated with taking part.
- If you decide not to take part, you will not be contacted about this study again and your involvement in the equine assisted learning programme will not be affected.

What happens if I do not want to take part?

- **If you decide not to take part**, you will not be contacted about this study again and your involvement in the equine assisted learning programme will not be affected.

- **How will our information be protected?** The questionnaires will be stored separately in a secure location in Dublin City University. When completing questionnaires, each participant will be given an ID number. This will be used for any information relating to the study. The information which links names and numbers will be stored separately to the questionnaires in a secure location in DCU.

Once the information has been collected, all individuals' contributions will remain confidential to the research team unless there is a concern for an individual's safety. All individuals will be reminded of this at the outset.

The recording of the interviews will be transcribed and all identifying information will be removed (e.g. names, places).

The only exceptions to confidentiality are if a child, parent or teacher reports something that suggests a child is at risk of abuse or neglect. In this case, the researcher is required to report her concerns to Equine Assisted Learning Co-ordinator who will implement the organisation Policy on Child and Adult Protection

Voluntary Participation: It is up to you to decide whether you would like to take part or not. Participation is completely voluntary. You are free to withdraw at any time and you will be reminded of this at the start of the study. After 5 years the ID key will be destroyed and it will no longer be possible to withdraw your or your family's information.

What will happen to the results of the study? The information will be collected by the research team. Outside of the research team and possibly examiners within Dublin City University, nobody will have access to information on individuals who participate in the research. A report will be compiled for The organisation and will be made available to the young people, parents, teachers and other interested individuals and organisations. However no individual will be identified in these or any other reports. The study's results will be published in professional journals and presented at conferences, and will form part of a PhD thesis submitted to the School of Nursing in Dublin City University. Recordings of the interviews will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and destroyed after the PhD thesis has been examined. The hard copies of information collected will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in DCU and in password protected computer files. The data will be destroyed after 5 years.

Don't forget the consent form! There is a consent form attached to this information sheet. Every person participating must return a signed consent form.

Thank you very much for supporting this study. Please keep this information for your records.

INFORMATION SHEET FOR PARENTS PILOT STUDY

Research Study: Evaluation of the Equine Assisted Learning

Programme Contact details for the research team: Mairead Dowling:

0868569541

Background and Purpose:

As part of a two year Equine Assisted Learning Programme, Jill Carey, as part of her PhD, is planning to carry out a research study on the impact of this programme on young people. This research will be supported by The organisation , the School of Nursing in Dublin City University and the School of Psychology in University College Dublin. Young people between the ages of 11-17, their parents and their teachers are being invited to participate. This study will start in January 2009 and end in March 2010. While there is no direct benefit or reward to you, The organisation will benefit from understanding peoples' views of the work they do with young people through equine assisted learning.

As part of this study there is a need to carry out a Main study – to see how people get on with the questions and if they need to be changed in any way.

What happens if we take part? We are inviting you to take part in this study as a parent of somebody who is involved in the Equine Assisted Learning programme at or through The organisation .

- **If you agree to take part yourself** we will invite you to complete 3 questionnaires and to take part in an interview. The questionnaires take approximately 45 minutes to complete. The interview will take approximately 30 minutes.
- The interviews will be conducted by a researcher appointed by Dublin City University. Interviews will be tape-recorded to ensure that all relevant information is collected.
- There are no known risks associated with taking part.
- **If you decide not to take part**, you will not be contacted about this study again and your involvement in the equine assisted learning programme will not be affected.

What happens if I do not want to take part?

- **If you decide not to take part, you** will not be contacted about this study again and your son/daughters involvement in the equine assisted learning programme will not be affected.

How will our information be protected? The questionnaires will be stored separately in a secure location in Dublin City University. When completing questionnaires, each participant will be given an ID number. This will be used for any information relating to the study. The information which links names and numbers will be stored separately to the questionnaires in a secure location in DCU.

Once the information has been collected, all individuals' contributions will remain confidential to the research team unless there is a concern for an individual's safety. All individuals will be reminded of this at the outset.

The recording of the interviews will be transcribed and all identifying information will be removed (e.g. names, places).

The only exceptions to confidentiality are if a child, parent or teacher reports something that suggests a child is at risk of abuse or neglect. In this case, the researcher is required to report her concerns to Equine Assisted Learning Co-ordinator who will implement the organisation Policy on Child and Adult Protection

Voluntary Participation: It is up to you to decide whether you would like to take part or not. Participation is completely voluntary. You are free to withdraw at any time and you will be reminded of this at the start of the study. After 5 years the ID key will be destroyed and it will no longer be possible to withdraw your or your family's information.

What will happen to the results of the study? The information will be collected by the research team. Outside of the research team and possibly examiners within Dublin City University, nobody will have access to information on individuals who participate in the research. A report will be compiled for The organisation and will be made available to the young people, parents, teachers and other interested individuals and organisations. However no individual will be identified in these or any other reports. The study's results will be published in professional journals and presented at conferences, and will form part of a PhD thesis submitted to the School of Nursing in Dublin City University. Recordings of the interviews will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and destroyed after the PhD thesis has been examined. The hard copies of information collected will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in DCU and in password protected computer files. The data will be destroyed after 5 years.

Don't forget the consent form! There is a consent form attached to this information sheet. Every person participating must return a signed consent form.

Thank you very much for supporting this study. Please keep this information for your records.

INFORMATION SHEET FOR TEACHERS PILOT STUDY

Research Study: Evaluation of the Equine Assisted Learning

Programme Contact details for the research team: Mairead Dowling:

0868569541

Background and Purpose:

As part of a two year Equine Assisted Learning Programme, Jill Carey, as part of her PhD, is planning to carry out a research study on the impact of this programme on young people. This research will be supported by The organisation , the School of Nursing in Dublin City University and the School of Psychology in University College Dublin. Young people between the ages of 11-17, their parents and their teachers are being invited to participate. This study will start in January 2009 and end in March 2010. While there is no direct benefit or reward to you, The organisation will benefit from understanding peoples' views of the work they do with young people through equine assisted learning.

As part of this study there is a need to carry out a Main study – to see how people get on with the questions and if they need to be changed in any way.

What happens if we take part? We are inviting you to take part in this study as a teacher of somebody who is involved in the Equine Assisted Learning programme at or through The organisation .

- **If you agree to take part yourself** we will invite you to complete 3 questionnaires and to take part in an interview. The questionnaires take approximately 45 minutes to complete. The interview will take approximately 30 minutes.
- The interviews will be conducted by a researcher appointed by Dublin City University. Interviews will be tape-recorded to ensure that all relevant information is collected.
- There are no known risks associated with taking part.
- **If you decide not to take part**, you will not be contacted about this study again and your involvement in the equine assisted learning programme will not be affected.

What happens if I do not want to take part?

- **If you decide not to take part**, you will not be contacted about this study again and your pupil's involvement in the equine assisted learning programme will not be affected.

How will our information be protected? The questionnaires will be stored separately in a secure location in Dublin City University. When completing questionnaires, each participant will be given an ID number. This will be used for any information relating to the study. The information which links names and numbers will be stored separately to the questionnaires in a secure location in DCU.

Once the information has been collected, all individuals' contributions will remain confidential to the research team unless there is a concern for an individual's safety. All individuals will be reminded of this at the outset.

The recording of the interviews will be transcribed and all identifying information will be removed (e.g. names, places).

The only exceptions to confidentiality are if a child, parent or teacher reports something that suggests a child is at risk of abuse or neglect. In this case, the researcher is required to report her concerns to Equine Assisted Learning Co-ordinator who will implement the organisation Policy on Child and Adult Protection

Voluntary Participation: It is up to you to decide whether you would like to take part or not. Participation is completely voluntary. You are free to withdraw at any time and you will be reminded of this at the start of the study. After 5 years the ID key will be destroyed and it will no longer be possible to withdraw your or your family's information.

What will happen to the results of the study? The information will be collected by the research team. Outside of the research team and possibly examiners within Dublin City University, nobody will have access to information on individuals who participate in the research. A report will be compiled for The organisation and will be made available to the young people, parents, teachers and other interested individuals and organisations. However no individual will be identified in these or any other reports. The study's results will be published in professional journals and presented at conferences, and will form part of a PhD thesis submitted to the School of Nursing in Dublin City University. Recordings of the interviews will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and destroyed after the PhD thesis has been examined. The hard copies of information collected will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in DCU and in password protected computer files. The data will be destroyed after 5 years.

Don't forget the consent form! There is a consent form attached to this information sheet. Every person participating must return a signed consent form.

Thank you very much for supporting this study. Please keep this information for your records.

**APPENDIX I. LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS THREE MONTHS AFTER EAL
PROGRAMME**

Letter to participants for 3 month follow up	All participants
--	------------------

Date

Dear Name (parent, young person and teacher)

It is almost three months now since you filled out the questionnaire about the Equine Assisted Learning Programme.

I am writing to let you know that I will be posting out the third and final set of questionnaires to you within the next week.

As before, if you would like to withdraw from the study you may do so by contacting me at this number <
>

In the meantime, please contact me if I can be of
any assistance. Thank you for assisting in this
study.

Yours sincerely

**APPENDIX J. INTERVIEW LETTERS AND SCHEDULE FOR THE
PARTICIPANTS: PILOT STUDY**

Interview Letter and Schedule for the Pilot Study	Young Person
Interview Letter and Schedule for the Pilot Study	Parent
Interview Letter and Schedule for the Pilot Study	Teacher

Pilot Study
Interview Schedule for the young person who has participated in the
EAL Programme

Welcome 7and Introduction	You are very welcome today, thank for taking the time to talk to me. My name is RESEARCHER I would like to talk to you about your experience of the equine assisted learning programme that The organisation provides – Is that ok?
Study aim	The aim of this interview group is to find out more about what is means to you to be part of the equine assisted learning programme – about being around the horses. I hope that this interview will help us and other people to understand what people like/dislike about being around the horses We will be tape recording our talk today so that we can listen to each of you and not be distracted by taking notes. The only people who will hear these tapes are I and other members of the research team. When I type them out we will take your name and other information out of them. Try your best to speak clearly
Participation	You are here so that you can tell us what you think. You are welcome to say whatever you like on the topic. If you decide not to say anything, that is also fine. If you would like to stop the interview, that is fine. You may withdraw from the discussion at any stage.
Confidentiality	I will not be discussing what you say with anyone in The organisation . However, if there is a concern for a person's safety, we may have to let someone know so that they can
Clarification	Is that okay with you? Do you understand? Any questions before we start?
Understanding of EAL	The first question I would like to ask you is how would you describe equine assisted
Self-awareness	How do you think equine assisted learning (being around horses) affects people?
Emotional awareness	How did you feel each time you were doing the different activities with the horses? Can you tell me if different sessions made you feel differently? Can you give me some examples?
Communications	I would like to talk to you about talking and listening to the horses – can you tell me how you told the horses what to do? How easy or difficult was that? How did this work? Can you give me an example? What changes did you have to make if the horse would not do what you were asking? Can you give me some examples of this? Do you think you talk and listen has changed?
Questions and thanks	We are coming towards the end of the interview – but before we finish, I would like to ask you if you have any suggestions as to how the equine assisted learning programme could be improved? Anything to do with the horses, the place – the staff – or anything that comes to mind - And then finally do you have any questions for us? Thank you so much for talking with us today. By doing this, you are helping me and other adults understand more about equine assisted learning – being around the horses

Pilot Study
Interview Schedule for parents of young people participating in the EAL
Programme

Welcome and Introduction	You are very welcome today, thank for taking the time to talk to me. My name is RESEARCHER. I would like to talk to you about <names> experience of
Study aim	The aim of this interview group is to find out more about what it means to young people to be part of the equine assisted learning programme – about being around the horses. I hope that this interview will help us and other people to understand what people like/dislike about being around the horses. We will be tape recording our talk today so that we can listen to each of you and not be distracted by taking notes. The only people who will hear these tapes are me and other members of the research team. When I type them out we will take your name and other information out of them. Try your best to speak clearly
Participation	You are here so that you can tell us what you think. You are welcome to say whatever you like on the topic. If you decide not to say anything, that is also fine. If you would like to stop the interview, that is fine. You may withdraw from the discussion at any stage.
Confidentiality	I will not be discussing what you say with anyone in The organisation . However, if there is a concern for a person's safety, we may have to let someone know so that they can provide support (more discussion around this)
Clarification	Is that okay with you? Do you understand? Any questions before we start?
Understanding of Equine Assisted Learning	The first question I would like to ask you is how has <name> described equine assisted learning (being around the horses) to you? How did s/he describe the sessions and the work with the horses? How did <name> describe any learning – if any – that happened as part of the sessions?
Self-awareness	Did <name> refer to anything s/he may have learnt about her/himself as part of the sessions? How did <name> talk about the sessions and how she got on? Can you give me some examples? How do you think equine assisted learning (being around horses) has affected <name>? Can you tell me what makes you think this? Can you give me some examples?
Relationships	What – if any – changes have you noticed in how s/he relates with her brothers/sisters or other family members? Can you give me some examples of this? Have you noticed if <name> has changed in how s/he considers others in the family? Can you give me some examples?
Behaviour	Have you noticed any changes in <names> behaviour since s/he started in the equine assisted programme (being around the horses) Can you give me some examples of this?
Communications	What – if any – changes have you noticed about how <name> talks to her /his brothers/sisters or and you as his/her parents? Can you give me some examples? What – if any – changes have you noticed about how <name> listens to her/his brothers/sisters or you as his/her parents? Can you give me some examples?

Questions and thanks	<p>We are coming towards the end of the interview – but before we finish, I would like to ask you if you have any suggestions as to how – from listening to <name> -the equine assisted learning programme could be improved? anything to do with the horses, the place – the staff – or anything that comes to mind -</p> <p>And then finally do you have any questions for us?</p> <p>Thank you so much for talking with us today. By doing this, you are helping me and other adults understand more about equine assisted learning – thank</p>
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Pilot Study
Interview Schedule for teachers of young people participating in the EAL
Programme

Welcome and Introduction	You are very welcome today, thank for taking the time to talk to me. My name is RESEARCHER and I would like to talk to you about your <names> experience of the equine assisted learning programme that The organisation provides – Is that
Study aim	The aim of this interview group is to find out more about what it means to young people to be part of the equine assisted learning programme – about being around the horses. I hope that this interview will help us and other people to understand what people like/dislike about being around the horses. We will be tape recording our talk today so that we can listen to each of you and not be distracted by taking notes. The only people who will hear these tapes are me and other members of the research team. When I type them out we will take your name and other information out of them. Try your best to speak clearly -
Participation	You are here so that you can tell us what you think. You are welcome to say whatever you like on the topic. If you decide not to say anything, that is also fine. If you would like to stop the interview, that is fine. You may withdraw from the discussion at any stage.
Confidentiality	I will not be discussing what you say with anyone in The organisation. However, if there is a concern for a person's safety, we may have to let someone know so that they can provide support (more discussion around this)
Clarification	Is that okay with you? Do you understand? Any questions before we start?
Understanding of Equine Assisted Learning	The first question I would like to ask you is how has <name> described equine assisted learning (being around the horses) to you? How did s/he describe the sessions and the work with the horses? How did <name> describe any learning – if any – that happened as part of the sessions? Can you give me some examples?
Self-awareness	Did <name> refer to anything s/he may have learnt about her/himself as part of the sessions? How did <name> talk about the sessions and how she got on? Can you give me some examples? How do you think equine assisted learning (being around horses) has affected <name>? Can you tell me what makes you think this? Can you give me some examples?
Relationships	What – if any – changes have you noticed in how s/he relates with other pupils in the class or within the school? Can you give me some examples of this? Have you noticed if <name> has changed in how s/he considers others in the class or school? Can you give me some examples?
Behaviour	Have you noticed any changes in <names> behaviour since s/he started in the equine assisted programme (being around the horses) Can you give me some examples of this?
Communications	What – if any – changes have you noticed about how <name> talks to her /his peers in the class or the school or to you as his/her teacher? Can you give me some examples? What – if any – changes have you noticed about how <name> listens to her/his peers in the class or the school or to you as his/her teacher? Can you give me some examples?
Questions and thanks	We are coming towards the end of the interview – but before we finish, I would like to ask you if you have any suggestions as to how – from listening to <name> - the equine assisted learning programme could be improved? anything to do with the horses, the place – the staff – or anything that comes to mind - And then finally do you have any questions for us? Thank you so much for talking with us today. By doing this, you are helping me and other adults understand more about equine assisted learning – thank you

APPENDIX K. ASSENT AND CONSENT FORMS FOR THE PARTICIPANTS:

PILOT STUDY

Assent Form for the Pilot Study	Young Person
Consent form for the Pilot Study	Parent
Consent form for the Pilot Study	Teacher

PILOT STUDY
ASSENT FORM – YOUNG PERSON

Research Study: Evaluation of the Equine Assisted Learning

Programme At The organisation

Name

Date of

Birth

Address

I have read and understood the Information Leaflet for this study
and I understand what taking part in this study will involve.

I have had time to consider whether I want to take part in this study. I have
had the chance to ask questions and any questions I have asked have been
answered clearly.

I understand that my participation is voluntary (that I have a
choice as to whether I participate) and that I am free to withdraw
at any time if I choose to do so.

I understand that if I am invited to and agree to an interview sessions
will be tape recorded, that the tapes will be destroyed once they have
been typed, and that all identifying information will be removed

I understand that the information collected may be presented and/or
published in academic journals and at conferences, but that no individual
will be identifiable from the information.

PLEASE CIRCLE YES OR NO TO THE FOLLOWING QUESTION

I agree to take part in this study

YES NO

.....

Name (in block letters)

Date

Signature

PILOT STUDY
CONSENT FORM:
PARENTS

Research Study: Evaluation of the Equine Assisted Learning

Programme At The organisation

Name

Son/Daughters

Name Address

Teachers Name and Address

I have read and understood the Information Leaflet for this study
and I understand what taking part in this study will involve.

I have had time to consider whether I want to take part in this study. I have
had the chance to ask questions and any questions I have asked have been
answered clearly.

I understand that my participation is voluntary (that I have a choice
as to whether I participate) and that I am free to withdraw at any
time if I choose to do so.

**I understand that if I am invited to and agree to an interview sessions will be tape
recorded, that the tapes will be destroyed once they have been typed, and that all
identifying information will be removed**

I understand that the information collected may be presented and/or
published in academic journals and at conferences, but that no individual
will be identifiable from the information.

PLEASE CIRCLE YES OR NO TO THE FOLLOWING QUESTION

I agree to take part in this study Yes

No

Name (in block letters)

Date _____

Signature

I agree to my son /daughter
taking part in this study

Yes

No

Name (in block letters)

Date

Signature

I agree to my sons/daughters
teacher taking part in this study

Yes

No

Name (in block letters)

Date

Signature

PILOT
STUDY
CONSENT
FORM
TEACHERS

Research Study: Evaluation of the Equine Assisted Learning

Programme at The organisation

Name

Pupil's Name

School Address

I have read and understood the Information Leaflet for this study and I understand what taking part in this study will involve.

I have had time to consider whether I want to take part in this study. I have had the chance to ask questions and any questions I have asked have been answered clearly.

I understand that my participation is voluntary (that I have a choice as to whether I participate) and that I am free to withdraw at any time if I choose to do so.

I understand that if I am invited to and agree to an interview sessions will be tape recorded, that the tapes will be destroyed once they have been typed, and that all identifying information will be removed

I understand that the information collected may be presented and/or published in academic journals and at conferences, but that no individual will be identifiable from the information.

PLEASE CIRCLE YES OR NO TO THE FOLLOWING QUESTION

I agree to take part in this study

YES

NO

Name (in block letters)

Date

Signature

APPENDIX L. PROTOCOL FOR PARTICIPANTS: PILOT STUDY

Protocol for the pilot study	Young Person
Protocol for the pilot study	Parent
Protocol for the pilot study	Teacher

Protocol Young Person

The following guidelines will apply if a young person discloses sensitive information during the interview process:

- A. In the event of a young person disclosing information of a sensitive nature to the researcher, the researcher will cease recording immediately and allow the young person to complete his/her dialogue.
- B. Reassurance will be given to the young person that they will not be punished in any way for the information that he/she have disclosed and comfort measures will be given to remove any anxiety that the young person may have regarding same.
- C. The researcher will inform the young person that the information that he/she has disclosed must be communicated to The organisation Equine Assisted Learning Service Co-ordinator
- D. Although all participants will be told that the information they provide will be treated confidentially, if a young person discloses information that raises concern for the interviewer, at all times the safety and welfare of the young person must take priority and appropriate action must be taken.

Giving information to others for the protection of a young person is not a breach of confidentiality (Children First 1999)

- E. Any reasonable suspicion of abuse (physical, emotional, neglect) must elicit a response from the care giver / those responsible for the young person i.e. the interviewer (Children First 1999).
- F. The young person will be reunited with their teacher or referral agency staff

- G. The researcher will inform the teacher or referral agency staff about the information that the young person has disclosed during the interview process and all events leading up to disclosure.
- H. The researcher will inform the teacher or referral agency staff that she will be reporting the incident to the Co-ordinator of the organisation Equine Assisted Learning Service in line with the organisation Policy on Child and Adult Protection.
- I. Reassurance will also be given to the young person and the family that the termination of the interview will not affect their participation in the Equine Assisted Learning Programme.

Signed:

Researcher

Protocol for Parents

The following guidelines will apply should a parents show signs of anxiety/distress during the interview

- A. The interview and recording will cease immediately
- B. Reassurance and comfort will be given to the parent by the researcher
- C. The referring agency will be appraised on the parent's emotional state and events leading up to the parent's feelings of anxiety.
- D. Reassurance will be given to the parent that the termination of the interview will not affect their son/daughters participation in the Equine Assisted Learning Service.

Signed:

Researcher

PROTOCOL FOR TEACHERS

The following guidelines will apply should a teacher show signs of anxiety/distress during the interview

1. The interview and recording will cease immediately
2. Reassurance and comfort will be given to the teacher by the researcher
3. The referring agency will be appraised on the teachers emotional state and events leading up to the teachers feelings of anxiety
4. Reassurance will be given to the teacher that the termination of the interview will not affect their pupils participation in the Equine Assisted Learning Service

Signed: _____

Researcher

APPENDIX M. INTRODUCTORY LETTER TO PARTICIPANT MAIN STUDY

Introductory letter for the main study	Young Person
Introductory letter for the main study	Parent
Introductory letter for the main study	Teacher

Letter to youth – Main
study

Date :

Dear

Name

The organisation is currently offering an Equine Assisted Learning programme for young people within the greater Dublin area. As part of this two year programme the organisation would like to conduct research study into how Equine Assisted Learning may be impacting on the young people who participate in the programme.

I am writing to ask you if you would be prepared to participate in the study. We have already written to your parents who have given their permission for you to take part.

I have attached an Information Sheet which gives more information on the research study.

Please understand that you are free to refuse to take part and that the study is not related to you joining in the programme. If you are not interested in taking part in this study, please indicate this on the form and return this form in the stamped addressed envelope provided

The information provided by the study will be of great importance in helping us to both continue with the programme and to improve it.

Thank you for your considering the information in this letter. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact **name at number**

While there is no reward to you – your views will help the organisation with running the equine assisted learning service in the future.

If you have any questions about this study please feel free to contact me at the number above.

Thank you for your help

John Green

Chairperson

The organisation

Jacinta Holly

Co-Ordinator

Equine Assisted Learning Service

Letter to parents – main
study

Date:

Dear Parent

The organisation is currently offering an Equine Assisted Learning programme within the greater Dublin area. The sponsorship for this is from Allied Irish Banks which started in January 2008 and is due to end in December 2009.

As part of this two year programme The organisation would like to conduct research study into how Equine Assisted Learning may be impacting on the young people that participate in the programme.

As part of your son/daughters participation in the 8 week Equine Assisted Learning programme we are writing to ask you if you would be prepared to take part in a research project and if you would be prepared to give your permission for him/her to take part. We are also asking if you would give your consent for your son/daughters teacher to take part.

Taking part would mean completing three questionnaires before and after your son/daughters starts the 8 week Equine Assisted Learning programme. The same questionnaires would also be filled out three months after the completion of the Equine Assisted Learning Programme. The questionnaires will take approximately 45 minutes to complete. We may also ask if it would be possible to carry out an interview with you 3 months after the programme. I have attached an Information Sheet which gives more information on the research study.

Please understand that you are free to refuse to take part and that the study is not related to your son/daughters participation in the programme. If you are not interested in taking part in this study, please indicate this on the form and return this form in the stamped addressed envelope provided

The information provided by the study will be of great importance in helping us to both continue with the programme and to improve it.

Thank you for your considering the information in this letter. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact **name at number**

John Green

Chairperson

The organisation Foundation

Jacinta Holly

Co-Ordinator

Equine Assisted Learning Service

Letter to Teachers – Main Study

Date:

Dear Teacher

The organisation is currently offering an Equine Assisted Learning programme within the greater Dublin area. The sponsorship for this is from Allied Irish Banks which started in January 2008 and is due to end in December 2009.

As part of this two year programme The organisation would like to conduct research study into how Equine Assisted Learning may be impacting on the young people that participate in the programme.

As part of your pupils' participation in the 8 week Equine Assisted Learning programme we are writing to ask you if you would be prepared to take part in a research project. We have written to the parents of the child in your class and they have given permission for me to contact you.

Taking part would mean completing three questionnaires before and after your pupil starts the 8 week Equine Assisted Learning programme. The same questionnaires would also be filled out three months after the completion of the Equine Assisted Learning Programme. The questionnaires will take approximately 45 minutes to complete. We may also ask if it would be possible to carry out an interview with you after the programme. I have attached an Information Sheet which gives more information on the research study.

Please understand that you are free to refuse to take part and that the study is not related to your pupils' participation in the programme. If you are not interested in taking part in this study, please indicate this on the yellow form and return this form in the stamped addressed envelope provided

The information provided by the study will be of great importance in helping us to both continue with the programme and to improve it.

Thank you for your considering the information in this letter. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact **name at number**

John Green

Chairperson

Jacinta Holly

Co-Ordinator

APPENDIX N. INFORMATION SHEETS ABOUT THE STUDY FOR PARTICIPANS:

MAIN STUDY

Information Sheet about the research for the main Study	Young Person
Information Sheet about the research for the main Study	Parent
Information Sheet about the research for the main Study	Teacher

INFORMATION SHEET FOR YOUTH – MAIN STUDY

Research Study: Evaluation of the Equine Assisted Learning

Programme Contact details for the research team

Background and Purpose:

As part of a two year Equine Assisted Learning Programme, Jill Carey, as part of her PhD, is planning to carry out a research study on the impact of this programme on young people.

This research will be supported by the organisation , the School of Nursing in Dublin City University and the School of Psychology in University College Dublin. Young people between the ages of 11-17, their parents and their teachers are being invited to participate. This study will start in January 2009 and end in March 2010. While there is no direct benefit or reward to you, the organisation will benefit from understanding peoples' views of the work they do with young people through equine assisted learning.

What happens if we take part? We are inviting you to take part in this study as someone who will be involved in the Equine Assisted Learning programme at or through the organisation .

- **If you agree to take part yourself** we will invite you to complete 3 questionnaires which will be sent out two weeks before you start the 8 week programme, one week after the programme ends and again three months after the programme ends. The questionnaires take approximately 45 minutes to complete.
- We will also contact your parents and teacher asking them to fill out similar questionnaires.
- We may also be contacting you asking your permission to interview you. The interviews will be conducted by a researcher appointed by Dublin City University. Interviews will be tape-recorded to ensure that all relevant information is collected.
- There are no known risks associated with taking part.
- **If you decide not to take part**, you will not be contacted about this study again and your involvement in the equine assisted learning programme will not be affected.

What happens if I do not want to take part? If you give your consent get involved,

- We will invite you to complete 3 questionnaires and will help you to fill this if you wish. Questionnaires will be completed 2 weeks before the 8 week programme, 1 week after the programme and 3 months after the end of the programme
- We may also be contacting to ask your permission to interview you. The interviews will be conducted by a researcher appointed by Dublin City University. Interviews will be tape-recorded to ensure that all relevant information is collected. The interview will take part 3 months after you finish the programme.
- There are no known risks associated with taking part.
- **If you decide not to take part**, you will not be contacted about this study again and your involvement in the equine assisted learning programme will not be affected.

How will our information be protected? The questionnaires will be stored separately in a secure location in Dublin City University. When completing questionnaires, each participant will be given an ID number. This will be used for any information relating to the study. The

information which links names and numbers will be stored separately to the questionnaires in a secure location in DCU.

Once the information has been collected, all individuals' contributions will remain confidential to the research team unless there is a concern for an individual's safety. All individuals will be reminded of this at the outset.

In the event that you invited to and agree to be interviewed, the interview will be recorded. The recording of the interviews will be transcribed and all identifying information will be removed (e.g. names, places). Some quotes may be used in the research report but the identity of the parent or young person or teacher in question will not be reported and any identifying information will be removed.

The only exceptions to confidentiality are if a child, parent or teacher reports something that suggests a child is at risk of abuse or neglect. In this case, the researcher is required to report her concerns to the organisation and the relevant authorities.

Voluntary Participation: It is up to you to decide whether you would like to take part or not. Participation is completely voluntary. You are free to withdraw at any time and you will be reminded of this at the start of the study. After 5 years the ID key will be destroyed and it will no longer be possible to withdraw your or your family's information.

What will happen to the results of the study? The information will be collected by the research team. Outside of the research team and possibly examiners within Dublin City University, nobody will have access to information on individuals who participate in the research. A report will be written for the organisation and will be made available to the young people, parents, teachers and other interested individuals and organisations. However no individual will be identified in these or any other reports. The study's results will be published in professional journals and presented at conferences, and will form part of a PhD thesis submitted to the School of Nursing in Dublin City University. Recordings of the interviews will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and destroyed after the PhD thesis has been examined. The hard copies of information collected will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in DCU and in password protected computer files. The data will be destroyed after 5 years.

Don't forget the consent form! There is a consent form attached to this information sheet. Every person participating must return a signed consent form.

Thank you very much for supporting this study. Please keep this information for your records. The organisation Foundation Equine Assisted Learning Service

Research Study: Evaluation of the Equine Assisted Learning Programme
Contact details for the research team

Background and Purpose:

As part of a two year Equine Assisted Learning Programme, Jill Carey, as part of her PhD, is planning to carry out a research study on the impact of this programme on young people. This research will be supported by The organisation , the School of Nursing in Dublin City University and the School of Psychology in University College Dublin. Young people between the ages of 11-17, their parents and their teachers are being invited to participate. This study will start in January 2009 and end in March 2010. While there is no direct benefit or reward to you, The organisation will benefit from understanding peoples' views of the work they do with young people through equine assisted learning.

What happens if we take part? We are inviting you to take part in this study as a parent of someone who will be involved in participating in the Equine Assisted Learning programme at or through The organisation .

- **If you agree to take part yourself** we will invite you to complete 3 questionnaires which will be sent out two weeks before your son/daughter starts the 8 week programme, one week after the programme ends and again three months after the programme ends. The questionnaires take approximately 45 minutes to complete.
- We will also contact your son/daughter's teacher (with your permission), asking them to fill out similar questionnaires.
- We may also be contacting you asking your permission to interview you. The interviews will be conducted by a researcher appointed by Dublin City University. Interviews will be tape-recorded to ensure that all relevant information is collected.
- There are no known risks associated with taking part.
- **If you decide not to take part**, you will not be contacted about this study again and your son/daughter's participation in the equine assisted learning programme will not be affected.

What happens if my son/daughter takes part? If you give your consent for your son/daughter to participate, we will then invite him/her to take part in the study.

- We will invite your son/daughter to complete 3 questionnaires and where necessary, we will offer assistance. Questionnaires will be completed 2 weeks in advance of the 8 week programme, 1 week after the programme and 3 months after the end of the programme
- We may also be contacting you and your son/daughters asking permission to interview him/her. The interviews will be conducted by a researcher appointed by Dublin City University. Interviews will be tape-recorded to ensure that all relevant information is collected. The interview will take place 3 months after the end of the programme.
- There are no known risks associated with taking part. If your son/daughter decides not to take part, s/he will not be contacted about this study again and his/her participation in the equine assisted learning programme will not be affected.

How will our information be protected? The questionnaires will be stored separately in a secure location in Dublin City University. When completing questionnaires, each participant will be given an ID number. This will be used for any information relating to the study. The information which links names and numbers will be stored separately to the questionnaires in a secure location in DCU.

Once the information has been collected, all individuals' contributions will remain confidential to the research team unless there is a concern for an individual's safety. All individuals will be reminded of this at the outset.

In the event that you invited to and agree to be interviewed, the interview will be recorded. The recording of the interviews will be transcribed and all identifying information will be removed (e.g. names, places). Some quotes may be used in the research report but the identity of the parent or young person or teacher in question will not be reported and any identifying information will be removed.

The only exceptions to confidentiality are if a child, parent or teacher reports something that suggests a child is at risk of abuse or neglect. In this case, the researcher is required to report her concerns to The organisation and the relevant authorities.

Voluntary Participation: It is up to you to decide whether you would like to take part or not. Participation is completely voluntary. You are free to withdraw at any time and you will be reminded of this at the start of the study. After 5 years the ID key will be destroyed and it will no longer be possible to withdraw your or your family's information.

What will happen to the results of the study? The information will be collected by the research team. Outside of the research team and possibly examiners within Dublin City University, nobody will have access to information on individuals who participate in the research. A report will be compiled for The organisation and will be made available to the young people, parents, teachers and other interested individuals and organisations. However no individual will be identified in these or any other reports. The study's results will be published in professional journals and presented at conferences, and will form part of a PhD thesis submitted to the School of Nursing in Dublin City University. Recordings of the interviews will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and destroyed after the PhD thesis has been examined. The hard copies of information collected will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in DCU and in password protected computer files. The data will be destroyed after 5 years.

Don't forget the consent form! There is a consent form attached to this information sheet. Every person participating must return a signed consent form.

Thank you very much for supporting this study. Please keep this information for your records.

INFORMATION SHEET FOR TEACHERS – MAIN STUDY

Research Study: Evaluation of the Equine Assisted Learning Programme

Contact details for the research team: Mairead Dowling:

0868569541 Background and Purpose:

As part of a two year Equine Assisted Learning Programme, Jill Carey, as part of her PhD, is planning to carry out a research study on the impact of this programme on young people. This research will be supported by The organisation, the School of Nursing in Dublin City University and the School of Psychology in University College Dublin. Young people between the ages of 11-17, their parents and their teachers are being invited to participate. This study will start in January 2009 and end in March 2010. While there is no direct benefit or reward to you, The organisation will benefit from understanding peoples' views of the work they do with young people through equine assisted learning..

What happens if we take part? We are inviting you to take part in this study as a teacher / support person of someone who will be involved in participating in the Equine Assisted Learning programme at or through The organisation.

- **If you agree to take part yourself** we will invite you to complete 3 questionnaires which will be sent out two weeks before your pupil starts the 8 week programme, one week after the programme ends and again three months after the programme ends. The questionnaires take approximately 45 minutes to complete.
- We will also contact your pupil's parents asking them to fill out similar questionnaires.
- We may also be contacting you asking your permission to interview you. The interviews will be conducted by a researcher appointed by Dublin City University. Interviews will be tape-recorded to ensure that all relevant information is collected.
- There are no known risks associated with taking part.
- **If you decide not to take part**, you will not be contacted about this study again and your pupils' participation in the equine assisted learning programme will not be affected.

What happens if my pupil takes part?

- We will invite your pupil complete 3 questionnaires and where necessary, we will offer assistance. Questionnaires will be completed 2 weeks in advance of the 8 week programme, 1 week after the programme and 3 months after the end of the programme
- We may also be contacting you and your pupil asking permission to interview him/her. The interviews will be conducted by a researcher appointed by Dublin City University. Interviews will be tape-recorded to ensure that all relevant information is collected.
- There are no known risks associated with taking part.
- **If your pupil decides not to take part**, s/he will not be contacted about this study again and his/her participation in the equine assisted learning programme will not be affected.

How will our information be protected? The questionnaires will be stored separately in a secure location in Dublin City University. When completing questionnaires, each participant will be given an ID number. This will be used for any information relating to the study. The information which links names and numbers will be stored separately to the questionnaires in a secure location in DCU.

Once the information has been collected, all individuals' contributions will remain confidential to the research team unless there is a concern for an individual's safety. All individuals will be reminded of this at the outset.

In the event that you are invited to and agree to be interviewed, the interview will be recorded. The recording of the interviews will be transcribed and all identifying information will be removed (e.g. names, places). Some quotes may be used in the research report but the identity of the parent or young person or teacher in question will not be reported and any identifying information will be removed.

The only exceptions to confidentiality are if a child, parent or teacher reports something that suggests a child is at risk of abuse or neglect. In this case, the researcher is required to report her concerns to Equine Assisted Learning Co-ordinator who will implement the organisation Policy on Child and Adult Protection.

Voluntary Participation: It is up to you to decide whether you would like to take part or not. Participation is completely voluntary. You are free to withdraw at any time and you will be reminded of this at the start of the study. After 5 years the ID key will be destroyed and it will no longer be possible to withdraw your information.

What will happen to the results of the study? The information will be collected by the research team. Outside of the research team and possibly examiners within Dublin City University, nobody will have access to information on individuals who participate in the research. A report will be compiled for The organisation and will be made available to the young people, parents, teachers and other interested individuals and organisations. However no individual will be identified in these or any other reports. The study's results will be published in professional journals and presented at conferences, and will form part of a PhD thesis submitted to the School of Nursing in Dublin City University. Recordings of the interviews will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and destroyed after the PhD thesis has been examined. The hard copies of information collected will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in DCU and in password protected computer files. The data will be destroyed after 5 years.

Don't forget the consent form! There is a consent form attached to this information sheet. Every person participating must return a signed consent form.

Thank you very much for supporting this study. Please keep this information for your records.

APPENDIX O. INTERVIEW LETTER AND SCHEDULE FOR
PARTICIPANTS: MAIN STUDY

Interview letter for the main study	Young Person
Interview letter for the main study	Parent
Interview letter for the main study	Teacher

Date

Dear Name (parent, young person and teacher)

It is almost three months now since you filled out the questionnaire about the Equine Assisted Learning Programme.

I am writing to let you know that I will be posting out the third and final set of questionnaires to you within the next week.

As before, if you would like to withdraw from the study you may do so by contacting me at this number < >

In the meantime, please contact me if I can be of any assistance. Thank you for assisting in this study.

Yours sincerely

LETTER TO YOUNG PERSON RE: INTERVIEW: MAIN STUDY

Date:

Dear Name

I am writing to you to ask if you would take part in an interview - as part of the study on equine assisted learning programme.

The interview will take approximately 30 minutes to complete.

The interview will take place either in your school or at The organisation .

If at any stage you wish to withdraw from the interview you may do so. I will contact you next week to see if you are willing to take part.

In the meantime, thank you for your support of this research project to-date.

Yours sincerely

Researcher

LETTER TO PARENTS/TEACHERS RE: INTERVIEW: MAIN STUDY

Dear Name

I am writing to you to ask if you would take part in an interview - as part of the study on equine assisted learning programme.

The interview will take approximately 30 minutes to complete.

The interview will take place either at The organisation or by telephone.

If at any stage you wish to withdraw from the interview you may do so. I will contact you next week to see if you are willing to take part.

In the meantime, thank you for your support of this research project to-date.

Yours sincerely

Researcher

Main Study
Interview Schedule for the young person who has participated in the
EAL Programme

Welcome and Introduction	You are very welcome today, thank for taking the time to talk to me. My name is RESEARCHER I would like to talk to you about your experience of the equine assisted learning programme that The organisation provides – Is that ok?
Study aim	The aim of this interview group is to find out more about what it means to you to be part of the equine assisted learning programme – about being around the horses. I hope that this interview will help us and other people to understand what people like/dislike about being around the horses We will be tape recording our talk today so that we can listen to each of you and not be distracted by taking notes. The only people who will hear these tapes are I and other members of the research team. When I type them out we will take your name and other information out of them. Try your best to speak clearly
Participation	You are here so that you can tell us what you think. You are welcome to say whatever you like on the topic. If you decide not to say anything, that is also fine If you would like to stop the interview, that is fine. You may withdraw from the discussion at any stage.
Confidentiality	I will not be discussing what you say with anyone in The organisation. However, if there is a concern for a person's safety, we may have to let someone know so that they can
Clarification	Is that okay with you? Do you understand? Any questions before we start?
Understanding of EAL	The first question I would like to ask you is how would you describe equine assisted learning (being around the horses) to a complete stranger?
Self-awareness	How do you think equine assisted learning (being around horses) affects people? Do you think it helps people to learn about themselves
Emotional awareness	How did you feel each time you were doing the different activities with the horses? Can you tell me if different sessions made you feel differently? Can you give me some examples? Were there times when you had different feelings? What caused this?
Communications	I would like to talk to you about talking and listening to the horses – can you tell me how you told the horses what to do? How easy or difficult was that? How did this work? Can you give me an example? What changes did you have to make if the horse would not do what you were asking? Can you give me some examples of this? Do you think you talk and listen has changed?
Questions and thanks	We are coming towards the end of the interview – but before we finish, I would like to ask you if you have any suggestions as to how the equine assisted learning programme could be improved? anything to do with the horses, the place – the staff – or anything that comes to mind - And then finally do you have any questions for us? Thank you so much for talking with us today. By doing this, you are helping me and other adults understand more about equine assisted learning – being around the horses

Main Study
Interview Schedule for parents of young people participating in the EAL
Programme

Welcome and Introduction	You are very welcome today, thank for taking the time to talk to me. My name is RESEARCHER. I would like to talk to you about <names> experience of the equine
Study aim	The aim of this interview group is to find out more about what it means to young people to be part of the equine assisted learning programme – about being around the horses. I hope that this interview will help us and other people to understand what people like/dislike about being around the horses. We will be tape recording our talk today so that we can listen to each of you and not be distracted by taking notes. The only people who will hear these tapes are me and other members of the research team. When I type them out we will take your name and other information out of them. Try your best to speak clearly
Participation	You are here so that you can tell us what you think. You are welcome to say whatever you like on the topic. If you decide not to say anything, that is also fine. If you would like to stop the interview, that is fine. You may withdraw from the discussion at any stage.
Confidentiality	I will not be discussing what you say with anyone in the organisation. However, if there is a concern for a person's safety, we may have to let someone know so that they can provide support (more discussion around this)
Clarification	Is that okay with you? Do you understand? Any questions before we
Understanding of Equine Assisted Learning	The first question I would like to ask you is how has <name> described equine assisted learning (being around the horses) to you? How did s/he describe the sessions and the work with the horses? How did <name> describe any learning – if any – that happened as part of the sessions?
Self-awareness	Did <name> refer to anything s/he may have learnt about her/himself as part of the sessions? How did <name> talk about the sessions and how she got on? Can you give me some examples? How do you think equine assisted learning (being around horses) has affected <name>? Can you tell me what makes you think this? Can you give me some examples?
Relationships	What – if any – changes have you noticed in how s/he relates with her brothers/sisters or other family members? Can you give me some examples of this? Have you noticed if <name> has changed in how s/he considers others in the family? Can you give me some examples?
Behaviour	Have you noticed any changes in <names> behaviour since s/he started in the equine assisted programme (being around the horses) Can you give me some examples of this?
Communications	What – if any – changes have you noticed about how <name> talks to her/his brothers/sisters or and you as his/her parents? Can you give me some examples? What – if any – changes have you noticed about how <name> listens to her/his brothers/sisters or you as his/her parents? Can you give me some examples?
Questions and	

thanks chapter	<p>We are coming towards the end of the interview – but before we finish, I would like to ask you if you have any suggestions as to how – from listening to <name> -the equine assisted learning programme could be improved? anything to do with the horses, the place – the staff – or anything that comes to mind</p> <p>And then finally do you have any questions for us?</p> <p>Thank you so much for talking with us today. By doing this, you are helping me and other adults understand more about equine assisted learning – thank you</p>
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Main Study
Interview Schedule for teachers of young people participating in the
EAL Programme

Welcome and Introduction	You are very welcome today, thank for taking the time to talk to me. My name is RESEARCHER and I would like to talk to you about your <names> experience of the equine assisted learning programme that the organisation provides – Is that ok?
Study aim	The aim of this interview group is to find out more about what is people to be part of the equine assisted learning programme – about horses. I hope that this interview will help us and other people to people like/dislike about being around the horses. We will be tape today so that we can listen to each of you and not be distracted by The only people who will hear these tapes are me and other team. When I type them out we will take your name and other them. Try your best to speak clearly -
Participation	You are here so that you can tell us what you think. You are whatever you like on the topic. If you decide not to say anything, If you would like to stop the interview, that is fine. You may discussion at any stage.
Confidentiality	I will not be discussing what you say with anyone in The there is a concern for a person's safety, we may have to let someone they can provide support (more discussion around this)
Clarification	Is that okay with you? Do you understand? Any questions before
Understanding of Equine Assisted Learning	The first question I would like to ask you is how has <name> assisted learning (being around the horses) to you? How did s/he sessions and the work with the horses? How did <name> describe any – that happened as part of the sessions? Can you give me some
Self-awareness	Did <name> refer to anything s/he may have learnt about sessions? How did <name> talk about the sessions and how she Can you give me some examples? How do you think equine around horses) has affected <name>? Can you tell me what makes Can you give me some examples?
Relationships	What – if any – changes have you noticed in how s/he relates with class or within the school? Can you give me some examples of this? Have you noticed if <name> has changed in how s/he considers school? Can you give me some examples?
Behaviour	Have you noticed any changes in <names> behaviour since s/he assisted programme (being around the horses) Can you give me this?
Communications	What – if any – changes have you noticed about how <name> talks in the class or the school or to you as his/her teacher? Can you give examples? What – if any – changes have you noticed about how her/his peers in the class or the school or to you as his/her teacher? some examples?
Questions and thanks	We are coming towards the end of the interview – but before we to ask you if you have any suggestions as to how – from listening equine assisted learning programme could be improved? anything horses, the place – the staff – or anything that comes to mind - And you have any questions for us? Thank you so much for talking with doing this, you are helping me and other adults understand more assisted learning – thank you

**APPENDIX P. ASSENT AND CONSENT FORMS FOR THE PARTICIPANTS MAIN
STUDY**

Assent form for the main study	Young Person
Consent form the main study	Parent
Consent form the main study	Teacher

MAIN STUDY
ASSENT FORM – YOUNG PERSON

Research Study: Evaluation of the Equine Assisted Learning

Programme At the organisation

Name

Date of Birth

Address

I have read and understood the Information Leaflet for this study and I understand what taking part in this study will involve.

I have had time to consider whether I want to take part in this study. I have had the chance to ask questions and any questions I have asked have been answered clearly.

I understand that my participation is voluntary (that I have a choice as to whether I participate) and that I am free to withdraw at any time if I choose to do so.

I understand that if I am invited to and agree to an interview sessions will be tape recorded, that the tapes will be destroyed once they have been typed, and that all identifying information will be removed

I understand that the information collected may be presented and/or published in academic journals and at conferences, but that no individual will be identifiable from the information.

PLEASE CIRCLE YES OR NO TO THE FOLLOWING QUESTION

I agree to take part in this study

YES

NO

.....

Name (in block letters)

Date

Signature

CONSENT FORM – PARENTS - MAIN
STUDY

Research Study: Evaluation of the Equine Assisted Learning

Programme at The organisation

Name

Son/Daughters

Name Address

Teachers Name and Address

I have read and understood the Information Leaflet for this study and I understand what taking part in this study will involve.

I have had time to consider whether I want to take part in this study. I have had the chance to ask questions and any questions I have asked have been answered clearly.

I understand that my participation is voluntary (that I have a choice as to whether I participate) and that I am free to withdraw at any time if I choose to do so.

I understand that if I am invited to and agree to an interview sessions will be tape recorded, that the tapes will be destroyed once they have been typed, and that all identifying information will be removed

I understand that the information collected may be presented and/or published in academic journals and at conferences, but that no individual will be identifiable from the information.

I agree to take part in this study Yes No

Name (in block letters) Date Signature

I agree to my son /daughter Yes No
taking part in this study

Name (in block letters) Date Signature

I agree to my sons/daughters Yes No
teacher taking part in this study

Name (in block letters) Date Signature

MAIN
STUDY
CONSENT
FORM
TEACHERS

Research Study: Evaluation of the Equine Assisted Learning

Programme at The organisation

Name

Pupils Name

School Address

I have read and understood the Information Leaflet for this study and I understand what taking part in this study will involve.

I have had time to consider whether I want to take part in this study. I have had the chance to ask questions and any questions I have asked have been answered clearly.

I understand that my participation is voluntary (that I have a choice as to whether I participate) and that I am free to withdraw at any time if I choose to do so.

I understand that if I am invited to and agree to an interview sessions will be tape recorded, that the tapes will be destroyed once they have been typed, and that all identifying information will be removed

I understand that the information collected may be presented and/or published in academic journals and at conferences, but that no individual will be identifiable from the information.

PLEASE CIRCLE YES OR NO TO THE FOLLOWING QUESTION

I agree to take part in this study

YES

NO

Name (in block letters)

Date

Signature

APPENDIX Q. THE ORGANISATION'S CHILD AND ADULT PROTECTION POLICY

Organisation's Child & Adult Protection Policy

Amended January 2009 for use within the Equine Assisted Learning Service as part of the research project

Aims of Policy:

The organisation acknowledges that children & vulnerable adults are at risk of abuse. The organisation recognises that those working with children & vulnerable adults have a responsibility to be alert to the possibility of abuse.

The aim of the organization's *Child & Adult Protection Policy* is to define the different categories of abuse and to describe indicators of abuse. The policy strives to ensure the transparency of the responsibilities of staff & management, in relation to the protection of children or adults using the service. The policy aims to make clear the procedures to be followed when an incident of abuse is suspected or has been reported.

Definitions of Abuse:

There are many different types of abuse but for the purpose of this policy three main categories are described; physical abuse, emotional abuse & sexual abuse. The organisation has a separate policy which addresses bullying & harassment. (SEE HUMAN RESOURCE POLICY DOCUMENT) A child or adult can be subject to several forms of abuse at one time.

Physical Abuse can be considered any form of non-accidental injury that physically hurts, injures or causes significant harm to a child or adult, including: shaking; use of excessive force in handling; deliberate poisoning; suffocation.

Physical abuse of a child is also that which results in actual or potential physical harm from an interaction or lack of interaction, which is reasonably within the control of a parent or person in a position of responsibility, power, or trust. There may be single or repeated incidents (WHO, 1999).

Emotional Abuse is any behaviour carried out against an adult or child which has severe adverse effects on their emotional well-being. Examples of emotional abuse include; threatening, verbal attacks, taunting, shouting, persistent criticism, humiliation, intimidation.

Sexual Abuse occurs when a child or adult is exploited by another person for his or her gratification. Examples of sexual abuse include; inappropriate touching, fondling, molesting or sexual intercourse with a child or adult using the service. Exposure to pornography or exposing of sexual organs to a child or adult using the service also constitutes sexual abuse.

Indicators of Abuse:

The purpose of this section is to provide indicators of the various types of abuse in order that staff can recognise when abuse may be occurring. A child may be subject to more than one type of abuse at one time and may display many different indicators of abuse.

It is important to note that the list of indicators below are only a guidelines and the signs described may be indicative of many other conditions.

Physical Abuse:

- unexplained bruises fractures
- cuts bleeding
- burns scratches
- hair loss
- missing teeth
- fear of a particular individual or individuals
- changes in behaviour

Emotional Abuse:

- Depression
- Anorexia
- Insomnia
- suicide attempts
- self injurious behaviour
- challenging behaviour

Sexual Abuse:

- bleeding from the vagina/anus pain in passing urine/faeces
- persistent vaginal discharge or warts/rash in genital area noticeable and uncharacteristic change of behaviour hints about sexual activity
- inappropriate understanding of sexual behaviour inappropriate seductive behaviour
- sexually aggressive behaviour with others uncharacteristic sexual play with peers/toys
- unusual reluctance to join in normal activities which involve undressing, e.g. games/swimming.

- Reporting Procedures:

The purpose of this section is to clarify the procedures to be followed if an incident of abuse is suspected or has been alleged. It can be difficult to recognise abuse and The organisation staff & management should share any concerns they have with colleagues & senior management. Any reasonable suspicion/s of abuse should elicit a response from staff, as lack of intervention can result in further harm to the alleged victim.

The following examples would constitute reasonable grounds for concern:

- (i) specific indication from the child/vulnerable adult that (s)he was abused;
- (ii) an account by a person who saw the child/vulnerable adult being abused;
- (iii) evidence, such as *an injury or behaviour* which is consistent with abuse and unlikely to be caused another way;
- (iv) an injury or behaviour which is consistent both with abuse and with an innocent explanation but where there are corroborative indicators supporting the concern that it may be a case of abuse. An example of this would be a pattern of injuries, an implausible explanation, other indications of abuse, dysfunctional behaviour;
- (v) consistent indication, over a period of time that a child /vulnerable adult is suffering from emotional or physical neglect. (Children First)

The following procedures should be followed if there is a suspicion or allegation of abuse:

- If a staff member becomes concerned that a child or adult using the services of The organisation is being abused a report should be made immediately to the Manager of Training and Day Services. In the absence of the Manager of Training and Day Services a report should be made immediately to the Chairperson of the Board of Directors.
- The Child & Adult Protection Policy Reporting Form should be completed by the reporting person and forwarded to the Manager of Training and Day Services
- The Manager of Training and Day Services will seek written accounts from relevant personnel and/or witnesses & full investigation will be carried out. As much details as possible should be sought- including dates, times, names, locations, context and any other relevant information.
- The relevant external bodies will be notified of the allegation (e.g. HSE, FAS). In the case that a child is the alleged victim, the health board should be informed. In the case that the relevant personnel, or in the case of child, the duty social worker, are unavailable, An Garda Síochána can be contacted. This is at the discretion of the Manager of Training and Day Services, with consideration to the nature of the allegation.
- In the event that the alleged victim has sustained an injury or has been harmed physically, medical attention should be sought as soon as possible
- The family or guardians of alleged victim should be advised of the allegation and the

investigation.

- A written record should be maintained of the details of the investigation.
- In cases of emergency, where a child or vulnerable adult appears to be at immediate and serious risk, An Garda Síochána should be contacted. Under no circumstances should a person be left in a dangerous situation pending an investigation.
- The Manager of Training and Day Services will maintain regular contact with the Chairperson of the Board of Directors at all times and appraise him of progress at all stages.

Allegations of Abuse against Staff & Volunteers

The organisation has a dual responsibility to the trainees, service users & children who attend here, and to those employed by the foundation. The organisation will treat any allegation against a staff member or volunteer with sensitivity & support will be provided for those affected.

It is the goal of The organisation to treat any staff or volunteer involved in an allegation of abuse with fairness while protecting the child or vulnerable adult involved.

The following reporting procedures should be followed in the situation that there is an allegation of abuse made against a staff member.

- A report should be made immediately to the Manager of Training and Day Services In the absence of the Manager of Training and Day Services a report should be made immediately to the available manager.
- The *Child & Adult Protection Policy Reporting Form* should be completed by the reporting person and forwarded to the Manager of Training and Day Services
- The Manager of Training and Day Services will seek written accounts from relevant personnel and/or witnesses & full investigation will be carried out. As much details as possible should be sought- including dates, times, names, locations, context and any other relevant information.
- The Manager of Training and Day Services will formally assess the allegation and should decide if it is necessary to send a formal report to the health board or relevant external bodies (E.g. HSE, FAS).
- The Manager of Training and Day Services should privately inform the staff member that an allegation has been made against him/her & the nature of the allegation that has been made.
- The employee should be allowed an opportunity to respond and this response should be noted by the Manager of Training and Day Services
- The Manager of Training and Day Services must immediately ensure that there is no risk to any child/vulnerable adult using the services. It may be appropriate for that

individual to be suspended with pay, pending an investigation of the allegation. This is at the discretion of the CEO.

- The family or guardians of alleged victim should be advised of the allegation and the investigation.
- A written record should be maintained of the details of the investigation.
- The Manager of Training and Day Services should arrange a meeting in consultation with the relevant external bodies and An Garda Síochána to follow up on the allegation of abuse & determine the appropriate course of action.
- The Manager of Training and Day Services will maintain regular contact with the Chairperson of the Board of Directors at all times and appraise him of progress at all stages.

APPENDIX R. PROTOCOL FOR PARTICPANTS MAIN STUDY

Protocol for the main study	Young Person
Protocol for the main study	Parent
Protocol for the main study	Teacher

Protocol Young Person

The following guidelines will apply if a young person discloses sensitive information during the interview process:

- J. In the event of a young person disclosing information of a sensitive nature to the researcher, the researcher will cease recording immediately and allow the young person to complete his/her dialogue.
 - K. Reassurance will be given to the young person that they will not be punished in any way for the information that he/she have disclosed and comfort measures will be given to remove any anxiety that the young person may have regarding same.
 - L. The researcher will inform the young person that the information that he/she has disclosed must be communicated to The organisations Equine Assisted Learning Service Co-ordinator
 - M. Although all participants will be told that the information they provide will be treated confidentially, if a young person discloses information that raises concern for the interviewer, at all times the safety and welfare of the young person must take priority and appropriate action must be taken.
- Giving information to others for the protection of a young person is not a breach of confidentiality (Children First 1999)*
- N. Any reasonable suspicion of abuse (physical, emotional, neglect) must elicit a response from the care giver / those responsible for the young person i.e. the interviewer (Children First 1999).
 - O. The young person will be reunited with their teacher or referral agency staff

366The researcher will inform the teacher or referral agency staff about the information that the young person has disclosed during the interview process and all events leading up to disclosure.

P. The researcher will inform the teacher or referral agency staff that she will be reporting the incident to the Co-ordinator of the organisations Equine Assisted Learning Service in line with the organisations Policy on Child and Adult Protection.

Q. Reassurance will also be given to the young person and the family that the termination of the interview will not affect their participation in the Equine Assisted Learning Programme.

Signed:

Researcher

Protocol for Parents

The following guidelines will apply should a parents show signs of anxiety/distress during the interview

- A. The interview and recording will cease immediately
- B. Reassurance and comfort will be given to the parent by the researcher
- C. The referring agency will be appraised on the parent's emotional state and events leading up to the parent's feelings of anxiety.
- D. Reassurance will be given to the parent that the termination of the interview will not affect their son/daughters participation in the Equine Assisted Learning Service.

Signed:

Researcher

PROTOCOL FOR TEACHERS

The following guidelines will apply should a teacher show signs of anxiety/distress during the interview

5. The interview and recording will cease immediately
6. Reassurance and comfort will be given to the teacher by the researcher
7. The referring agency will be appraised on the teachers emotional state and events leading up to the teachers feelings of anxiety
8. Reassurance will be given to the teacher that the termination of the interview will not affect their pupils participation in the Equine Assisted Learning Service

Signed: _____

Researcher

APPENDIX S: THANK YOU LETTER FOR ALL PARTICIPANS MAIN STUDY

Thank you letter to all participants

Date:

Dear Name (PARENT, YOUNG PERSON AND TEACHER)

I would like to thank you for taking part in the study of Equine Assisted Learning.

We have now finished collecting information and will shortly start to write up a report.

If you would like a copy of the report when it is finished please contact me at the numbers or email below and we will send it to you when it is finished.

Again, many thanks for your help in this study.

Researcher

APPENDIX T. ANALYSIS OF STANDARDISED SCALES FOR SDQ

Analysis of Standardised Scales

The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire scores are classified into normal, borderline and abnormal with the scores differing between the young people, parents and teachers. Table X below reports the percentage of participants falling in each of these categories across the three informants at Time 1.

<u>Parent Completed</u>	Normal	Borderline	Abnormal
Total difficulties Score	0-13	14-16	17-40
Emotional Symptoms Score	0-3	4	5-10
Conduct Problems Score	0-2	3	4-10
Hyperactivity Score	0-5	6	7-10
Peer Problems	0-2	3	4-10
Prosocial Behaviour	6-10	5	0-4
<u>Teacher Completed</u>			
Total difficulties Score	0-11	12-15	16-40
Emotional Symptoms Score	0-4	5	6-10
Conduct Problems Score	0-2	3	4-10
Hyperactivity Score	0-5	6	7-10
Peer Problems	0-3	4	4-10
Prosocial Behaviour	6-10	5	0-4
<u>Young People Self-Report</u>			
Total difficulties Score	0-15	16-19	20-40
Emotional Symptoms Score	0-5	6	7-10
Conduct Problems Score	0-3	4	5-10
Hyperactivity Score	0-5	6	7-10
Peer Problems	0-3	4	4-10
Prosocial Behaviour	6-10	5	0-4

Strengths and Difficulties Impact Supplement

The impact supplement of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire ranges from 0 – 10 for the parent and self completed version and from 0 – 6 for the teacher completed version. A total impact score of 2 or more is abnormal, a score of 1 is borderline and a score of 0 is normal.

	Not	Only	Quite	A
Parent and Self Report	at all	a little	a lot	great deal
Difficulties upset or distress child	0	0	1	2
Interfere with Home Life	0	0	1	2
Interfere with Friendships	0	0	1	2
Interfere with classroom learning	0	0	1	2
Interfere with leisure activities	0	0	1	2
Teacher report				
Difficulties upset or distress child	0	0	1	2
Interfere with peer relationships	0	0	1	2
Interfere with classroom learning	0	0	1	2

APPENDIX U. PIERS HARRIS *T*-SCORE RANGE

Piers-Harris <i>T</i> -Score Ranges

Piers-Harris *T*-Score Ranges

The Piers-Harris 2 scores are classified into very low, low, low average, average, high average, high and very high.

Table

<i>T</i> Score Range	Percentile Range Total (TOT) Scale	Interpretive Label
$<-29T$	<-2	Very Low
30T-39T	3 – 14	Low
40T-44T	15-28	Low average
45T-55T	29-71	Average
56T-59T	72-83	High Average
60T-69T	84-97	High
$>-70T$	>-98	Very High
Domain Scales		
$<-29T$	<-2	Very Low
30T-39T	3 – 14	Low
40T-44T	15-28	Low Average
45T-55T	29 – 71	Average
$>-56T$	>-72	Above Average

APPENDIX V. LIST OF CONFERENCES

<p>LIST OF CONFERENCES AT WHICH THE STUDY HAS BEEN PRESENTED OR DUE TO BE PRESENTED</p>
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Year	Conference	Country
2009	Federation of Riding for the Disabled	Germany
	Openings Doors to Learning	Ireland
2010	European Association of Horse Assisted Education	United Kingdom
	International Association of Human-Animal Interaction Organization Conference	Sweden
	The European Association for Animal Production	Greece
	Italian Congress for Riding for the Disabled	Italy
2011	Psychological Society of Ireland Annual Conference	Ireland
2012	Horses in Education and Training International Conference in Athens	Greece
	World Congress of Rural Sociology	Portugal

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