

External agents in schools: roles and responsibilities for children and young people's learning and wellbeing

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Abstract

This thesis examines the other individuals involved in schools and classrooms who are not teachers or teaching assistants. Many terms exist for these individuals including external agents, providers and specialists. This is set within a policy background of government reports, Acts and initiatives from the early 1900s. Those invited in to be involved in schools includes statutory agencies, military-style organisations, the voluntary sector, community members and employers. The literature which examines the involvement of these external agents in schools does so from a narrow perspective, such as a specific agent type or policy initiative. In contrast, the aim is to identify the full range of agents involved across four case study schools through a broad approach in that it does not focus on a type of agent (e.g. employers); a specific initiative (e.g. extended schools) or period (e.g. 1960 to 2000). There is a lack of discussion within the literature from the agent perspective. To counteract this gap, the perceptions of agents are compared against those of school staff, in terms of the rationales for their involvement in schools. The aim is to determine if the involvement of agents is in relation to government invitations or if other rationales exist. The contribution to knowledge is in terms of this broad approach to the identification of agents, against the approach taken in previously studies. It also adds knowledge in that it compares the perceptions of both external agents and school staff about the rationales for involvement.

The research involves completion of a pro-forma by a staff member at each school to identify the agents. It also includes semi-structured interviews with school staff and external agents plus documentary analysis. It draws on a collective case study approach to describe the situation in terms of external agent involvement and used an ideology critique to examine the different interests and the legitimacy of the situation. This research draws on Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Model of Human Development (1979) to explore the different system levels of rationale. It also utilises the different form of capital which include social capital (Putnam, 2000), cultural capital and economic capital (Bourdieu, 1997), human capital (Becker, 1964), intellectual capital and organisational capital (Hargreaves, 2001; 2003; Craig et al. 2004). These are presented as a typology. The different forms of capital are used to explore if the involvement is in relation to one form of capital over another. Through this process of reflection the aim is to share an insight in terms of the reality of external agent involvement in schools and to make recommendations through this research to

improve the involvement of external agent involvement in schools through shared knowledge.

The findings indicate a high involvement of external agents in the schools with trends of agent type being linked to government policies. However, the ‘messiness’ in the identification of agents resulted in just a ‘snapshot’ of the agent involvement. This is a consequence of insufficient staff knowledge related to their role, time in service or value they place on the capitals of the agents. There is a disconnection between some agent perceptions of their relationship to the school and the inclusion in the data. The findings also suggest there is a complexity in terms of the rationales which operate at multi-system levels. These rationales include financial, educational, informational and wellbeing. Where agents are involved through school requests there is clearly an agent benefit but also a link to macro rationales. Where agents are involved for rationales that emanate beyond the schools, access difficulties are reported and the desire to ‘fit in’ to negotiate access. Agents use the different capitals such as social capital and economic capital to attempt to gain access to schools. Although agents have their own primary rationale for being involved in schools, many are asked by schools to deliver specialist or targeted provision at no cost. There are tensions between some agents and schools in terms of the expectations placed upon them by schools. However, even where agents offer physical cash to schools, it does not result in open access to pupils. This highlights a complexity in the rationales for involvement of external agents in schools.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the thesis

1.1 Overview of the literature

A range of educational reports, policies and Acts over the last hundred years have encouraged other individuals into schools and classrooms, who are not teachers or teaching assistants. This includes voluntary organisations, health, social workers, clubs and societies (HMI, 1985; Board of Education, 1909, 1926; Ministry of Education 1947, 1948, 1959, 1963; CACE, 1967; (DES) 1989; DfES, 2005). These are discussed in a full literature review which was undertaken (see Appendix 1). The review identifies a collection of terms to describe these individuals which includes external agencies, providers, professionals or non-teaching professionals (Ainslie et al. 2010; Hadfield, et al. 2005a; Stead et al. 2010). Smith (2002) refers to these as informal educators and suggests agents such as youth workers may be employed by the school, whilst others will be employed by an external agency. It is the latter which are of interest to this research. There are also a range of terms used to describe the work that external agents undertake (e.g. extra-curricular activities, additional support, informal education) (Gillard, 2011; Barron et al. 2007; Smith, 2009a); which implies a different educational activity type to the core business of schools. Several publications portray them as specialists which includes social workers, health professionals, psychologists (Barron et al. 2007; DCSF, 2009b; Hadfield et al. 2005). The value of the specialist is in their ability to respond to complex needs through individualised support packages (Ainslie et al. 2010; Harris & Allen, 2011). This would “*relieve teachers of some pressures*” and boost morale (Hadfield et al. 2005:5). The relationships between schools and external agents are described as multi-agency or collaborative working (Atkinson et al. 2002; Atkinson et al. 2007). The external agents are invited into schools to *supplement* the work of the home and the school (Ministry of Education, 1948). Certain agents such as specialist workers could *complement* the schools by taking referrals into their services (DfES, 2004). However, the suggestion that these external agents are there to supplement or complement the work of the school is a government belief, or ideology (C. Matheson, 2008). This portrays a subordinate position for the agent in relation to the school. The original literature review recognised that external agents

including the church, industry and voluntary sector had been involved in the first schools. This was before the state became a mediator between competing viewpoints (Morrish, 1970). It was decided to unpack these pre-conceived notions of education and schooling to create a more balanced introduction, which therefore contains new literature. Since the original literature review was written, there has been a raft of education policies, Acts and initiatives that continue to encourage external agents into schools (see Appendix 2). These will also be included as new literature.

1.1.1 Introduction¹

D. Matheson (2008) emphasises that there are a range of definitions for the meaning of education and little consensus about what activities or aspects it should entail. Education and schooling are often used interchangeably which often defines education as that which consists entirely of that which takes place in schools. Smith (2015) warns that schooling is an attempt to to drill learning into pupils formulated in a plan created by others. Which he adds is not really education; this he defines as where learning is cultivated that is respectful and hopeful that all individuals have a chance to share life. Education can be formal which will have an intended objective(s) or associated curricula. It can also be informal which is more spontaneous and takes place through conversation. Ellis (1990) suggests that all educational practice includes both informal and formal provision, but the prominent aspect is influenced by the educator and other competing priorities including pupil needs, peer pressure, cultural norms or educational landscape. C. Matheson (2008) warns that ideologies or sets of beliefs or educational ideas held by a group of people can influence education. A dichotomy is often used to express opposing categories of assumptions such as traditional methods and child-centred methods. She warns that these are not mutually exclusive and an educational or political ideology may belong to more than one category. Furthermore all educators will have an ideology, even if they do not recognise it. If one has a view about the aims of education, then one subscribes to an ideology. This implies that these ideologies can operate at

¹ This introduction is composed of new literature: Ellis (1990); C. Matheson, (2008); D. Matheson (2008); Morrison (1995); Habermas (1972); Smith (2015).

different levels including state, local authority school, teacher or agent about the aims of education or schools. D. Matheson (2008) discusses the concept of indoctrination where beliefs are transmitted to pupils, unwittingly by a teacher or an external agent. The influence is the socio-political system in which the teacher or agent operates which demands the transmission of beliefs or values. This suggests that there are a range of competing ideas about education and schooling, which operate on different levels and could underpin the rationale for external agents to work in schools. The agent or teacher may be unaware of these ideologies which have an influence on their practice and the work of external agents in schools. Morrison, (1995) and Habermas (1972) suggest that a process of reflection would be useful to explore the ideologies or interests which influence one's work.

1.1.2 Structure of the rest of this chapter

The structure of the rest of this chapter will commence with the inclusion of literature to explore the range of external agents which have been invited into schools as evidenced in government reports, policies and Acts over the last hundred years. The literature will enable a discussion of the agents' activities and the rationales behind their involvement. It will consider the social changes, education views and ideologies which influence these invitations or prompt external agent involvement in schools. It will also present the theoretical concepts to show how these relate to the literature and explain how these will be used to explore the findings. Following this it will outline the anticipated contribution to knowledge and then introduce the research questions. It will finish with a discussion of the professional context behind this research study.

1.1.3 Pre-state involvement²

² This section includes this new literature: Ball (1997, 2010, 2012); Becker (1964); Brooks, (2012); Brown (2016); Bunyan (2012); Burke (2015); Carpenter et al., (2010); Carpenter et al., (2013); Coleman (2006); Craig et al., (2004); Cummings et al.

Historically the family unit was supported by the community and the church in teaching morals and behaviour, for socialisation, childcare and in times of crisis (O'Donnell, 1992). Socialisation is a process which shapes behaviour through engagement in social situations where norms, values and beliefs are transmitted (O'Donnell, 1992). There are primary socialisation agents, such as the family and community, who assist with moral and cultural development including discipline. Parents have a pivotal role in forming children's attitudes; socialisation is important for social control, which is about the conformation to norms and values enforced by the family (Haralambos et al. 1984). Secondary socialisation is more organised, formal and exists for a purpose. Secondary socialisation agents include the school and other formal organisations e.g. employers, trade unions, professional associations. Here the membership is granted on the understanding that the individual will accept the influence on their conduct (Cooley, 1956; O'Donnell, 1992). The school assists to transmit values and norms to individual pupils which aids the allocation of individuals to their societal role (Haralambos et al. 1984). The demand for the involvement of external agents in the socialisation of children and young people can be traced to the industrial revolution and the subsequent urbanisation. This saw families relocate from rural areas to new urban towns and cities (Giddens, 1989). Mulgan (2000) and Michegan (2013) report a collapse within the traditional close knit, rural family structure and values. This suggests that other socialisation agents are needed. The UK Parliament (2016) emphasise that poor children have always had to work as soon as their parents found employment for them which expanded with the Industrial Revolution. The Factory Acts (early 1800s) aimed to limit child labour and make provision for education. The repressive social control and political order that was previously achieved through elementary education, family and community or social pressure was then seen as ineffective (Jones, 1983). This was as a result of the child labour reductions and social changes which meant that young people had more leisure hours than their

(2004, 2011, 2012); DCSF (2009a); Diss and Jarvie, (2016); DfE (2015, 2017); Devlin (1989); Exley & Ball (2012); Finch et al., (2014); Formby et al., (2011); Girlguiding (2016); Gove (2013); Government Website (2016); Harris & Allen (2010); House of Commons Education Committee (2013); Huddleston and Oh (2004); Huddleston and Laczik (2012); Levitas, (2012); Mann and Percy, (2013); Martin, (2008); Macdonald, (2009); Northen, (2012); Ofsted (2012); Ofsted (2013a); Putnam (2000); Radcliffe (2013); Slack et al., (2013); Scott (2009); Smith (2015); Thraves et al., (2012); Rees et al., (2013); Rt. Hon. Nicky Morgan. MP. (2015); Savage et al. (2015); Searle (1971); Simon, (2016); UK Parliament, (2016); (Gillard, 2006); Wilkin et al. (2008).

predecessors; which called for the involvement of external agents in schools and the lives of children and young people (Burt, 1925; Ministry of Education, 1959).

In the Victorian era (1837 - 1901) unemployment and poverty were correlated with idleness, so welfare was seen as the responsibility of charitable and philanthropic organisations (The National Archives, 2013). Prior to state involvement in schools this included those with a religious interest, wealthy benefactors, philanthropists, those from industry and those fuelled by monetary interests (Morrish, 1970; Martin, 2008). The spread of slums, disease and ignorance at the end of the Victorian period, encouraged the state to become involved in personal development through economic or social interventions which is perceived as a move from classic to modern liberalism. Classic liberalism advocates a minimal state which is concerned with personal security and order whereas modern liberalism advocates that the state should become involved in economic and social interventions such as education (Heywood, 2007). An example is the 1870 Education Act which initiated the process for state funded elementary schools to cater for working class children up to the age of 14 (Gillard, 2011). These elementary schools aimed to “*fill the gaps*” between the uneven distribution of other school types in existence at that time (Martin, 2008: 211). This includes the charity or voluntary schools which were also aimed at the poor (ibid, 2008). Morrish (1970) suggests that the development of compulsory state education was more about mediation of competing interests between those already involved before the state. Despite the move to state education, the state has continued to invite external agents into schools, as evident in policies, Acts and initiatives (HMI, 1985; Board of Education 1909, 1926; Ministry of Education 1947, 1948, 1959, 1963; DES 1989; DfES, 2005). Many reports were as a result of the following committees which advised the government on education matters. This includes the Consultative Committee formed in the 1899 Education Act and its successor the Central Advisory Council for Education (CACE) which was created by the 1944 Education Act (Gillard, 2011). The literature review includes a full list of all the reports that were produced and examined (see Appendix 1). These invitations, the agencies that were invited and the associated rationales will now be discussed.

1.1.4 State involvement

Perceived need: military style socialisation and control

In the earlier reports and literature (Board of Education, 1926, 1931; Gillard, 2006), it was the adolescent who was deemed to require more appropriate activities to avoid delinquency. This was due to the social changes which had taken place which resulted in the invitations for external agents to be involved in the lives of young people. Cyril Burt³ contributed to several Consultative Committee reports where the concept of pupils' intelligence levels was examined. This fuelled the proposal for the involvement of agents within primary and secondary schools (not grammar). The reports questioned the traditional method of subject delivery and proposed project-based activities. These reports were labelled progressive due to the reference to practical activities and interest-based activities. The 1926 report highlights the need to respond to the problem of education of the adolescent and suggests the involvement of agencies (e.g. Young Farmers' Clubs, the girls' departments of Women's Institutes, glee clubs, athletic clubs, debating societies) (Gillard, 2006; Board of Education, 1926). There was a proposal in the reports for character formation to develop young people to benefit society, which sounded utilitarian. The 1926 report discusses Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth (1840s), who was a pioneer of practical activities such as gardening, sewing and baking. The impact against the traditional method was limited due to the cost implications and the recognition that it was impossible to teach practical activities through the monitorial system (Board of Education, 1926). This is perhaps why Gillard (2006) emphasises that the success of these two reports in terms of progressivism, was initially limited, despite the calls for external agent involvement.

Searle (1971) suggests that in the late 19th century and early 20th century, the ideology of national efficiency was held as the model to respond to issues such as an education system whose curriculum was seen to lack a focus on technology and

³ In 1913 Cyril Burt became London City Council's Educational Psychologist (Board of Education, 1943).

language. Support for this ideology cut across political parties and was based on a mixture of ideas which included the improvement of the education system and a government of businessmen⁴. The interest in Britain's national efficiency was fuelled by military incompetence evident during the Boer War and the perception of the loss of military power. In addition, WWI and WWII were an impetus for the government to suggest the involvement of external agents in schools. This was related to the ideology of national efficiency for improvement in education but also the national physique (Searle, 1971). For the conscripts they highlight issues such as illiteracy, lack of fitness and lack of training (Barber, 1994; Great Britain Parliament, 1944; Ministry of Education, 1947). For the young people that remained at home there was concern about their behaviour such as crime during blackouts (Roberts, 2004). In addition, Britain was believed to have lost its position as a leading imperial nation with industrial capability and technological skills. Countries such as Germany and Japan improved their imperial power; in Germany this was underpinned by an abundance of national resources and a well-educated population. Britain's production output had slowed due to the reduction in manpower as a result of the falling birth rate. Searle (1971) warns that one should have caution when making sweeping generalisations such as the reduction in Britain's industrial output (e.g. coal, steel) as he states there were discrepancies in standards within the industry. Nevertheless, the interest in national efficiency was prevalent within government publications. He emphasises that the ideology of national efficiency was a response to classic liberalism, from the focus on a minimal state to one which advocates state involvement in welfare including education. Beveridge (1942) in his report (CM6404 para 448) emphasises that Britain's international competitiveness through full employment was important for national efficiency, as was education for all. The economic value of education towards national efficiency is apparent in reports which encourage external agent involvement in schools (Board of Education, 1943; Ministry of Education, 1948). Jones and Lowe (2002) agree that national efficiency was to be supported through the welfare state which included employment and education policies. Education was important for it promised individual freedom and economic efficiency through policies such as the 1944 Education Act. The government responded during WWII with Circular 1486 (Board of Education, 1939)

⁴ Other aspects included improvement of national physique, role of churches and the local authorities.

which is taken as the beginning of the Youth Service (Roberts, 2004). This was despatched to local authorities and proposed the offer of social and physical development for 14-20 year olds. This was deemed a societal responsibility and demanded involvement and state assistance for voluntary organisations (e.g. Boys Brigade, Scouts, Girl Guides, and Young Farmers). It proposes that they could use schools at a reduced rate or for free which Roberts (2004) suggest was the biggest impact. This thinking from Circular 1486 entered the 1944 Education Act (Clause 53) which states that local authorities have a duty to provide adequate social and physical facilities⁵. It also gave local authorities the power to work with voluntary organisations to provide out of school activities including camps, holiday clubs or play centres (Great Britain Parliament, 1944). The discussion in the act suggests an invitation for external agents to be involved in schools to respond to these issues. Jones and Lowe (2002) warn that social justice can be an ally but could also reinforce national efficiency. This suggests that policies which portray their existence as being there to support individual needs, might be about impact at a national level.

Two CACE reports (Ministry of Education, 1947, 1948) highlight that Clause 53 of the 1944 Education Act was not implemented, as the local authorities had no obligation to work with the voluntary sector to provide these activities. The result was that both reports were highlighting the urgency of activities for pupils, beyond school lessons. The first report indicates a progressive viewpoint as it discusses individual needs (Jones, 1983). It suggests the need for improved leisure facilities after school and in the holidays. The report recognises the difficulty in using schools for the dual purpose such as pupils being unable to leave their belongings or work in the classrooms. It discusses voluntary organisations with a military ethos (e.g. Boys Brigade, Scouts, Guides, Boys and Girls Clubs). The provision of leisure activities was to combat juvenile misbehaviour, which parallels earlier reports. It aims to provide activities to supplement the home and strengthen their offer. They warn that some young people may lack access to social groups such as the church, an institute or sports club; due to the deficiency of family connections. This reveals an absence

⁵ This was actually highlighted in the 1918 Education Act, but financial restraints due to WW1, took it forward to the 1944 Act.

of social capital which Putnam (2000: 19) describes as the “*connections among individuals – social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them*”. The report states the voluntary organisations could give the young worker the mutual tolerance and corporate responsibility that society cannot. There is an element of a deficit model in the suggestion of constructive activities to reduce delinquency and prepare for life in work which implies social control (Jones, 1983; Dyson et al. (2002). This second report (Ministry of Education, 1948) states the solution includes the provision of activities for children out of school; to meet individual needs, which sounds progressive (Jones, 1983). However, it still emphasises the need for constructive activities for those who were not supervised and otherwise would turn to mischief or delinquency, which also signifies social control (Jones, 1983). The report states that any instability, insecurity or home environment troubles will impact on the child’s stability. The combination of work and housework duties, saw women being cited as tired, which could impact on the supervision of children. It recommends the development of a service for younger children along the lines of the Youth Service. The report advocates that young people should lead on activity delivery and there should be courses for parents. It states that the complex nature of these pupils demands further educational opportunities, training, discipline, work or recreational activities (Ministry of Education, 1948). This indicates a shift in focus in terms of external agent involvement towards a younger age group and a focus on parental support, although the report still has an emphasis on the need for constructive activities.

They were social issues during the period of the early 20th century. For instance, many women had entered the workforce during the Second World War. The local authority clearance orders had dispersed the population from the declining inner-city areas. This forced the working classes to relocate to public housing in tower blocks or estates on the outskirts of towns. This was to allow for urban renewal of inner city slum areas, to create offices and leisure facilities which resulted in reduced opportunities for community life. This was the effect from the creation of accommodation in tower blocks which inhibited conversations between residents. In addition, was the commute to work and increase in post-war home entertainment

products, which impacted on community solidarity (O'Donnell, 1992). Furthermore, the lack of adequate play facilities and community leadership did not improve matters, the effect of which were seen years later when the wartime infants who had their education upset by the war, were adolescents and their delinquency reported (Ministry of Education, 1959). This fragmentation in the community, could create a role for external agents, as the community was no longer as involved in the socialisation of young people, as was historically reported (O'Donnell, 1992). This suggests a continual role for external agents in response to these social issues.

Searle (1971) highlights that parallels to the thinking of national efficiency were apparent in the 1960s. A theory prevalent at that time was 'human capital' which is acknowledged as created by the economist, Gary Becker (Becker, 1964). Becker (1975)⁶ went on to emphasise the rising interest from politicians in the economies of education in the period from 1957 to 1970 which focuses on a return on the investment in education including school, college and higher education. The interest of politicians is on the investment in activities such as schooling or on-the-job training and the conversion of this investment into a level of income. There was an increase in expenditure on education during that period, which is perhaps why the rate of accumulation of human capital was of interest to politicians. However, the average rates of return for investment in education are not the same for all groups (e.g. gender, ethnicity, demography, HE vs college) which can lead to the singling out of certain groups. Becker (1975) warns that education policies such as those which encourage external agent involvement (Ministry of Education, 1959) are elitist in the belief that all pupils are able to benefit from human capital as their investments are equal. Burke (2015) adds that human capital theory is founded on the meritocratic discourse evident within current government policies. However, he warns that despite the belief that a qualification such as a university degree could be exchanged for large salaries attached to high-level jobs, the employment market has a complexity which one has to navigate. He agrees that the 1944 Education Act is based on the same philosophy that underpins human capital theory.

⁶ Becker (1975) acknowledges that his interest in human capital was fuelled by the work of T.W. Schultz.

There are also links between national efficiency, human capital theory and the concept of globalisation. Forrester and Garratt (2016) warn that globalisation is a contested concept, but one which is typically interested in the economic, cultural and political changes experienced between global countries since the 1990s. They add that these changes are supported through organisations such as the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). The OECD aim to promote policies that will improve the economic and social well-being of people around the world. They undertake comparative studies such as the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) which includes cross-national testing and comparisons of socio-economic performance and economic systems. Maudos et al. (2003) investigates the productivity gains in the OECD countries during the period of 1965-1990. They report on the raised labour productivity and technical change in relation to human capital. The level is greater in countries that were rich to start with, which raises questions of equality. Lui (2011) reveals that the interest in the value to the wealth of the nation by economists was evident before Becker's theory. He draws parallels to the 17th and 18th centuries such as the work of Adam Smith (Smith 1776). He warns that the concept of human capital is contested and that there is no agreed method on to how to measure it, even if it is narrowed just to include formal education. In his attempt to measure human capital, he limits his analysis to market activities which excludes the potential effects of education in terms of household production (e.g. helping with children's homework, cooking healthy food). Whilst he acknowledges that the value of human capital is higher than that of physical capital it is not evenly distributed. This suggests that whilst external agents might be invited to be involved in schools to deliver activities under the rhetoric of meritocracy, the underpinning ideology could be towards national efficiency or specifically human capital. There are complexities and inequalities within this argument in relation to the economic return on education.

In summary in these earlier reports the young people are described as maladjusted and lacking in development, fitness, ability, purpose, supervision, discipline, control, exercise, character formation and education (insufficient). Individuals are lazy,

which results in delinquency and there is a perceived need for constructive activities (Board of Education, 1909, 1926, 1943; Great Britain Parliament, 1944; Ministry of Education, 1959) which indicates social control (Jones, 1983). These descriptions parallel to more recent initiatives which invite certain types of external agents to be involved in young people's development. The first is a proposal by Prince Charles (HRH The Prince of Wales) in an Impact Report of the Youth United Foundation⁷ of which he is Patron (Youth United Foundation, 2013). He warns of the "*trouble that young people are causing and the problems they face*" which includes drink, drugs, gang culture and underachievement. The solution is the inclusion of military-style voluntary organisations or uniformed services which are to provide more "*constructive activities*" which would allow young people to not only learn skills, but to have fun (ibid: 2). The second is evident in the *Character Grants* (3.5 million) announced in a speech by the Rt. Hon. Nicky Morgan. MP. (2015). The focus was on grants to external agents including rugby clubs and the Scouts as they are perceived to be able to build character and resilience in "*disaffected and disadvantaged*" young people. The speech states the external agent involvement would contribute to the delivery of social justice, but the reference to behaviour and attendance indicates the aim is the standards agenda. This suggests a potential deficit view of these young people (Dyson et al. 2002). Brooks (2012) highlights six prevalent assumptions in educational policy which view young people through their duty to society as active citizens. In addition, they are disaffected and require character development through "*quasi-military environments*" (ibid: 18). An example is funding for Cadet Forces in schools or provision of competitive sports. These assumptions are used instead of those which recognise the creative contribution that the individuals can make to society. The *Character Grants* call for external agent involvement in the development of young people for the benefit of societal contribution, as opposed to individual needs. The call for external agents in the initiative is linked to the New Right's neoconservative ideologies which Heywood (2007) suggest they aim to restore discipline and authority, through a smaller state. They aim to control young people through the return to family hierarchical values together with national identity, law and order. The New Right espouse neoliberal ideologies which are interested in a small state but also free

⁷ Youth United has a network of the uniformed organisations who aim to help young people with self-esteem, develop skills, employability, sense of belonging and contribute to communities (Youth United Foundation 2013).

market theories which aim to reverse the amount of state intervention in the 20th century. The belief here is that private businesses are better than the state to respond to social problems, but they would be disciplined to act through the desire to produce (Heywood, 2007). The New Right is described as a “*marriage between two apparently contrasting ideological traditions*” (ibid p88). Hill (1999) warns that education policy can subscribe to one ideology such as neoconservatism but can also be a mixture of political ideologies. This appeared to be the case here in the *Character Grants* which state they are for social justice but are underpinned by other ideologies.

Perceived need: agents with specialist skills or talents

The social aspects which were apparent in the 1950s and 1960s appear to result in calls for the involvement of external agents to work in schools. This includes an increase in women who returned to work following childbirth (Ministry of Education, 1959). It also includes permissiveness or the lowering of values which are believed to result in delinquency, anti-social behaviour and crime (Heywood, 2007). After WWII, there was an increase in orphans in care due to war fatalities and a rise in child neglect cases which resulted in a new Social Services Department (1960s) which oversaw mental health, childcare and welfare (Barron, et al. 2007; Charles & Horwath, 2009). The involvement of social workers and voluntary organisations (e.g. NSPCC) in schools is recognised in the Plowden Report (CACE, 1967). This promotes progressive primary education and includes an emphasis for out of school activities, which had not been actioned from the 1947 report (CACE, 1967; Gillard, 2006). This indicates that the CACE members who wrote these reports value what the external agents could offer through their specialist skills, knowledge and qualifications or cultural or intellectual capital (Bourdieu, 1997; Hargreaves, 2001; 2003).

These policies aim to share the responsibility for social issues with agents such as charity provision which links to self-help and citizenship (Shaw and Martin, 2000). This has parallels to Victorian values and highlights how some of this thinking

remained, despite the move to modern liberalism. By the 1960s, new thinking was demanded for young people of average or below average ability. The Newsom Report (Ministry of Education, 1963) stated that support from agencies beyond education is required to deal with delinquency, poverty and truancy for 13-16 year olds. In addition are issues such as social problems including mental illness, high crime, neglect and cruelty. Furthermore, aspects such as truancy have underlying issues which require a response beyond education. The solution is for these young people who are deemed to have a lesser ability, to participate in extra-curricular activities provided by agencies. The report states that “*the term education shall be understood to include extra-curricular activities*” (ibid: xv). These have historically been delivered by teachers as unpaid volunteers, but there are issues with using staff including staff shortages or personal commitments. The Newsom Report proposes the involvement of agents with specific talents, experience or specialists (e.g. nurses, social workers, commerce, industry, youth workers and community members). Furthermore, it suggests that the extra-curricular activities would need to have an “*element of compulsion*” and would not be voluntary (ibid: 45). The young people were assets to be developed for their economic value which implies that they valued what the external agents could offer in terms of their cultural capital or educational qualifications but towards the development of pupils’ human capital. There appears to be a continuation with the earlier theme of constructive activities, beyond the school day. This indicates a continual need for external agents to deal with these complex cases. The parent’s role was reported to have become more specialised (O’Donnell, 1992), as many functions were now provided by the state (Haralambos et al. 1984). However, in policies, Acts and initiatives the state aimed to share this responsibility with the external agents.

Perceived need: discipline and delivery of wider curriculum aspects

By the 1988 Education Reform Act a different viewpoint of education was apparent with the Conservative government’s focus on curriculum, standards and control of teachers (Smith, 2002). The New Right’s ideologies implies the desire to reduce state responsibility which shifted the obligation from the state to other actors, (Shaw & Martin, 2000). This is a return to Victorian values which includes an increase in

charity provision and individual responsibility or self-help (The National Archives, 2013; Heywood 2007). The Elton Report (DES, 1989) focuses on discipline in schools, following attacks on staff members by pupils. The report depicts those with levels of influence including pupil, teacher, parents or voluntary organisations. It recommends an increase in parental responsibility, community access to school facilities, parents' room, youth workers and welfare support. The highest influence level is shared between the pupil and the teacher which alludes an interest in individual responsibility for actions. The report indicates a role for agents (e.g. parent, police) which recommends a wider responsibility beyond schools to discipline and control pupils, which suggests a role for external agents.

The 1988 Education Reform Act refers to the spiritual, moral, physical and cultural development of learners, which could signal a role and responsibility for other agents (Great Britain, The Education Reform Act, 1988). These aspects are not measured as an outcome in terms of cognitive changes (Deakin Crick et al. 2004). The inclusion is therefore questionable in a neoconservative era, which is concerned with standards and league tables. This could therefore be an example of a neoliberal policy which is interested in a free market and as part of New Right's ideology of opposing ideas (Hill, 1999). Citizenship, a wider aspect of the national curriculum calls for the involvement of external agents such as community, voluntary organisations, the police and faith groups. This will assist pupils to understand the meaning of specific terms including voluntary service, volunteer or charity through the delivery of activities by these agents (QCA, 1998). This suggests that agents were to take an increase in responsibility as the state reduces its level of responsibility. This is a theme which continues under New Labour (Brannan et al. 2006) where citizenship is a political authoritarian construct; with the aim to convert the passive and deficient into more involved citizens through community development (Shaw & Martin, 2000). This suggests that there are still initiatives which call for the involvement of external agents, to deliver the wider aspects of the curriculum. In the 1980s and 1990s the Conservative government advocates neoliberalism as it believes that teachers or 'state agents' were potentially self-

interested and attempts were made to discipline them through markets and competition (Barron, et al. 2007: 5). The mechanism was the use of parental choice and different school types (funded by the private sector) so some schools had to work harder to retain their intake numbers (Whitty, 2008). This insinuates that although the schools and teachers are seen as a socialisation agent on behalf the state (O'Donnell, 1992), the market based competition is used to drive their performance. Devlin (1989) highlights the necessity for schools to promote themselves in terms of their facilities and activities in response to this competition. He indicates that schools select relevant aspects which encourage wider involvement and aim to benefit the whole community (Devlin, 1989). This implies spaces for external agents to be involved in schools to improve a school's image through a range of activities and services.

Campbell (2001) discuss the lasting legacy of the Plowden Report (CACE, 1967), in the primary school of the 1990s. Despite the national curriculum the teacher is still directed to social and welfare work; in a response to the morally fractured society and loss of power within socialisation agents (e.g. church, law, family). This suggests that despite the focus on curriculum subjects, certain tasks may be performed by the state agents including teachers in recognition of a persistent need for specialists (Barron et al. 2007). This is also apparent in the involvement of external agents in relation to PSHE (Personal, Social, Health and Economic Education). This involvement of external agents for PSHE was prominent in the data collection; therefore new literature was explored to investigate the background, which is included below. Watkins (1992) states that Personal Social Education (PSE) was first recognised as a cross-curricular aspect in the National Curriculum during the early 1990s. It was underpinned by cross-curricular themes, school dimensions and specific dimensions which would include external agent delivery (e.g. specialist guidance, careers, health). Macdonald (2009: 31-32) states that the subject was relabelled from PSE to PSHE⁸ and reveals that "*schools are familiar*

⁸ Macdonald (2009) informed that PSHE aspects included Sex and Relationships Education (SRE), Drug and Alcohol Training (DAT), diet and healthy lifestyle, safety, emotional health and wellbeing, careers, financial capability and work-related learning.

with the use of external organisations to support and enhance the delivery of their PSHE". This is "*desirable*" due to the sensitive and special nature of some issues including Sex and Relations Education (SRE) or Drug and Alcohol Training (DRT). Agencies are useful to *enrich* the existing PSHE curriculum (e.g. school health, drugs and alcohol, careers education), whilst others (e.g. Police, theatre groups) are useful to *enhance* what is already taking place and not to replace it. The value of external agencies from the pupils' point of view is that "*information on certain issues carries more weight and credibility from outside agencies than teachers*". The report includes an example where in one school the pupils remember their learning far more as they associate it to the experience of the visitor. Furthermore, the report suggests that agents could provide information about local services. They warn that the involvement of external agents needs to be managed at school and local authority level in terms of quality assurance (ibid: p31-32). This indicates a role for external agents in the delivery of these wider curriculum aspects, to add value to what the school could offer. However, it was also a time of neoliberal ideology which was concerned with market-based delivery of PSHE and a small state. Despite this, quality remains a concern.

In their PSHE review, Ofsted (2013a) reveal that schools could deliver PSHE in any manner they choose. They report that 80% of primary and secondary schools use outside speakers, but only half undertake a formal evaluation. Furthermore, due to lack of specific training for teachers to deliver PSHE, the result is that too many teachers have low expectations of pupils' attainment, in comparison to other subjects. This implies that if external agents are involved in the delivery then the expectation from some teachers might be low. Formby et al. (2011) undertook a mapping exercise of PSHE delivery models (for the DCSF) and in primary and secondary schools from which they report:

- Discrete provision (primary, secondary) plus drop-down days⁹ (secondary).
- Agent involvement is split between school nurses and other guest speakers which indicates a heavy involvement of school nurses.
- Nurses are more frequently involved in SRE (primary and secondary)

⁹ This is where the normal curriculum is suspended for a day to allow for dedicated or themed provision.

- Although schools reported positive aspects of PSHE lessons (e.g. safely express views), many emphasise the difficulty to determine long term impact.

In terms of primary schools, they report that:

- They value the input from school nurses (SRE and DAT), particularly if teachers are less confident, although funding cuts saw a reduction in access to nurses.
- Their guest speakers are more frequently involved for safety education, drugs, alcohol and tobacco.
- They value agents involved in safety (e.g. police, emergency services) as they often provide free activities and resources. However, the presentation quality and engagement levels are an issue.
- Theatre groups are costly; so, schools use other agents such as a local football player, local business or parents with certain backgrounds.
- One staff member emphasises that staff are better equipped to deliver sensitive subjects than external agents as they know the pupils.
- The lived experiences of agents are automatically valuable to educate and challenge students. However, these assumptions could lead to pupil and parent concerns.
- Timetable constraints, agent availability and budget issues, mean that schools use agents of “*inferior quality*” or rebook agents so material is repeated (ibid p58).

In terms of secondary schools, they found that:

- Guest speakers are more frequently involved in DAT and SRE.
- Agents involved include theatre companies, sports people, youth workers, employers, Connexions and University admissions staff.
- There is a general view that the agents are better informed, more confident, more interesting and could deliver “*powerful*” messages in comparison to “*most teachers*” (ibid p57).
- They suggest agents are important to deliver complex, controversial or sensitive aspects (including Citizenship).

- Quality is still an issue as some agents are uninspiring and boring, so pupil enjoyment and engagement is used as the quality indicator and not the PSHE learning outcomes.
- Secondary schools are more likely to use external agents where staff feel uncomfortable and less competent.

This reveals that schools are likely to include external agents in the delivery of PSHE, which schools may use to deliver complex topics. However, the cost and availability of agents is a barrier. The low expectations by some teachers and quality issues with some agents could result in delivery that is of a low standard. The current provision on offer through a range of agents could suggest a market-based delivery based on a neoliberal ideology which intends to improve provision. However, the above evidence appears mixed in terms of quality.

A further aspect that was prominent within the data collection as reported in the findings (see Chapter 3) was the number of employers. These agents were involved in the provision of careers information, advice and guidance as a result of the Education Act 2011 (Great Britain Parliament, 2011). This Act includes a transfer of the responsibility for careers guidance from the local authority to maintained secondary schools. The Act states that the guidance needs to be impartial, consider a range of options including academic or vocational and to be in the best interests of the pupils. It stipulates that the guidance has to be independent, it can not be delivered by a teacher or other staff member. The House of Commons Education Committee (HCEC, 2013: 8) made a distinction between various terms in regard to careers guidance. This included *careers information* which is details of courses or career paths and *careers advice* which is about accessing and using information. *Careers guidance* or counselling is a “*deeper intervention*” which looks at a person’s skills, interests and attributes in relation to career options. They add that *work-related learning* is the development of the understanding of work and associated skills, through direct experience. Whilst *careers education* is learning delivered as part of the curriculum. School responsibility for these aspects could

create opportunities for the involvement of external agents in schools, which could signify neoliberal market based ideologies. It is questionable, however, if private organisation involvement improve efficiency if the information is not independent and impartial. The literature review had traced the external agent involvement back beyond present policies, but not for employers and businesses. It was decided to provide this background which will be included as new literature.

Huddleston and Oh (2004) define work-related learning as partnerships between schools and organisations or businesses from the private and voluntary sector. These partnerships they suggest have had a contributor connection to the country's competitiveness since the mid-19th century. They highlight the continual requests for the involvement of these external agents in schools. The influence is the capacity issues such as for the delivery of enterprise education. Thus, they warn there is "*no estimate to the number of organisations involved in education business links and work-related learning*" (ibid: 95). Policies such as enterprise education did include government funding, but they warn that "*if the time alone of company personnel contributing to such activities were costed, the bill would run into many millions more*" (ibid: 97). Huddleston and Laczik (2012) suggest that business involvement includes interventions (e.g. mentoring, careers talks) and requests (e.g. sponsor football kit, CPD for teachers). They emphasise that historical requests for agent involvement had resulted in practices which are "*firmly embedded*" within secondary education (ibid: 404). This could therefore see a move to greater involvement of employers in education. The DCSF (2009a) list eight benefits for employers, four of which are in relation to marketing and recruitment. They state that it not only helps students to develop skills to prepare for future careers; it allows them to contribute to the economy, which indicates an interest in human capital. The DCSF (2009a) state that work-related learning is useful to help raise pupils' aspirations. Cummings et al. (2012) discuss the policy assumption that children and parents from socio-economically disadvantaged areas lack aspirations, which in turn impacts on their educational attainment. Their research explores specific interventions including mentoring and extra-curricular activities but they found no direct link between the policy interventions and the aim of increasing aspirations. The impact is more around changes in behaviour, as the aspirations were high to

begin with. Mann and Percy (2013: 1) propose that an outcome of employer engagement in schools is *“increased social capital as witnessed in improved access to non- redundant, trustworthy information and social network development than by the development of either technical or employability’ skills”*. This implies that there is a history of requests for employers to be involved in education, but there are costs attached to this. This is beneficial to the employer but also the country’s economy. For pupils, there is an indication that it could result in the development of social networks. This suggests multiple rationales for the involvement of employers and the potential benefits to pupils and schools.

A further reason to involve external agents such as local employers and professionals in schools is to create *“real-world connections”*. The DfE (2015:8) emphasise this as important as there is a perception of a *“mismatch between the careers that young people want to pursue and the opportunities available”*. In the careers duty from the aforementioned Education Act 2011 (Great Britain Parliament, 2011) schools are expected to work in partnership with a range of agents (e.g. local employers, training providers, colleges, universities and apprenticeship providers). The DfE (2015) state that organisations such as Business in the Community (BITC)¹⁰ will assist schools to work with employers as an attempt to improve the relationships between education and businesses. They also suggest it would make it easier for employers and educators to work together for the benefit of the pupils. This infers that previous relationships were not as beneficial or difficult to develop. The DfE then outline the different interventions which these agents could offer (e.g. mentoring, employer visits, links with FE colleges coaches and universities) to inspire young people. They warn that schools should *“ensure that pupils are exposed to a diverse selection of professionals from varying occupations which require STEM subjects”*. This is because of the belief that girls will drop these subjects at an early age which could limit their career options. They add that *“modern careers guidance is as much about inspiration and aspiration as it is about advice”* (ibid: 7). This is achievable through access to role models (e.g. employers, FE colleges), which is seen as important for disadvantaged pupils who have less support from family and networks.

¹⁰ BITC is a national scheme and they act as an intermediary that aimed to close the gap between businesses and schools. Prince Charles was the President of the BITC and it was one of his charities (BITC Website, 2017).

However, this implies a deficit model of certain young people (Dyson et al. 2002) where the involvement of external agents is to be used to benefit society. The guidance also includes information about the raising of the participation age in 2014. It emphasises that this means that young people have to stay in education or training until they are 18. They warn that schools should inform young people about the increase in participation age. Furthermore they emphasise that this contains education, training and employment options and does not mean that young people have to remain in secondary schools (DfE 2015: 6-8). This suggests the duty on schools to discuss post-16 routes which includes those beyond the school such as with external agents (e.g. college or training provider).

Slack et al. (2013) emphasise that the transfer of responsibility for careers guidance (from September 2012) was not accompanied by any funding, which means that schools are looking to involve agents who do not charge. They report that many schools used staff members to deliver the careers information, advice and guidance (IAG). These schools are therefore either in disregard of the stipulation from the aforementioned Education Act 2011 (Great Britain Parliament, 2011) for independent careers guidance, or they have used an alternative interpretation. Slack et al. (ibid) find that whilst some schools are committed to delivering independent and impartial careers guidance, others are constrained by the lack of funding. This means they are unlikely to buy in local authority provision and in some schools the students who had made their own decisions, do not receive IAG. These students could end up dropping out of courses, so there is a negative impact for the young person. In some schools they attempt to achieve the impartiality by bringing in a range of agents, so the student receives the different options including school sixth form, college or training provider. They warn that to meet the duty on schools to provide careers could result in a “tick box” exercise in some schools which give priority to *“quantity over quality and constrains a personalised approach”* (ibid: 6). Some FE college staff report a reduction in school requests and restriction in access to students which includes particular year groups (e.g. Year 11). This they report is more apparent in 11-18 schools particularly academies. There is a suggestion that schools are protecting their own budgets by controlling the message that the agents are allowed to give out. This is sometimes fuelled by internal pressures; staff

worried about their jobs or concerned about league tables. Some staff perceptions are that they are in competition with other schools and believe high achieving students should go to university. FE colleges state that changes in school staff make it difficult to build a relationship. They question if schools should be accountable to Ofsted for not focussing on progression. This indicates the potential involvement of external agents to respond to this policy. However, this maybe within a range of agents invited to meet the impartiality aspect, but access to some schools may be restricted.

Perceived need: include the socially excluded

The policies of New Labour focus on those disadvantaged or socially excluded, an underclass theory linked to poverty, low educational achievement, delinquency and crime (Brannan, et al. 2006; Hill, 1999). There is documented research with regard to these inter-connected problems which can impact on children's life opportunities (Payne, 1998; French, 2007). New Labour's Third Way renewal and regeneration policies aim to reconnect the socially excluded, through collaboration, community involvement and active citizenship (Shaw and Martin, 2000). This includes the 'extended school' agenda which imposed the duty on schools to provide access to a *core offer* of activities and services i.e. after-school clubs, parental support, adult learning, community use of school, swift and easy referral to specialist services. Schools were to provide these activities and services in partnership with the private sector (sports clubs), statutory agencies (school nurses, job centre) and the voluntary sector (counselling services, credit unions). In addition, some activities and services were to be delivered through multi-agency teams or provision could co-locate on school sites (e.g. children centres). Furthermore the school could use a lettings policy to generate income from the hire of rooms or premises (DfES, 2005; O'Connell & Everitt, 2010; Craig et al. 2004). Cummings et al. (2004) state that the increase in activities beyond a school's traditional domain of learning is a shift to include social and health issues. It extends the target audience from pupils to include the family and the community. They depict this as the territory of an extended school which includes the target of the activities (e.g. pupil, family, community) and the domains in which it attempts to work (e.g. learning, social, health). They

recognise that some schools might not offer activities across all levels. However, the *core offer* laid out by the DfES (2005) meant that schools were tasked to do this. Cummings et al. (2004) emphasise that schools could form partnerships with external agencies who could work across all these domains and levels of an extended school.

The extended school agenda was the delivery mechanism for the Every Child Matters agenda (DFES, 2003) which aimed to improve agency collaborations and support parents to improve children's outcomes (DFES, 2005). The impetus was the child neglect case of Victoria Climbié, which led to the Lord Laming Inquiry (Laming, 2003). He proposed national outcomes for children and discusses voluntary and private sector involvement, which became enshrined in the Children's Act (Great Britain Parliament, 2004). Every Child Matters aimed to improve agency collaborations and support parents to improve children's outcomes by offering universal services to all, together with more specialist and targeted services for those with identified needs (e.g. SEN or those who live in a disadvantaged area). These are represented as a tiered process (DFES, 2003). There was the suggestion that staff members from different professionals should collaborate as multi-agency teams who could co-locate on an extended school site (DfES, 2004a). The proposal that families who require support are socially excluded does signify a deficit approach (Dyson et al. 2002). Furthermore, Fuerdi (2003) argues that this aims to encourage parents to become teachers through homework or helping in school, whilst teachers become parents through welfare work. This shifts the responsibility for socialisation to the school, but the training for parents to fulfil their socialisation role, does indicate social control. This suggests these were policies which created a role for external agents to respond to issues beyond the traditional core business of schools.

Coleman (2006: 10) highlights the '*scale of ambition*' of the extended school agenda and the belief that more could be achieved through agents and schools working together. This is more than the sum of the parts which is also known as

‘collaborative advantage’¹¹. Coleman (ibid) emphasise the weaknesses to the involvement of external agents in schools which includes the working arrangements. He proposes collaborative leadership models to manage this process which includes Kotter’s Model of Change.¹² These are highlighted by other commentators who discuss the involvement of external agents in extended schools (Cribb, 2009; Middlewood & Parker, 2009). This suggests that whilst these policies propose the involvement of external agents in schools to support the socially excluded, there are potential process issues. From a school perspective, the reason to work collaboratively with community-based organisations is a way to improve practice (Hadfield et al. 2005a). However, the school is an “*invited space*” into which the agent is invited and one where power is not necessarily equal (Cornwall 2008: 275). Furthermore, there are potential tensions which can exist between schools and other agents, such as the need to manage expectations in terms of what is achievable within timescales (Wilkin et al. 2008). When invited to become involved in the delivery of public services the voluntary and community organisations emphasise that they wish to be partners with statutory agencies, and “*not merely their tools*” (Vallender, 2006: 238). Cummings et al. (2011:7) describe the extended school agenda in England as the “*logical conclusion*” of the previous attempts to widen the role of schools to include activities and services which focuses on others beyond the pupils. The scale of this vision was evident, as every school was expected to take part. What is significant is the breadth of potential agencies that be involved across the extended school *core offer* (O’Connell & Everitt, 2010). This is in comparison to the handful of military-type organisations deemed suitable from the early 1900s (Burt 1925; Ministry of Education, 1947) or the specialists including social workers or nurses from the 1960s (Ministry of Education, 1963). Taylor (2007) describes the extended school agenda as an example of New Labour calling upon other actors to respond to the complexity within society, through new forms of control. The rhetoric of partnership is used to entice collaborations between agencies or community in the delivery of mainstream services. This she labels as ‘governance’ beyond the state. Glendinning et al. (2002) agrees that New Labour used different instruments such as the duty to collaborate, which assume that policies would be

¹¹ See Huxham & Vangen (2005) for more information on the theory and practice of collaborative advantage.

¹² Coleman (2012) proposed leadership models to manage this change process including Kotter’s change model (Kotter, 1995).

effective. Taylor (2007) adds that the perception was that this lay beyond the state. This indicates that the duty for schools and external agents to collaborate in policies such as extended schools and Every Child Matters, was used to encourage such partnerships and deliver political agendas on behalf of the state. However, Taylor (ibid) warns that the evidence was that external agents such as community members had stayed on the periphery of partnerships, which indicates a conflated level of participation.

Perceived need: wider agent involvement

The change to the Coalition government in 2010 and spending cuts from the subsequent Comprehensive Spending Review removed the extended services ringfenced funding and sustainability grants. As a result it was forecast that extended provision would reduce (Maddern, 2010). One indication of this was in *The Importance of Teaching* White Paper (DfE, 2010) which includes the expectation for schools to work in partnerships with statutory, business and voluntary sectors to create an extended learning environment for all pupils. However, there was no duty to collaborate as with an extended school agenda which signifies a shift in focus. The DfES, (2005:4); state that schools who did offer extended services and activities, did so as they recognise that standards and wellbeing went “*hand in hand*”. Harris and Allen (2010) report that schools which had high engagement believe the school and community were both interconnected influences. Those who did not cite the lack of time, agency connections, and belief in the relevance to the standards agenda, and suspicion of agencies or perceived extra cost. Finch et al. (2014: 4) argue that “*many experts agree that educational achievement and wellbeing are two sides of the same coin: children need to feel safe, well fed and happy in order to fulfil their potential at school*”. Not everyone holds this view.

The original literature review (see Appendix 1) did not include a definition of wellbeing and so this has been explored further in this chapter. Scott (2009) warns that although policies include wellbeing, a definition is lacking as many aspects are

subject and thus difficult to measure. She advocates the use of self-reported evidence including self-esteem or friendships. In contrast, objective wellbeing which includes money, education, school grades, attendance and health, is often the focus of government policy because it is measurable (Finch et al. 2014). The value of the wider aspects of school provision (e.g. health, emotions, relations to wider community, wellbeing) to the standards agenda and league tables was reduced in 2013 (Finch et al. 2014). This indicates that there are issues with measuring subjective wellbeing. This was perhaps a rationale for Michael Gove (then Secretary of State for Education) to announce that the “*Ofsted framework has been transformed so that, rather than peripherals, teaching now matters above all*” (Gove, 2013). This meant a shift from the wider domains (e.g. social, health) and levels (e.g. family, community) of the extended school agenda, back to the core business or concerns of a school that is perceived as measurable. This shift in focus raises concerns as there are issues which face the current generation that will not be solved by the achievement of hard outcomes (Rees et al. 2013). This includes the falling happiness levels of young people during the ages of eight and fifteen (Rees et al. 2013)¹³. A survey by Girlguiding (2016) reports that the increase of sexist images in media and online is impacting on those from seven years old. Technology is also blamed for online abuse, which restricts girls having a voice. The falling happiness is also blamed on the increase in unwanted sexualised images and videos which are sent to girls, although some girls report they are now using the media to join forums so they can have a voice. This suggests that despite the removal of the wider aspects from the Ofsted framework there are still potential issues, which could result in invitation for the involvement of external agents.

The aforementioned *The Importance of Teaching* White Paper (DfE, 2010) also encourages external agent involvement in the privatisation of education through the management of free schools, academy trusts or sponsorships. This would encompass the leadership of schools and a higher level of involvement where agents are running schools at a national level, as opposed to delivering supplementary or

¹³ Rees et al. (2013) reported this was related to unhappiness with material deprivation e.g. lack of pocket money, family holidays, garden or park to play in, clothes that fitted and family trips, were more likely to report friendship problems, bullying, lower self-esteem and be unhappy with certain aspects e.g. home, health, choice and the future.

complementary activities in schools. The White Paper suggests that businesses and universities could create University Technical Colleges or run Studio Schools (where students will work on placement in the business partners). It suggests that free schools could be sponsored by parents, charities, faith organisations or educational experts, to respond to a local area's educational needs (DfE, 2013b). Ball (1997) emphasises that this use of the term privatisation is a contemporary version which is not just about the buying and selling of property and services by the state but about private and not-for-profits companies and voluntary organisations etc. undertaking income-generating activities within the public sector. The suggests that the government aims to involve parents or other actors within the learning and wellbeing of children and young people, but on different involvement levels as they are expected to manage schools. The free school guidance stipulates that parents will require certain capabilities, capacity, skills, experience and commitment of time to open free schools (Lawton, 1989). This implies that not every parent will have the necessary requisites. Ball (1997) emphasises that this moves away from the state's moral role about teaching and learning to one which is concerned with the economic value of education towards international competitiveness. This he later added (Ball, 2012) is the distribution of the responsibility for these social problems to providers beyond the state including businesses and philanthropists. He perceives this as a move back to a system of education that is diverse, patchy and messy and which involves a range of providers; i.e. education prior to the state's involvement. This suggests the level or form of involvement has increased to include agents who are invited to manage schools, but agents will still be involved in delivering supplementary or complementary activities for maintained schools or those which have converted to academies.

Exley and Ball (2011) argue that the push for privatisation within education was prevalent within both the Conservative Government since the era of Margaret Thatcher and then New Labour. This they label as the liberation of schools which could diversify and innovate including those run by external agents. These would operate outside of local authority control as the Conservatives were vehemently opposed to their role in education. Despite the suggestion by these governments that concepts such as 'free schools' were new, Exley and Ball (ibid) emphasise that they

have parallels to earlier policies (e.g. City Technology Colleges). The invitation of external agents through these different school types is perceived to help fix the issues in the attainment gap between the rich and poor, or the lack of social mobility for those from disadvantaged backgrounds. They emphasise this was due to these issues being perceived as outside the state's responsibility. The state as the provider of schools in the 'New' Conservatives under David Cameron was to be replaced with the voluntary sector and social enterprises in what he labelled as the 'big society'. In this the complexity in policy is played out in the agents that are invited to be involved. Simon (2016) argues that the 'big society' is a shift from the welfare state to the welfare society which is provided by the third sector including charities and voluntary organisations. This she highlights is a combination of earlier Conservative ideologies. Bunyan (2012) labels this shift to the voluntary sector as evidence of a neoliberal form of capitalism where activities and services are provided beyond the state. As the 'big society' was pushed, funding cuts and severe austerity measures were undertaken across previously state-funded services (Levitas, 2012). This suggests the involvement of external agents in providing activities and services was to be part of the 'big society' to allow for a reduced state.

Diss and Jarvie (2016) undertook a survey with schools to determine the provision of extended schools against the *core offer*, post the change of government and withdrawal of funding. They report that 98% of respondents were still offering extended activities. The most commonly cited is after-school sports club (90%), after school music/art/gardening (78%), community use of school (49%) and parenting support (46%). Provision correlates to needs apart from childcare. The findings do not include specialist support, although these are a research area. In terms of the delivery this is predominately, school (76%) with the remainder being external agents (24%) which includes 3% local authority. The main rationale for the schools is to narrow the gap between those deemed as disadvantaged and the other pupils. The least important is exam results and providing community access. They state that funding is a barrier to offering extended services and 29% of teachers offer activities voluntarily. The most popular source of funding is the pupil premium (75%), followed by parental contribution (71%). This suggests that schools are still interested in offering extended services but these are more geared towards pupils and

are delivered by staff due to the removal of extended school funding. This indicates that there is a reduction of external agent involvement in terms of profit-making activities for extra-curricular activities. The use of the pupil premium as a potential commissioning funding for external agent activities will be discussed below.

The original literature review discussed the pupil premium which Ofsted (2012) state is funding for children from low-income families who are eligible for free school meals; looked after children or with parents in the Armed Forces. The DCSF (2009b) add that this was to replace the previous generous funding of extended schools, on a disadvantaged pupil basis. This appears a continuation of New Labour policies which focus on the socially excluded or disadvantaged (Brannan et al. 2006). Ofsted (2012) state that schools have freedom on how to spend this funding but report that the majority use it for teaching assistants. Only a small number of schools use the funding to commission external agents e.g. counsellors. To assist schools to make spending decisions, a *Teaching and Learning Toolkit* was created (Higgins et al. 2013). This includes approximately 34 approaches¹⁴, which uses the evidence to compare the cost of the approach with the impact on attainment. The top activities include feedback, meta-cognition, homework (secondary), mastery learning and peer tutoring. The 34th approach is the use of teaching assistants, despite Ofsted (2012) reporting that many schools spending their pupil premium funding here. Activities which potentially could include external agents are deemed less cost effective which include extended school time or mentoring; whilst 1:1 behavioural activities are expensive. The toolkit put extended school time at 23 of the 34 approaches. This contrasts with the research by Diss and Jarvie (2016) who report that 75% of schools used the pupil premium for this. However, most of their delivery was undertaken by staff and not external agents. New literature was explored by Carpenter et al. (2013) who warn of the tensions from external expectations such as Ofsted, in terms of what the pupil premium could be used for. They suggest that where the schools did use external agents it was for services they could not offer, for example educational psychologists. The PRUs and special schools are more likely to commission external agents; primary and secondary

¹⁴ The number is approximate as this is dependent on the evidence basis, so more interventions can be added or the rank can change.

schools use other schools or the local authority. The report also discusses the reduction in local authority provision due to funding cuts, which means that schools often look to other agents such as football and cricket clubs. Thraves et al. (2012) state that local authorities have historically provided a range of activities and services¹⁵ which were funded by money that was top-sliced from schools' budgets. The local authorities acted as the middle-tier between the government and schools. The creation of academies and free schools, meant that the school funding then went straight to schools, which saw a reduction in local authority role involvement in the provision of activities and services to schools. Despite this Carpenter et al. (2013) state there is “*little evidence of a wholesale replacement of LA services by private providers*” (ibid: p73). This implies that there is a small potential for external agent involvement in schools through the pupil premium funding; but for specialist services that schools cannot provide.

Summary of new literature reviewed

From the full review of the literature (see Appendix 1) and the key literature used in this chapter it is clear there are policies, Acts and initiatives which have encouraged the involvement of external agents in schools. However, this contains a certain focus in terms of the types of external agent, the time period, the government initiative or the parliamentary Act (Barron et al. 2007; Diss & Jarvie, 2016; Huddleston & Oh, 2004; Slack et al., 2013; Carpenter et al., 2013; Carpenter et al. 2010b; Brooks, 2012). The literature does not necessarily include the voice of the external agent to explore their perceptions of their involvement in schools. The emphasis is on the encouragement of agents in response to requests for them to *supplement* or *complement* the work of schools or the home (Ministry of Education, 1948; DfES, 2004). This is portrayed as the desired solution, without due consideration of the agent. This suggests a further exploration would be of value that includes primary and secondary schools together with a broader range of agents. It also proposes that what needs to be investigated is the agents' own rationales for their involvement with schools. This is to explore if this is a response to the requests in policies or if

¹⁵ Thraves et al., (2012) gave examples which included school improvement, behaviour support, arts and cultural and curriculum support.

other rationales exist. The value of this thesis is that it draws from the range of agents involved in a school across the different sectors (private, public and third). The external agents are often categorised by their sector or type including voluntary sector or employers. Fourteen external agents will be introduced, together with their activities and rationales, to give them a voice. It captures the perceptions of the external agents themselves in terms of the rationales for their involvement in schools and compares this with the view of the school staff.

1.1.6 Theoretical concepts¹⁶

Leadership Theory

Educational leadership literature was explored for theoretical concepts in relation to external agents working in schools. The policy focus under the New Labour government, which ignited the interest in this research, centred on Every Child Matters and extended school agendas which encouraged external agents into all of England's schools on a bold scale (Cummings et al. 2011; Coleman, 2006). To support schools to deliver this vision Coleman (ibid) propose collaborative leaderships models which include Kotter's Model of Change (Kotter, 1995). This is an eight-step process to managing change which includes aspects such as creating the climate through a joint vision; enabling the whole organisation by empowering and planning with others and sustaining change through new processes. The model was highlighted by other commentators as a useful tool with which to support schools through the process of extending their school in response to Every Child Matters (Cribb, 2009; Middlewood & Parker, 2009). Coleman (2006) describe Kotter's Model of Change as a process through which schools and external agents can '*move to more collaborative working styles*' (ibid: 18). This is important as he perceives these collaborations as potentially problematic and the model would assist

¹⁶ This section includes new literature: Bourdieu (1997); Bronfenbrenner (1979); Coleman (2006); Cribb (2009), Habermas (1972); Kotter (1995) Matheson (2008); Middlewood & Parker (2009); Morrison (1995) and Parung & Bititci (2008).

the agents to become an integral component of a school. Whilst this model would potentially assist schools to work with external agents it is more about the process as opposed to the rationales and is therefore one-dimensional. The changes in policy also means that this model is no longer applicable, as whilst more recent policies such as *The Importance of Teaching* White Paper (DfE, 2010) did include an expectation that schools would work in partnership with external agents, there was no duty to be involved. The White Paper did encourage external agent involvement in running free schools or academy trusts or sponsorships, but this encompassed management of schools as opposed to the agents being involved in a school leadership setting. Whilst agents are still invited into schools, this is no longer based on ideas about sharing the leadership of that space such as within the extended school agenda. The proposed usage of Kotter's Model of Change does not match this policy direction and this model was excluded as a potential theoretical framework for this research. Coleman (2006) also discusses a range of leadership theories including transformative leadership (Bass, 1998; Day and Sammons, 2013) and whilst these are seen as relevant for the encouragement of external agents into schools, these have a concern around the process of involvement, so they have also been excluded as theoretical models.

Concept of participation

The concept of participation has been explored as a potential theoretical framework as external agents are invited to participate in schools on different levels. The level of participation extends across a spectrum from the delivery of a one-off activity at one end to being involved in the management of a school at the other as advocated in the above-mentioned White Paper (DfE, 2010). Different models of participation were used to explore this aspect, such as Arnstein's 'Ladder of participation' (1969). This model is used to demonstrate the difference between participating as a hollow ritual and having actual power. The latter is important as this is required to have an impact on the outcome of the participation process. Cornwall (2008) suggests that this model is useful for those on the receiving end of the participation. An example could be community members who are invited to participate in local activities. The

community members would be able to use the model to audit where their participation is cited on the ladder and the level of power they were being afforded. They could determine if the participation is manipulative or tokenistic. Citizen control is the optimum level whereby those on the receiving end have been afforded real power in the participation process. This indicates that a model to explore the different levels or interests at work in participation or involvement would be useful. However, this model only allows the participation to be viewed from those being invited, so it is one-dimensional.

Cornwall (ibid) discusses a further typology of participation by Pretty (1995) which is similar to Arnstein's but this is used by those who invite others to participate. This could be used by a school which may invite community members onto adult and community learning programmes, to audit their relationship. This views participation from the opposite perspective to Arnstein, but again as this explores participation from one perspective it is also one-dimensional. Cornwall (ibid) does suggest a further typology by Sarah White (White, 1996) which included both perspectives. Cornwall (ibid) warns that the context is important which can make participation ambiguous and examples do not fit neatly into the presented categories of White's typology.

Overall, these models are about participation in programmes and how that is viewed from different perspectives. They operate on a spectrum from negative or bad participation (e.g. manipulative) to good (e.g. control). Some aspects of these models could be related to the involvement of external agents in schools such as for cost or efficiency. However, as the agents operate in a supplementary or complementary manner, then the good or positive participation positions such as empowerment do not relate, as the agent is invited into a school and this involvement is mediated. The models also lack the different system levels of rationales for the involvement of external agents in schools. Therefore, a decision was made to explore systems models and theories as these appeared to facilitate thinking about

the rationales for involvement and the opportunity to audit the relationship from multi-perspectives.

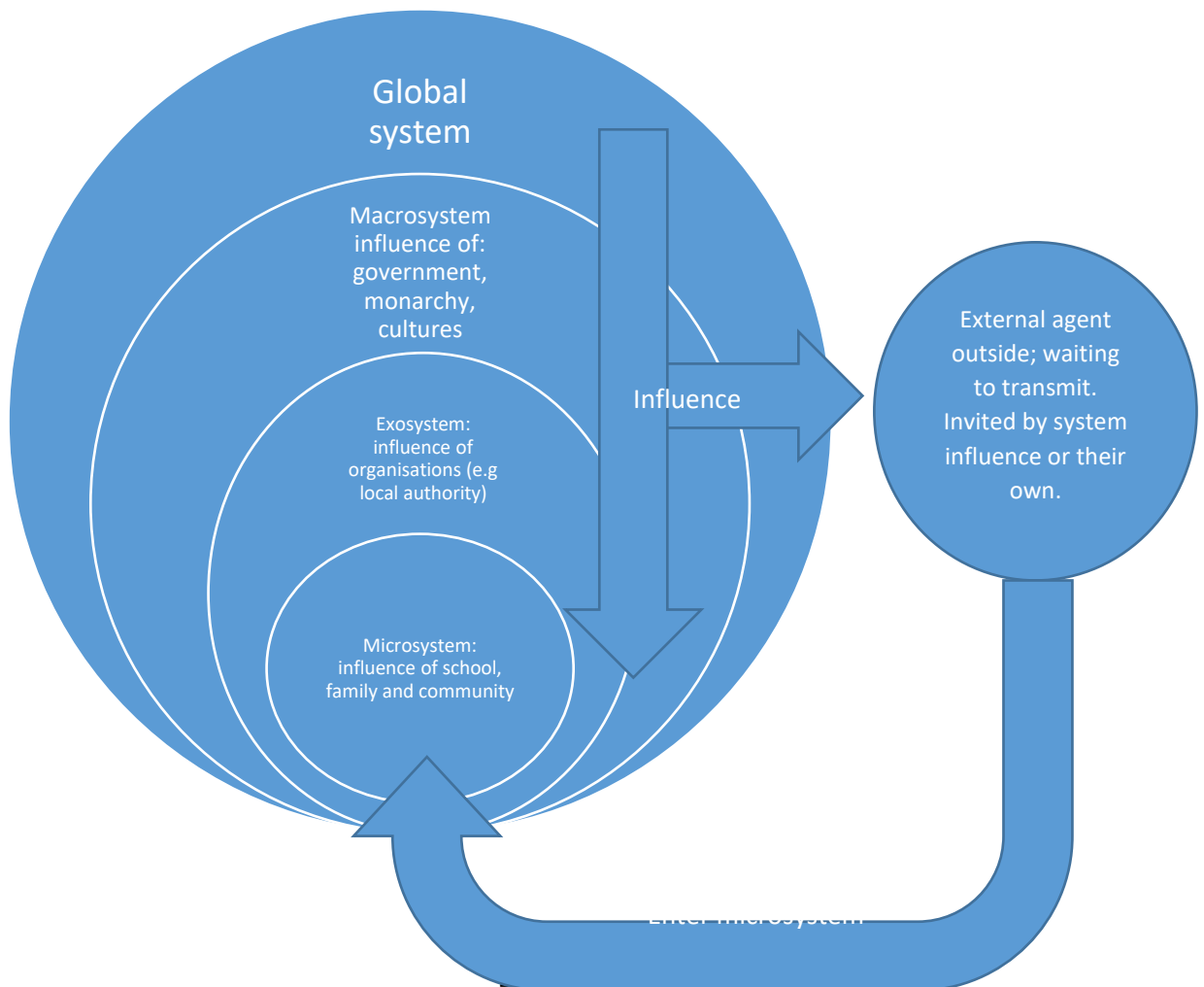
Systems Models or Theories

The original literature review (Appendix 1) led to the selection of a sociological viewpoint which includes theories which explore the institutions or components that combine for society's historical continuity (Giddens, 1989; O'Donnell, 1992). These recognise that society has an important role in the formation of behaviour or nurturing the individual and the socialisation agents within (e.g. parents, family, school, voluntary organisations, employers) (O'Donnell, 1992; Cooley, 1909). Earlier Systems Theory Models such as Durkheim were considered, however, as a 'consensual' linear system these do not recognise the different layers of system interaction or influence including the individual or the agent's own involvement in the system (Giddens, 1989; O'Donnell, 1992). In contrast Bronfenbrenner (1979) created an Ecological Model of Human Development which is specifically concerned with the nature of interactions between the individual (or group, family, or community) and the wider environment. Bronfenbrenner states his model is interested in "*the changing properties of the immediate settings in which the developing person lives, as this process is affected by relations between these settings, and by the larger contexts in which the settings are embedded*" (ibid: 21). He adds the "*ecological environment is conceived topologically as a nested arrangement of concentric structures, each contained within the next*" (ibid: 22). He does not include this in an image form so his explanation of each level is included below and in Appendix 3.

Bronfenbrenner's model includes different system layers, with individuals and organisations within each layer who could impact on children's development. The first level of influence entitled the *microsystem* includes those closest to the young person such as parents, teachers or community. The next layer is the *exosystem* which contains organisations that do not directly interact with the young person but still have an impact including the parent's workplace. It also contains the *macrosystem* which includes national government or educational policies and

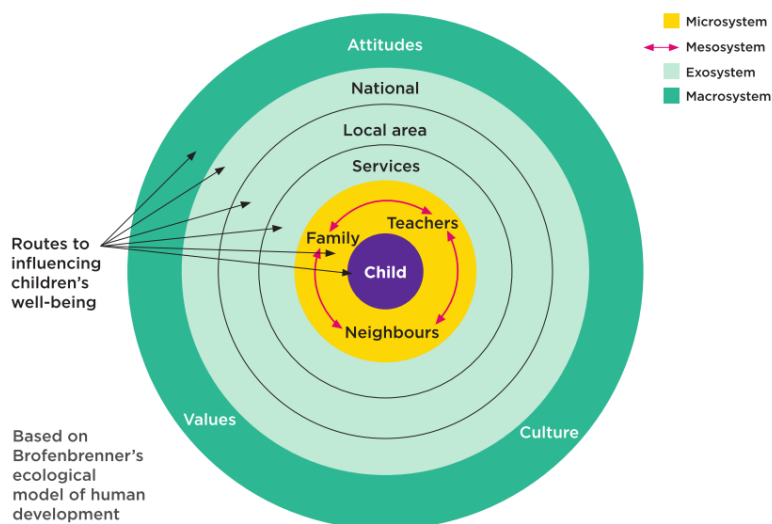
societal attitudes. The parent or school’s ability to perform their *microsystem* role, will be subject to aspects which can have a positive or negative impact on a young person’s development. This could include *exosystem* influence such as inadequacy of childcare, parental employment, which could be alleviated or compounded by *macrosystem* influence including government policies, societal attitudes, political ideologies (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). This could then indicate that other agents are invited to assist with the child’s development. However, the external agents are not a normal feature of a child’s *microsystem*. They do not share an equal footing within the *microsystem* as the parent in the home setting or the teacher in the school setting, who are normally more predominant. The agent would only enter the *microsystem* when they commenced the delivery of an activity or service in a face-to-face manner with the young person. Once the activity or service has concluded the external agent would then exit the *microsystem*, unless recommissioned. This led to the adaption of Bronfenbrenner’s Model of Human Development being developed as in Fig. 1.1 below:

Fig. 1.1 Adaption of Bronfenbrenner’s Model of Human Development



MacBlain (2014: 129) comments that Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological Model of Human Development has been criticised as it does not pay sufficient attention to the *‘individual psychological needs of the child’*. Conkbayir and Pascal (2014) add that whilst the theory is both comprehensive and useful to consider the different environments and influences, it focuses too closely on the context. They argue it misses two vital factors including the role of the child in their own development and genetics. They add that Bronfenbrenner’s later work did focus on both nature and nurture and that is a useful theory in conjunction with others for a fuller picture. Christensen (2010) agrees that the theory is weak on the individual’s ability to influence but adds that it has been beneficial in providing an insight in the facts at play in child’s development and how these are related. However, he warns that Bronfenbrenner did not discuss these factors in an explicit manner, but presents them within the theoretical framework. He also comments on how the model does not include an international level, but suggests an extra level to cover globalisation could be added to accommodate this as portrayed by Ballantine and Roberts (2012) and Drakenberg (2011). An outer layer has been included to recognise the influence of globalisation on the involvement of external agents in schools (see Fig 1.1 above). The theory has been used in the literature, for example, The Good Childhood Report by Rees et al. (2013) and The Elton Report (DES, 1989) which both depict the theory through a diagram of concentric circles (see Fig. 1.2 below). These highlight the different agents that have an influence on children’s wellbeing or behaviour.

Fig. 1.2: Different spheres of influence on children’s wellbeing (Rees et al, 2013)



Commentators including Aubrey and Riley, (2016) and Tudge et al. (2009) discuss how Bronfenbrenner continually updated his model throughout his life. Amendments include an extra environment structure (e.g. chronosystem) and that children should be viewed through the Process-Person-Context-Time model (PPCT). They advise that it is important for researchers to be clear on which version of the model is being used. The later models were called bioecological and the earlier version ecological. The earlier version has been selected for use. Tudge et al. (2009) emphasise that researchers can choose to base their work on an earlier version, they just need to state this, as indicated here. The later version was not chosen as the intended use was not to test the four elements for existence, but to use the theory to explore the different system level influences on development. Wherever there is a reference to Bronfenbrenner's Model it is the earlier version to which this pertains.

The value of Bronfenbrenner's model is as a tool to explore the different rationales that have encouraged external agent to enter the *microsystem*. This is to unpack the rationales for this, such as whether this is to respond to an identified issue relating to a government policy or initiative such as low wellbeing or lack of discipline or if other rationales exist.

Capital Theories

There are different types or forms of capital or assets which include social capital, financial or economic capital, cultural capital and human capital. Savage et al. (2005) refer to these as capitals, assets or resources (CARs) and discuss how the idea of capital has expanded from the initial form of economic capital to include the other forms. This included human capital (Becker, 1975) social capital (Putnam, 2000),¹⁷ cultural capital and symbolic capital (Bourdieu, 1997). Stokols et al. (2003, 2013) labels the forms of capital as community assets and presents them in a

¹⁷ Whilst it is acknowledged that both Bourdieu (1997) and Coleman (1988) also developed and refined the concept of social capital, from the initial introduction by Lyda Judson Hanifanin in the early 20th century, it is Putnam who is seen to have more fully developed the idea and generated a wider interest in the concept (Baron et al. 2000; Field, 2008; Coleman, 2006) and so Putnam's definition was chosen.

typology which is shown in Table 1.1 below. Here the capitals are grouped into whether they are material or human resources; the latter of which are called societal assets. Not all the capitals contained within the typology from Stokols et al. (2003) are relevant to this research (e.g. natural capital or technological capital). The typology also omits other capitals which are of interest e.g. cultural capital. This suggests that whilst the typology by Stokols et al. is useful, it is incomplete in terms of the forms of capitals which it includes. Further typologies and capital models were explored as were the individual forms of capitals. The definitions of the other capitals and their sub-types will now be explored below. Other research will be discussed to demonstrate how these concepts have been used by other researchers as a theoretical concept for their analysis. Finally, a typology of the forms of capital will be presented which will include those types to be used in the analysis (Chapter 4) about the involvement of external agents in schools.

Table 1.1: Typology of community assets

Material Resources	
Economic/economic capital	Financial assets for enhancing productivity
Natural capital	Resources produced through natural processes
Human-made environmental capital	Physical resources designed and built by humans
Technological capital	Machinery, equipment, digital/communication devices
Human Resources	
Social capital	Relationships among people that facilitate action
Human capital	Capacities of persons, including skills and information
Moral capital	Investment of personal and collective resources toward justice/virtue

(Source: Stokols et al. 2003)

Material resources

Economic/financial or physical capital

Burke (2015) states that economic capital is measured through the level of monetary capital such as savings, investments and property. He emphasises that economic capital is at the root of the other forms of capital and whilst not reducible to this, there is an economic influence. Hargreaves (2001) broke economic capital down into physical assets such as property or financial such as money in the bank. Bourdieu (1997: 48) highlights how historically economic theory only recognised this type of capital and called for the recognition of other capital forms, such as cultural capital, to understand society:

“It is in fact impossible to account for the structure and functioning of the social world unless one reintroduces capital in all its forms and not solely in the one form recognized by economic theory”.

Bourdieu added that economic capital can be converted into money but can be institutionalised in the form of property rights. For him property is therefore a subtype of economic capital. Economic capital and assets will be defined as money and physical assets will be defined as property in this research.

Immaterial resources

Cultural Capital

Bourdieu (1997) discusses three forms of capital which include economic, social and cultural. He defines cultural capital as existing in three sub groups: the embodied state (e.g. in the mind), the objectified state (e.g. possessions) and the institutionalised state (e.g. educational or qualifications). It is the institutionalised state which is of interest as this is concerned with the value of an agent’s cultural capital or the academic qualifications that the agents possess. Bourdieu (ibid)

emphasises how an individual will create this subtype of cultural capital which can be used on the labour market. It exists in an autonomous manner to the bearer, but the value of the academic qualifications can depend on their scarcity on the market meaning the offer of one's cultural capital in the institutional state might not always be guaranteed. In certain circumstances cultural capital can be converted into economic capital and may be institutionalised in the form of educational qualifications. Johannesson and Popkewitz (2001) discuss how Bourdieu is best known in education for his work on cultural capital and he highlighted the way in which educated members of society draw on cultural capital to gain respect and status. Grenfell (2004) argues that how much cultural capital one has depends on the arena or field (e.g. a school) and the competition within this field. Johannesson and Popkewitz (2001) add that the term social field was created by Bourdieu as a metaphor for a space such as higher education in which power struggles in relation to capitals can be explored. This suggests that an external agent could use their cultural capital (e.g. qualifications) to attempt to work in schools and in some instances, this could be converted into economic capital if they are able to charge for the activity or service. Savage et al. (2005) argues that Bourdieu used his theoretical framework which includes field to explore CARs (capitals, assets and resources). They add that CARs are often used to explain how class inequalities are reproduced, although there are differences in how the different capitals are understood (for examples of use to highlight inequalities see the work undertaken by Burke (2015) and (Reay, 2010)). However, the issue of class struggle is not the focus of this research and therefore applying the forms of capital in this way was not felt to be relevant. Instead the aim of the research was to explore the participant rationales for involvement of external agents in terms of their capitals. An example of the use of cultural capital used in the literature is the research undertaken by Cummings et al. (2012) which reports on a peer educator programme. The programme consisted of 16-21 year olds who were supervised by two adult facilitators and received adult mentoring. The research highlights how these pupils gained from access to the facilitators' cultural capital. In this sense this is the knowledge gained from the educational qualifications of those who provided the mentoring. This is the transmission of the institutionalised form of cultural capital which suggests that the different forms of capital could be useful to explore the rationales for external agent involvement in schools, as opposed to a focus on inequalities of pupils in the system. It also highlights the process where

cultural capital can be legitimised if offered by an external agent as part of an activity or service to pupils in a school. This is an example of symbolic capital which will be discussed below.

Social capital

The concept of social capital has been discussed, developed and refined by a range of individuals. For Putnam (2000: 19) social capital is the relationship based on norms, networks and trust and

“refers to connections among individuals – social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them. In that sense social capital is closely related to what some have called ‘civic virtue’”.

Baron et al. (2000) discusses how Putnam in an earlier publication (1996) defines social capital as that which enables participants to act together in a more effective manner towards shared objectives. The latter could operate in an instrumental role, where they are mobilised or used as the means to achieve a further outcome. In terms of schools and external agents (e.g. employers) Baron et al. (ibid) add that there might not be the full sharing of objectives as outlined by Putnam. Instead mutual understanding of each other’s objectives may be sufficient to achieve further outcomes. In this scenario the common objectives are not the end goals; they are the means, but not the ends. This suggests that both agents and schools may use social capital as the means to seek out each other’s support to deliver an activity or service but they might each have different end objectives, which means that social capital could also be used as the means.

Coleman (2006: 49) highlights the relevance of the concept of social capital to external agents working in schools. He discusses bridging and bonding in relation to Putnam, but whilst Putnam (2001) agreed on the importance of these concepts he did

not take the credit for their creation (Putnam, 2000).¹⁸ Bridging and bonding is important if schools and external agents including community members and parents are to work together through a shared vision. To achieve this they will need to build reciprocal relationships or social capital. Coleman (ibid: 49) warns that this is important as conflict could arise fuelled by the “*different professional cultures*” between school staff and external agents (e.g. social workers). In this sense the aspects of bridging and bonding social capital are important. Bonding is where a shared purpose is built, but this could remain within the school itself. In contrast bridging is the connections to other agents who may have alternative perspectives, but work together to achieve shared objectives.

Symbolic capital

Symbolic capital is part of Bourdieu’s essay on the forms of capital (Bourdieu, 1997) but it is not a form of capital in its own right; it is the legitimised form of the other capitals (e.g. social, cultural, and economic). Grenfell (2004) agrees that symbolic capital has three forms, including economic, social and cultural. In this sense all three of these forms of capital can be legitimised or recognised and thus become symbolic. For example, if an external agent’s academic qualifications are recognised within the institutionalised sub-type of cultural capital, this is then symbolic capital, as the qualification is legitimised. This suggests that there is a process to the application of capitals and how they are used. Several capitals have a higher form when they are legitimised and they can be symbolic. This process has been included within the typology of capitals that has been created, which will be discussed below.

Human Capital

Becker (1975) emphasises the way in which activities such as schooling or on-the-job training can influence one’s future income. These aspects are human capital

¹⁸ Putnam (2000) believes that credit for these terms belongs to Gittell & Vidal (1998), but they are used by Putnam (2001) and about his work around social capital (Coleman, 2006).

investments for those interested in an economic return from education. He highlights how politicians are interested in the return on the investment in education at school, college and higher education levels. The interests in the economies of education had spread across the world where the rate of return for the investment in education in both rich and poor countries. He acknowledges that the concern with human capital was raised by T.W. Schultz in the realisation that physical capital has grown and is measured for countries, but this is not undertaken for human capital, so he attempted to do so. Becker recognises that human capital is “*less tangible*” (ibid: 10) but the increased expenditure and economic problems such as unemployment brought this to the fore. He highlights how there is a wealth of circumstantial evidence which reports on the importance of human capital to education. He talks about the effects of human capital which includes economic, cultural and material. However, he concedes that there is a question of the evidence by some who warn that the correlation is between investment in human capital and ability; which singles out more favourable groups. Baron et al. (2000) breaks the components of human capital down into self-esteem, self-respect, self-confidence, attitudes, skills and knowledge behaviour. Furthermore, Parung and Bititci (2008) state that human capital is the abilities that an employee brings to a company which indicates these could be wider than qualifications. Forrester and Garratt (2016) question if human capital theory is filled with “false assumptions” (ibid: 137). They state that despite the belief in governments since the 1980s that education can improve both productivity and economic performance, the evidence is ambiguous. They warn that investment might result in a better qualified workforce but the level of increased skills is questionable. There may be other possible benefits which are not necessarily considered.

Organisational capital

Hargreaves (2001; 2003) discusses the different forms of capital (intellectual, social and organisational) that are useful for school improvement which he places within a conceptual framework. Craig et al. (2004) drew on this model to present a typology of four extended schools, each of which intends to add value in terms of a form of

capital or immaterial assets (see Table 1.2 below). Hargreaves (2003) suggest that schools can also use or mobilise their social and intellectual capital. They do this through their organisational capital which is the know-how to undertake this. This in turn can then be used to increase the intellectual capital. This indicates how these capitals can interact which Hargreaves (2001) argue that Putnam in *Bowling Alone* (2000) does not recognise this. Hargreaves (2003) warns that although a school and its staff might have an abundance of material, intellectual and social capital this does not automatically mean that the staff are able to utilise them. In this sense the social capital and intellectual capital aspects of organisational capital can be used to form networks with external agents, with a view to further increasing the capitals within the school. For Hargreaves these capitals therefore are not only the means to an end, they are also the end themselves. Craig et al. (2004) applied Hargreaves capital model to an extended school which is looking to invest in organisational capital. This school would emphasise the delivery of activities and services by a range of agents, who would be co-located on the same site. Therefore, the school and external agents can share organisational capital. The extended school would be delivered through a multi-agency approach where the school co-ordinates a range of activities and services for the local area. This is in line with the initial idea of an extended school prior to the decision to move to the cluster co-ordinator model (Chapter 1). Craig et al. (2004) present three other types of extended school model which include the knowledge exchange model which depicted the use of intellectual capital.

Table 1.2: Typology of extended schools and related immaterial assets or capitals (Craig et al. 2004)

Approach to extended school	Philosophy or value it is intended to add	Which capital or immaterial asset it seeks to create
Life Skills Centre	Voluntarism and trust Therapeutic activity Family learning	Social capital
Knowledge Exchange	Exchanges of information Experimentation and enquiry	Intellectual Capital

	Training	
Multi-agency Service Centre	Holistic local approach Co-location SEN provision and inclusion	Organisational Capital
Regeneration Hub	Co-production Job and enterprise creation Work-place learning	Human Capital

Intellectual Capital

Hargreaves (2001; 2003) states that intellectual capital was originally defined to include everything that gave a company its competitive edge. He extends this definition to that which includes an individual's education and training in addition to their knowledge, skills, competences capabilities, expertise, talents, practices and routines. It is about knowledge creation and transfer, which includes cultural capital, and for a school it can be used or deployed between a school's stakeholders (e.g. staff, students and partners). He argues that high levels of social capital in a school can increase intellectual capital. This, for Hargreaves, is also a form of human capital which he perceived as the level of skill and education of a school's staff members. Parung and Bititci (2008) agree that human capital is a component of intellectual capital.¹⁹ This highlights that capitals can interact which supports research by Hargreaves (2001; 2003). It also suggests that an individual's qualifications and skills can contribute to the intellectual capital of a school. This links to the institutionalised state of cultural capital, thus making this also a component of intellectual capital which also agrees with Hargreaves (ibid).

¹⁹ This was in addition to organisational capital and relational capital, which have not been included as they are not under discussion here.

Typology of capitals and assets

The following typology has been created from the above discussion and definitions of each of the individual capitals which are of interest. The typology has been created as those presented above tend to omit one or more forms of capital. For instance, the typology by Stokols et al. (2003) does not include cultural capital. It therefore includes a fuller range of the capitals of interest to this research than the above-mentioned typologies.

Table 1.3: Typology of capitals

	Type resource	Sub-types or components	Process / Use	Output
Material Resources	Economic capital	Money	Accumulate or increase	Money in the bank
	Physical capital	Buildings, Equipment		Interact (between different types)
Immaterial Resources	Cultural Capital	Embodied state Objectified State Institutionalised state	Mobilise (into use for a purpose) Convert (one type into another) Legitimise (Symbolic recognition)	In the mind, possessions, educational qualifications
	Human Capital	Material effects Cultural effects Economic effects		Self-esteem, self-respect, self-confidence, attitudes, skills and knowledge behaviour Qualifications Productivity Earnings,
	Intellectual Capital	Knowledge creation and transfer (e.g. training, skills)		Shared, knowledge Experiences
	Organisational Capital	Knowhow to deploy social and intellectual capital		Organised knowledge
	Social capital	Bonding Bridging		Trust, generation of reciprocity and collaboration Networks

Advantage of the theoretical frameworks used

Savage et al. (2005) discusses the concept of CARs (capitals, assets and resources) and how these have been used to explore the reproduction of class inequalities. An example they give of this is Bourdieu within his theoretical framework of field (and habitus). As field (and habitus) are not included as theoretical concepts, CARs or capitals are placed within Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Model of Human Development, where the concept of the *microsystem* is used as opposed to field. The advantage of Bronfenbrenner's Model is that it includes the different system levels or dimensions as a way of explaining the interaction of influences within the system. This allows the exploration of where these requests emanate from e.g. within the system (i.e. *microsystem, exosystem, macrosystem*), within the agent, with or without any system level influence. The research will compare the different perceptions of agents and school staff to see how the rationales to involve agents in the *microsystem* present across the case study schools. It seeks to explore the ideologies, ideas or sets of beliefs underpinning the rationales (Matheson, 2008) which forms an ideology critique (see Chapter 2). It will use the different forms of capitals which have been formulated into a typology to explore how the capitals are used to enter the microsystem, but also as an end and compares the capitals used by schools to those used by the external agents.

Limitations of capital theory

Burke (2015) argues that the forms of capital are multifaceted and many of the interpretations are subjective in the different contexts they are used. To counteract this, the above section has defined each of the capitals in the manner that they are used. Calhoun (1993) emphasises that although Bourdieu (1997) has original key insights in terms of the material and immaterial forms of capital, it is not clear how comparative to other settings his frameworks are meant to be. Burke and Calhoun also suggest that Bourdieu neglects the idea of capitalism and the desire to intensify, in his approach to capital as wealth or power. Baron et al. (2000) and Putnam (2001)

suggest that certain capitals (e.g. social, human) might be harmful if used by terrorists to organise attacks. It is recognised, that whilst these capitals can be used in a positive manner they can also be used in a negative manner. Finally, Putnam was criticised (Baron et al. 2000) as it is unclear whether he conflated social capital in terms of if it is a means to an end or the end itself; which they state that Putnam has rejected. In Putnam's interpretation the creation of social capital is the end itself. The intention is to extend this meaning to include social capital as the means to an end in line with Baron et al. (2000) and Hargreaves (2003). In this sense it can be both.

1.1.7 Contribution to knowledge

This chapter has detailed literature including government initiatives, reports, Acts and policies which have encouraged the involvement of external agents in schools, during the last hundred years. These requests have continued until the present day, as demonstrated by the timeline that was created (Appendix 2). The rationale for these requests includes the desire to supplement the work of the home and the school (Ministry of Education, 1948; DfES, 2004). This is as a response to social issues; reduced parental responsibility or lack of school capacity (Burt, 1925; O'Donnell, 1992; Ministry of Education, 1959, 1963). The involvement of agents has been continually portrayed as the desired solution, without consideration of the agent. The existing literature does not explore the rationale for agent involvement from the perception of the external agents. It does not compare the perceptions of the external agents with those of school staff. The focus in the existing literature is around the type or sector of the external agent (e.g. employers, health, voluntary organisations), phase of school (e.g. primary), the timeframe of their involvement (e.g. 1960s to 2007, 2010-2012), the government initiative (e.g. extended schools, pupil premium) or the parliamentary Act (e.g. careers duty, wider curriculum) (Barron et al. 2007; Diss & Jarvie, 2016; Huddleston & Oh, 2004; Slack et al., 2013; Carpenter et al., 2013; Carpenter et al. 2010b; Brooks, 2012). The overarching aim is to contribute to the knowledge of external agent involvement in schools to see if this is a response to these requests or if other rationales exist. The intention is to challenge this narrow lens through which the agent involvement in schools has been viewed. What

is missing in the existing knowledge base is a broad approach to the types of agents, the timeframe of their involvement and rationales beyond a government Act or initiative. What is also missing is the exploration of the agents' own perceptions and a comparison of these with those of school staff. It does not recognise the perceptions of the agent and why they might be involved in schools and if a rationale exists beyond responding to government requests. The intention is to aid the understandings of the different types of agents, but also the rationales for their involvement from the perceptions of the agents themselves. The contribution to knowledge is through the selection of this wider view of agent involvement in schools, than what has been taken before. The findings will introduce 14 agents, their activities and their rationales, to give them a voice. The perceptions of the external agents themselves will be presented in terms of their rationales for involvement and compare this with the view of the school staff.

1.2 Introduction to the research questions

The aim is to investigate the phenomenon of external agents in schools; in terms of their role and responsibilities for the learning and wellbeing of children and young people. The research questions which intend to achieve this aim are:

- Who are the external agents that are involved in the learning and wellbeing of children and young people in the case study schools and what are they there to do?
- What are the perceptions of these external agents in terms of what they believe they are there to do?
- What are the perceptions of key stakeholders including schools, parents, and pupils, in terms of why the external agents are there?²⁰

²⁰ The difficulties in negotiating access to schools and in turn access to parents and pupils, meant that the sample of parents and pupils was small. It was decided not to include this as it would have made for a small comparison (see Chapter 2)

- Are there different perspectives amongst key stakeholders in relation to why these agents are involved?
- Is the involvement of external agents related to government policies and initiatives or do other rationales exist?

1.3 Professional context

O'Connell & Everitt (2010) state that to deliver the government's vision of every school becoming an extended school the development of partnerships, local services and school capacity was required. Each local authority in England, received funding to aid this, with the expectation that much of this was devolved to schools. From this funding an infrastructure of management and co-ordination evolved, both at the local authority and school level. Local authorities and schools employed personnel to develop extended services which included Cluster Co-ordinators. The author was involved in extended schools in 2006, as a FE Community Education Manager, where she delivered adult learning across schools. In late 2007 she became a Cluster Co-ordinator for 15 schools, where she built partnerships with external agents (e.g. statutory services, voluntary organisations, private businesses). She commissioned a range of activities and services across the schools.²¹ In 2010, she co-authored a book with a local headteacher which aimed to support other Cluster Co-ordinators to develop extended services (O'Connell & Everitt 2010). The government spending cuts following the 2010 Comprehensive Spending Review removed the extended services start-up funding and cut sustainability grants (Maddern, 2010). The impact was evident in the nationwide redundancies of Cluster Co-ordinators (Milton Keynes Citizen, 2010). The author was made redundant and created a social enterprise in 2011 with a colleague. For several years she offered extended activities and services in schools and partner organisations such as children's centres. This meant that the author worked as a commissioner of external agents in schools and then became an external agent herself. There was no duty for

²¹ Commissioning of activities and services included after-school sports activities, art activities, counselling sessions, adult learning and a cross-cluster art project.

schools to offer these activities and services and the funding was no longer ring-fenced. This impacted on the desire for schools to commission extended activities and services; thus threatening the sustainability of external agents in schools. It appeared that the large-scale experiment of the previous attempts for schools to work beyond their school gates (Cummings et al. 2011) was no longer current. The aim is to explore the legacy of the extended school agenda and what this means for the involvement of external agents in schools.

Chapter 2: Methodological approach

2.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the different research decisions which were made to create the framework or stance that was selected for the conduct of this research. The framework was used to explore or interpret the social reality or phenomenon of the educational matters under investigation (Cohen, Mannion & Morrison, 2011). This took place through the application of theory to research (Murphy, 2013). This chapter will introduce the importance of this framework which includes a hierarchy of decisions made during the framework formation. This chapter will also discuss the alternative perspectives which were considered. These research decisions include the research paradigm, methodology and methods, which will be discussed in this order. The paradigmatic decisions include both ontological and epistemological assumptions and these concepts will be introduced and then the chosen position will be outlined. This is to enable a full appreciation of the assumptions that underpin this research study and outline the chosen starting point (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). There will also be a discussion of an ideological perspective which has been incorporated into this research, in terms of a critical social science approach (Carr & Kemmis, 1986). These decisions and their discussion will justify the chosen methodology which is ideology critique which will be presented as a four-stage process. Following the discussion of the methodology, the methods or the tools used to collect the data will be discussed.

2.2 Research decisions

Thompson, 2013 informs the methodology chapter is the theory of the research, underpinned by various decisions and researcher choices. These decisions are formulated upon beliefs and assumptions about the nature of social science (Burrell & Morgan 1979; Cohen et al. 2011). This included the different research paradigms or worldview within which educational research is conducted (Cohen et al. 2011). A research paradigm is the approach to an educational enquiry or the context within

which educational research is conducted (Taber, 2007; Taber, 2013). Different paradigms exist for different purposes (Cohen et al. 2011). The choice of paradigm was underpinned by different sets of assumptions and considerations which include ontological and epistemological (Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Cohen et al. 2011). These are depicted as a spectrum that extends from the subjective to the objective approach (Burrell & Morgan, 1979) (see Appendix 4). The paradigmatic decisions constitute the highest level of research thinking and are described as the underpinning research philosophy (Taber, 2007; Taber, 2013). These important paradigmatic decisions were made prior to the selection of methodology (i.e. research process or tradition) and methods (i.e. research instruments) (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995; Cohen et al. 2011). The chosen paradigmatic position influenced these subsequent decisions (Taber, 2007; Taber, 2013). The hierarchy of the decisions that took place and their relationship to paradigm, methodology and methods is shown (see Appendix 4). These decisions or considerations will be outlined below.

2.3 Ontological position

Ontological assumptions are concerned with the nature of the social phenomenon under investigation. The chosen approach or position depends upon how the phenomenon; concept or social reality is believed to exist in the world. Burrell and Morgan (1979) outline opposing viewpoints which include realism and nominalism. Those whose assumptions are aligned with realism assume that the phenomena or concept could exist in the world. This is through one shared objective meaning, which exists beyond the individual and is assumed that an alternative definitions to those already present cannot be located through research (Taber, 2013; Burrell & Morgan, 1979). In contrast, the second ontological stance of nominalism assumes the phenomena under investigation is a product of the participant's cognition (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). For example, the phenomena of bullying or destiny, the viewpoints held by one participant, may not be shared by another (Taber, 2013). These different meanings between individuals and groups are a product which is subjective to their individual consciousness (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). The goal for a researcher who subscribes to nominalism is to understand these individual

constructions (Taber, 2013; Burrell & Morgan, 1979). This research aimed to contribute to the knowledge surrounding the rationale for the involvement of external agents in the learning and wellbeing of children and young people. It aimed to achieve this through insight into the reasons for the involvement of external agents and the different perceptions surrounding this. It is believed that there could be alternative meanings that are subjective to each participant which were compared. This nominalist viewpoint is in opposition to realism where the view is that only one meaning exists in the world. This suggests that as this research is interested in gaining perceptions then the objectivist approach for interpreting social reality is being rejected (Taber, 2013; Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

2.4 Epistemological position

The second set of paradigmatic assumptions that was considered were epistemological which Burrell and Morgan (1979) depict as two polarized approaches (see Appendix 4). Cresswell (1998) suggests epistemology is concerned with the distance between the researcher and the participants. Cohen et al. (2011) add that this is about how a researcher will collect knowledge. One approach which is aligned to the objectivist position is entitled 'positivism' which believes in hard and tangible knowledge produced through considerable distance. It aims to predict, determine and identify cause through objectivity and favours quantitative methods such as experiments. The focus would take a macro level viewpoint, which aims to generalize findings on a wide scale, through large scale research. Taber (2013) states that this approach is deemed as the gold standard due to the objectivity of the data collection and analysis. This is due to the belief that one researcher could be substituted for another qualified and skilled researcher, to achieve identical findings. However, the context of this research was considered which is within schools and as education lacks the perfectly matched cases that are available within science to isolate variables (Taber, 2013) it was not perceived as appropriate. Furthermore, positivism is perceived to be less successful in relation to the study of human behaviour or that of social phenomena. This is due to the desire for control, manipulation and prediction. The school and classroom which contain human interaction, teaching and learning therefore presented huge issues to this viewpoint

(Taber, 2013; Burrell & Morgan 1979; Cohen et al. 2011). This implied that a positivist position was not applicable. The researcher beliefs are those which favour the participant's subjective experiences or their interpretation of the situation. These do not align to the positivist paradigm (Cohen et al. 2011). This suggests an alternative epistemological viewpoint which was labelled anti-positivist or post-positivist, which was aligned to the subjectivist approach (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). This stance assumed that the knowledge or meanings were co-produced from the interaction between the researcher and the participant(s). This allowed the participant(s) unique knowledge to be heard through data. As this tended to be qualitative, this approach was not perceived as objective as the positivist stance. Furthermore, the researcher's background and assumptions influenced the problem, question, methods, data sought and analysis which impacted upon the objectivity (Cohen et al. 2011; Taber, 2013). As this study was performed on a relatively small scale of four schools it was assumed it would not be automatically generalizable to a wider audience, as with large scale positivist research (Cohen et al. 2011). This study rejected the positivist approach in terms of epistemology and selected an anti-positivist interpretive stance.

2.5 Ideological perspective

Cresswell (1998) discusses that in addition to philosophical assumptions a researcher may choose to add an ideological perspective. This is often fuelled by the personal concerns of the researcher and the desire to lift the “*voices*” of the participants with a view to bring about change in society (ibid p. 78). This is relevant to this study as the voices of external agents have not been included in previous research. An ideological perspective was added in addition to the above mentioned assumptions. Carr and Kemmis (1986) suggest that critical theory²² or related ‘critical social science’ is fuelled by criticisms aimed at both the positivist and interpretive approaches. Positivism they argue has the desire to view educational problems as technical with a causal explanation. Whilst an interpretive approach views knowledge as ‘grounded’ within participant interpretations. This was deemed

²² There are a range of definitions for critical theory see Carr and Kemmis (1986) or Fay (1987) for further reading.

insufficient for the potential illusions and contradictions of social life. The idea of a ‘critical social science’ was developed by Habermas (1972: 310) and the importance to social action was explored through concepts such as ideology critique, psychoanalysis and self-reflection with the aim of “*going beyond*” existing approaches. He proposes that it exists in addition to the other two types (Carr & Kemmis, 1986) which have been subsumed to create this alternative approach (Cohen et al. 2011; Habermas, 1972). Cohen et al. (2007) advocates the value of the critical approach is in the simultaneous focus on both the macro and micro levels. This offers the ability to uncover the interests at work in certain situations and investigate the legitimacy of such interests in terms of democracy and equality. It sought to understand and question or transform the situation under research, as opposed to an acceptance of the situation. This critical approach was appropriate to this research study in that it aimed to explore the rationale for agent involvement in schools and to question this. The inclusion of micro and macro concepts was used to investigate the relationships between school and society, through the involvement of external agents. This was useful to explore the interests which underpin these relationships to see if the agents are involved to respond to pupil needs or if they are used to reproduce inequalities. Habermas’ work is criticised on several grounds including the lack of ability to transform, as Habermas did not offer any concrete examples (Carr & Kemmis, 1986). The theory was also criticised with regard to the desire to emancipate and thus it was decided this would take place through the shared knowledge (Cohen et al. 2011). The desire to include an ideological perspective in that of a critical approach or critical social science, had methodological implications (Cohen et al. 2011; Cresswell, 1998; Carr & Kemmis, 1986) which are discussed below.

2.6 Methodological position

The methodology is described as the research process or tradition (Cresswell, 1998; Cohen et al. 2011). These methodological considerations were influenced by the aforementioned paradigmatic assumptions or philosophy (Cohen et al. 2011; Taber, 2007). The ontological and epistemological positions discussed the desire to understand the world from the viewpoint of the participants and to value the co-

construction of data. This rejected the objectivist approach which favoured natural scientific methods such as experiments as they would not serve these assumptions (Cohen et al. 2011). These were better served through interpretive approaches which were fused with a critical methodological approach (Cresswell, 1998; Morrison, 2001). Murphy (2013) argues that a researcher may select a tradition, methodology or theory as a pure approach or to cross-pollinate. He adds that it would be necessary to justify the decisions that a researcher has made (ibid 2013) which will now take place below.

Both phenomenology and ethnography were considered, but these were felt inappropriate to this study. This was due to the fact the observation or interviews are used over an extended period with individual or small numbers of participants (Cresswell, 1998). This study aimed to compare different participant perceptions, which did not align to these methodologies. Case study methodology was considered as it is generally aligned to the interpretive tradition to see the case from the eyes of the participants (Cohen et al. 2011: 293). It was selected as it provides a *“rich and vivid description of events relevant to the case”* (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995: 317). This approach was chosen as it reports on social activity through the representation of meanings from the individual actors; it identifies and describes, then analyses and theorizes (Stark & Torrance, 2005). An instrumental case study was selected as the issue under investigation was dominant as opposed to the case (Stake, 1995). This was used to present and interpret the current situation in relation to external agents in schools. The limitations of the case study as a methodology were considered and one limitation is the sympathy towards the interpretive paradigm; although case studies are used in quantitative studies (Cohen et al. 2011; Stake, 1995). This is a common misconception; the importance of the case study and what defines it is the phenomenon or the focus (Simons, 2009). The difficulties in generalisation were considered, fuelled by the individuality of the case which result in a poor foundation (Stake, 1995; Cohen et al. 2011). It was decided that it will be for the reader to *“recognise aspects of their own experience in the case and intuitively generalise”* (Stark & Torrance, 2005: 34). It was recognised that depth was advocated over coverage (Stark & Torrance, 2005). A collective case study was chosen, where the rich detail would allow for the comparison of the why and

how of the phenomenon, between the cases which served as an “*analytical frame*” (Thomas, 2011: 145). Questions about the applicability of case study as a methodology, were considered, as it has been considered a method, as opposed to a methodology (Thomas, 2011). Furthermore, the desire to add an ideological perspective, meant that critical methodologies were also explored. This included the decision to use case study as a tool or instrument with chosen methodology (Stake, 1995; Thomas, 2011).

The first research methodology associated with a critical approach was action research. Whilst it was recognised that there are various definitions of action research, certain aspects indicated it unsuitable for this study. This included the participatory approach with participants and the aim to make changes within the researcher’s workplace (Noffke & Somekh, 2005; Cohen et al. 2007; Cohen et al. 2011). This study research sought to uncover and share the rationales in terms of why external agents were invited into schools and to add the results to the existing knowledge base, as opposed to implementing change in one setting. Ideology critique is the “*act of self-reflection*” a methodological approach to aid and inform *social action* (Habermas 1972: 212). There are many different definitions, readings or interpretations of ideology and ideology critique (Cohen et al. 2011; Brookfield 2000). Morrison (2001) presented this as a four stage model and used this in his subsequent publications²³ (see Appendix 6) (Morrison 2001; Cohen et al. 2007; Cohen et al. 2011; Cohen et al. 2017). It is included in the forthcoming 8th edition of the Research Methods in Education (Cohen et al. 2017). Ideology critique was selected to describe the situation of external agents in schools and interrogate the rationales for their involvement. This was relevant to the continual government invitations for external agent involvement in schools. In contrast the micro level featuring schools or agents have not always been considered. The methodology of ideology critique with the incorporation of the case studies was used to define the situation. This had a strong potential for impact for practice through the shared knowledge (Thomas, 2011; Morrison, 2001; Cohen et al. 2007). The usage of the critical approach could have meant that this thesis is not value or ideologically

²³ Email correspondence with Professor Keith Morrison confirmed that he derived the model during his PhD and it is included in his thesis (Morrison, 1995: 460) (see Appendix 5).

neutral (Cohen et al. 2011). However, it was recognised this was subject to the researcher's assumptions and decisions, which were made transparent through a reflective statement (see Chapter 5). It aimed to share knowledge and make recommendations through this research to improve the equality of external agent involvement in schools. It was not directed at a particular political party (Cohen et al. 2017).

2.7 Methods

This section will outline the research methods that were employed in this study and discuss how the above paradigmatic positions underpinned this decision. An overview of the methods is presented together with a discussion of ethical considerations. Details about the selection of the sample and participants are explored, followed by a discussion of the methods used.

2.7.1 Overview of research methods

The research methods are the tools or techniques such as interviews, questionnaires, and observations used to collect data (Cohen et al. 2011). In terms of the hierarchy of research decisions the choice of methods was at the *technician* level (see Appendix 4). The aforementioned research methodology or tradition influenced the design of the study or tools used (Cresswell, 1998; Taber, 2007). The desire to answer the research questions with regard to external agents in schools and associated rationales, set the parameters, shaped the design and steered the choice of methods (Cohen et al. 2011; Taber, 2007).

The chosen tools which were planned to be used in the data collection are shown in Table 2.1 below. This included a pro-forma (school staff), interviews (staff, external agents and parents) and a creative activity and discussion (pupils).

Table 2.1: Overview of participants and methods

Who	Methods	Sample
Schools	Pro-forma Interview	Pro-forma to 15 schools. From responses, 4 will be chosen for interview.
Parents/ Guardian	Interview	Will depend on the number of children involved
Pupils	Creative activity Discussion	7-13 age range. One group will be chosen at each school. No more than 20 children from each school.
External Agents	Interview	Maximum of 10 per school.

2.7.2 Sampling: school

The initial sample included four schools (two primary and two secondary), external agents, pupils and parents (see Table 2.1). The plan was that once the four schools were identified and consent obtained, then the schools would assist with access to pupils and parents. The data from the schools in terms of the pro-forma would assist with access to the external agents. The involvement of the different groups of participants was a staged process and will be discussed in this order.

Fig. 2.1: Selection criteria for the schools

<p>The selection criteria are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To be within the defined town and Local Authority area • Be willing to provide documents for analysis • Working with external agents • Primary or secondary school²⁴ • Not a special school

Schools were chosen using the selection criteria shown in Fig. 2.1. The criteria defined a town and local authority in the West Midlands which included schools that

²⁴ Mainstream primary, secondary, faith, academy school.

were known to the researcher. An ‘Edubase2’ search was undertaken on the Department for Education website (DfE, 2014), this returned 64 schools across three geographical areas which were labelled Areas A, B and C. Following the application of the sample criteria 25 schools were rejected and the final school count was 39 across Areas A-C. Table 2.2 below shows these areas and the breakdown of schools per area. It also shows areas D and E which formed part of the contingency plan which will be discussed below and took the total number of schools that were approached to 61.

Table 2.2: Sample selection areas and school numbers

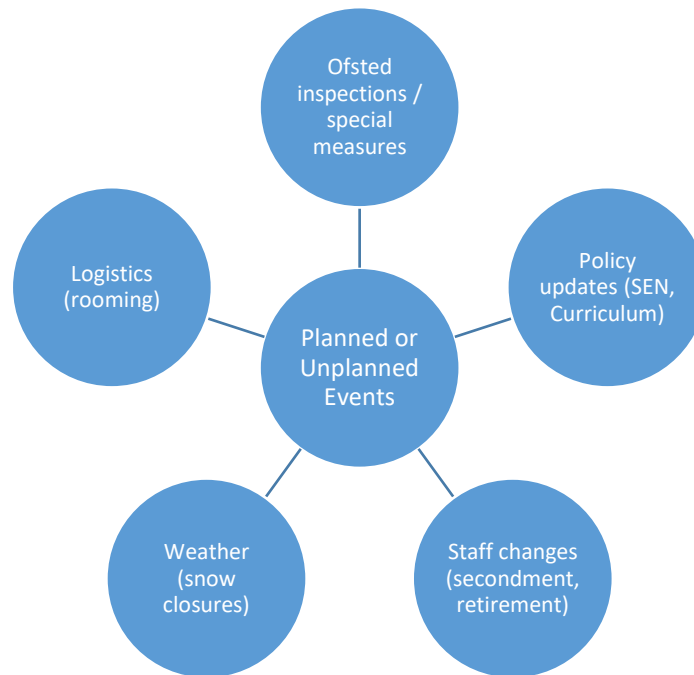
Sample stage	Area	Number of schools
Initial sample area	A	14
Initial contingency sample	B	9
	C	16
	Sub-total	39
Secondary contingency sample	D	14
	E	8
	Total	61

The initial sample area (Area A) was a convenience sample (Cohen et al. 2011). The researcher was known to the school staff at the 14 schools in Area A through previous direct face-to-face contact. The sampling strategy stated the schools were within the town and local authority area, which was geographically close to the researcher. It was believed that this previous contact would facilitate access/consent and these 14 schools were contacted first. Cohen et al. (2011) suggests that a convenience sample is often selected where a researcher has ease of access. However, this will reduce the generalisability to the wider population, which was recognised. The approach to schools consisted of an introductory email (headteachers) and the project information sheets (school staff and external agents) (see Appendix 7, 8a and 8b). This email was followed with a telephone call within

three days to gauge school interest. Access was controlled by gatekeepers such as the school receptionists who in many instances denied access to the headteacher (Cohen et al. 2007). All contact with schools was recorded on a log and a maximum of three telephone calls was felt appropriate at that time; more calls was deemed as harassment. A short follow up email was sent to school contacts, when contact could not be made by telephone or when messages had been left. No schools agreed to participate in Area A and the 'no response' rate for the schools in Area A was 50%. The amount that were invited and the response is shown in Appendix 10.

The initial contingency sample was a further 25 schools which were labelled as Areas B and C. These were also a convenience sample as they were partially known to the researcher. It was felt there would be ease of access, although there had been less direct contact than Area A. In total there were 39 schools across areas A-C, which were believed to form a sufficient quantity to locate the four schools from those who were accessible and available (Cohen et al. 2011: 155-156). However, from the 25 schools identified in Areas B-C, no schools agreed to participate and many did not respond. There were various planned/unplanned events which acted as potential barriers or reasons for non-participation. This included changes to school leadership personnel, Ofsted visits or inspection outcome (special measures) or headteacher absence. This is supported by Cohen et al. (2011) who highlights the denial of access through practical reasons such as lack of time or to protect after an Ofsted inspection. Fig. 2.2 below shows these planned and unplanned events which highlighted the difficulties in gaining access to participants. The 'no response' rate was higher in these areas than Area A (Area B was 78% and C was 56%). A better response was therefore received from the schools with which the researcher had a closer relationship, although this did not translate into participants. Appendix 10 shows the responses from the schools in Areas A-C.

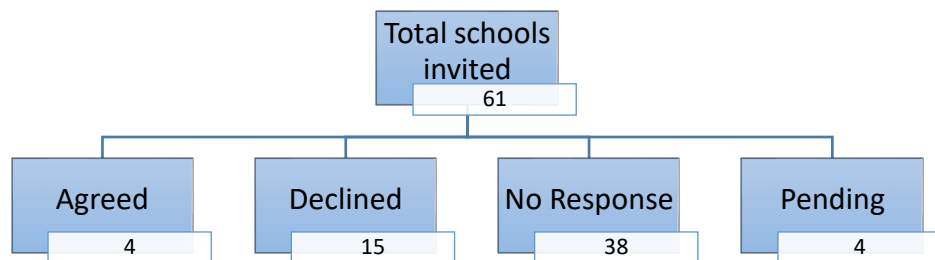
Fig. 2.2: Unplanned events: inhibiting access to school sample



The secondary contingency plan was then implemented which consisted of an invitation to two further areas of schools labelled Area D (14 schools) and Area E (8 schools). For Area D, an intermediary was used that was known to the researcher through school networks. The use of personal contacts or networks was reported as useful to access schools to undertake research (Morrison, 2006). This contact was a previous colleague from the local authority who now worked with schools through an out of school education award scheme. A shorter email invitation was created and sent to the intermediary who forwarded this to the 14 schools. This formed a convenience sample of the schools that were available, through the contact or network which became the sampling strategy (Cohen et al. 2011). However, this approach did not achieve any interested schools. The final school group, labelled Area E included eight schools. The sampling criteria was amended as the schools in Area E were not within the original town and LA. This group initially consisted of five schools and like Area D an intermediary was used which were two academics at a University in the Midlands of England. The academics forwarded the shorter email by way of an introduction. For this group the email was adapted to include the pro-forma (see Appendix 9) to give further information about the project. Three of the five schools showed an interest to the intermediaries who forwarded the details to

the researcher. Direct contact was then made with these three schools by email or telephone and an initial visit was undertaken to introduce the researcher, the project and to discuss what participation would entail. Two schools agreed to take part, the third was deemed not suitable due to the pupil age range. The school contact (senior leadership) at this school agreed to discuss the research with other schools in the same geographical area. From this two other schools were invited to participate by email through snowball sampling (Cohen et al. 2011). This expanded the sample quantity in Area E to 8 schools. In total this meant that 61 schools had been approached across Areas A- E. The outcome is shown in Fig 2.3 below. Four schools show as pending as they agreed to call back or for the researcher to make contact later.

Fig. 2.3: Outcome of school invitations



2.7.3 Participants: school

As shown in Fig 2.3 there were four schools which agreed to be involved as research participants which included two middle schools and two secondary schools. The local authority area where the schools in Area E were based had the middle school structure as opposed to primary schools. This meant that primary schools were not included as originally planned. Table 2.3 below presents these schools in the order that the data was collected. The schools were based in two district areas.

Table 2.3: Study school demographics

School name²⁵	Pupil age range	Area	District no.
Compton Academy	11-16	Compton	1
Meadows Middle School	9-13	Levant	1
Sunnyside C of E Academy	9-13	Levant	1
Thornily Academy	11-16	Princetop	2

2.7.2 Ethics

Ethical issues were considered and participants were given information sheets and consent forms (see Appendix 8a, 8b and 8c). These detailed the aims and objectives of the research to reassure the participants and to gain their consent. These were produced following guidelines from the British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2011). The researcher recorded the interviews with staff and external agents. BERA (ibid) discusses how privacy and anonymity are important in protecting the identity of participants, which can be achieved by the utilisation of pseudonyms in replacement of names. The job titles have also been changed, as have the names of the agent organisations and agent participants, where the individual participants would be identifiable. The information sheet assured the participants that the project aimed to protect them from being identified. Kara (2016: 48-49) suggests that this is a top-down approach to ethics. In addition, was the bottom up approach which was also employed which was where the ethical considerations were based on the uniqueness of the research project. An example for this study was the inclusion of data from Twitter or school websites and the treatment of the data. This was given careful consideration to protect anonymity and to this end pseudonyms were used and direct quotations were not used. This will be discussed further within section 2.7.6 (documentary analysis).

²⁵ It is recognised that three of these schools had become academies at the time of the data collection. However, they will be referred to as schools within this thesis.

2.7.4 Participants: school staff

Pro-forma

The first research question aimed to identify the external agents that were involved at each of the four case study schools. It was believed that members of staff within the case study schools would possess this knowledge. A pro-forma was created which was sent to school staff members to be completed prior to their interview. The pro-forma was divided into seven activity or service types (see Table 2.4 below). These activity types were identified in the literature which suggested that external agents would be invited to be involved in the delivery of these activities or services. This included those that were contained with the extended schools *core offer* such as *extra-curricular activities, parental support* or *adult and community learning*. It also included *individual pupil support* which was activities and services where pupils required extra one-to-one support (DfES, 2004). In addition, were other activities such as *pupil group support* which included workshops or assemblies for pupil groups in relation to the national curriculum or wider curriculum subjects (e.g. Citizenship, PSHE or Careers) (DfE, 2015; Macdonald, 2009). School participants were asked to list the names and activities of the agents on the pro-forma. It did not contain question formats such as rating scales or multiple choice questions (Cohen et al. 2011). The lack of these specific question types was the reason it was called pro-forma and not a questionnaire. Despite this there were still practical considerations which related to questionnaire completion such as the perception of intrusion, lack of time or non-completion (Cohen et al. 2011). The contingency was that several members of staff were in contact with the researcher in each of the schools and this was used when there was non-completion. The use of the pro-forma in addition to the interview allowed the phenomenon to be studied from “*more than one standpoint*” which was described as “*triangulation*”. The advantage of this multiple method approach is the ability to reduce the vulnerability of a “*single-method approach*”. The use of the pro-forma in addition to the interview is in order to “*explain more fully, the richness and complexity*” in terms of which external agents worked in the four case study schools (Cohen et al. 2011: 195).

Table 2.4: Pro-forma activity or service types

Activity or Service Types	Details
Individual Pupil Support	Statutory, community or voluntary agencies that offer support on a one-to-one basis.
Pupil Group Support	Assemblies, workshops, lessons, assemblies delivered on and around the school day e.g. PSHE, Careers
Extra-curricular activities	Clubs provided before school, lunchtime, after-school
Childcare ²⁶	Provision of childcare around the school day
Parental support	Provision of information, workshops, training and family learning
Adult and community learning	Provision of adult and community learning workshops or courses on school site
Community use of school	Use of school by community, voluntary groups for meetings, adult learning and holiday clubs

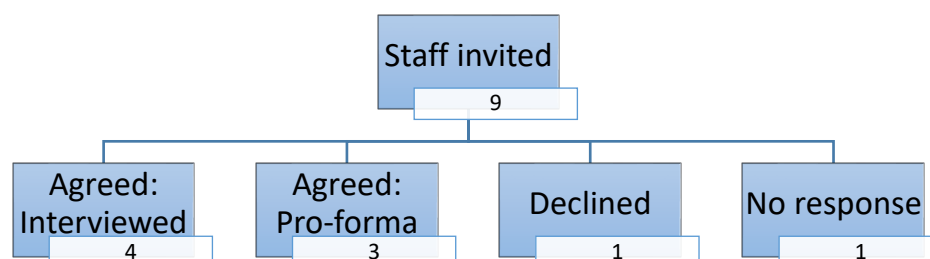
Pro-forma pilot

The pro-forma was piloted with two primary school teachers known to the researcher to test for clarity. In Pilot 1 the teacher completed the pro-forma and did not provide any comments on the workability of the document. There was only one section of the pro-forma that was left blank. The teacher included the actual names of the external agents and the types of activities. In contrast, Pilot 2 did not complete the pro-forma as fully as Pilot 1. There was a distinct lack of external agent names. In the email the teacher stated that they felt they did not have a clear knowledge to complete the pro-forma and that the school secretary might have been a more appropriate person. This suggested that there were some gaps in knowledge of school staff members in terms of what activities and services were taking place within the schools. The proposal for the inclusion of school secretaries was explored, as potential individuals for inclusion within the research. It was felt that although these individuals might commission the activities, the perceptions of the rationales would not be as valuable as from other school staff such as from teachers,

²⁶ The final case study schools did not include primary schools, who had previously had a duty to offer childcare, as discussed in the literature review (see Appendix 1). The secondary schools in the sample did not offer childcare, so this activity was not reported in the findings.

headteacher or head of year. It was decided to continue with the original plan to include teachers, heads of year and head teachers.

Fig. 2.4: Staff sample



Across the four schools there were nine staff members invited to be involved in the research (see Fig. 2.4 above). From these, seven staff members were involved as research participants. Table 2.5 below shows the participant names and job titles, and associated methods. The original plan was to have the pro-forma completed by the school staff member and then that person would be invited to partake in an interview. It also shows that this was not the case in all of the schools, as different staff members were involved in two schools due to lack of participant time which supports research by Aull Davies (2008). In this case, other staff members were invited to participate in an interview.

Table 2.5: Details of staff participants (name, job title, level of involvement)

School name	Name	Job Title	Methods
Compton Academy	Ashley	Teacher with responsibility for Careers Information, Advice and Guidance	Pro-forma Interview
Meadows Middle School	Laura	Music Teacher and Head of Year	Pro-forma
	Aileen	Teacher	Pro-forma
	Adam	Teacher and Head of Year	Interview
Sunnyside C of E Academy	Pam	Teacher & Leader of Learning (Citizenship / PSHE)	Pro-forma
	Linda	Principal	Interview
Thornily Academy	Sian	Co-ordinator for Careers, Enterprise and Work Experience	Pro-forma & Interview

Interviews (Staff)

In addition to the pro-forma the interview was chosen as the most appropriate method, but other methods such as participant observation were considered. This would have seen the researcher spend a considerable time in observation capacity with a view to understanding the social structures and cultural meanings from the participant. This was deemed a more appropriate tool where the chosen methodology was ethnography (Aull Davies, 2008). This would have been useful to observe facts, events or behaviours (Cohen et al. 2007). It was decided this did not fit with the research questions which aimed to uncover participant perceptions of external agents in schools. Stark and Torrance (2005) discuss how historically case studies were undertaken in a single setting over a long period of observation. However, when timescales in the production of research and evaluation were reduced to months, the interview became more widely used. This highlighted the usefulness of the interview to this study. Four school staff members were interviewed as detailed in Table 2.5 (see Chapter 2). These interviews took place on the school premises. Mason (2002: 63) suggests the interview complements an ontological position based on the belief that “*people’s knowledge, views, understandings, interpretations, experiences and interactions are meaningful properties of the social reality*” under exploration. Cohen et al. (2007: 349) describes the interview as a “*powerful implement*” which is used as a flexible tool which allows for spontaneity. This means that the ‘semi-structured’ interview allows flexibility with asking follow up questions or probes, as opposed to the “*one-size-fits-all*” approach of the structured interview (Mason, 2002: 64). It was recognised that a questionnaire could be distributed to a larger number of individuals than can be interviewed. This is due to the timescale involved to undertake, transcribe and code the interview (Cohen et al. 2007). However, it was felt that the interview was the most appropriate method by which to explore the social reality under investigation, that of external agents in schools. A semi-structured interview was used which included a list of questions to assist with standardisation (Appendix 11). These acted as a set of reminders, not a script. Probes were used to explore relevant comments or stimulate discussion when more information was required (Menter, et al. 2011).

The limitations of the interview as a data collection method were considered such as that it was a complex task which required focus on the structure and the flow of the dialogue to allow the generation of “*relevant data*” (Barbour & Schostak 2005: 224). It was recognised that it could be a messy encounter, as a researcher has to attempt to discover the truth of what is said and be mindful of hidden agendas that may be at work (Mason, 2002; Aull Davies, 2008). In terms of internal validity, the discussion of the findings was based on direct quotations from the interviews which were checked for accuracy (Cohen et al. 2007). Interviews were not treated as facts, they were recognised as the participants’ perceptions of events (Aull Davies 2008; Mason 2002). The reliance on the interview alone could result in the analysis being “*locked*” into participants’ perceptions. This was overcome through self-consciousness and looking “*beyond the immediate*” (Stark & Torrance 2005: 35). The interview was used as it offered an insight into participant “*memories and explanations of why things have come to be what they are, as well as descriptions of current problems and aspirations*” (ibid: 35). In terms of external validity with an interview it was recognised that the findings may not be generalisable, due to the low numbers involved in the research. Instead they will serve to enhance the understanding of social processes and actions (Menter, et al. 2011). It will be for the reader to determine if what is presented is relevant to a different situation (Cohen et al. 2007).

2.7.5 Participants: parents and pupils

The original plan was to include parent and pupil involvement at each of the four school sites. The access to the parents and pupils was negotiated through the schools. For the pupils this was also negotiated through their parents, in terms of ethical guidelines (BERA, 2011). Access to the parents and pupils differed across the four school sites and changes were made to fit in with the views of the gatekeepers including school staff (Morrison, 2006) to negotiate access.

In Compton Academy, the first school it was agreed with the school parents would be approached at a parents evening. From this, six parents showed potential interest

and contact details were taken. From the follow ups, two parents agreed to participate and were subsequently interviewed. One pupil was interviewed for Compton Academy; this was not recorded as the pupil was nervous. A second pupil who was due to be interviewed withdrew at the last minute. Only a small amount of data was collected from the one pupil. For Sunnyside C of E Academy, it was also agreed to attend a parents' evening to approach the parents and pupils. From these 14 names and contact numbers for parents were taken. Despite the usage of telephone calls and text messages no parents agreed to be involved. Discussions took place in Meadows Middle School in terms of the logistics and access, but access was never granted. This was due to changes in the leadership of the school, which inhibited access. At Thornily Academy, a news article was written about the project and included on the school newsletter and website. In addition, two parent letters were created and distributed. A focus group discussion was undertaken with four pupils. The pupils did not agree to the sessions being recorded. Again, only a small amount of data was collected from this session. Despite several letters being sent out from the researcher to the parents at Thornily Academy, the return slips to advise if they were interested to be involved, was never received from the school. It was decided, therefore, that the data from the two parents and one pupil from Compton Academy would not be included, as it would make for a very limited comparison.

2.7.6 Documentary analysis

Following the completion of the pro-forma at Compton Academy it appeared that the staff knowledge of agents was incomplete. Ashley who had responsibility for careers, information and guidance was by his own admission heavily weighted towards external agents related to careers. Attempts were made to invite further staff members at this school without success. It was decided to supplement the staff knowledge of agents with a further data collection method that of documentary analysis. Each school website was searched for references to external agents which May (2011: 215) describes as a "*rich basis for research*". Stark and Torrance (2005) suggest that documentary analysis can be used in addition to interviews to uncover instant content, which could be in relation to the identification of external

agents. May (2011) adds that documents can be used on their own or they can be compared with observations. However, in this instance they were compared with the information recorded on the pro-forma and from the interviews enabling the triangulation of data as outlined by Cohen et al. (2011). This, as discussed above added strength using more than one method. During the agent interviews (see 2.7.7), several agents provided documentation such as promotional leaflets, evaluation reports and lesson handouts which were also used to generate the findings. The agent websites were examined for information and/or documents relating to their work.

The limitation of documentary analysis was considered which May (2011) highlights as including the type of document (e.g. public and private) and issues of accessibility. The documents included in this study were readily available in the public domain. An overview of the range of documents which were located per school is detailed in Table 2.6 below. The public documents accessed via the internet included school newsletters, parent letters and reports. Furthermore, if the study school website inferred the school owned a Twitter account, then their tweets were explored to locate any references to agent activity or services. As stated (2.7.2) the names of the schools, agent organisations and participants were changed to maintain anonymity. This included the use of pseudonyms in terms of the content of tweets (e.g. twitter profile names and activity names) to protect the identity of the participants. Here the researcher made bottom up decisions with regard to the use of quotations from these documents (Kara, 2016). Direct quotations were not used from data obtained from the internet as it felt this could lead to the identification of the participants, if a Google search was undertaken for a specific phrase. Despite, the data being already in the public domain (Kara, 2016; May, 2011). This decision was important to protect the anonymity in this secondary data, as this in turn protected the anonymity in the primary data (interviews), which was a top down ethical consideration (Kara, 2016). These documents were also used to investigate the rationales which had brought the external agents into the schools. Caution was taken with the inclusion of documents which were from secondary sources as these might not to be neutral. The potential bias was considered in in terms of the audience and purpose with attention paid to the context and process of their construction (May, 2011).

Table 2.6: Data sources by school

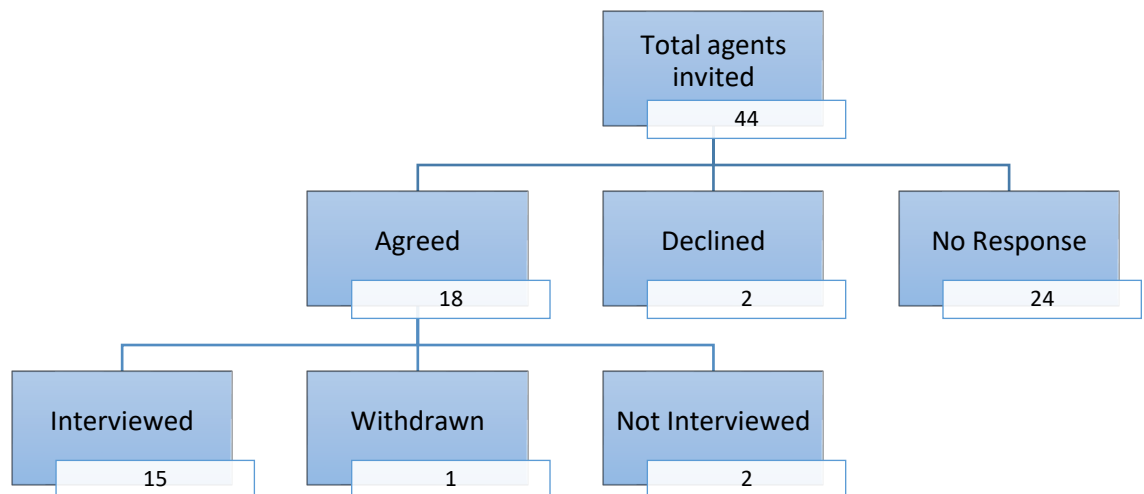
Data source School name	Staff pro-forma	Staff interview	Staff blog	Website: News	Newsletters	Reports Policies	Twitter Account	Parent letters
Compton Academy Total documents: 14	Ashley	Ashley	-	√	√	√	√	-
Meadows Middle School Total documents: 28	Aileen Laura	Adam	-	√	-	√	-	-
Sunnyside Academy Total documents: 61	Pam	Linda	Linda	√	√	√	-	√
Thornily Academy Total documents: 31	Sian	Sian	-	√	√	-	√	√

2.7.7 Participants: external agents

Purposive sampling was used to select the agents for involvement from those that had been identified across the data sources, at the time that the interviews took place. The agents were invited before any analysis of the data had taken place (during 2016) so those invited did not arise from the final list of agents, as discussed in Chapter 3. The staff interviews were not transcribed until after the data collection phase. This purposive sampling took place prior to the creation of the final list of the agents. During the data collection, gaps emerged in the data such as collective terms used for agents or just the activity name. This created a shortlist of agents for

each of the schools from the available data. A range of agents were then invited to participate at each study school. The agents were invited across the activity or service type, also the sector in which they worked (e.g. statutory, voluntary, community, private). They were also invited across the data sources from where they were identified. An email was sent to the agents to ask if they would like to participate in the research. Their participation entailed a semi-structured interview. The emails were followed up with a telephone call within three days. As shown in Fig. 2.5, a total of 44 agents were invited and from this 18 agreed of which 15 interviews were undertaken. Two agent interviews were not undertaken due to researcher illness.

Fig. 2.5: Agent sample (across the 4 sites)



In Compton Academy, the initial school contact a teacher called Ashley, asked his co-ordinator to locate the contact names for the external agents. This school contact then acted as a gatekeeper (Cohen et al. 2011) as she emailed the agents themselves to see if they were interested in participating. The contact forwarded any emails that she received from the external agents, either positive or negative in terms of their involvement. This process was not used in any of the other schools, as the agents were contacted directly and the school did not involve itself in this process. As the

agents were to be interviewed off the school site, it was never perceived that access would have to go through the school. It was the decision of the gatekeeper to become involved in the access to the agents, which was not necessarily helpful (Cohen et al. 2011). Due to the geographical location of one agent, namely Young Theatre, their interview took place over the telephone. The other 14 agent interviews took place in different locations as the agents did not all have their own premises. Locations included the agent premises, university office, restaurant and hotel which meant that the environment was sometimes public and subsequently noisy, which were barriers to this method. One participant was interviewed but they did not possess any knowledge of external agent involvement in the study school, so this agent was not included in the analysis. The person that was interviewed did suggest there would be other individuals in the organisation that would have greater knowledge. A colleague had originally agreed to participate and then declined. It was decided at this stage not to attempt to find a different person for this agent. The 14 agent participants whose data were included in the findings are shown in Table 2.7 below

Table 2.7: Agent Participants²⁷

School	Organisation	Name	Job Title	Area
Compton Academy	Young Theatre	Tom	Director	Art
	Rare Disease	Jane	Manager	Fundraise / Income
	Red Bricks	Elaine	Manager	Skills
	Work Skills	Sarah	Manager	Partnerships
Meadows Middle School	Connected Counselling	Kiely	Strategic Lead	School Partnerships
	Together Housing	Glenn	Officer	Community
Sunnyside C of E Academy	Road Safety	Peter	Officer	Road Safety / Education
	Fire Safety	Jack	Co-ordinator	Education
	Sparks	Phil	Youth Worker (Lead)	Youth
Thornily Academy	ABC Engineering	Serena	Co-ordinator	School Relationship Development Training
	Building Maintenance	Keith	Manager	Corporate Responsibility Social Responsibility
	Uniformed Service	Nigel	Development Worker	Group Development
	West College	Leanne	Manager	Events School Partnerships
	CareerMed	Claire	Co-ordinator	Events (Schools)

²⁷ The organisation names, participant names and job titles have been changed to protect anonymity.

2.8 Analysis

2.8.1 Interviews

The audio-recordings of the semi-structured interviews with school staff and agents were transcribed in full and the transcripts were coded, in order to identify significant themes (Stark & Torrance, 2005). The case studies were coded in the order that the data were collected, a case study at a time. The first case was manually coded into broad headings (agent, activity, rationale, benefit, barrier, and enabler) on A3 sheets. The coding was achieved through content analysis which aimed to verify the contents of written data in a rigorous manner through analysis and examination, including frequency of words or categories. Units for analysis were identified and allocated codes or categories in relation to the research questions (Cohen et al. 2011). The researcher moved back and forth between the data, research questions and underpinning literature, as the units of analysis and themes emerged (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003).

These initial codes and the development of the coding structure were kept in the research diary. The aim was to support a reflexive stance and to provide a history of the research study (Cohen et al. 2011; Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). The diaries recorded reading of the literature, interpretations and thoughts. The diaries also recorded the approach to data collection, sample details, difficulties during the data collection, together with analysis notes including coding and reflections. This process of initial coding identified the agents who worked in the schools. The agent names were then coded, together with their activity type. Initially the activity was coded by the parent code (e.g. on school or community) after which they were allocated the sub-code which matched with activity type from the pro-forma. Next the school transcripts were manually coded with the emerging rationales for involvement (e.g. personal belief system, fun activity). Within the interviews a lot of barriers and enablers were discussed in terms of the agents work with schools. It was decided that these were too broad of a code and more specific codes were used in the coding structure (right person, relationships, trust). The A3 papers became unworkable, due to the sheer quantity of paper (15 sheets) and it was difficult to make connections across them.

These manual codes were then loaded onto NVivo software which assisted with the analysis within each case and for the cross-case analysis. The interviews for the first case study were then coded using NVivo which resulted in the second iteration of the coding structure. This included six parent codes (rationale, impact) and 28 sub-codes such as 'education or learning' or 'sharing information'. This approach to coding on NVivo was also useful to highlight both the differences and similarities in how participants talked about the same phenomena, such as between the external agents and school staff as the information under a sub-code could be easily viewed.

The transcripts for the second case study were printed on A4 paper and they were then coded manually against the new coding structure, which utilised the sub-codes. The research was then able to go back and forth to the paper copies as the new codes emerged. The results were then entered into NVivo. It is appreciated that the interviews can be coded direct into NVivo. However, there were pockets of time used to complete the coding such as on lunchbreaks or travelling, where there was no access to NVivo. The use of paper meant that all the available time was utilised for the coding. There was also a paper record of the coding that took place, in addition to the NVivo coding, which were used within the emergent coding. Where new codes emerged in the second case study (e.g. wellbeing) and then subsequent studies, the previous case studies were checked to see if this theme had been missed in the original coding. NVivo quickly facilitated the searching of this information, using text search. This saw the researcher moving backward and forward between the case studies within the coding stage (Mason, 2002; Cohen et al. 2007). The third and the fourth case study were coded in the same manner. Codes were subsumed where necessary to assist with creating open and flexible coding categories (Mason 2002; Cohen et al. 2007). This resulted in 5 parent codes and 24 sub-codes. Within this process the literature review was read and three mind maps were created of the emergent themes in terms of who the agents were, what was their activity and why they were involved.

Notes about the literatures, thoughts and associated interpretations had been kept in the research diaries. These were read and pages were labelled with post-it notes for easy reference. The literature in relation to the topic was manually sorted to create a shortlist, in terms of the emerging themes. A new literature search was undertaken in response to emerging interview themes (e.g. employer engagement) and this was incorporated into the literature review (see Chapter 1). The original literature review had been kept broad in terms of external agent themes, as opposed to homing in on one type. The significance of the engagement of a theme such as employers made this important to cover in the new literature. Bias was reduced by this approach to the analysis which included the researcher's self-awareness and reflexivity in setting the codes and categories, by moving back and forth between the data and literature (Cohen et al. 2007). A list of pre-determined and emerging codes with descriptions are included in Appendix 12.

2.8.2 Documentary analysis

In addition to the interviews the documents located for each case study school were also analysed manually and then coded through content analysis. May (2011) suggests that the process of content analysis can be used within documentary analysis where the documents are explored for the frequency of certain words or phrases. One can approach a document with "*a clear idea of what is being looked for*" (ibid: 209). For this study this was for any references to external agents that were involved in the case study schools. The documents were then examined for content about the rationale for the agent involvement in schools. A "*critical-analytic stance*" (May, 2011: 213) was taken which was useful to explore any references to the work of external agents in schools and the associated rationales. This was used for the consideration of how this was described and if it closed off any opposing interpretations. The intent and purposes of the documents were considered and it was acknowledged that the documents were not neutral (May, ibid).

This manual coding was then entered into NVivo which facilitated a search of documents for specific text references in relation to the coding categories that emerged from the interviews. The full identification of the agents and their activities from both the interviews and the documents, allowed a list of agents to be created in relation to each of the four case study schools. Each agent was coded to an activity type from the pro-forma e.g. *pupil group support* which were sub-codes in the coding structure. These types were then analysed in terms of their frequency per school which allowed trends to be located. The coded sections of activities and services of the agent research participants were explored to create a list and source of the financial contribution of each agent. The analysis process allowed the participants' perceptions within interviews and documentary analysis to be explored using Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Model of Human Development (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). It also includes a typology of capitals which consists of economic capital and cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1997); social capital (Putnam, 2000); human capital (Becker, 1964); organisational and intellectual capital (Hargreaves, 2001; 2003; Craig et al. 2004). The collective case study meant that multiple cases which ran in parallel could be studied together (Thomas, 2011). The involvement of the agents per school and data sources were compared, the rationales for the agent involvement were also analysed across the schools.

2.9 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to discuss the philosophy or theory behind the approach to the research; the decisions which were made and the justification of these decisions (Taber, 2007). This was to answer the research questions which centred around the identification of who the external agents were in the four case study schools and why they were involved. The different perceptions of why they were involved were also explored. Justification for the decisions selected has been presented, including the limitations of the chosen methods and those which were excluded (Thompson, 2013). Furthermore, the aim of this chapter was to be transparent about the research, in order to leave a strong audit trail of what the researcher has actually undertaken.

Chapter 3: External agents in and around schools: who are they and why are they there?

3.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to present the findings in relation to the research questions (see Chapter 1). The findings are presented as four individual case studies which are introduced in the order of schools by which the data were collected. Each case study commences with a short description of the school and a profile of the agents involved. This is to set the scene for further discussion of the findings in relation to the different perceptions around the rationales for the agent involvement.

3.2 Compton Academy

An Ofsted report (2013) describes Compton Academy as a less than average-sized secondary school which catered for pupils aged 11-16. It was based in a small market town called ‘Compton’ in a rural area of the West Midlands. The school became an Academy in 2011 and its sixth form provision was at a local college. There were very few pupils from ethnic minority groups. The proportion of students known to be eligible for the pupil premium²⁸ or with special education needs²⁹ was below average.

3.2.1 Who were the agents working in Compton Academy?

This first research question aimed to uncover the external agents who had delivered activities and services in the schools. For Compton Academy, a total of 30 agents were identified from the available data sources. A list of the agents, the data sources and activity type are included in Appendix 13. The frequency of the activity types was undertaken which indicated that *pupil group support* (26) was the most popular

²⁸ Ofsted (2012) stated the pupil premium was additional funding for looked-after children, pupils known to be eligible for free Academy meals, and pupils with a parent in the armed services

²⁹ Special education needs are the aspects which impact on a child or young person’s ability to learn which can affect their behaviour, concentration, reading, writing, understanding or physical ability (Gov.UK Website, 2016).

activity type, followed by *community use of school* (3) and *individual pupil support* (1) whilst there was a lack of *parental support, adult and community learning or extra-curricular activities*. Ashley (a teacher with additional responsibility for careers information, advice and guidance) stated that the *extra-curricular activities* were delivered by school staff. He identified under half (14) of the agents; nine were career focused and classed as *pupil group support*. He admitted “*In terms of any other agents, I’m not too familiar with what happens to be honest, only with what I do with IAG, careers and all the rest of it*” which suggested a narrow focus of agent knowledge. He used a collective term of “*companies*” which hindered the agent identification. The school website and Twitter profile included further agents, whilst reports and policies were less useful. No pattern emerged in relation to the spread of agents across the data sources. Fourteen of the 30 agents were only mentioned at one source and no agents were mentioned across all the sources. It was recognised that there were further agents that had not been uncovered and what was located was therefore, a ‘snapshot’ of the situation. The data could have been supplemented by interviews with other staff members, but those invited declined (see Chapter 2). The rationale for the involvement of the external agents in Compton Academy will now be discussed.

3.2.2 What are the different perceptions about the involvement of external agents in Compton Academy, amongst the research participants?

The remaining research questions aimed to investigate the rationales for agent involvement in the case study schools. Various themes arose during the content analysis in terms of the rationales and these aspects were coded in broad headings as these themes arose (e.g. education, sharing information, individual needs, moral) (see Appendix 12). As the remainder of the data was coded these became three distinct rationales in terms of the activity or service focus: educational, informational and wellbeing. Finance emerged, but this often existed in addition to the three rationales. An overview of the themes in relation to these rationales is included at the end of this Chapter.

Table 3.1 below, shows the agent research participants, their associated rationales and the financial contribution for Compton Academy. This was created from the document analysis and the interviews. If a financial transaction to the agent, to the school or between the agent and the school was not identified, then it was assumed the agent covered the cost. The four agents will now be introduced below.

Table 3.1: Compton Academy Agent Participants - activity or service rationale and finance

Agent name	Activity or Service Rationale	Financial contribution³⁰	External £	Pupils £	School £	Agent £
Young Theatre	Educational	£4,500	√ (Local Authority)			
Rare Disease	Educational	£1,000		√		
Red Bricks	Informational	Unknown				√
Work Skills ³¹	Informational	Unknown				√

Young Theatre

The first agent research participant had an educational rationale and they were Young Theatre, a theatre-in-education charity which aimed to fundraise to benefit pupils³². A local authority funding report stated the local authority had allocated £4,500, to the agent. Tom the Director from Young Theatre stated they had submitted a tender for the project. The delivery included a 30-minute theatre performance and 30-minute discussion session. This took place with year groups of pupils (aged 14-16) across local schools, during school lesson time. The performance (homelessness, teenage pregnancy, drug abuse) was originally created

³⁰ Financial amounts have been rounded to protect anonymity

³¹ The Work Skills website states that they offered 'alternative education provision' which would normally be chargeable, but this activity is provision off the school site and is outside of the activities and service of interest to this project.

³² The Charity Commission Website (2017) stated that a charity should exist to tackle their charitable cause or purpose(s) which should be for the public benefit. Each charity has a listing on the Commission website. A charity may trade to fundraise as opposed to trading to meet its objectives.

for a different local authority, then subsequently commissioned in other areas. This suggested the charity offered *pupil group support*. A local authority press release stated that there was a rise in homelessness amongst young people (16-24 year olds), which influenced their decision to commission the project. Young Theatre were featured in a school newsletter which commended the acting and the ability to “*connect*” with the pupils. It stated it was a funny, yet serious performance which had made pupils “*think*” about these issues. This agent was not mentioned by Ashley or in any other school data; perhaps as their involvement was brief which resulted in a low profile. Tom emphasised it was easier to find funding than charge schools as they had less money than people believed. This viewpoint may explain why the available data indicated that there were no activity costs to the school (see Table 3.1 above). It was recognised that the school may well have worked with agents which did charge, but these were not identified. In terms of the educational value, Tom stated that the performance linked into the national curriculum. The Young Theatre evaluation report aimed to capture feedback around PSHE and citizenship and highlighted how the production enabled pupils to learn and retain information on “*complex issues*”. This was perhaps as some of the previous teacher feedback, in the report, stated the performance contained difficult and serious issues which can be hard to get groups of students to discuss. It also stated that the way it was delivered was “*very informal*” and “*fun*”. The report also stated the school had initially refused the session due to a lack of curriculum dates. A local authority press release on the performance highlighted the different delivery method which gave pupils an opportunity to explore a “*difficult*” subject using methods that were “*exciting*” and “*creative*”. This suggested the educational value was towards a wider curriculum activity such as PSHE, through the different delivery method to that of normal school lessons. The value of the activity to the school could be due to the fact it was local authority funded, so it was provided free of charge.

Rare Disease

The second agent research participant who had an educational rationale was Rare Disease. They were international charities who were featured in a school newsletter

article. They were not in any other data source. Jane a Manager had presented to Year 7 about the extent of their charitable work and then invited the pupils to fundraise. She returned the following week with a celebratory activity session for the pupils who had fundraised over £1000. She stated that this activity session gave their charitable fundraising the *“fun factor”*. This implied the charity offered *pupil group support*. The fact they were only in the school for a short time was perhaps the reason for their low profile in the data. She stated that their activities had an educational value as they were *“what they talk about within in their curriculum and it fits in with what they are learning about”*. She stated the strategy was to fundraise through presentations about *“children helping children”*. She emphasised the charity’s deep subject knowledge from extensive international work which meant they offered *“things that perhaps in a geography lesson or an RE lesson that they can’t... discuss any further”*. They elaborated through *“more risqué pictures of people and the side effects”*. She believed the fundraising had positive outcomes for pupils’ achievement and that they educate pupils *“about the developing world and the importance of being a good global citizen”*. This indicated a link to the curriculum subject of Citizenship. She stated they offered *“more academic activities... [such as] challenges, quizzes...word searches...dingbats”*. However, schools sometimes controlled the time she was allocated to pupils when they *“only give you a 10-minute presentation slot”*. Whereas others will say *“this term we have chosen as a whole year group or a whole school to support international charities, so please come in and do five lessons”*. Other schools controlled the activities that could be undertaken as *“sometimes schools will say we’ll just do our own fundraising for you...we know [what] works”*.

This necessity to fit in with schools to negotiate access is perhaps why she felt the need to offer a *“portfolio”* of products which *“fit with what the school wants”* from a charity. Despite this staff perceptions prevented access to some schools which she said, *“might be through lack of education”* and concern that they *“might come in and frighten their children”* as they did not understand about the rare disease. She added it was *“perhaps through adult’s short-sightedness, if they did listen to what we can offer, it might open their minds”*. Jane discussed the relationship she had with her

regular schools “*they can trust me... [there is a] mutual understanding of what’s expected from both parties*”. The relationships and management of expectations was important to ensure the work was cost effective due to the hidden costs including materials, instructors or management costs which not all schools considered. She stated that “*some of my schools that I’ve worked with in the past haven’t really performed in the way that I would like...we weren’t really getting as much out of the relationship as we should ...because they’ve either cost us money or you know something’s gone wrong*”. This suggested the agent’s fundraising work with schools was not always cost effective to the charity.

Work Skills and Red Bricks

The third and fourth agent research participants were Work Skills and Red Bricks who both had an informational rationale. Work Skills was a training provider and Red Bricks an employer from the construction industry. They both undertook careers talks and taster sessions to promote apprenticeships and they co-delivered activities. This suggested the organisations offered *pupil group support*. Both were included in tweets from the schools Twitter feed (Appendix 14) which emphasised the apprenticeship angle. Work Skills were also mentioned by Ashley, which meant that Red Bricks had a lower profile. During her interview Sarah, a Manager from Work Skills, stated that she would often take employers into schools, acting as a “*broker*”. She stated that some schools had refused employers due to different reasons including time, space or ability to manage the process. She warned they “*don’t understand the wider perspective of employers being given an opportunity to come in*”. This was echoed by Elaine, a Manager from Red Bricks, who stated that even when a school had dedicated careers staff they might lack the knowledge of pupil options and emphasised the need to “*educate the educators*”. Sarah remarked that “*some of it’s just personality, it’s the people that are in those roles*”. She gained access as “*some of it’s historical, so people who’ve had a relationship with us for... a long period of time*”. Having the relationship with the right person, was therefore important to access schools. Elaine warned “*as an employer approaching the school...you can come up against closed doors*”. The school might state they are

“already work[ing] with such and such”. She stated that she partnered with Work Skills as *“they have got a lot of contact with local schools, so they're kind of my way in.”* Although they both recognised this was useful for the employer, Sarah as a *“broker”* had to protect herself to ensure she was invited in. She said, *“I don't want to push too far, that then I don't get invited in...you've got to be quite tactful about how you present that really...it is definitely a missed opportunity”*. This indicated that she valued the involvement of the employers and the restrictions on access impacted on the young people.

Ashley highlighted that the agents involved in the school in relation to careers were not there to educate as he stated, *“they haven't approached us to say then we would like to teach your kids this”*. Despite this he emphasised that if the funding was available he would have *“employers delivering lessons, absolutely without question”*. It was apparent that he was the conduit that brought the careers focused agents into the school. He stated that prior to his involvement the company employment in the school was *“small scale”*. He suggested to the school *“why don't we get companies, you know proper companies in?”* *‘oh, don't know about that’ you know it was quite scary, you know. I said, ‘they're not that scary, they're human beings like everybody else’*. He believed it was the right thing to do and that agents could deliver the ‘message’ better than himself by them not being teachers, which was influenced by his own beliefs:

“it gives it credence and legitimacy for the students...So if I keep saying it, they just think I'm a teacher and an idiot so you know, it's important that they get the message from lots of different people ... they say of course you are saying that because you are a teacher. But you know if they hear lots of people saying it then they might, it might be beneficial at lots of different points.”

“I reckon it's a good idea. My personal belief system..I think that it's important that students get into contact with as many people as they can and different opinions as they can.”

This was supported by comments made by Sarah (Work Skills) during her interview who stated that in some schools *“there's definitely a strong belief that the young*

people in their school deserve to have information on all the choices open to them..... they feel a moral obligation. ... they understand that you know an A level or a vocational pathway they offer in their school isn't right for all". Despite this she highlighted competing education policies such as the raising of the participation age (RPA)³³ which meant agent access to schools was limited:

"you must stay in this school until you are 18 and are not really given any information on any other pathways ... over the past 12 months since RPA has really sort of taken effect...a lot of schools are choosing only have us to come in to either year 7, 8 and 9 and avoiding year 10 and 11, particularly if they have got their own 6th form provision...The landscape is changing and for us it's becoming increasingly frustrating. We've complained about that nationally that we feel that there is a real lack of independent careers advice and guidance."

For Ashley, the rationale also operated on an individual level informed by his local knowledge: *"We can be as aspirational as we like, but the truth is that two thirds of the children that leave this school, won't leave the area"*. He believed it was *"important the employers get the right staff and we provide the students with the right skills"* so the agent involvement served this transition to work. Despite the informational rationale for post-16 routes, both organisations stated they aimed to plug a gap in apprenticeship information. Sarah (Work Skills) stated that *"although the word [apprenticeship] is common, what sits behind it in the information, isn't"*. Elaine (Red Bricks) agreed that *"the government are obviously creating however many 100s of 1000s of apprenticeships, and that's fantastic, but they are just sort of saying it and not giving any further information"*. This was compounded by the perception that apprenticeships were for the low achievers, which resulted in missed opportunities or pupils being classed as 'NEET':

"[our] biggest reason for going into schools is to explain about what an apprenticeship is, how you apply... opportunities there are locally..., all of that is really important... In the county... there are more apprenticeship places than there are young people filling them. Which to us is a tragedy when you see the NEET list. There seems to be a mismatch." (Sarah, Manager, Work Skills)

³³ The DfE (2015) stated that pupils who left Year 11 in 2013, had to remain in education or training for a further year. This was increased to 18 years old for those who left from 2014 onwards.

“if you don’t do very well in school then you go and work in construction, but it’s not that way at all..you need to have your maths and English A-C... you can’t just fail your GCSEs and go straight into an apprenticeship.”
(Elaine, Manager, Red Bricks)

Ashley highlighted the government influence on the agent involvement as he stated, *“it is all very well government saying we must have more employer engagement with schools”*. However, the academic impact was *“hard to measure’* so the *“legitimacy kind of disappears and it is a nice to have, not a must have and when budgets are stretched and staff are thin, you know it is quite hard to justify, so we are on a bit of a decline I think, at the moment”*. He added that there was also influence from the Headteacher who said, *“Ofsted doesn’t care about it”* which made it *“quite hard to finance... there’s a budget attached to it as well”*. This suggested that the government were keen to involve employers in Careers IAG provision, but this was hard to justify, as it was not included within inspection regimes. There were hidden costs for the school and the agents some of whom had previously paid £1,500 funding to support a BTEC programme. Ashley stated that *“schools would be astonished to find out how willing companies are”* which implied that schools were unaware of the potential support from some agents. This was supported by Sarah (Work Skills) who stated they had *“about 12 different offers”* whilst Elaine, (Red Bricks) stated *“it varies on what the schools wants really, I mean some schools just want, they have their careers day, so we just kind of come to the careers day, but other schools will kind of say to us, well what can you offer?”* Both organisations were flexible in their offer to schools which appeared to be an attempt to gain access to deliver the information gap.

3.3 Meadows Middle School

Ofsted (2013) describes Meadows Middle School as a smaller than average-sized school which catered for pupils aged 9-13. It was deemed a secondary school by Ofsted, but did not include Key Stage 4³⁴. Most of the pupils were from a White British background. The proportion of students that were eligible for the pupil premium or with special education needs was average. The school was based in a market town called 'Levant' in a rural area of the West Midlands. There was about 12 miles between 'Levant' and the smaller market town of 'Compton' where Compton Academy was based. Both towns were within the same district area (District 1).

3.3.1 Who were the agents working in Meadows Middle School?

For Meadows Middle School, there were 27 agents identified from the available data sources. A list of the agents, the activity types are included in Appendix 15. The frequency of the activity types was undertaken which showed the most frequent was *pupil group support (19)* followed by *individual pupil support (3)*, *extra-curricular activities (5)* and *unknown (2)*³⁵. There was *parental support (1)* activities but no *Adult and Community Learning* or *Community use of the school*. The extra-curricular activity plan showed that 22 activities took place over the course of a week, which implied that this provision was mainly undertaken by the school staff. The staff research participants included Laura, a teacher and Head of Year; Aileen a teacher and Adam a teacher and Head of Year. Laura identified the most agents (13), followed by Adam (5) and Aileen (4) which indicated that Laura had greater agent knowledge. Adam revealed it was the "*management in the school*" that brought in the agents, which explained his low agent knowledge. The school did not have a Twitter profile and no newsletters were available. Various reports and news articles were located on the school website e.g. pupil premium report, which increased the number of agents for this school. Adam detailed two organisations but not the activities, which highlighted identification issues and confirmation what was

³⁴ The National Curriculum is divided into Key Stages which included Key Stage 4 for children aged 14-16 (Gov. UK Website, 2016).

³⁵ The unknown agents are because of the lack of agent names provided by schools on the completed pro-forma.

located was again a ‘snapshot’ of the agent involvement. No pattern emerged in relation to where the agents were spread across the sources and eight agents were only mentioned at one source. It appeared that the interrogation of multiple sources was useful to identify the agents, but not the inclusion of more staff members. The rationales for agent participants will now be discussed below.

3.3.2 What were the different perceptions about the involvement of external agents in the Meadows Middle School, amongst the research participants?

Table 3.2 below shows the agent research participants, their associated rationales and the financial contribution for the activities and services. It highlights a contrasting financial position for Connected Counselling, who were commissioned by the school. The four agents will now be introduced in the order as shown in Table 3.2.

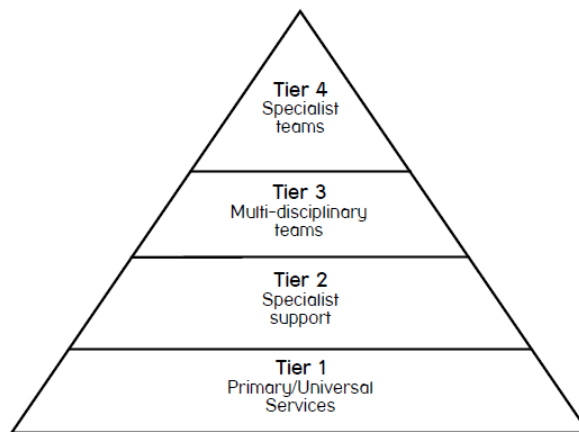
Table 3.2: Meadows Middle School Agent Participants: activity or service rationale and finance

Agent name	Activity or Service Rationale	Financial contribution	External £	Pupil £	School £	Agent £
Connected Counselling	Wellbeing	£7500			√ (pupil premium)	
Together Housing	Educational Informational	Unknown				√
Sparks	Educational Wellbeing	Unknown				√
Road Safety	Educational Informational	Unknown				√

Connected Counselling

Connected Counselling was a charity that supported the mental wellbeing and emotional needs of children and families. Kiely the Strategic Lead for Connected Counselling provided a school promotional booklet which stated they offered specialist support (Tier 2) as opposed to a universal service (see Fig. 3.1 below). Aileen stated they spent “*one day per week in school to provide counselling. Pupils are referred and have 10 sessions*”. This suggested the charity offered *individual pupil support* which resulted in the emergence of a new rationale of ‘wellbeing’ in the data. This could have been due to the fact it was a service, as opposed to an activity. The wellbeing rationale was also associated to a self-esteem group delivered by ‘Sparks’, which was more of an activity session and will be discussed below. Connected Counselling were included within the school’s pupil premium report which stated they received £7500, which was financially beneficial for the agent. Kiely stated a school would commission them to respond to “*young person’s needs*” she added it was down to “*what the heads feel they need for their school... it is budget driven, but once they have bought in it is then it’s young person driven*”. Adam emphasised the financial constraints which had impacted the involvement of agents in the school which “*over the course of the three-four years...has dwindled away. I am 95% sure that it is down to budget*”. He also highlighted the focus on the curriculum “*you have to have a certain amount number of staff that deliver the curriculum and that is a priority*” but also the need to cover the “*pastoral care side of things*”. This he stated was “*probably more important than delivering the curriculum; you’re kind of dealing with emergencies... our hands are tied a bit when we are trying to stick to our timetable*”. This highlighted the pressure to deal with both the curriculum and the wider issues (e.g. health). In terms of the pastoral side Kiely stated that some schools recognised the link between wellbeing and children’s ability to learn. In primary schools “*there are a lot more complex backgrounds...that’s having a knock-on effect with their learning...they want to support the child holistically.... So it’s about the child feeling happy and being settled before they can learn*”.

Fig. 3.1 - Connected Counselling Tiered Services



Adam stated that the counsellor who worked for Connected Counselling was in the school for one day per week, he was “*very good*” and had been involved in the school for three or four years. It was “*prescription based*” which meant staff had to “*fill out a form*”. He stated that “*we’ve lost a staff member who was responsible for the counselling kind of things and that just puts added pressure onto us*”. He preferred this staff member who used to offer daily pastoral support as it “*took so much pressure of me being a head of year and a teacher*”. Since she left he was seeing more pupils “*at lunchtime and things, which is fine, but just an extra thing really*”. In comparison to the counsellor the use of the staff member did not require a referral process which he perceived as a barrier and extra work. He emphasised that pupils “*have to book an appointment with him [the counsellor], which isn’t ideal... you don’t know when things...crop up...it’s the budget restrictions and it is just adding more onto our load*”. In comparison, the pastoral staff member knew “*the children...they might have to fill out a form to say they have seen the child but that’s them managing that...it’s almost just a natural thing that the children go to see that person*”. This appeared to disregard the specific expertise that the counsellor had to offer. He felt that the staff “*build the trust of pupils*” and that “*children react, respond better to a familiar face*”. He revealed that the pupils’ unfamiliarity with the counselling service was because the school had not promoted it, despite it being commissioned by the school for several years. The service was very much viewed as external which he said was “*affiliated with the school*”. Keily

highlighted a different approach in some schools where “*they want to buy in somebody that’s part of a new team [of external agents] that they’re setting up*” which suggested different levels of agent involvement. This implied that even after several years, the agent was still viewed as external and Adam preferred the full-time pastoral member of staff as opposed to a part-time specialist.

Sparks

The second external agent linked to the rationale of wellbeing was Sparks, a Christian Youth project funded by local churches. Laura listed the organisation name, whilst Aileen wrote they provided “*1:1 mentoring*”. This suggested it was *individual pupil support*. The mentoring was coded to a wellbeing rationale, but this could have equally have been educational if it was associated to school performance. Adam did not mention Sparks, so the school perception is unknown. Phil, the Youth Worker at Sparks was unable to be involved during the data collection phase for this school. He also worked in Sunnyside (the next study school) and discussed Meadows during that interview, so those data are included here. He stated that “*mentoring seems like a good idea in school, but I don’t necessarily know if schools have worked out the best way to do it*”. He added that “*we’ve done mentoring that’s open ended which just seemed to go on and on and on and on... down to [school] expectation... because it seemed like a good thing*”. He emphasised the importance of managing expectations and “*any time we’re asked to do mentoring, we’ve agreed to do a couple of sessions to see how it goes...if they want to continue...what the point of it is...if the kids understand why they are there...cos it might not work*”. This implied the rationale and expected outcomes were unclear. In addition, he said that a colleague ran a “*girls’ self-esteem course a four-week course at Meadows*” adding that it ran “*every 5 weeks ...as part of their off-curriculum Friday afternoon...some girls there are kind of encouraged to go to it, identified by staff that they might benefit from a little bit of self-esteem work.*” This had a wellbeing rationale but was not mentioned by the school in the available data. It appeared that staff encouraged certain pupils to attend these activities, which sounded targeted.

Sparks were also involved in Meadows for educational activities which included a lunch club and RE lessons. This implied they were also involved for *pupil group support* and *extra-curricular activities*. Laura identified the organisation name, whilst Aileen had acknowledged they joined some “*lessons*”. The school’s extra-curricular activity timetable included a reference to a lunchtime activity delivered by Sparks. They were not mentioned by Adam, so the school perception was unknown. It appeared that Aileen and Laura knew more about Sparks than Adam. Phil (Sparks) discussed problems with his contacts at Meadows where previously he had “*a very strong relationship with the RE teacher*”. When, she left and there was no RE teacher and they were “*given to somebody who maybe wasn’t that kind of keen on RE..they didn’t miss so obviously, the importance of what you were doing...they left and then somebody else came in... it was just being passed from pillar to post*”. This suggested the importance of having a connection with more than one staff member at a school. Not all staff are interested in the work of agents or have knowledge of them, which was perhaps a reason for the low profile.

Together Housing

Together Housing was a housing association who were mentioned in two press releases from the school website; one about a careers fair (informational) and the other an intergenerational activity (educational). They were not featured in any other school data. Laura listed agents involved in a career ‘break out’ day on the pro-forma, although she did not list Together Housing. The press release about the careers fair, included a quote from Aileen so she had knowledge of the agent. During his interview, Glenn, an Officer from Together Housing, discussed their involvement in the careers day “*we get a timetable of classes the same as a teacher.... five or six classes in a day going to the normal length of time. The kids come in we have a presentation in whatever we’re delivering on.... social housing as a career*”. He believed they were heavily involved in the school and during the sessions they deliver “*there’s usually a teaching assistant along with us... they would only be there if they’re needed*”. He stated that there was not anything they did that “*schools couldn’t buy in from elsewhere, but we’ll do it willingly and we’ll do it for free*”. The second article on the intergenerational project (pupils and

elderly residents) referred to Glenn, but neither him or the school mentioned it. In terms of an educational rationale he discusses how they were involved when the school wanted every pupil *“to have an opportunity to grow either flowers or fruit and vegetables”*. His organisation *“over several weeks, worked in the school by delivering composting top soil and then working with the pupils”*. He stated they had built a community centre near the school and ran a youth club where *“all the kids who come to that are in the catchment of Meadows”*. He stated that most of the work was because *“the school approached us”* to fill the curriculum with *“useful things”*. It was a case of *“one thing leads to another”*. The school had given them broad themes such as *“health and wellbeing or safety”* and were asked to *“fit something into that”*. This suggested a heavy involvement at the school’s direction which could be due to the fact they did not charge, but they had a low profile in the data.

Glenn felt they provided the school with the *“technical expertise”* of their architect, which if purchased *“would be expensive; they would have to pay professional fees... we do it at no cost”*. In terms of the school’s rationale for working with Together Housing, he emphasised that it was because they had *“a good relationship with them, they know what we deliver will be good quality and appropriate and we’re free”*. The organisation was delivering activities that would have previously been provided by other statutory bodies. He stated that *“often we are finding that we are stepping into gaps left where other services have withdrawn or don’t exist anymore”*. These were now ineffective and his organisation was asked to deliver activities and services, perhaps as they did not charge. Despite this, he did not assess the impact of his activities as *“we don’t do a great deal of analysis of how effective it has been”*. He stated, *“the fact that we are invited back suggests to us that the schools are happy”*. The agent had been asked to deliver aspects including alcohol awareness by one school as they were *“willing amateurs”*. They decided that it was *“outside of our area of expertise”* and *“needs to be delivered by professionals”*. Whilst this was not at Meadows, it was clear that Together Housing were being asked by schools to take on a range of aspects, which they were not always qualified to deliver. Due to budget restrictions highlighted by Adam, the school may well

engage with Together Housing because they do not charge. Glenn revealed that *“community stuff we do isn’t stuff we have to do, we do it because it’s good for the people we’re responsible for and good for the area”*. He added that *“the number one factor driving house prices tends to be access to a good school. We are building houses to rent and sell in all of our communities, so if you wanted to make a business case for our involvement in schools, having good schools is really important for people wanting to live in a community”*. This implied that there could be a financial incentive for the agent to be involved with schools, but it appeared the school directed the provision.

Road Safety

A further agent who delivered both educational and informational activities was Road Safety a statutory organisation. Peter, an Officer stated they were responsible for road safety education and resources. They did not appear within the Meadows data, which indicated a very low profile. He discussed this involvement, during his interview for Sunnyside³⁶. He said he visited PSHE lessons in *“schools like Compton, Meadows and Sunnyside. I go in over a number of weeks and deliver to the whole school, a class at a time”*. This suggested they were involved for *pupil group support*. Peter recognised the importance of *“building those relationships”* which facilitated his work in Meadows. He discussed the issues when *“the person I used to deal with left”* and the access to the school became *“a big of a struggle.... I thought I am not letting this go”*. He emphasised *“I went up there... I said, ‘look who do I need to speak to, so that I can carry on this good work that I have started?’* In the end the school put him through to someone else, so the work has continued. This change in staff may indicate why the agent’s information was not included in any of the collected data.

³⁶ Peter also stated that he had worked in Compton Academy but the agent did not feature in the data for that school.

In terms of an informational rationale Peter stated, *“they asked me to go in on top of what I deliver to the kids anyway, to deliver a presentation on the issues surrounding the school because of the building works and the havoc created”*. This presentation was delivered in addition to their normal activities which is why it was associated to an informational rationale. He recognised that they reacted to school requests in addition to their normal educational activities. He stated that *“pro-active is where we go in and do our stuff, but re-active is if the school has got a problem and they ring me”*. He felt that as an external agent they could deliver the message in a different way, by them not being teachers. He stated, *“it’s nice sometimes for the kids to hear it from somebody else”* and that many teachers had said *“they are listening to us all day, so if we start on about something like that..., they will think ‘oh it’s just them again’*. The benefit he felt was that *“if somebody else goes in and really lays it on thick and gets the message across then they [teachers] say ‘it works to hear it from somebody else that is not there all the time with them every day”*. He added *“I suppose it is like inviting a police officer in”*. This indicated that Peter believed that the school felt the provision from the agent was beneficial for the fact that they were not teachers.

3.4 Sunnyside C of E Academy

Ofsted (2014) describes Sunnyside C of E Academy as a larger than average-size middle school which catered for pupils aged 9-13. It was deemed a secondary school by Ofsted but did not include Key Stage 4. It was based in ‘Levant’ and it was approximately three miles from Meadows (District 1). The school became an Academy in 2013. Most pupils were from White British backgrounds. The proportion of students known to be eligible for the pupil premium or with special education needs was below average.

3.4.1 Who were the agents working in Sunnyside C of E Academy?

There were 41 agents identified across the data sources. The list of agents, their activities and the activity types are included see Appendix 16. The frequency of the activity types was undertaken which showed the most frequent was *pupil group support* (22), then *community use of the school* (9), *individual pupil support* (4), *extra-curricular activities* (5) and *parental support* (2). There was no *adult or community learning*. There were two staff members involved; Pam a teacher and Linda, the Principal. Additional data sources included the Principal's blog, newsletters, a parent calendar, extra-curricular activity plan and a financial statement. Pam identified 22 agents and Linda 27 agents and collectively it totalled 40 agents. Both discussed agents who were not mentioned elsewhere. This suggested that even with the higher number of data sources, it was the staff members that proved the most useful, although this was assisted by the Principal's blog. There was an issue in the identification of agent information as Pam used collective terms including "*various careers visitors*" and "*dance companies various*". This implied the data were a 'snapshot' of the agent involvement at that time. A reason for the high staff knowledge could have been the length of service³⁷. A further reason was that Linda stated that activities were not allowed to be undertaken in the school without her agreement, "*if anybody wanted to operate in school they would have to ask me. Nobody operates without my permission.... that's a given and if I find out that somebody's doing something that I don't know about it then I really don't like it, because everything has to sit within our philosophy*". Despite this, Linda did not identify all the agents herself.

³⁷ Staff profiles for Pam and Linda were located within a governing body document which stated that Pam had worked at the school for over 20 years and Linda had worked in a variety of roles prior to becoming the principal.

3.4.2 What were the different perceptions about the involvement of external agents in The Sunnyside C of E Academy, amongst the research participants?

Table 3.3 below shows the agent research participants, their associated rationales and the financial contribution. It highlights that the costs were covered by the agent. These agents will now be introduced.

Table 3.3: Sunnyside C of E Academy: activity or service rationale and finance

Agent name	Activity or Service Rationale	Financial contribution	External funding £	Pupils £	School £	Agent £
Road Safety	Educational	Unknown				√
Fire Safety	Educational	Unknown				√
Sparks	Educational Wellbeing	Unknown				√

Fire Service

The Fire Service was a statutory service which Pam stated offered “*arson awareness*” which was *pupil group support*. The agent was featured in Linda’s blog and parent calendar which stated they had visited Year 8 PSHCE lessons, so she was aware of the agent. Jack, the Fire Service Co-ordinator felt they were “*public servants*” who had “*a duty to go out and keep communities safe, not only by responding, but [also] on early intervention... with the younger people in schools... just raising awareness and education*”. Due to the vast district area covered by the service and funding restrictions he stated “*we try and do school assemblies.... we hit that one target... It would be nice to go individually from classroom to classroom but we just haven’t got the people*”. He highlighted that school work was still cost effective and beneficial to wider society than hoax calls and deliberate fires. He emphasised “*if they [Fire Service] have an opportunity they are going to invest in trying to stop these incidents happening because it is a cheaper option, rather than*

keep turning out with fire engines.... It has a massive impact...staff, environment... the costs start ramping up". He stated that "safety" was a big rationale and this was achieved through raising awareness, for example, about laws in relation to fireworks through education. He made the point that it was the different to normal school lessons. He stated it was "giving them some education in a really nice pleasant informal environment, so they actually understand it more. There is nothing strict...it is really, really informal, my name is Jack it is never Mr White. You get that at the school". He put forward the rationale that the free activities they offered schools was the reason why they asked to help. He said "I hope that's not the main reason why we get invited to go to schools...and to support events. Yes, we are a free service and we have always been recognised as (that)". He added that "we have always had chargeable jobs...we have never charged...whether that is going to have to change, I don't know". He stated that even when they responded to school requests, including school fairs, there was also always an undercurrent "message" they wanted to deliver. He indicated that on a long-term basis, the free activities to schools were not financially viable. He discussed the need to obtain data to work out when pupils begin to show an interest in fire to target their work: "We never want to stop working in schools, but we need to be seen to be working a bit smarter you know because we can't be everywhere".

Jack stated he had "always gone" into Sunnyside since he joined the Fire Service 20 years ago. He lived in Levant and stated, "it is a small market town and everybody knows everybody". It was through this background that he was approached by the school to "give a 10-15 minute chat" to a group of pupils who "continually turn up late for school or don't come to school as often". He stated that "because of the work [fire safety] I have been doing in the school and probably the trust I have built up...they rang me up". Furthermore, he stated that it was probably down to the skills that he possessed which enabled him to work with pupils: "I don't suppose everybody can do it, but I seem to have a way and getting their buy in to a lot of things that I talk about and it worked really well". He stated that the school had attempted to improve the pupil's attendance to no avail. He emphasised it was "something different, I wouldn't say a helping hand... somebody's whose face

everybody knows....in the role we've got as fire fighters we seem to be we are up there with some of the best role models I think in the community". He stated that his involvement was useful for the school to *"start to understand"* why the pupils were continually late on certain days. A staff member accompanied him and it helped to *"delve into that a bit more...on an individual basis"*. This indicated it was *individual pupil support*. After two months, the school reported an improvement. The Fire Service involvement in the attendance initiative was included in the school's financial statement in terms of value for money for targeted educational improvement. However, the support provided by the Fire Service was at no cost to the school. In contrast, they were included with local authority support service that did charge. This implied the school valued the Fire Service involvement as he was well known, offered a different approach and did not charge.

Road Safety

Road Safety, were also involved in Sunnyside where Pam had listed the agent name but no activity details. Linda did not mention them. They were featured in two school newsletters and a parent calendar which stated they were to visit PSHE and Citizenship lessons. This was classed as *pupil group support*. The newsletter reported the lessons were *"lively"* and *"interactive"* and that some pupils admitted to not wearing their seatbelts. It highlighted this was the role of the driver (e.g. parents or carers). During his interview Peter, an Officer quoted national statistics as an impetus for the work of his department and anecdotal evidence from his work in schools. He emphasised *"It's amazing, how many children don't actually wear their seatbelts... I'll average sort of 8 out of a class of 30... just unbelievable"*. His own perspective was apparent when he stated that *"Parents should be making sure that kids have got their seatbelts on, it shouldn't be me...it's just unbelievable...I shouldn't have a job"*. He highlighted the role for the parent, but recognised the difficulty in them delivering the message as *"maybe again a child thinks they are on at me all the time"*. This echoed Peter's comments that the child might not listen to the teacher and thus it was a role for an individual who was not with them every day.

Peter stated that there was a *“requirement for every council to actually provide some form of road safety”*. He added this could be met through a *“letter to every school, every year...they have then fulfilled their statutory duty”*. He discussed how the statutory duty around road safety was interpreted at a local level and they decided to go into schools as opposed to a letter. Funding cuts had reduced their team, so they had created a *“priority list”* based on areas of deprivation. He stated, *“I can’t get into every school”* but despite this he stated he was *“waiting for the government to announce that PSHE has got to be done...to try and get us needed...in the schools”*. He acknowledged that *“my diary’s full”* yet he clearly believed it was needed. Despite this, the belief in the need for the activity was not echoed by all schools which perplexed him as *“some school don’t want you in, believe it or not, it’s a free resource and they don’t want you in”*.

Peter stated himself and his colleague’s teaching background enabled them to link in with the national curriculum *“We know obviously how the national curriculum links in, so we can do things and we can refer to how it links with the national curriculum”*. He revealed that this link was not always perceived in schools. He stated, *“a lot of it does link in, if the teacher lets it link in”*. Furthermore, he highlighted how some schools wanted to concentrate on more academic activities, which implied his activity was different, *“[if] they are so busy that they might just forgot. Some schools...want to concentrate on academic stuff”*. Despite this, he highlighted how it was different to school: *“some of the things we do, the kids afterwards say, ‘it’s great, it’s different, it’s practical, it’s not maths again, it’s not English”*. He, emphasised the relationship he had formed with Pam which facilitated his access to the school. He stated *“it is building a relationship like the lady at Sunnyside...she is obviously aware of me now. She rings me up every September...we look at the timetable...we book in every class”*. The way into schools was through the right person, which took perseverance *“You get through to a person eventually and they will say ‘why didn’t we know about you, five years ago or whatever’. It is just getting that right person”*.

Sparks

In addition to their involvement in Meadows, Sparks were also a research participant for Sunnyside. Pam stated they offered a lunchtime club which was supported by Linda who described it as a weekly “*Christian club, like a craft club and they come and chat*”. She added it was not targeted at pupils which indicated that attendance was voluntary. This activity was included in the school’s weekly activity plan which denoted it as an *extra-curricular activity*. Phil, Youth Worker for Sparks said that it included a “*little bit of teaching ...a game and different activities around a Christian theme*”. He stated it was influenced by the “*down turn in general take up on Sunday schools ...we take Sunday school to the kids*”. Linda emphasised that Sparks had a “*big*” involvement in the school as they were “*part of the church*” and the school’s link to Christianity and Spirituality. She stated “*they are our Christian link because they represent the churches. Obviously as a church school we see ourselves as an extension of the church community...it is an important link...a spiritual link*”. This was supported by Phil who discussed the “*heavy involvement*” as it was a faith school and through the different relationships he had built which helped this. He said, “*you’ve got to have a good relationship with the headteacher... they don’t want you going to them all the time to sort things out, they delegate to somebody else*”. This suggested he had more than one contact in the school and this was important to maintain the link.

In addition to the lunch club, Phil stated that Sparks offered “*complementary RE lessons*” to the curriculum or in response to school requests (e.g. does God exist?) He stated, “*If we are working in the middle schools [Meadows, Sunnyside], largely we will do something that’s linked in to whatever the module the kids are doing that half-term*”. This indicated that their activities had an educational rationale and aimed to support the national curriculum. Linda’s blog detailed how Sparks had decorated a classroom and supported RE lessons with a range of activities. During Linda’s interview, she referred to these as “*events*”, which happened “*before Christmas and again in either Easter or possibly the summer term*” which implied

they were different to normal lessons. Phil felt that from the organisation's point of view *"their main rationale would be to make the message of Jesus known"*. This was achieved *"through educating, through participating in teaching about these things"*. It appeared the activities were also a response to his perception of local need where *"you can get quite an insular mind-set...we try and help the kids to look beyond their own lives"*. He emphasised that the area was *"not too deprived"* and the *"need for the kids in Levant was Spiritual first and foremost"*. He also revealed that if a new youth worker took over then *"things can change because they have got a different set of priorities and a different set of values"*. This highlighted the influence of a personal rationale. Phil emphasised they did not charge schools which had been *"a point of principle for us...we raise our own finance"*. They were a project attached to a charity which was funded through *"most of the churches in town"* which had a fundraising officer. He added *"we do run on a little bit of a principle that we want to be a blessing and not another pull on the school's money"*. This suggested he recognised the financial constraints on schools. There was also a discussion of a 'puppet club' which had a wellbeing rationale. Pam listed the club and it was included in the school's weekly activity plan which implied it was an *extra-curricular activity*. Linda called it the *"nurture group"* which was, she said *"selected by the progress leader [for pupils who are] finding it difficult to cope. We'll send them to puppet club and see how they do. So, that one is definitely targeted"*. It was for pupils that had *"issues and problems"*. She stressed that *"using puppets is very good to express your emotions... they will go and perform...so every time you do something in performance, I think that adds to your sense of wellbeing, your self-esteem and we're very keen on anything we can get that is performance orientated."* This was supported by Phil who revealed it had been running for ten years for *"kids who need some encouragement on self-esteem and confidence and things like that"*. He stated that they then go and perform in assemblies and first schools and that *"is a little bit like a Sunday school lesson"*. This indicated that the agent had supported the school for many years with a range of activities and they did not charge the school on principle.

3.5 Thornily Academy

Ofsted (2014) describes Thornily Academy as a smaller than average-sized secondary school which catered for pupils aged 11 to 16. It was based in Princetop which was a small urban area, that was part of a major city area. Thornily was based in District 2, which was different to the other three schools. The school became an Academy in 2013. A third of students were disabled or had special educational needs, which was well above the national average. The proportion of disadvantaged students supported by pupil premium was also well above average. For over a third of the students English was an additional language, which was more than double the national average.

3.5.1 Who were the agents working in Thornily Academy?

There were 60 agents identified and a list of the agents, the activity types are included in Appendix 17. The frequency of the activity types was undertaken which highlighted that there were occurrences of every activity type including: *parental support (1)*, *community use of school (1)* and *adult and community learning (1)*. The most frequent activity type was *pupil group support*, (43) followed by *extra-curricular activities (6)* *individual pupil support (1)*, *parental support (1)*, *adult and community learning (1)* and *community use of school (1)*. There were agent identification issues as Sian a Co-ordinator (Work Experience, Enterprise, Careers,) listed activities such as healthy eating but not the agent name. She identified 44 agents (pro-forma 33, interview 23). Twenty-seven of these were not mentioned in any other source. This suggested that the documentary analysis was useful to identify agents. Sixteen agents were located from the school Twitter profile, four of which were not mentioned elsewhere. The reports and parent letters were the least useful. Seventeen newsletters included just eight agent references. The inclusion of agents that were only mentioned in one source, highlighted the various sources were useful to increase the number of agents. It was recognised this was a ‘snapshot’ of the agents that were involved in the school. The rationales for the agent involvement will now be discussed.

3.5.2 What were the different perceptions about the involvement of external agents in the Thornily Academy, amongst the research participants?

Table 3.4 below shows the agent research participants, their associated rationales and the financial contribution. It highlights a contrasting funding position, in that one agent contributed funding to the school. It also shows that one agent received external funding but the amount was unknown.

Table 3.4: Thornily Academy: Agent activity or service financial overview

Agent name	Activity or Service Rationale	Financial contribution	External funding	Pupils	School	Agent
ABC Engineering	Educational Informational	unknown				x
Building Maintenance	Educational Informational	£5,000				x
Uniformed Service	Educational	unknown	x			
Fire Service	Educational	unknown				x
West College	Informational	unknown				x
CareerMed	Informational	unknown				x

Uniformed Service

Nigel was a Development Worker for the Uniformed Service who stated he was employed to “*recruit volunteers and set up new groups*”. The aim was for children to “*have fun in a safe environment and actually learn a bit about religion as well*”. The “*fun*” aspect highlighted the difference from normal school lessons. Nigel said that the founder of the Uniformed Service wanted to install “*discipline into his unruly Sunday school children...it caught on and spread like wildfire*”. It was “*very militarist; there were lots of drill parades, at one point they even carried dummy rifles*”, eventually the local church groups diminished. He stated that in 2012, Prince Charles created Youth United as he “*wanted all the uniformed organisations*

to come together to give them a voice". Then "three years ago there was funding from the government" this went to Youth United who then "gave a grant to a wide range of youth uniformed organisations". His organisation received funding for development workers who used "specific targeted areas such as [the local area] being deprived". In terms of working in schools he revealed "I wasn't given any idea...so my plan was to...go where the children are, because it seemed a no brainer." This implied a personal rationale. He believed their service was being used to plug the gap left by the reduction in statutory services. He stated, "with the austerity measures around the country and youth centres closing...the assumption was well there's plenty of voluntary groups out there for young people to go to so we'll just cut the centre". He warned this was not "very good thinking, because children who go to youth centres...don't necessarily want to engage with a uniform organisation". This questioned the target audience of the groups and the potential appeal to young people.

He approached Thornily Academy through an event *"in the local community hall... Thornily Academy were there as well...that's when I made my approach...they were really receptive"*. He subsequently visited the school to promote his organisation and then wrote an article for the school newsletter. This stated the group was aimed at Years 7 to 9 and volunteer leaders were sought including older pupils, parents or teachers. He stated it was *"an open group for anybody to join with or without faith"* although he did link the groups he created to a local church. It was planned for after-school which denoted it as an *extra-curricular activity*. He suggested there was a potential for it to be used as a targeted activity by *"the teacher running it, she will know which children will benefit"*. He added that this could be the case if the teacher was a SEN teacher and emphasised that he did not ask schools to target pupils. His plan was for school to *"take ownership of the group"*, no volunteers were not located so the group at the Thornily Academy did not start. This he indicated had happened at other schools, despite having a sizeable group of interested young people which again questions the appeal of the activity to the target audience.

Fire Service

Jack (Co-ordinator) during his interview for Sunnyside stated his work in Thornily Academy was through a colleague who had identified *“lots of issues... [with pupils] who go to that school who present us with problems”*. The agent had been *“as proactive as we can...without ringing every day...the PCSO has gone in there and done some fantastic work... got hold of my name...we’re doing...lots of joined up work”*. He stated they aimed to prevent incidents, but also reacted to issues: *“we are a non-reactive part of the service...trying to stop these events happening, we have a reactive side”*. He added their role was advisory, as his service had no power to act on the information. The school tweeted about a Fire Service presentation which stated it was *“hard hitting”* (Appendix 18). Sian, the Thornily Co-ordinator, stated the agent worked in the school during *“drop down days”* (off-curriculum day) for PSHE or during themed drop down afternoons. She had agent knowledge beyond the careers focus of her role. She revealed *“whilst there’s a lot that’s going on within careers and employability...equally there’s a lot of work that goes on with outside agencies with regards to giving young people the skills to be safe outside school and within the community”*. She stated that some staff members would ask her to bring agents into the school to respond to issues (e.g. team work or respect). Whilst, others had *“quite a limited awareness of the expectations for young people outside school or what they need in order to survive”*. This suggested that not all staff appreciated the work the external agents undertook for young people’s development. She implied that a whole day of agent delivery was too much for students even when *“the activities might be quite diverse... interesting and engaging because they’re done in a workshop fashion...they tend to be very interactive sessions...as the day goes on students can get quite tired”*. This led to the school to reduce the number of these interactive sessions, to include a non-agent session at the end of the day to reduce pupil tiredness.

ABC Engineering

Serena, a Co-ordinator, from ABC Engineering, stated it was a “*family business*” that did “*one off projects usually to support them [schools] with a piece of work they are doing*”. Sian stated that Thornily had a “*range of STEM activities where we will have people like ABC who will come in and do the car challenge*”. This implied it was *pupil group support* activity and had an explicit national curriculum focus. She warned that the involvement of agents in curriculum areas was few and far between compared to assemblies or drop-down days (for PSHE). Serena revealed the STEM activity was requested by Thornily who were “*desperate to get across the importance of design, technology and engineering in the school*”. They helped Sian to organise the day and invited two further agents. Sian did not indicate why the school were “*desperate*” to highlight the subject. A school newsletter reported on the day and emphasised the “*expertise*” and resources from “*industry experts*” beyond the schools’ normal resource. Serena felt that “*we do projects that are fun...the girls get involved and they don’t actually realise that they’re doing engineering. It’s good to do that let them have fun and then say to them ‘that’s engineering’ or talk about different aspects of engineering with them.*” This implied it was different to how others might deliver engineering, such as the school. She stated her Managing Director wanted to “*give something back*” which drove it “*more than anything else*” which sounded philanthropic. She stated that apprenticeships were the organisation’s “*recruitment strategy*” and they had to be “*really proactive in getting out and talking to these young people...for them to come and have an apprenticeship with us... we only take apprenticeships on to stay with the business....That’s the reason that we do the work that we do in schools.*” She highlighted how it gives them “*great opportunities to talk to young people who might not otherwise ever considered engineering or apprenticeships...they’re told they go to school, they go to college, they go to university... there’s no other alternative, especially now they’ve got to be there until they are 18.... very much you know closed access to them*”. It appeared the work in schools was beneficial to the organisation, even if the actual STEM day was a school request, although there were access issues for some external agents in some schools because of government policies.

Building Maintenance

Building Maintenance was a construction company described as a “*family business*” by Keith a Manager during his interview. He stated they delivered “*one-off*” projects at the request of schools. They had entered a three year “*partnership*” with Thornily Academy through BITC. BITC identified schools and matched them with a business, Keith did not want a “*leading school*” and Thornily had “*recently come out of special measures*”. He added there was “*no business benefit*” it was about “*being a good company*” which helped the school and pupils. He stated they there were 800 such partnerships which have “*surely got to be having an impact...in some of the most challenging schools*”. He tweeted a link to a video on the schools Twitter profile (Appendix 18). This highlighted the partnership progress and featured the Thornily Principal. She stated they completed a needs assessment to underpin the agreed objectives. The partnership was important to raise the schools’ reputation and profile, which suggested usefulness for marketing of the school perhaps following it being classified as in special measures following an Ofsted inspection.

The agent’s Corporate Social Responsibility Report stated that this partnership was launched with a donation of £5,000 to the school and with BITC assisted to create the activity plan. According to Keith they “*create a yearly plan... the school have their yearly action plan and we see how we can support...key areas*”. This included “*upskilling the team...supporting the teachers...senior staff... pupils... targeting certain pupils or improving the facilities*”. This suggested a wide focus. He stated they had undertaken about 50 projects with the school, which included an allotment creation. He highlighted the allotment’s educational value “*as part of their timetable...maths will take them out...do planting and fruit, but there will be numbers involved*”. Sian revealed that external agents who offered funding gained interest from school staff: “*the ones that get a quicker response is where I get an email or something from an agency where there’s an offer of some funding. That usually gets a response from the heads of department or a curriculum lead*”. She stated that staff were not always “*making the right connections*” with what an agent can offer.

She stated *“I’ve had very few suggestions from curriculum leaders to get different agencies in, it’s been more of a case of maybe I’ve identified or I’ve had an awareness.... Rather than it being the other way”*. This indicated that Sian facilitated agent access by acting as a conduit as she valued what they could offer. Whilst for other staff members the offer of funding was attractive and the lever for the agent to enter the school.

Sian stated that Building Maintenance had been into Thornily to deliver a mentoring programme to twenty students. Keith, called this a *“strategic project”*, which involved pupils *“identified by the school as not achieving their full potential”*. This included pupils who were *“quite academic”* with anticipated good exams and others at *“different scales on the spectrum”* he emphasised *“all could do better”*. The pupils were partnered with a *“mentor at different levels across the business [and are] getting that exposure to a business person”*. They covered aspects such as CV writing, mock interviews and exam preparation. He believed a benefit was *“having a role model they can relate to and aspire to and get an independent opinion on some of their questions”*. He emphasised that if every school partnered with a business the *“world would be a better place”*. The mentoring was originally delivered after-school, then was moved into the curriculum time. He revealed that *“the pupils didn’t like it when it was in their own time, it came across as a bit of a punishment”*. This indicated that it was not a voluntary activity. It was then moved onto the curriculum as *pupil group support*. The school subsequently moved it back to an *extra-curricular activity*. He highlighted the *“challenge [in] getting final year students out of school”*. Sian warned of the impact on missed lessons which were *“not just about resources [but] time and the impact away from the end result that schools are interested in.... the GCSE or not the GCSE... this year we have Progress 8³⁸ ...there’s potential for a lot more scrutiny of bringing outside agencies in”*. In terms of the impact Keith claimed *“if you make a profit it is black and white ...[but] supporting the schools, it’s harder...to actually assign the exact value. He*

³⁸ The DfE (2017:7) stated that from 2016 the *“headline indicator of school performance determining the floor standard is Progress 8”*. This includes progress and attainment across eight subjects. Radcliffe, (2013) stated that previously *“secondary schools were ranked per the proportion of students getting 5 or more A*-C GCSE grades (including English and maths) alone”*.

questioned if a pupil achieved *“above their estimated grade”* after twelve months of mentoring if that was successful or *“because they tried harder?”*. He warned *“you are hoping that you are making a difference”*. He calculated the *“social value”* for the business, but as a private company they had freedom over profit distribution which appeared philanthropic. However, their work with schools was attractive to clients as *“a lot of our partners choose to work with us because they like how we choose to do business”*.

In terms of an informational rationale, Keith had tweeted about a Thornily careers marketplace at which they promoted their apprenticeships, through their stand which included a painting activity (Appendix 18). Sian indicated that she liked the careers events to be an *“interactive experience”* with an activity beyond *“verbal advice”*. It appeared the agent had met this expectation. Keith stated that they employed apprenticeships which were a long-term investment, due to the initial costs and all their directors bar one, had served an apprenticeship. He stated, *“we need to do our bit in creating the next generation of employees we only have one ex-Thornily pupil working in the business...you’re not going to transform the company with a whole new batch of people”*. He emphasised there were *“multiple factors”* for their involvement in the school, which suggested their involvement was not solely about recruiting apprenticeships.

CareerMed

CareerMed was a University Society ran by volunteers which included Claire a Co-ordinator. She stated the society went into schools to give pupils *“a taste of what it is to be a medical student”*. She revealed the work was underpinned by the Government’s ‘widening participation’ agenda which targeted school which contained *“those of lower socio-economic backgrounds”*. She emphasised a lot of pupils in these schools *“don’t have any aspirations of going to university...don’t think they can...because no one else in the area has been...we try and show them...if*

they work, they can go". She continued saying that "*because we are sacrificing some of our study time we are getting a little bit of compensation like travel expenses money*". This indicated a personal rationale from the volunteers who she said were "*quite passionate*" about getting the information to pupils. She warned that some pupils lacked aspirations, but their work was compounded by the mismatch in the entry-requirement information distributed by schools, which prevented access to medicine

"aspirations to go into medicine...the schools need to get their targets... a lot of them put them onto BTECS as it seems the easier option. Medicine is very competitive and you need your A levels and GCSEs being top. You need all your work experiences, whereas schools are just trying to get the kids... through. It kind of feels a bit of a struggle to be like actually, if you want them to do medicine or something you need to put them onto GCSEs".

(Claire, CareerMed)

She recognised the pressure on schools in terms of standards and had met pupils who had wished they had received the appropriate information. These pupils said, "*if my school had or if someone had come in and told me then I'd be able to do medicine easier*". She acknowledged the reduction in school careers personnel had impacted on the information to pupils and the agent access to schools. She warned "*we've had kids who were like I've done this BTEC can I do (medicine)? We're like you can't, you need to go do A levels and go to do an access course to get your GCSEs... sometimes it feels like we are fighting a bit of a losing battle against everything*". They were up against an immovable system, where the impact was on the pupils.

Sian listed the society on the pro-forma and during her interview mentioned a visit to the University for a mentoring project that was cancelled due to lack of funding for transport. She compared this to a time when "*it would have put somethings into the mix that perhaps can't be in the mix now and would give you little bit more*

flexibility". She recognised the importance of the involvement of Medical students for the "right message...support... the importance of continuing with academic studies and what to expect". This suggested their involvement was important to share careers information, but schools could no longer fund the transport to undertake a return visit the agent's premises.

West College

Sian identified West College as one of several organisations whose 'School Liaison' teams worked in Thornily Academy. Leanne, a Manager at West College, indicated that the School Liaison was the "main link" with schools. Their activities facilitated this link where their main work was "recruitment" which implied a primary rationale. She referred to the need to "understand what pressures schools are under". This meant they had to ascertain the school's needs and to "make sure they are as flexible as possible". The activities also depended on the pupils needs including literacy or to "raise their aspirations". She stated there would be in line with "what the government wants them to get and wants them to get for Ofsted". She highlighted the need to raise pupil's aspiration of post-16 choices to ensure that they achieved the "best grades". Following the introduction of "Progress 8" there was "more onus on the schools now to show the destinations of their pupils". The changes to careers provision has made their work in schools more difficult as previously a lot of staff "made sure that careers were objective" where now "there is no onus at all...to provide quality careers education...some do it very well and some don't". She recognised further national changes as impacting on their access to schools such as RPA and academies:

"change of government wanting all schools to turn into academies... [a lot] go on to have sixth forms...their attitude to letting you have access to their pupils, changes dramatically. [they] now see you as the enemy...the students aren't getting to choose for themselves... they might go into something that is not quite right...then dropping out...if you've had all the options then you know which is the right route."

Leanne warned that a school's approach to careers and external agents was impacted by its "*management ethos*" and wider pressures. She said, "*whatever you offer has to be of benefit to that teacher to that school to those pupils because they just won't do it otherwise*". It was important to build a relationship with staff "*that really do genuinely care about their pupils and the aspirations of their pupils...making relationships and helping to support those members of staff and understanding the pressures that they are under*". She highlighted the challenge of working with schools which included the reduced curriculum time. She warned "*there isn't any time in that curriculum and that time is less...there used to be the idea from people [colleges] that anything they offered, schools would go 'oh that is brilliant, you can come and do that'*". This was supported by Sian who highlighted how she filtered agent correspondence, particularly if they were from outside of the area. She revealed the school decision not to purchase the local authority careers service, was due to lack of finance which she felt was "*incredibly sad*". She believed her careers background meant she could "*uphold the impartiality*". She revealed that some schools "*will attempt to deliver impartiality by bringing a whole range of people in*" and acknowledged that she did bring in "*an awful lot of people*". This she said needed to be "*policed*" and it was clear that she attempted to control the agents' behaviour and the message they delivered. She stated: "*I do vet them... I have confidence in them...I do brief them and they know what they can and can't say and how to behave... it's a strategy that needs to be policed very well. You've got to have confidence in the people who you invite in actually giving the messages that you want.*" Sian controlled the message given to Year 11 pupils: "*I ask them [colleges] to up their game to some extent...not to touch on anything below level 2 courses at all...students are very quick to pick up on any opportunity not to keep on working for the whole of the year*". The external pressures as suggested by Leanne were apparent when the school liaison staff were involved in the school to promote their post-16 opportunities. This implies the agents want to be involved in schools, but there are pressures both locally from schools and nationally that restrict access and activities.

3.6 Emergent findings

This section aims to discuss the findings that emerged across the four school case studies from the content analysis. An overview of the themes which arose which contributed to the rationales of the activity or service focus including financial, educational, informational and wellbeing are introduced first. Then the themes which arose from the emergent findings are discussed.

3.6.1 Who were the agents working in the case study schools?

Vast range of external agents

An external agent can be described as those involved in delivering education and wellbeing who is not a teacher, teaching assistant or other staff member. During the interviews a definition was given to school staff (Appendix 11). From the available data sources, 156 agents³⁹ were identified across the four schools. These agents originated from a range of sectors which included statutory (e.g. Fire Service, NHS, Social Services), military-style (e.g. Scouts), private (e.g. employers, sports providers) and third sector (e.g. charities). Each school included agents across these sectors and the agent research participants were spread across the sectors (Appendix 19). Half of the agent participants were from the third sector (e.g. community and voluntary organisations, social enterprise). Meadows had the lowest number (26 agents) and Thornily the highest (60 agents) indicating a difference between schools. This suggests that there is still a huge involvement of external agents in these schools, despite successive changes of governments and plethora of initiatives. The rationales for the involvement of these agents in schools will be discussed.

³⁹ This is the total agents across the schools. The duplicate entries where an agent worked in more than one school have not been removed from this total.

Messiness in the identification of agents

There was a messiness in the identification the agents and it was apparent that a single data source including staff knowledge was insufficient. Not one of the school staff members identified all the agents working in their school. This could be that in some schools including Thornily and Sunnyside that the high number made this difficult or that the knowledge was split between staff members. Ashley (Compton) stated his agent knowledge was related to his job role and beyond this it was limited. In contrast Sian (Thornily) was aware of the agent involvement for careers but also PSHE, which was beyond her job focus. However, she did not name all the agents that were located, across the sources. In Meadows, the documentary evidence provided more agent references than some staff participants. Furthermore, the inclusion of three staff participants at this school did not increase the number of agents. In Sunnyside, the two longstanding staff members collectively named 98% of the agents, which was perhaps related to their position or length of service in the school. This was between two staff participants which again indicated a network of connections which includes multiple staff members. The lack of agent knowledge between staff members and spread of agent information across the data sources highlighted the necessity of drawing on different data sources. The availability of documents differed across the schools which impacted on the agent identification. Not all schools had a well-developed online presence; some did not have a Twitter profile or access to newsletters and only Sunnyside had a headteacher blog.

The identification of agents was not a straightforward task, as the knowledge of agents is not displayed within any uniform manner or pattern. There were instances of partial agent information on each pro-forma. This was due to the use of collective terms (e.g. companies) or the activity (e.g. healthy eating) which resulted in a loss of agent identity or a low profile in the data. These could suggest that in some instances the activity was more important than the agent or the agent involvement was time limited, resulting in a low profile. There were agents that were not identified in the data sources such as Road Safety; their work became known through

their inclusion as an agent research participant in a different school. This implied that the agents that were uncovered was just a ‘snapshot’ of the position at that time.

This messiness of agent knowledge, amongst school staff, makes the identification of agents difficult, which impacts on the ability to answer the research question of who the agents were that were involved in the four case study schools. The issues also make it harder for agents to work with the schools, as there is not a dedicated way in. There were indications of needing to find the right person from Peter (Road Safety), Phil (Sparks) or to have built a relationship with them from Sarah, (Work Skills). This right person was someone who acted as the conduit to bring agents into schools such as Ashley and Sian. This was perhaps in the nature of their roles, as opposed to Adam (Meadows) who stated this was undertaken by “*management*”. The knowledge of agents could be role specific and the staff members did not have knowledge of all agents. Above this, it was a person that appreciated what the agent had to offer. It was clear from both Ashley and Sian that other staff members did not value the involvement of external agents as they did. If the relationship was with just one person, it was difficult for the agent to maintain the contact with the school, when this person left. This was experienced by Phil and Peter then the process of attempting to access the school had to recommence. It was therefore important to have multiple contacts in the schools. Not all schools are interested to work with agents or appreciated the value of the agent activities. Peter had schools that turned down his activity and Phil (Sparks) stated a staff member did not appreciate the value of what they had to offer. This viewpoint could impact the access of agents into schools and the interest of staff wanting to know about the agents.

Trends in activity service or agent types

In terms of activity type, pupil *group support* was where most of the agents were uncovered and there were 103 instances of this across the schools. There were only eight instances of *individual pupil support* across the schools. The latter would often correlate to identified need and be deemed as specialist or targeted support for specific pupils, such as Connected Counselling (Meadows). However, there were activities that were delivered to groups of pupils that were targeted such as puppet club (Sparks, Sunnyside). This could be due to the cost of specialist services, so the school used Sparks who delivered in groups, compared to an agent that did not charge.

There were few instances of *extra-curricular activities* and in some schools including Compton and Sunnyside these were delivered by staff members, reducing the involvement of external agents. The quantity of agents that used the schools for *community use* differed by schools. Meadows was zero, whilst Sunnyside had nine of the total 13 identified across the schools. There were very few instances of *parental support* or *adult and community learning* and none of these in Compton and Meadows. Whilst some agents including Building Maintenance, did some delivery after-school or in the evening the involvement of agents was very much focused towards groups of pupils within the school day as opposed to activities focused on wider curriculum aspects or domains (e.g. social or health issues) rather than wider levels (e.g. family, community) (Cummings et al. 2004). The delivery of activities by agents within the school day, suggests compulsory attendance. It appeared that much of the extended activities and services that were an integral part of the extended school *core offer*, appeared to have either ceased or many are now being delivered by the schools themselves as indicated by Diss and Jarvie (2016). This is supported by Compton and Meadows where the extra-curricular activities were delivered by staff. However, the findings suggest that external agents are still involved in the case study schools and this study will look at their activities and rationales for involvement, if it was not the extended school agenda. This aspect was

not undertaken by Diss and Jarvie (2016) who just reported on the current provision in terms of extended school activities and services as outlined in the *core offer*.

In terms of the trends in the 156 agents there was a high frequency of employers (21) (see Appendix 20). The second most frequent agent type was universities (8). The provision of careers information was a common theme in the data as it was the activity focus for 36 agents (23%) of the total agents identified across the schools. This would have been higher if the agents included in the collective references had been named. The other agents that offered *pupil group support* originated from a spectrum of agents and sectors. An agent could include a current pupil or parent. There were no instances of this within the data which could be as a result to the participant interpretation of an external agent, although a definition was given (Appendix 11). Adam (Meadows) did state there were no pupil led activities which showed an understanding from his perspective. There did not appear to be any further patterns across the identified agents. The activities and rationales for those that took part in the research, will be explored in Chapter 4.

3.6.2 What were the different perceptions about the involvement of external agents in the case study schools amongst the research participants?

Rationales for educational and wellbeing provision (agent, school, national)⁴⁰

Statutory agents (Fire Service, Road Safety) did not charge and both had funding constraints to their service. The Fire Service had chargeable jobs which it never used and questioned if this was the impetus for schools to ask them to be involved. Both had initial educational activities which saw them engage with schools, which indicated a national level rationale. They also both discussed issues in access to schools. Peter (Road Safety) suggested that some schools refused to take free

⁴⁰ This also includes a discussion of informational activities which were secondary rationales

activities, as they wanted to concentrate on more academic activities. From the relationship, they had built with the school, both agents were asked to undertake school requested activities. Despite this, both agents were keen to deliver their organisational message. Both Young Theatre and the Uniformed Service received external funding so again the rationale lay beyond the school. Tom from Young Theatre emphasised that it was easier to acquire funding than to ask a school to pay for an activity. Both faced difficulties in delivering their activities; Young Theatre were initially unable to book the activity into Compton and the Uniformed Service were unable to find volunteers to run their extra-curricular activity group, which implied a lack of buy in at the school level for these activities. Rare Disease adapted their provision to fit in with schools to negotiate their access, as did their relationships with certain staff members. Rare Disease received fundraising from the pupils, which suggested this was financially beneficial, whilst Sparks did not want to charge schools. Both charities discussed the need to have the expectations understood between themselves and the schools. The relationship was not always beneficial for the agent, which was not necessarily recognised by the schools.

Agents such as Together Housing, Building Maintenance and ABC Engineering whilst they stated their organisation rationales including marketing or social value were also delivering activities based on school requests. These agents appeared more than comfortable to have their provision directed. Glenn (Together Housing) revealed how they were asked to deliver activities by schools as they were willing and did not charge, which was facilitated by the relationship they had built. Whilst agents have their own rationales and cost is a concern, there is an element that schools are driving the agent provision to suit their own ends, particularly where it is free. In contrast were agents such as Building Maintenance, a private business who contributed physical funds to the Thornily Academy in addition to the staff time and materials. They calculated the social impact of their work and promoted it to prospective clients so there was a marketing gain. There appeared to be a difference between some agents and their approach to the funding that was given to schools. The private businesses portrayed themselves as philanthropic but it was the charities such as Rare Disease who were more financially cautious. This was perhaps due to

different organisation type and the financial regulations meaning private companies would have more flexibility in how their profits are used. Connected Counselling was the only agent that received a school financial contribution. This was associated to a wellbeing rationale which was related to need. There were agents that offered free activities (Fire Service, Together Housing, Uniformed Service) and there was an indication they had stepped into the gaps left by the reduction of other services. Sian in Thornily recognised that her school was genuinely after something for free or an agent that offered funding. This implied that whilst cost was a concern, other barriers or tensions remained in the way of the school engaging with the agent such as the standards agenda.

There are different levels of rationales including teacher, agent participant, school, agent organisation, government, societal attitudes, monarchy or social attitudes apparent within the data. Road Safety, were a statutory service, but they did not have to deliver activities in schools, a letter to schools would suffice. Here it was the agent organisation or their employees that was making the decision to enter schools. Nigel at the Uniformed Service stated it was his plan to go into schools to set up groups. However, the funding for his position was underpinned by the ideas or beliefs of Prince Charles, who was Patron of the funding organisation. The agent's work is linked to this; it did not work in isolation. This applied to Building Maintenance who although there was a clear marketing benefit, they were involved in Thornily due to a BITC partnership, which was also linked to Prince Charles. Phil at Sparks revealed the lunch clubs were a response to the downturn in Sunday school attendance. This suggested a response to changing societal attitudes. He stated the residents in the area were "*insular*" which indicated his own beliefs were an influence. In terms of the schools, some staff members including Sian and Ashley valued what some agents had to offer. There was an indication that Linda (Sunnyside) and Sian (Thornily) were controlling the agent access and message, this could have been influenced by national pressure or the schools' own agenda. This implies that whilst a school or an agent may be undertaking work on their own beliefs, they might unwittingly be influenced by beliefs or ideas that have funded or encouraged these school and agent partnerships. This suggests that there are multi-

level rationales which are taking place, which means that the response to the question about rationales is complex. This will be explored in the next chapter.

Rationales for informational provision

Four of the agents that were interviewed were all interested in promoting information on the post-16 routes that were available in their respective organisations. This included Work Skills, Red Bricks, West College and CareerMed who all stated that it was important to deliver this information to the pupils as it was not currently provided in the schools. The agents cited competing government policies such as the creation of academies, the raising of the participation age and the transfer of careers guidance to schools, as barriers to pupils receiving information. The creation of academies led to more schools with sixth forms and the raised participation age meant more pupils would stay on in education and training to a higher age. Some schools used the new careers duty to promote their own post-16 routes and constrict external agent access. The careers duty did not appear to result in impartial and independent information in the range of choices, it was used by some schools to constrict the information. The agents highlighted that they fought the perceptions of some parents and certain school staff members, who did not value the work of the agents. Elaine (Red Bricks) highlighted the views of parents who equated an apprenticeship with failed GCSEs. Whilst Ashley (Compton) revealed how some staff members called companies “*scary*” which suggested a reluctance of some staff towards agent involvement.

There was very much a consensus that bringing in agents to plug the information gap was the ‘right thing to do’. This included Ashley who invited a range of agents including Work Skills and Red Bricks into the school. Both he and Sarah (Work Skills) shared the same personal viewpoint about agents to provide access to information for pupils. Sian at Thornily was involved with West College and CareerMed also valued the input from a wide range of individuals. Despite the

desire for Ashley and Sian to involve a range of agents, the cost and available budget were an issue. Leanne (West College) highlighted that some agents in terms of post-16 recruitment felt that schools would take any activity they offered. She revealed that schools were now very selective about what activities they took, due to the constraints on the curriculum and pressure on schools. It had to be useful towards the standard agenda and Ofsted for the school to allow the agent access. These competing policies have restricted agent access to some schools and the messages they can deliver. Sian stated that she “*policed*” the agent involvement in the school and controlled the message that the agents could give out. Both Red Bricks and Work Skills adapted their provision to fit in with schools, to negotiate their access, as did the use of networks or connections. This suggests there are competing government policies which bring external agents into schools. It also implies that certain individuals were focused on the needs of the child who ensured they received all the available information. This was opposed to the needs of the school, who restricted the information to the school post-16 route for financial gain. The agents adapted their provision and used connection to attempt to gain access but they were ultimately reliant on the school for access but the access and freedom of message was potentially restricted by both government pressure and school control.

Advantage of agent delivery

For Ashley (Compton), the agent delivery of careers information was credibility and legitimacy. It did not matter that the agent was not based in the school, they would be effective based on who they were. The fact they were not a teacher meant that the pupils would listen and the message would be delivered. In contrast Adam (Meadows) did not feel that the impartiality or specialist skills (Connected Counselling) were as important, as having a full-time pastoral colleague. He believed they could build trust and a better relationship with the pupils, as they were there all the time. Whereas to access the counselling service a form had to be completed, which was a barrier. The difference was perhaps that for Ashley the rationale was to impart information, whilst in Adam’s case it was about wellbeing. This appeared to disregard the fact that the agent had specialist knowledge to deal

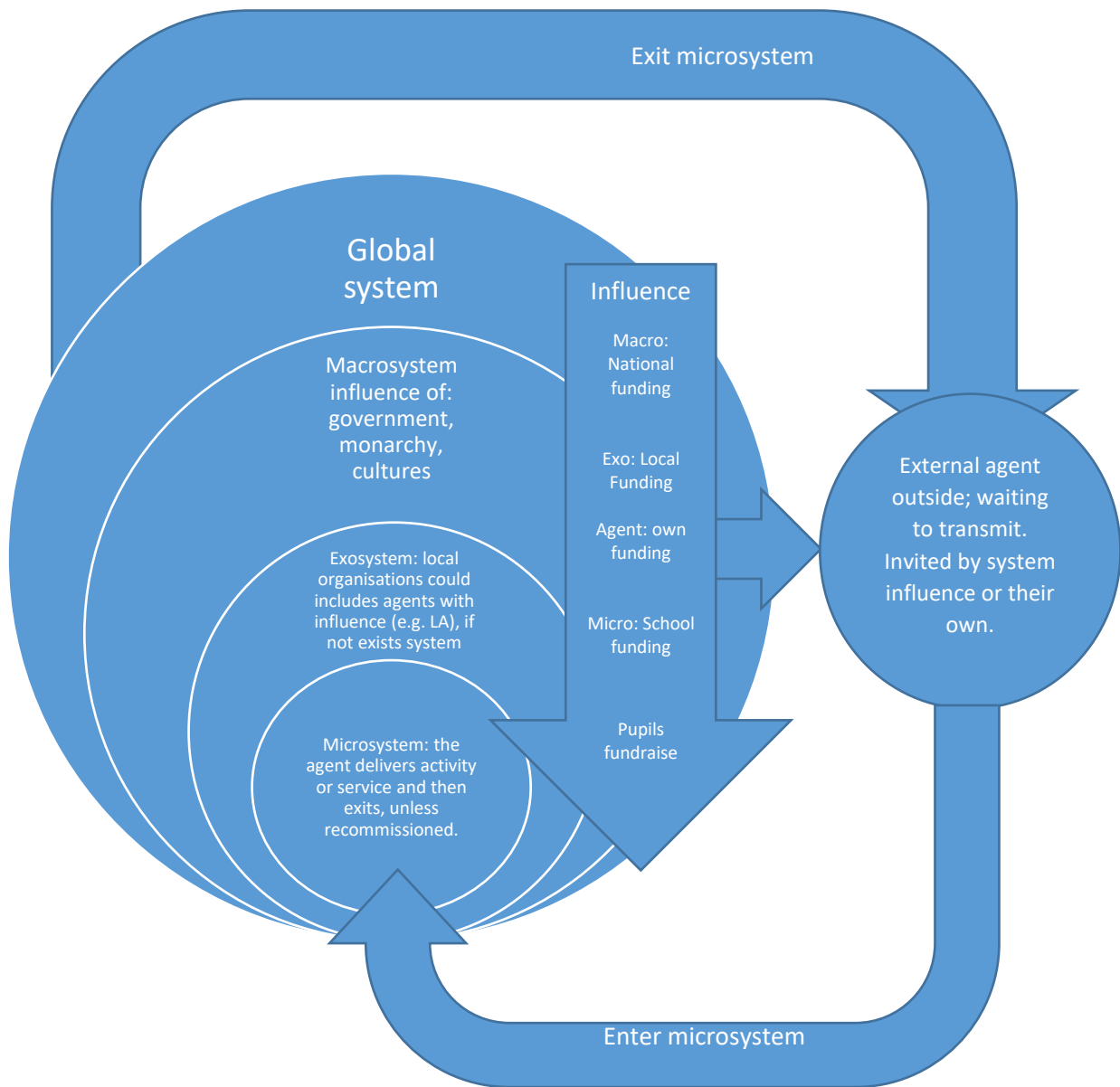
with complex cases, based on identified need. It appeared to be more about a reduction in workload for Adam, by having someone there more frequently or perhaps the need was that great that it required a full-time counsellor, which was expensive. There were competing priorities which schools faced such as delivering the set curriculum, but also dealing with pastoral care in the school. For Adam, the agent did not help towards this. There was the suggestion from nearly all the agents involved in the activities associated to the educational rationale that the activities were different to school. They were different as the activities were *fun* (e.g. Uniformed Service, ABC Engineering, Rare Disease). They were delivered in an *informal* manner (e.g. Fire Service, Young Theatre) or a *practical* one (e.g. Road Safety). They made the point that they were not delivered like school lessons (Fire Service, Road Safety) or that they were good role models and had the skills to deliver activities to pupils (Fire Service, Road Safety, Building Maintenance). Sian felt that the interactive way in which the agents delivered their activities could be quite tiring, across a full day for the pupils. This implies that some schools will value the work of agents, as they are not teachers and what they deliver is different to lessons. This view is not held by all schools and therefore the rationale for the involvement of agents in schools is complex.

The discussion by several agents (e.g. Young Theatre, Rare Disease) that their involvement in schools contributed to the national curriculum could be advantageous for some schools. The link to the wider curriculum aspects including PSHE, Careers was also of benefit to the schools, particularly as agents did not charge. Agents such as Together Housing took a class of students for a whole day, which could have been advantageous for the teacher. Some agents (e.g. Rare Disease, Road Safety) felt that they had knowledge, skills and experience that was useful to schools. Adrian (Compton) indicated the involvement of employers was useful to connect students to their future employers. As stated by Sian (Thornily) the agents were useful to prepare students for aspects beyond the school such as community safety. Despite this, it was clear that not all schools valued what the agents had to offer, as access was restricted.

3.6.3 Concept of involvement

As recognised in Chapter 2 the external agents are not a normal feature of every child's *microsystems*. They do not share an equal footing within the *microsystem* as the parent in the home setting or the teacher in the school setting, who are normally more predominant. The agent would only enter the *microsystem* when they commenced the delivery of an activity or service in a face-to-face manner to the young person. Once the activity or service has concluded the external agent would then exit the *microsystem*, unless recommissioned. This led to Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Model of Human Development being adapted (see Fig 3.2 below). This shows that there are economic capital influences at all system levels including national funding (e.g. Youth United which was used by Uniformed Services; local funding (e.g. local authority which Young Theatre achieved), school funding (e.g. Pupil Premium) which was used to commission Connected Counselling and fundraising by pupils which was used for Rare Disease. It is important to note that whilst these were used to assist the agent to enter the microsystem, the time that they remained was different amongst the agents. Whilst all agents can be connected to the different capitals such as cultural, intellectual and human capital; there is an implicit or explicit financial transaction attached their entry into the microsystem.

Fig. 3.2 Adaption of Bronfenbrenner's Model of Human Development



Chapter 4: Analysis

4.1 Introduction

The first aim of this chapter is to discuss the external agents that were involved in the four case study schools and the activities that they offered. The second aim is to explore the rationales for the agent involvement in the schools and the different perceptions in relation to this. These aspects will be explored below using the theories (see Chapter 2) as a framework to explain the findings (Chapter 3) in relation to the literature (Chapter 1). Bronfenbrenner's Model (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) will be used to explore the different system level of the rationales which aimed to influence pupil's development. The different types of capital included in the typology of capitals (Chapter 2) are economic capital, cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1997), social capital (Putnam, 2000) human capital (Becker, 1964) organisational and intellectual capital (Hargreaves, 2001; 2003; Craig et al. 2004). This typology is useful to explore the process of capitals in terms of whether they accumulate, interact (Hargreaves, 2001; 2003), mobilise, convert or are legitimised (Bourdieu, 1997). It will be used to explore whether a form of capital was the conduit or means by which an agent engaged with a school. It will also be used to ascertain if the involvement was expected to result in the creation of capital (Baron et al. 2000).

4.2. Who were the agents involved in the case study schools?

4.2.1 Vast range of agents

The 156 agents that were identified as working within the four schools originated from a range of sectors (e.g. statutory, private and voluntary) and included a variety of agents (e.g. employers, colleges, universities, football clubs and theatre groups). Half of the agent participants resided in the third sector which is perhaps due to the continual invitations and recognition of the involvement of voluntary organisations in schools in policies dating back over a hundred years. The involvement of voluntary organisations could also be a result of the shift from the welfare state to

the voluntary and community sector such the creation of the ‘big society’. There was the inclusion of those individuals classed as specialist workers (e.g. nurses, counsellors, mental health team) which were encouraged in policies and reports from the 1960s. From the 1980s there were those agents who it was suggested should be involved to deliver aspects important beyond the national curriculum such as PSHE or Citizenship in the neoliberal belief that a range of agents would be more effective than the state. There has also been the encouragement of agents (e.g. nurses, drug and alcohol team, school nurses, community and voluntary sector, parents) to be involved in the wider aspects of the national curriculum. The types of agents that were involved in the schools could be linked to policies which encouraged a certain type of agent. For instance, there were military style organisations (e.g. Unformed Service) which were prevalent in both the earlier and later literature. This could be linked to the New Right’s neoconservative ideologies which aimed to restore discipline through a smaller state with control through the return to family hierarchical values, law and order. The rationales for the involvement of these agents in schools will be discussed and whether the involvement was in relation to these government policies or if other rationales exist.

4.2.2 Messiness in the identification of agents

The findings (Chapter 3) suggested that to identify the agents involved in the schools within the *microsystem* and thereby answer the first research question, a range of methods was required due to the messiness in the identification of agents. The typology of capitals will be used to explore this messiness. The staff interviews of external agents were supplemented with documentary analysis, but this was limited as not all the schools had a well-developed online presence (e.g. website, Twitter, newsletters). The usefulness of staff members to determine the agents involved in the case study schools appeared influenced by the focus of their role, level of their position or the length of time in service. The value that they placed on the usefulness of external agents to education could be based on their personal beliefs or ideology. Where a staff member (Ashley, Compton) had a specific careers role this restricted his knowledge of agents beyond the school. This implied Ashley’s social

capital network of connections was constrained by his role. In contrast, Sian, (Thornily) acknowledged that she was aware of agents beyond her role focus. This suggests that whilst for some staff members, their role in a school may well constrict their knowledge or social capital connections, this is not equal amongst all. Sian appeared to have the use of bridging social capital to form networks beyond the school. In terms of the staff position in schools, even when Linda (Principal, Sunnyside) stated that activities did not take place without her permission, she did not identify all the agents. There was an indication that the length of time of service for Linda and Pam (Sunnyside) had increased their agent knowledge. However, this did not result in the identification of all agents. The findings acknowledged that this might have been due to the high numbers of agents in the school. The concept of ideology in terms of the meaning of education was apparent in the value that was placed on the work of external agents. Ashley, Sian and Linda all indicated that they facilitated the agent access into their school. The findings suggest this was through the social capital connections they possessed together with the value they placed on the cultural capital of the agents. This meant they looked beyond the *microsystem* for agent support. This perception of agent value contrasted to Adam (Meadows) who was clearly not a facilitator of agent access. He had a very limited knowledge of agents in comparison to other staff such as Laura or the documentary evidence. The responsibility for the involvement of agents into the school was undertaken by the management which explained his lack of external agent knowledge. This was either not his role or he lacked bridging social capital to make connections to external agents. Alternatively, it could be that he did not value the cultural capital or qualifications that the agent (Connected Counselling) had to offer.

Several agents including Road Safety, Work Skills or Sparks talked about the need to find the right person to access the *microsystem* which would assist to navigate the messiness. They also talked about the difficulties in maintaining access with some schools. If their contact left employment at the school, then the social capital connection was severed. This highlighted the importance of a network of connections into the school with more than one right person. The findings suggest that a right person is someone who values the cultural capital of the agent and resides

in a facilitative position. This was supported by Sian (Thornily) who implied that some staff members had a limited knowledge of what agents can offer. Furthermore, it was Sian that brought most of the agents into the *microsystem*. In Sunnyside, it was a faith-based mutual recognition which created a strong connection between Sparks and Linda and facilitated the agent access into the school. Several agents (Road Safety, Together Housing) had a low profile in the data and it is possible that the person who was aware of the agent involvement was someone other than the staff participants. This suggested that to answer this research question it was important to include multiple sources or individuals who had the social capital connection to the agents, valued the cultural capital and thus were the right people.

4.2.3 Trends in activity, service or agent type

Pupil group support was the most frequent activity type with 103 instances across the schools. Jack (Fire Service) emphasised how the agents lacked capacity to deliver to pupils on a class by class basis, so some of this delivery was through assemblies. There were only eight instances of *individual pupil support* across the schools which supported Jack's comment and the finding that few activities or services were aimed at individual pupils. The wellbeing activities (e.g. puppet club, mentoring and self-esteem course) delivered by Sparks, which could be perceived as meeting complex needs, were to groups of pupils. These were delivered at no cost to the schools, despite the school using them as targeted activities. This highlights the issues of providing these activities and services to meet individual needs. For agents such as Sparks who did not charge, the cost of meeting complex individual needs was too great, so they offered small group delivery. Diss and Jarvie (2016) did explore the provision of activities aimed at individual pupils, but did not report on them in their findings, which suggests that they were also reduced. This is an aspect that warrants further research.

The findings suggest there were few instances of activities provided by external agents which intended to extend the school day or were aimed at other audiences as proposed within the extended schools *core offer* as outlined by the DfES (2004).

There was a lack of activities aimed at parents or to be delivered by pupils as external agents. There were very few instances of *parental support* or *adult and community learning* and none of these in Compton and Meadows. This is despite the proposal for pupils to deliver activities or courses to be provided for parents in policies such as by Ministry of Education (1948) or the DfES (2005). This could be in relation to the interpretation of an external agent, although a definition was given (Appendix 11). This echoes the findings of Diss and Jarvie (2016) who found that activities and services in relation to the *core offer* were now provided by staff, with only 24% delivered by external agencies. They highlighted how there was a higher focus on pupil focused activities as opposed to those aimed at a wider audience or the wider groups that activities could seek to benefit such as family or community. It appears, therefore, that much of the extended activities and services that were an integral part of the extended school *core offer* and were to be delivered in partnership with external agents, appeared to have either ceased or were being delivered by the schools themselves. This could be because of reduced funding which highlights the difficulties with the sustainability of external agents in schools. This suggests that there has been a reduction from provision within the territory of an extended school as proposed by Cummings et al. (2004) to just the pupil level. However, as discussed above, there was still high agent involvement in the schools which could be in response to a range of policies since extended schools. Whilst Diss & Jarvie (2016) identify a reduction in extended school activities provided by external agents, they do not explore if the agents remain to offer provision beyond the *core offer* such as PSHE, Citizenship or careers. The intention is to extend their findings through the exploration of the agent activities and rationales which will be discussed in 4.3 below.

There was a high frequency of employers (21) who were engaged in the schools for careers talks, careers marketplaces and workshops. This could be underpinned by the legacy of *macrosystem* initiatives which encouraged employers to enter schools for post-16 recruitment ‘work-related learning’ or the ‘economic wellbeing’ outcome of the Every Child Matters agenda (DCSF, 2005; Huddleston & Laczik, 2012). It could be a response to neoliberal policies that encourage agent involvement (e.g.

private businesses). In addition to the employers, colleges, universities and training providers were also involved in careers education, which gave a total of 35 agents (23%) across the schools. This is perhaps a response to the Education Act 2011 (Great Britain Parliament, 2011), which transferred the duty to provide impartial and independent careers information, advice and guidance to schools in 2012. The aim of the remaining part of this chapter is to explore the perceptions of the participants to see if their involvement was related to a government rationale or if other rationales exist.

4.3 What were the different perceptions about the involvement of external agents in the case study schools, amongst the research participants?

4.3.1 Overview of the rationales: activity or service focus

There were four emerging rationales in terms of the focus of the agent activity or service which were outlined in Chapter 3. These included educational, informational, wellbeing and financial. Financial was a theme which was located within each of the other three activity or service focus and will be discussed within these rationales, as opposed to separately.

Educational was the most frequent activity focus found within the data, as nine agents were associated with this rationale. Table 4.1 below shows the agent, the activity and the relationship to the national curriculum or curriculum subjects. This table shows that most activities associated with an educational rationale were linked to the wider curriculum aspects (e.g. PSHE, careers). This was despite the five agent research participants stating that the activity linked to the national curriculum as also shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Focus of agent activities or service

Agent Name	Rationale	Agent Stated Curriculum Link	National Curriculum Subject	Wider Curriculum Subject
ABC Engineering	Educational Informational*		Design & Technology	
Road Safety	Educational Informational*	√		PSHE: Safety (Road)
Fire Service	Educational			PSHE: Safety (Fire)
Building Maintenance	Educational Informational*	√		Mentoring, Gardening
Rare Disease	Educational	√	Citizenship, Geography	
Sparks	Educational Wellbeing*	√	Religious Education: Spiritual	Extra-curricular: lunch clubs. Extra-Curricular: Puppet Club
Together Housing	Educational Informational*			Gardening
Uniformed Service	Educational			Extra-Curricular: Award Scheme
Young Theatre	Educational	√		PSHE: Citizenship: Homelessness, sex, relationships
Connected Counselling	Wellbeing			
Red Bricks	Informational			Careers
Work Skills	Informational			Careers
West College	Informational			Careers
CareerMed	Informational			Careers

Agent Name	Rationale	Agent Stated Curriculum Link	National Curriculum Subject	Wider Curriculum Subject
Totals	14	5	3	11

*Secondary rationale

Four of the agents that offered educational activities also delivered informational activities, although educational activities were seen as their primary focus or rationale. In addition, there were four agents who only offered informational activities and they were interested in plugging an information gap. These agent activities were related to careers information and were linked to the wider curriculum aspects into which agents were invited. There were only two agents that offered wellbeing activities; one of these (Sparks) also delivered educational activities which appeared the primary activity focus. The agents will be presented through the activity focus of educational (primary), wellbeing or informational rationale. The advantage of agent involvement will also be discussed.

4.3.2 Rationale for educational and wellbeing provision ⁴¹

School (microsystem) level rationales

The findings (Chapter 3) indicated that three agents namely Connected Counselling, ABC Engineering and Together Housing were involved at the request of the case study schools to deliver wellbeing services or educational (primary rationale) activities. This suggested that the rationale emanated from the *microsystem*. This is perhaps why these three agents did not highlight a difficulty in access to the case

⁴¹ This also includes a discussion of informational activities which were secondary rationales

study schools. The value for the school was perhaps because they valued the cultural or economic capital that the agents had to offer. An example of this is Connected Counselling who were the only agent that was commissioned by the school. This suggests that despite the cost the school commissioned the agent to be involved in responding to social problems or complex needs which supports research by Ainslie et al. (2010) or Ball (2012). This implied it was different to the other agents' provision, which were free of charge activities as opposed to a commissioned service. Keily (Connected Counselling) and Adam (Meadows) highlighted issues with the commissioning of agents into schools, due to budget restrictions. This is supported by research Ofsted (2012) and Carpenter et al. (2013) which proposed that where schools commissioned agents through the pupil premium it was for services they could not provide. The findings (see Chapter 3) highlighted the involvement of agents in services to support wellbeing despite the removal of these wider aspects from the Ofsted framework to focus on teaching as proposed by Gove (2013). This is perhaps due to both Keily and Adam highlighting the importance of subjective wellbeing to learning which supports earlier research by Rees et al. (2013) and Finch et al. (2014). However, this could also be related to objective wellbeing or the standards agenda which Hill (1999) proposed has been an integral part of policies. This indicates wellbeing is still an ongoing concern within the *microsystem* and a space for agent involvement, although budget issues are a concern. The focus on the standards agenda might shift the focus to objective wellbeing.

The Thornily newsletter stated the school valued the expertise on offer from ABC Engineering and the industry partners the agent brought into school which suggested a social capital network. It indicated that the school valued the cultural capital of the agents in relation to the explicit curriculum subject focus to influence young people's subject choices (e.g. STEM). For ABC Engineering the fact they were invited to highlight the subject of engineering could have been underpinned by *macrosystem* ideologies e.g. the DfE (2015) who advocate the involvement of professionals in schools to influence young people's subject choices. The agent revealed that the activity was undertaken without the pupils being aware it was engineering, which

implies it was not discussed with the pupils. This could suggest a focus on human capital.

Glenn (Together Housing) stated they undertook a raft of activities and services at the behest of Meadows. He believed he had built a strong social capital connection with the school and that they valued his cultural capital. This was based on the school's request for further activities, the allocation of a full day of lessons to him and the fact that he was not always accompanied by a teacher. However, this did not translate into the data; there was a disconnection between his perception and lack of prominence in the data from the school. The findings indicate that the person who valued the agent's cultural capital was not interviewed or it was the offer of free activities or economic capital that was important for Meadows. The involvement of external agents in the case study schools was impacted by timetable constraints, agent availability and budget issues which confirms the research by Formby et al. (2011). It also corroborates their suggestion that for PSHE it can result in the same agents being rebooked or the use of those of poorer quality. An example of this quality concern was given by Glenn (Together Housing). He revealed that his organisation was asked to deliver alcohol awareness training for a school. His staff were not qualified to deliver this activity, but were asked by the school as they had made themselves available and openly did not charge. Glenn pointed out that his staff were used by schools as they were "*willing amateurs*". The desire to be directed by *microsystem* requests or ideologies or the fact they will deliver activities for free, does not make them the right person to deliver every activity. There could be a negative impact on the pupils if agents are not suitably qualified.

As a local employer Together Housing was engaged to provide impartial careers information, as opposed to schools buying independent provision. The request for the housing association to deliver activities could be a result of the recent transfer of duty for careers guidance to the schools. This supports the research by Slack et al. (2013) which suggests that the lack of funding for careers provision meant that

schools sought free activities. The activities that were previously financed from *macrosystem* level influence now appear to be delivered by the agent for free in response to a *microsystem* request. The findings from this research suggest that in times of budget restrictions and austerity measures, policies formulated on neo-liberal ideologies, have encouraged external agent involvement in activities and services which supports the research by Levitas (2012). Where this is related to external agent involvement in schools, questions need to be asked around whether the agent is the right person to deliver the activity or service beyond the fact they do not charge.

Rationales emanating beyond the microsystem

Despite the presence of *microsystem* requests for these agents, the findings suggest that the agents also had their own rationales to be involved in the *microsystem* or there were rationales than emanated beyond the microsystem. In the Connected Counselling school booklet they linked their work to the Every Child Matters agenda which invited specialist or target services into schools which appeared a response to the proposal by the DCSF (2003). Beyond this was the desire to raise economical capital through direct commissioning. This is an example of the generation of economic capital by not-for-profit companies undertaking income-generating activities in the public sector which supports the research by Ball (1997). Rare Disease also chose to enter schools as part of their fundraising strategy. As ABC Engineering and Together Housing did not charge, their involvement could appear philanthropic. Despite this there was a distinct business benefit (economic capital) in terms of marketing and recruitment. This appears to respond to the suggestion by the DCSF (2009a) that the involvement in schools will be beneficial for this purpose. There was also an indication of human capital as the DCSF believe it will help students to develop skills to prepare for future careers and their contribution to the economy. The desire by Glenn (Together Housing) to contribute to the creation of a “*good school*” as recognised by the standards agenda also suggested a focus on the creation of human capital. This highlights that despite the *microsystem* request the

agent involvement was driven by both the agent's own and *macrosystem* rationales. The Fire Service and Road Safety both aimed to fulfil their statutory duty. Whilst Road Safety did not charge, the provision on offer was the agent's interpretation of the requirement of their duty. Their involvement also appeared influenced by the agent research participant's personal level belief or ideology together with anecdotal data around the number of children not wearing seatbelts, from the agent's involvement in the *microsystem*. This agent wanted to be involved to respond to the reduction in parental role and take on this responsibility. The findings indicate a complexity to the agent involvement in terms of the multi-level rationales, which makes it difficult to answer the research question in relation to the rationales for agent involvement.

Both Young Theatre and the Uniformed Service acquired external funding. For Young Theatre, this was via the local authority. The local authority press release highlighted the commissioning was influenced by the rise of homelessness in young people in the local area. This means that *exosystem* ideologies underpinned their involvement and desire to influence the pupils' development. The Uniformed Service received funding through Youth United a charity of which Prince Charles is the Patron which suggests the funding was underpinned by *macrosystem* ideologies. The "*constructive activities*" of the Uniformed Service were to be targeted in deprived areas at young people who faced interlinked problems. The findings suggest that this parallels to New Labour policies which had a focus on those disadvantaged or socially excluded as outlined and earlier policies which proposed certain pupils needed discipline and control (Brannan, et al. 2006; Hill, 1999; Board of Education, 1926, 1943; Great Britain Parliament, 1944). It also corroborates the research by Brooks (2012) as this is an example of the negative assumptions of young people in Coalition education policy (since 2010) using "*quasi-military environments*" such as Cadet Force in schools or competitive sports (ibid: 18). If the funding these agents received was accompanied by spending guidelines this could have determined what was to take place. There is a chance that the agents were used to deliver governance beyond the state which supports the research by Taylor (2007).

Together Housing, the Fire Service and Uniformed Service indicated that their involvement was related to cuts in statutory services. Together Housing also believed they had stepped into the gaps left by statutory services that no longer existed. For the Uniformed Service was the belief they were used to plug the gap left by youth centres through the austerity measures. This extends the research by Thraves et al. (2012) to highlight how this middle tier of services are now delivered. For the Uniformed Service there were questions over who was the target of the activities. Roberts (2004) discusses that the Youth Service was originally created for those deemed to require constructive activities. Despite this Nigel felt that those who would normally attend youth centres, would not want to attend this activity group which implied that he did not believe the group was for young people who needed constructive activities. This raised questions about whom he believed was the target audience of the groups, from his perception or ideology. A personal rationale was evident for Nigel (Uniformed Services) who emphasised it was his decision to approach schools, as opposed to the funding. He was unable to encourage volunteers involved in the delivery of the activities in Thornily and other schools. This highlights the difficulty in delivering activities where the rationale emanated from beyond the *microsystem*.

Sparks were involved as a response to changes in *macrosystem* cultural attitudes in Sunday School attendance. They aimed to create a social capital network connection between the pupils and the agent to encourage attendance at church. Whilst Phil (Sparks) was connected to Sunnyside through the *macrosystem* faith-based connection, his suggestion that pupils were “*insular*” indicated his work was influenced by personal ideologies which could have negative connotations. Building Maintenance were supported in planning activities in disadvantaged schools such as Thornily through BITC which suggests a *macrosystem* level rationale. Keith (Building Maintenance) declared the “*world would be a better place*” if all schools partnered with a business, which also signalled a personal belief or ideology for accessing the *microsystem*. As they wanted to work in a school that

had struggled it also had negatives connotations. These personal ideologies were also apparent in the narratives of Sian and Linda who facilitated or blocked agent access into their schools, which again was negative.

Both Nigel and Jack (Fire Service) used their local networks or social capital to access Thornily. This indicated they knew how to mobilise or use social capital, as a means to an end. Despite this there were difficulties in accessing the *microsystem* for agents where the rationale emanated from beyond it. This was the case for Young Theatre, Rare Disease, Sparks, Fire Service and Road Safety. Young Theatre were unable to book their performance into the school due to lack of space, which supports the research undertaken by Formby et al. (2011). Access appeared to be hindered by changes in staff members at Meadows. This meant that Road Safety and Sparks lost the social capital connection with the school which restricted access. The findings suggest the agents used the offer of capital including social, cultural, economic or human to attempt to gain access. Despite the range of policies which encouraged agents, the findings highlighted that agents were having to fit in to negotiate access to the *microsystem*. An example is Rare Disease where there was a sense they were adapting their activities to gain access, in a similar manner to informational activity providers (e.g. Work Skills, Red Bricks).

Five agents stated that their educational activities linked into the national curriculum or the set of subjects delivered by schools (see Table 4.1). It appeared they attempted to align with these *macrosystem* ideologies to access the *microsystem*. Of these Jane (Rare Disease) emphasised the value to the school was in the charity's deep subject knowledge from extensive international work, through activities that support the national curriculum. This indicated they were able to bring knowledge, qualifications or intellectual capital beyond a normal school's resource which corroborated the research by Hargreaves (2001; 2003) and Craig et al. (2004). This would enable them to enhance what is already taking place which appears to agree with Macdonald (2009) who advocated the use of external agents in PSHE. A

further example was from Peter (Road Safety) who stated that his activities supported the national curriculum, although he emphasised the link to PSHE, which is wider curriculum. This he argued should be compulsory, which he proposed would improve access to schools. Despite this he indicated that some schools would not take his activity even if it is free.

Both Road Safety and Rare Disease struggled to access schools and there were discussions about whether the activities did link in to the national curriculum and therefore the perceived value to the standards agenda. Sian who valued the agents' cultural capital of the specialism that the agent can offer. This contrasts with the view of other staff who were attracted to the offer of economic capital in the terms of physical money as outlined by Hargreaves, (2001,2003). Rare Disease, Young Theatre and Road Safety tied their work into *macrosystem* ideologies, which invited specialists into the *microsystem*. Sian (Thornily) tied the Fire Service into this thinking as she suggested they were an agent who gave pupils the skills to be safe outside of school, indicating indicated she valued their cultural capital. Research by Formby et al. (2011) found that the involvement of the police and emergency services in the delivery of the 'safety' aspect of PSHE was valued by primary schools as these agents would often provide free activities and resources. This was compared to theatre groups who were deemed costly. Schools were more likely to use school nurses or theatre companies where staff felt less competent and uncomfortable. School nurses were only identified as working in two of the schools which suggests a reduced role, possibly related to funding cuts. Despite this there was no indication from the schools that they had requested the involvement of these agents as they were specialists. This extends the research by the DCSF (2009b) which advocates schools use agents as specialists, as the findings highlight it was the agents that responded to the *macrosystem* ideologies and not the schools. The findings point to a complexity in the interest in capitals across the schools and staff. It signifies there are multi-level rationales or ideologies and not all types of capital have value which will gain the agent access to the *microsystem*. This has an impact on the involvement of external agents in schools.

The findings suggested for several agents that once they were in the *microsystem* they were asked by the schools to deliver activities based almost on the goodwill of the agent who did not charge. It appears the schools mobilised the social capital connection or bonding they had built with the agent to make these requests and possessed the know-how or organisational capital to do so. For instance, Jack (Fire Service) had delivered safety talks in Sunnyside for 20 years, when he was asked to be involved in an attendance initiative. The school financial statement highlighted the value for money of the activity although the agent did not charge. It also reported successful targeted improvement towards educational results which suggests the interest in agent involvement to produce human capital as in earlier policies. Jack questioned whether the fact that they did not charge was a school-based rationale for the *microsystem* requests. This implied the agent involvement was about economic capital, in that they did not charge. Previously, attendance support would have been within the services of the local authority, who were impacted by funding cuts when schools became academies. The Fire Service and Road Safety both indicated they had suffered financial constraints to their service. Despite this, agents such as Fire Service, Together Housing and Uniformed Service were involved in delivering some activities in the schools due to cuts to statutory services. It appears the withdrawal of *macrosystem* or *exosystem* activities and services such as those provided by the local authority could influence *microsystem* requests, especially as agents are automatically deemed to have the capacity to assist schools, despite the cost to their organisation as highlighted by Huddleston and Oh (2004). There is support for the research by Cornwall which warns that the school is an “*invited space*” (Cornwall 2008: 275) and the findings highlight that while agents want to be invited there is a danger they will be used as the state’s tools which corroborated the research by Vallender (2006: 238). To counteract this, Jack (Fire Service) pointed out that even if they were delivering on a *microsystem* request such as attending a school fair, the agent still intended to deliver their organisational message. This was also raised by Peter (Road Safety). This suggests not only multi-level rationales, but that these could be simultaneously competing.

A further example of microsystem requested activities was Sparks for their wellbeing activities (e.g. Puppet Club, mentoring, self-esteem course). This appeared to be a specialist or targeted wellbeing activity, based on *microsystem* need, which indicated the school commissioned agents to be involved in responding to social problems or complex needs which supports research by Ainslie et al. (2010) and Ball (2012) despite the cost. However, the agent did not charge, which is perhaps why they delivered the activity as a group, as opposed to on an individual basis. The findings indicate these activities were about improving objective wellbeing (e.g. school grades) as opposed to subjective wellbeing which supported the research by Finch et al. (2014). The agent was clear they did not want to charge, but themselves and the Fire Service highlighted potential tensions or expectations in between schools and external agents which supports research by Wilkin et al. (2008). This highlighted that there are external agents who could provide specialist services for free. Although the agent had their own rationale to engage with schools, there was the sense that the school was using the agent's activities for their own ends which highlights complexity in the rationales which could be competing. This implies that even where an agent might benefit from the involvement in the *microsystem*, it is important for agents to reflect on the rationales for their involvement across the different system layers and whose interests they serve.

The only agents that did not discuss any *microsystem* requests were Young Theatre, Rare Disease and the Uniformed Service. These agents all had an explicit financial transaction which was the lever for their involvement in the *microsystem*. This appeared to determine what was to take place, as they did not deliver additional activities. Tom at Young Theatre had stated it was easier to find funding than charge schools and it was apparent that the funding was essential for their activities to take place. This is perhaps as theatre companies are reported as expensive provision and some schools preferred agents that did not charge which confirms the research by Formby et al. (2011). In this sense the agents were interested in income generating activities which corroborates research by Ball (1997) although two of them had to raise this income first. These three agents had a low profile in the data, which the findings associated to the short time they were in the *microsystem*. Jane at Rare

Disease highlighted the potential cost including materials, instructors or management costs for agent involvement in schools. She warned some schools had cost her organisation money so it was important to discuss expectations. This highlighted tensions between agents and schools as indicated by Sparks and Fire Service and supports earlier research by Coleman (2006). This was a lesser concern in schools where Jane had built a relationship based on trust and mutual understanding which suggested bridging or bonding social capital. It also appeared related to the type of organisations including charities or statutory agencies who were more cautious about the financial impact of their work with schools. This has an impact on the involvement of external agents such as charities or statutory agents in schools. In contrast Building Maintenance was the only agent that committed physical money (economic capital) to Thornily and together with ABC Engineering they appeared to have more flexibility with economic capital than charities due to their legal structure and related use of profits. This was also highlighted by Ashley (Compton) suggested that agents who offered physical funding could facilitate their access into the *microsystem* through economic capital. Keith portrayed Building Maintenance as philanthropic and thus did not appear concerned over a return on the investment, although he did calculate the social value. These findings appear to extend the work of Ball (1997) who suggests that private organisations were interested in income-generating activities, but this was in an indirect basis. The involvement with schools was clearly valuable to the agent in terms of marketing the organisation to their clients as proposed by the DCSF (2009a). It also appeared a beneficial marketing tool to improve the school's reputation in terms of activities available which were deemed favourable to potential clients. For the school the agent involvement was helpful in times where schools face tough competition in the face of parental choice. It appeared that the involvement of the agent in the school was a valuable marketing tool for both parties.

Building Maintenance through BITC delivered a mentoring programme which was used by Thornily as an activity targeted at certain individuals as opposed to a universal service as proposed by the DCSF (2003). Keith (Building Maintenance) described this as a "*strategic*" project and was apparent that this had a significant

value for the agent, amongst the 50 projects they had delivered for the school. Whilst the school selected the pupils that would benefit, the rationale appeared to reside with the agent. Keith believed the employees were role models that aimed to raise pupils' aspirations through mentoring, which was necessary as it was not a *"leading school"*. This appeared to deliver the ideology evident in the DCSF policies such work-related learning (DCSF 2009a) which indicated it was important for disadvantaged pupils who receive less family support and require access to role models (e.g. employers, FE colleges) to inspire and raise aspirations. This is challenged by research undertaken by Cummings et al. (2012) who reported there is no link between mentoring and increasing the aspirations and outcomes of pupils, the impact was more around behaviour. The mentoring originally took place outside of school hours to which Keith revealed the pupils' perceived as *"a bit of a punishment"* as it was in their own time. This reveals that it was not voluntary and indicates an element of compulsion to encourage attendance as prevalent in an earlier policy such as by the Ministry of Education (1963). This implies it was chosen for the pupils without their involvement. The activity was moved onto curriculum time, which meant the pupils had be released from lessons to attend and was subsequently moved to after-school. Keith highlighted the *"challenge"* to get the Year 11 pupils out of class to undertake an agent-led activity. Sian (Thornily) warned the reason was the *"time and the impact away from the end result that schools are interested in...the GCSE or not the GCSE"*. This highlighted tensions between competing rationales and ideologies around what activities should constitute education or schooling.

The findings suggest there were potential hidden costs for the young person or the school as it appeared the mentoring was about increasing exam grades but the impact of the mentoring against human capital was difficult to measure (Cummings et al. 2012). This is perhaps why the access to pupils during curriculum time was reduced due to tensions in the creation of human capital or focus on the standards agenda. This was also acknowledged by Ashley (Compton) who stated that the engagement of employers was less important as it was difficult to measure the impact and was no longer an inspection area for Ofsted. This is an important point for external agents in

that there might be difficulties in encouraging ownership for the delivery of ideologies which sit outside the *microsystem* which were not created in discussion with the young people or seen as valuable to the standards agenda. The agent did not discuss any difficulties in accessing the *microsystem*. However, the economic capital did not buy Building Maintenance unrestricted access to pupils, which is an important point for external agents and a key finding. This is an important point for external agents who acquire external funding or are involved in an initiative which encourages them to enter the *microsystem*. It is important to question whose interests as being served in the undertaking of the activity or service and to be aware of competing rationales.

4.3.3 Rationales for informational provision (primary rationale)

This section will discuss the four agents whose activities were associated with the promotion of post-16 opportunities. This included Red Bricks and Work Skills (apprenticeships); West College (post-16 opportunities) and CareerMed (University Medicine). There was consensual recognition in the findings of the need to plug an information gap related to the government's decision to move responsibility for careers provision to schools. This was impacted by competing initiatives including academies and the increased participation age which will be discussed below.

Elaine (Red Bricks) warned that the high amount of apprenticeship places, was not accompanied by any further information. This was supported by Sarah (Work Skills) who said that the main reason for their school involvement was to explain about apprenticeships due to the local disparity between the number of apprenticeship places, the young people taking up these opportunities and the NEET list. This appears to suggest that despite encouragement from the government for agents including employers, training providers and colleges to be involved with schools there are information gaps. As a result, the information which reached some pupils was not impartial in terms of the range of options e.g. academic and

vocational, or was not in the pupils' best interests. This did not appear to indicate the impartial and independent provision detailed in the Education Act 2011 (Great Britain Parliament, 2011) and supports earlier research by Slack et al. (2013). Despite historical invitations for employers, access was not always granted which meant the agents had to try to fit in with schools or negotiate access. As with the agents involved in educational activities, both Red Bricks and Works Skills struggled to access the *microsystem* or found themselves shut out. In part this was due to the personalities of some school staff members which inhibited access and implied tensions between agents and school staff as highlighted by Coleman (2006). It was apparent that the school has taken on the mediating role that was once performed by the state which extends the research by Morrish (1970). Red Bricks used their relationship with Work Skills to access schools, as they had many connections or relationships with schools. This indicated that social capital or connections based on mutual recognition were important to access schools. Once there the school could use it to connect or build social capital between pupils and agents through introductions with post-16 providers as indicated by Mann and Percy (2013). The development of these connections was inhibited by the restricted access to schools. Leanne, West College stated a reason for this was the creation of academies with sixth forms who then wanted to promote the school's post-16 route. It was suggested that schools were using the new careers duty to restrict agent access to the *microsystem* and thereby increase their own economic capital in terms of increased sixth form places, at the expense of the pupils' interests. This did not appear to represent social justice which meant that students were not given impartial information on all the post-16 choices available to them. The agents stated that they were treated with suspicion or the enemy by some schools. This implies that despite government encouragement for agents including employers, training providers or colleges to be involved in schools there is difficulty in accessing the *microsystem* due to these competing *macrosystem* policies. Furthermore, access is not always granted and agents are having to try to fit in with schools to negotiate access. In 2017, the DfE continued their invitation for employers to be involved in designing and delivering the curriculum in the new Careers Strategy (DfE, 2017a). The findings of this research indicate that although these requests remain, access to schools is not straightforward as policies or initiatives may imply.

The assumptions about some pupils could influence the level of information available to the pupils and agent involvement in the *microsystem*. Elaine (Red Brick) highlighted the belief, held by parents, that if pupils failed their GCSEs then they should take an apprenticeship in construction, which she stated was not the case. In terms of the *microsystem*, the situation was not always resolved when schools had dedicated careers staff. Elaine felt that the information and advice available to young people around post-16 choices might be limited as school staff might lack the knowledge of pupil options. This indicated that where some schools used staff members to deliver the careers information, advice and guidance (IAG), there was not always sufficient knowledge to provide careers guidance as outlined by the HCEC (2013: 8). In terms of Thornily, Sian felt the school's decision not to purchase the local authority careers service, due to lack of finance was "*incredibly sad*". This is perhaps the fact that she recognised this meant they would not have the independent careers IAG stipulated in the Education Act 2011 (Great Britain Parliament, 2011). Sian warned that due to reduced budgets they needed a free activity from agents, which echoed research by Slack et al. (2013) which blamed a lack of funding and associated costs. This led to schools working with a range of agents who did not charge and highlighted the importance of the agents' economic capital. It appeared she and believed that despite the sadness as the lack of independent careers provision, that impartiality was achieved in some way due to her careers background and by bringing in a raft of agents. The involvement of the range of agents was also perceived as positive by Adrian (Compton). However, the students in both schools had reduced access to careers guidance, as what was on offer was more information and advice. This does not suggest the *microsystem* level of independence set out in the *macrosystem* policy of careers provision and impacts on the involvement of external agents.

In terms of a personal level ideology there was a consensus between Sarah (Work Skills), Sian (Thornily) and Ashley (Compton) of it being the 'right thing to do' in terms of pupils being able to make informed decisions. These individuals were

focused on the needs or interests of the child as opposed to the needs of the school or government which suggested a progressive viewpoint. Sian and Ashley were both the conduit that brought the agents into the schools and they valued the agents' cultural capital which implied a personal ideology. Ashley called them "*proper companies*" and stated that he would have the agents delivering lessons if funding allowed. This indicated that he values agents in the co-planning and co-delivery of the curriculum which supports the new Careers Strategy (DfE, 2017). It was clear that other staff members did not initially value the cultural capital of the agents as he indicated they were described as "*scary*". The school would connect pupils with their future employers which appeared it aimed to build social capital but Ashley's personal viewpoint about some pupils not wanting to leave the area, may have influenced the level of information he made available to them. Again, this suggested the information and advice provided was not impartial as demanded by the Education Act 2011 (Great Britain Parliament, 2011). Sian vetted the agents and revealed she needed to have confidence in them to deliver careers information. This implied that the agents would need to have built a relationship or social capital with the school to gain access. Sian stated she controlled the agent access into the *microsystem* and their subsequent behaviour to ensure they were giving out the correct message the school wanted them to distribute. This is a further example of how the schools that had taken on the mediating role, which Morrish (1970) stated was originally performed by the state between different school types. Sian asked agents not to discuss courses below level 2 to ensure that pupils kept on working which signifies a *microsystem* rationale. Despite this *microsystem* control of the agent message, Leanne (West College) highlighted the pressures on schools from the "*management ethos*" which meant they would not take any agent activities within the *microsystem*. It was also influenced by *macrosystem* ideologies such as the government and Ofsted in terms of pupils' achievement implying pressures of standards and league tables. Ashley stated that despite his belief in the cultural capital of the agents, their involvement was impacted by *macrosystem* ideologies. For example, the removal of employer engagement from inspection interest by Ofsted reduced the impetus to involve employers in the school. This suggested employer involvement in careers IAG provision was hard to justify despite the government influence. It also indicated competing *macrosystem* policies which proposed the engagement of employers in schools, but reduced the importance with a

concern about standards and league tables. This then impacts on the agent invitations in the *microsystem*. Ashley felt this was difficult to finance, as it included hidden costs for the school. This contrasts with the neoliberal belief that the involvement of external agents in schools such as private businesses will be more effective. It also contrasts with the research of Huddleston and Laczik (2012) who emphasise that the historical requests for agent involvement had resulted in practices which are “*firmly embedded*” within secondary education. It appears that Ashley and Sian’s own ideology or beliefs are competing with those at the school level. This could restrict the agent access and message they can transmit to the pupils. It could also mean that the agents do not remain as a permanent feature of the *microsystem*.

A further policy that impacted on the agents’ ability to respond to requests to be involved in schools was the raising of the school participation age (RPA). The DfE (2015) in their guidance for schools suggest an increased involvement for agents to provide independent advice to pupils about their duty to remain in education or training and the associated options. However, the opposite appeared to be taking place in some schools which suggests competing rationales and ideologies. Both Work Skills and ABC Engineering warned that schools were advising pupils incorrectly that they had to stay on in their school. Furthermore, they were limiting agent access to pupils by year groups, which Sarah (Work Skills) warned had resulted in a lack of independent careers advice. These findings support the research by Slack et al. (2013) which highlighted how some FE college staff reported fewer school requests, reduced access to students or were asked to work with younger pupils and avoid Year 11. There was a proposal that schools were protecting their own budgets or economic capital by controlling the message that the agents were allowed to give out. This again indicated how the schools were now mediating agent access to the *microsystem* and suggests that the agent relationships with some schools lacked mutual recognition or social capital connections because of these competing policies which focused on economic capital.

Leanne and Claire from CareerMed emphasised the involvement of external agents to raise pupils' aspirations in schools such as Thornily which had several pupils from lower socio-economic backgrounds. Claire highlighted the way in which a perceived lack of pupil aspirations was manipulated by some schools who had performance targets to hit and put students on a BTEC instead of a GCSE as it is an easier option for the school in terms of pupil achievement. This had impact on future career choices. It reveals the way in which the post-16 path a student takes may be impacted by *macrosystem* pressures such the focus on standards and league tables. Claire warned that the reduction in school careers staff, was making it difficult for the agent to access schools. This implied that these competing government policies and rationales were restricting the agent access to the *microsystem* to offer independent and impartial advice to young people despite encouragement to be involved in careers information and advice.

4.3.4 Advantage of agent delivery

There was an indication by several agents that their involvement was valued by schools for their ability to deliver a message as they were not a teacher. It appeared that both Road Safety and Fire Service believed that they were better informed, more confident, more interesting and could deliver "*powerful*" messages in comparison to "*most teachers*" which supports research by Formby et al. (2011: 57). For instance, Peter (Road Safety) felt that a child would not listen to the parent or the teacher and that an agent was more suitable as they were impartial and not with the child all the time. He likened this to inviting a Police Officer into the school. He suggested that the perceived reduction in the parental role in terms of the encouragement of wearing seatbelts, meant that other agents were now taking on this parental responsibility. Jack (Fire Service) pointed out that Sunnyside had exhausted their own resources, in terms of the attendance initiative and he was someone that was well-known and not a teacher. He emphasised that fire fighters were good community role models. Despite this he was still accompanied in the activity by a member of staff. He implied he had specialist skills which were effective with pupils, which not everyone possessed. It appeared he suggested that he had cultural capital that was of value to

the school. In terms of his talks on arson the concept of the powerful message was apparent in the tweet from Thornily about his presentation which stated it was “*hard hitting*” (Appendix 18). This was also perception of Ashley (Compton) who highlighted the credibility of the message that agents could offer by them not being teachers. This supported the research by Macdonald (2009 :31-32) who stated that schools used agents as they carried “*more weight and credibility from outside agencies than teachers*”. This indicated that these agents believed they had cultural capital that they could offer, which enhanced the school provision.

The view of impartiality of an agent to deliver a message was not the perception of Adam (Meadows). He believed that the fact that the Connected Counselling representative was not a school teacher, meant there was a lack of trust, mutual recognition or social capital connection which suggested a disregard for the cultural capital of the counsellor. This appeared to be influenced by competing priorities (curriculum, wellbeing) and lack of budget to commission agents. The fact that the agent was commissioned from the pupil premium which highlights the need for specialists to provide a service that the school could not provide which confirms the research by Ofsted (2012). Despite the demand for the involvement of agents or “*specialists*” (e.g. social workers, health professionals, psychologists) this did not appear to relieve pressure from the teachers or boost morale or practice which challenges research by Hadfield et al. (2005). It appeared that the demands on Adam as a teacher, required someone there full-time and in this context, he preferred a staff member, not the counsellor. The service did not have a referral process which he perceived as a barrier and extra work. Despite working at the school for three years, the agent was still viewed as external and Adam revealed that the staff had not made attempts to include the counsellor as part of the school, something which he recognised had not helped to build trust or social capital between the counsellor and the pupils. This perception was perhaps encouraged by the fact that the agent was commissioned through funding which had to be renewed annually which made their involvement appear a less certain and transient arrangement.

There was an indication by several agents including ABC Engineering, Fire Service, Young Theatre, Road Safety, Uniformed Service and Rare Disease that the educational activities on offer were perceived differently to school lessons. The suggestion was that the activity was fun, informal and practical. The Young Theatre evaluation report and the local authority press release implied that the performance used a different teaching method which was very informal, fun and creative to tackle difficult subjects. Jack (Fire Service) made the point that he delivered sessions in an informal manner by asking pupils to use his forename. Several of the activities were targeted at groups of young people and all activities apart from Uniformed Service were still delivered in a compulsory manner, as they took place during the school day. This indicates that what was delivered was part of compulsory schooling and not the informal education as outlined by Smith (2002; 2009). The findings suggest that the content or the underpinning ideologies of what was being delivered meant that it was only the pedagogy that was informal. Sian implied that a whole day of agent delivery was too much for students as the interactive workshops often left the pupils “quite tired”. The result was that the school decided to reduce the number of these interactive sessions and to have a non-agent session at the end of the day. This indicates that agent sessions were not viewed by Sian as provision which could replace normal lessons and agents were still viewed in a supplementary or a complementary role. This creates a ceiling to the type of involvement that an agent is seen to contribute and retains them at a subordinate level to schools.

An important point from the exploration of the financial rationale is the range of hidden costs attached to agents working in schools. While there is a suggestion by Sian that it might be beneficial for the school if an agent offers a free activity or physical cash. The situation is more complex as hidden costs are apparent for students in the time away from their studies which is a concern for the standards agenda. There is the cost for agent volunteers such as Claire (CareerMed) who sacrificed their personal study time to help the pupils. For the agent the relationship may cost the organisation money as highlighted by Jane (Rare Disease). In addition, there is a budget attached to the work as stated by Adrian (Compton). The findings, however, suggest that the financial side is more complex in terms of the hidden costs

not only to the agent, but to other individuals. This suggests that despite repeated requests for agent involvement the financial picture is not clear cut and could act as a barrier to involvement. This perspective does not consider the value of these activities outside of the standards agenda and that it might allow for the generation of something else beyond human capital.

4.3.5 Model of involvement

Further to the above findings and analysis using the literature and theoretical concepts the following model of involvement has been created (see Table 4.2 below). This has been developed from the models of participation discussed in section 1.6.1 by Arnstein (1969), Pretty (1995) and White (1996). The model portrays eight different forms of involvement which extend from pre-involvement or *negotiation* to school ownership or *transformative*. The model can help agents and school staff to audit their relationship in terms of the involvement of external agents; why they are involved, the form that this takes and the function from the perspective of the state, schools or external agents themselves.

This model recognises that whilst the agents included in this study were those which supplemented or complemented the work of schools, there are also agents which are involved in the management of schools i.e. those in the *transformative* form of involvement. The involvement of agents could be in the ownership of an academy or a free school. Further research could be undertaken to explore the perceptions of agents within this stage, as agents involved in the *transformative* form were not included as research participants. The *interactive* stage was that which was proposed within the extended school agenda where policies encouraged agents to be co-located on school sites as part of multi-agency teams. The findings of this research indicate that the involvement of agents has moved away from this form but this is still a recognisable type of involvement. Recent policies such as the careers strategy by the DfE (2017a) have encouraged external agents such as employers to be involved in co-planning and co-delivering of the curriculum.

The next two types of involvement are concerned with *material incentives* and *immaterial incentives* which centre around the mobilisation of the different capitals. The state, agents and schools indicate that they value the involvement of agents in schools for the assets that they can bring. However, this is a complex viewpoint and one capital can be held as more important than another. The findings also suggest that a school may choose to include or exclude external agents, dependent on which capital they wish to accumulate. For agents who wish to work in schools to plug this information gap, they may be responding to an *immaterial* incentive. Equally they might be interested to fill post-16 places which could signify a *material* incentive.

The idea of the involvement of external agents for *display* was highlighted in relation to careers duty where the high number of agents appeared to be a tick box exercise. This is labelled as *re-active* involvement as it is intending to react but in a tick-box manner. Two statutory agents (e.g. Road Safety) discussed how their involvement in schools was both active and reactive; the former was where they were responding to their own rationales and the latter to a school request. In instances it could be said that the agent was helping the school to respond to the issue and their involvement was evidence of this. The *host* level of involvement is related to the letting of school rooms or use of the school by community groups which was advocated within the extended school agenda. This is labelled as *non-collaborative* as it just a transaction concerning the use of the space. These findings show that despite the use of schools by the community being advocated by the government since the early 20th century, the presence of the appeared to have reduced post extended schools. The final level of the model is *pre-involvement* and this is where the agent resides before they enter the *microsystem*. Whilst outside the agent is locating the leverage or capital to enter the *microsystem*. This is also the form that the agent will return to after they have exited the *microsystem*; it is therefore the stage that the agents resides whilst they are in *negotiation*. This model attempts to show the distinct levels of involvement associated to the rationales and capitals that encourage an external agent to be involved in schools.

Table 4.2: Model of involvement

Form	State Function	Agent Function	School Function
School ownership (Transformative)	The state promotes the involvement of external agents in the management of schools.	The agent responds to state requests to be involved in the management of a school and opens a free school or academy. They work alongside the other school types. The involvement is mediated by the state	The school manages its maintained school alongside those operated by external agents. This could be a maintained school, free school or academy.
Co-location (Interactive)	The state promotes the co-location of external agents on school sites to share leadership and delivery of activities and services.	The agent responds to the state or school request to be co-located on a school site to share responsibility and access parents or pupils. The involvement is mediated by the school.	The school responds to the state's suggestion for agent co-location to share leadership and utilise the agent's capitals. The involvement is mediated by the school
Co-planning/co-delivering (Collaborative)	The state promotes the involvement of external agents in co-designing and co-delivering the curriculum.	The agent responds to the state request to co-plan and co-deliver activities with a school. The involvement is mediated by the school.	The state is interested to utilise the agent's knowledge and skills (e.g. intellectual capital).
Material incentive	The state promotes the involvement of external agents for their material assets (e.g. financial capital)	The agent responds to the state request to convert or sell their immaterial capitals (e.g. social or cultural capital) to generate an income from a school through direct commissioning or fundraising or through marketing of the work to gain business. The involvement is mediated by the school.	The school is interested in the agent's economic capital to respond to state funding or provision gaps. The involvement is mediated by the school
Immaterial incentive	The state is interested to involve external agents in schools for their immaterial assets (e.g. social capital, cultural capital and intellectual capital) as policies recognise the values of these.	The agent is interested to be involved to use immaterial capitals such as social capital connections with pupils. They might be interested in the development of pupils for subjective-wellbeing (e.g. self-esteem) or giving information to young people which is the 'right thing to do' The involvement is mediated by the school.	The school is interested to have the agent involved in the school so they can develop social capital connections with pupils (e.g. with future employers) or utilise the agent as a specialist. They perceive the agent's value in a holistic manner.

Form	State Function	Agent Function	School Function
Display (Re-active)	The state promotes the involvement of external agents in schools to respond to an issue (e.g. obesity).	The agent to respond to an issue (e.g. obesity,) to be involved in a school which could be requested by the state, the school or identified within their own organisation. The involvement is mediated by the school.	The school is interested to have the agent involved to respond to an issue (e.g. obesity) which they or the state might have identified, the local authority or the agent themselves. It might be a tick-box exercise. The involvement is mediated by the school
Host (Non-collaborative)	The state promotes the involvement of external agents in the hiring of school premises for social or financial gain or capitals.	The agent is interested to hire or let the space or use at no cost to provide activities and services. This is a non-collaborative arrangement. The involvement is mediated by the school.	The school is interested to let the space to the agent to generate economic capital. The agent contracts to hire the space or use at no cost. The involvement is mediated by the school
Pre-involvement (Negotiation)	The state promotes the involved of external agents in schools through funding, initiatives, Acts or policies.	The agent is interested to be involved in schools but must locate the capital (e.g. financial, capital) to enter the space. The involvement is mediated by the school.	The school is interested to have external agent involvement. They will use their capitals (e.g. Financial, social) to encourage agent involvement) to locate agents. The involvement is mediated by the school

Chapter 5: Conclusions

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will summarise the findings and the contribution to knowledge in terms of the research questions. The first question was in relation to the identification of the agents that were involved in the case study schools. This included the range that was located, plus any trends and difficulties in answering this question. The other research questions were related to the different rationales for the agent involvement and if these were linked to government policies or if other rationales exist. This chapter will then discuss the limitations of the study including research methods. Next it will explore the implications of these findings for interested parties including agents, teachers, politicians, pupils, parents and other researchers. Finally, it will reflect on the completion of the thesis before the concluding remarks which will include ideas for further research.

5.2 Contribution to knowledge

5.2.1 Who were the agents involved in the case study schools?

The first research question aims to contribute to the knowledge of external agent involvement in schools, by identifying those who worked in the four case study schools. To answer this research question, the study took a broad focus in the approach to the literature and data collection. This was important as it contrasts with the existing literature which has a narrow focus such as the external agent type or sector (e.g. employers, social workers, voluntary sector); the timeframe (e.g. 1960s to 2007, 2010-2012); the government initiative (e.g. extended schools, pupil premium); or the parliamentary Act (e.g. careers duty, wider curriculum). The findings provided evidence of the involvement of 156 agents across the four schools. This was achieved through the broad focus which did not specify agent type or associated policy and represents a contribution to knowledge in comparison to the literature with the narrow focus. The number of agents varied between the schools

with Meadows and Compton having the lower number of agents. Thornily had twice the number of agents to Meadows. The identified agents were only a 'snapshot' of the true amount involved in the schools. As a caveat, this study does not suggest that the higher number of agents is a recommendation but argues that there was a vast difference between the schools and explores the reasons for this.

The identification of the external agents in the case study schools contributes to knowledge in terms of the range and types of agents that were involved. This is important as it achieved this through the broad focus, as opposed to centring on an agent type or initiative. The findings detailed that the agents emanated across the sectors such as statutory, private and third sector and included a range of individuals and organisations including employers, colleges, universities, football clubs and theatre groups. The analysis suggests that the different types of agents that were involved in the case study schools can be linked to the types which are identifiable in policies, initiatives and Acts from different timepoints over the last hundred years. This contributes to knowledge as it makes links between different agent types and different policies, Acts and initiatives throughout this period of history which includes recurring themes. For instance, there are organisations (e.g. military ethos or voluntary organisation) which support the suggestions in earlier literature. There are those agents which fit with the policies from the 1960s which referred to agents as specialists. There are also those whose involvement can be aligned to the wider aspects of the national curriculum from the 1980s such as the delivery of PSHE. There are agents (e.g. after-school sports clubs) whose involvement could be related to the broadening out of agent invitations within the New Labour era to include partnerships with a range of activity providers. The findings highlighted a trend in terms of employers and career providers which totalled 35 agents (23%). This is perhaps a response to the legacy from the involvement of employers in schools for many years such as for work-related learning. It could also be a result of the reforms to careers provision which transferred the duty to provide impartial and independent careers information, advice and guidance to schools in 2012. The contribution to knowledge is that the findings highlight the impact of this policy on the involvement of employers in schools. Whilst this policy may impact on the involvement of employers, other agents are also involved, so it is broader than one

policy, Act or initiative. The rationales for the agent involvement will be discussed in 5.2.2.

Few activities were aimed at individual pupils which is a contribution to knowledge. This is due to the budget restrictions highlighted by Sian, Ashley and Adam or that targeted activities or services are expensive, which was the reason that schools pursued agents to deliver free targeted activities. This supports research by Higgins et al. (2013), Levitas (2012) and also Thraves et al. (2012) which suggest that the austerity measures would cut activities and services and create a gap which was once filled with local authority provision. This impacts on the sustainability of external agent involvement in schools. In addition, the findings emphasised that agents have their own rationales for their involvement in schools so tensions are apparent between agents and schools which corroborates research by Wilkin et al. (2008). No activities were delivered by pupils or parents. Furthermore, there were not many activities or services aimed at the wider audience that activities sought to benefit such as parents or community. The activities were very much pupil focused, which is a contribution to knowledge as it shows a shift in activity or service focus. This extends the research by Diss and Jarvie (2016) as whilst they acknowledge this reduction, their research only looks at the provision of the extended school *core offer*. Whilst it recognised there is a reduction in external agent involvement in extended school provision; the findings highlighted that agents are still involved in the case study schools, which their research did not explore.

The findings and analysis highlights that the spread of the agent information across the data sources makes answering the research question difficult in terms of identifying the agents. This contributes to knowledge as it highlights the patchiness in the knowledge of agents amongst school staff members. This is important for other researchers as it highlights that multiple data sources are important as the staff knowledge was insufficient. To navigate this complexity and identify the agents the findings suggested it was important to find the right person(s) who was aware of agent involvement. This is someone who not only has the social capital connections which could be informed by their job role or length of time in

their job. It is also someone whose personal ideologies value the cultural or intellectual capital of the agent which impacts on the involvement of external agents in schools. The messiness of agent knowledge makes it difficult for agents to work with schools which is important for agents, schools and politicians who encourage their involvement. Accessing schools or the *microsystem* is a continual process, as the agents do not appear to become a permanent feature of the *microsystem*. If the lever or capital that brought them into the *microsystem* disappears, such as the social capital connection with a staff member or the offer of cultural or economic capital, then the connection could also disappear. This contributes to knowledge as it sheds light on the difficulties that agents and schools encounter when attempting to undertake these collaborations, particularly from an agent perspective. It has also shown how the involvement of external agents is transient and relates to a range of capitals which impacts on the sustainability of external agent involvement in schools.

This study has recognised that the number of agents identified was only a ‘snapshot’ of agent involvement at the time. The contribution to knowledge is in the uncovering of the disparities in agent knowledge between staff and across data sources. It also highlights how the schools use collective terms or the activity name to refer to agents. This results in a loss of agent profile in the data and a disconnection between the agent and school perception in terms of the agent involvement. The findings highlight that in some instances it does not matter who the agent is, just that the agents have been involved to respond to policy, initiative or issue (e.g. health eating). This impacts on the sustainability of external agent involvement in schools. The findings suggest that the low profile of some agents could indicate the focus was on a free activity and thus the offer of economic capital. There was also the suggestion by Ashley and Sian that external agents could contribute funding to the school and there were companies who were able to contribute this economic capital which supports research by Huddleston and Laczik (2012). This is important knowledge for other researchers who may wish to work in schools as it emphasises the difficulties in answering this research question.

Similarly, for agents it implies that the requests for their involvement might be related to their offer of an activity and not them as an agent.

5.2.2 What are the different perceptions about the involvement of external agents in the case study schools, amongst the research participants?

The remaining research questions aims to contribute to knowledge by identifying the rationales for the external agent involvement in the case study schools. It also aims to compare the different perceptions and to investigate if these were related to government invitations. There is a contribution to knowledge in the continual invitations for external agents to be involved in schools (see Appendix 2) which have been highlighted through the literature. The findings suggest this creates a complexity in terms of the agent involvement in the schools. In terms of the rationales for agent involvement, these agents are invited into schools in response to societal changes, political ideologies and government interventions which may be accompanied by funding. What is not discussed in the literature is the agents' perceptions in terms of their rationales to be involved in schools. The literature has not compared the perception of school staff to the perceptions of external agents in relation to the involvement of agents in schools. There is a contribution to knowledge through the exploration of rationales for agent involvement. In terms of Bronfenbrenner's model (1979) there are *macrosystem* rationales for the encouragement and involvement of external agents into schools. In addition, the findings suggest that rationales also operate and compete across the system levels including from the personal, school, agent, local (*exosystem*) and national (*macrosystem*). This highlights a range of competing ideologies around the purpose of education as outlined by C. Matheson (2008) but also the reason to invite external agents in schools. This creates a level of intricacy in terms of the involvement of the agent participants in the case study schools. This is important as it has emphasised the complexity of rationales in terms of the activity or service focus rationales which will be discussed below.

Rationales for educational and wellbeing provision

Education or wellbeing was the primary rationale for ten agents, in terms of the research question which intended to explore the different perceptions for the agent involvement in the case study schools. The primary rationale in relation to the focus of the activity or service is shown in Table 4.1 (see Chapter 3). Three of these agents suggest they were involved in the case study schools to deliver school *microsystem* requested activities. This included Connected Counselling, ABC Engineering and Together Housing. Whilst there is an indication that these school microsystem requests were influenced by the value the cultural or economic capital the agents also had to offer, the findings suggest that these agents had their own rationales to be involved in the schools. Furthermore, their activities or services are aligned to *macrosystem* ideologies. For Connected Counselling, the agent received payment for the activity which signifies an economic capital rationale for the agent but also a microsystem need for this wellbeing service. The agent and Adam, Meadows, highlighted the ongoing need in terms of wellbeing activities and services, despite the removal of this area from the Ofsted inspection framework as outlined by Gove (2013). The findings suggest that Connected Counselling was the only commissioned agent participant and one of a handful that worked with individual pupils from the 156 located; the other agents worked with pupil groups.

Both ABC Engineering and Together Housing revealed their involvement was useful for marketing their organisation to sell or rent houses which in turn could accumulate economic capital. This corroborates the suggestion by the DCSF (2009a) of the marketing value of agent involvement in schools. There was also the delivery of *macrosystem* ideologies such as the desire to promote engineering subject choices, responding to statutory funding cuts or towards the standards agenda. The delivery of these activities and services under *microsystem* or *macrosystem* requests could indicate a focus on human capital (Becker, 1975) which agents should consider. There is a contribution to knowledge in the uncovering of the complexity in terms of the multi-layered rationales pertaining to the involvement of these agents.

The remaining seven agents were involved in the *microsystem* due to ideologies or influences which emanated beyond it. This included the Fire Service and Road Safety who both aim to deliver statutory provision which suggested an *exosystem* ideology. Building Maintenance were involved through BITC, which desired to assist agents to work in disadvantaged schools which appeared in line with proposals by the DfE (2015). The Uniformed Service received national funding to set up after school groups through national *macrosystem* funding. BITC were involved with Building Maintenance and Thornily in the original action plan and if there were strings attached to the funding the Uniformed Service received, it could have determined what was to take place. This was also the case for Young Theatre who were involved in the *microsystem* due to an *exosystem* influence in terms of local authority funding. There is a contribution to knowledge as it includes examples where external agents are used to deliver governance beyond the state, as indicated by Taylor (2007). The findings suggested that both indicated a deficit model behind the thinking which supports research by Dyson et al. (2002).

It was the decision of Rare Disease and Road Safety, as agents, to enter the *microsystem*, whilst Sparks aimed to respond to a change in *macrosystem* cultural attitudes. The rationale for the activity focus for both the Uniformed Service and Sparks was educational which aimed to create a social capital connection between the pupils and the church to facilitate this educational rationale. In addition, the Uniformed Service and the Fire Service used their social capital to access schools. These are examples of social capital being used as both the means and the ends which supports research by Baron et al. (2000). There are personal level ideologies from the research participants which aimed to influence provision or agent access such as Uniformed Service who chose to enter the *microsystem*. These personal rationales were also evident in school staff members including Sian and Linda who facilitated the agent access into the schools. This contributes to knowledge as it highlights the complexity of multi-layered rationales for agents involved in schools, where it appeared the rationale emanated beyond the *microsystem*. This is important

as it is not as straight forward as responding to a request, as there are competing interests at work which can encourage or block access. These agents need to reflect on the interests which might underpin any funding that they receive, using the idea of reflection as proposed by Morrison (1995).

Once in the *microsystem* four agents (Fire Service, Road Safety, Sparks, Building Maintenance) were asked by schools to deliver *microsystem* requested activities and they appeared to use their social capital or bonding with the agents to make these requests. Building Maintenance completed over 50 projects for Thornily, which sheds lights on the agents which are more able to contribute capitals. Statutory agencies and charities commented that they could not always respond to the expectations from schools and the charities and voluntary organisations appeared more cautious than private companies. Agents including Sparks, Fire Service, Road Safety, Rare Disease discussed funding constraints and costs to work with schools. Several schools were asked for activities as the agents did not charge as implied by Jack (Fire Service). Sparks did not want to charge schools, but Phil emphasised it was important to clarify expectations as they were unable to deliver activities for free on an open-ended basis. This is perhaps why the school requests for Sparks were for targeted specialist activities with a wellbeing rationale, as these are expensive. This can impact on the sustainability of external agent involvement in schools. The contribution to knowledge is through the suggestion that this is still an area that could contain space for agent involvement, which is important for agents and schools. However, a service which is aimed at individual pupils is expensive which could impact on the involvement of agents in schools and what they are asked to do.

The three agents that were delivering *microsystem* requests did not highlight a difficulty in accessing the *microsystem*. This was because they were invited by the school. In contrast the remaining seven agents who were delivering activities or services where the request emanated from outside the *microsystem* indicated they had problems with access with contributes to knowledge. Six of the seven agents

had problems accessing the *microsystem*. The changes in staff resulted in a loss of social capital connection between Road Safety, Sparks and Meadows, which restricted access. There were examples of agents trying to ‘fit in’ with the work of schools or use capitals to negotiate access which impacts on the form of agent involvement. The contribution to knowledge is in the suggestion that agents linked their activities and services to the national curriculum or to *macrosystem* ideologies which invited specialists into the *microsystem* such as for the delivery of PSHE. Despite this, for Rare Disease and Road Safety the level of access varied between schools. It appears that the offer of cultural capital in the way of a free activity was not enough to gain access to the *microsystem* in all schools as there was a focus on human capital. Building Maintenance, did not discuss access issues to the *microsystem*. They were the only agent that committed physical funding to a school which appeared useful for access to the *microsystem*. As indicated by Sian, physical cash would gain the notice of some staff members who did not value the agents’ cultural capital. Not all agents are able to contribute money in this manner and it appeared that the private companies were less concerned about the cost of working with schools. Three agents (Rare Disease, Youth Theatre Uniformed Service) were not asked for *microsystem* requested activities. These agents require funding to be involved in schools which determines what is to take place and leaves no room to respond to *microsystem* requests. This impacts on the involvement of external agents in schools and the sustainability of certain agent types. The *macrosystem* pressures which reverberate through the *microsystem* in terms of human capital, meant that the agents’ access to pupils during curriculum time became restricted. The agent recognised the impact of the mentoring was difficult to measure and it was underpinned by ideology that emanated from outside of the *microsystem*. Both the agent and the school recognised that the partnership was mutually beneficial in terms of marketing which confirms the suggestion by the DfE (2015). However, the pressure towards human capital and qualifications restricted the agent access to the pupils. This highlights the pull towards one capital over another which supports research by Craig et al. (2004).

Rationales for informational provision

In terms of the research question which intended to explore the different perceptions for the agent involvement in the case study schools, there were four agents that were involved in schools for an information rationale. This was in relation to the focus of the activity on offer which aimed to promote their post-16 routes. This fits with the continual encouragement from the government for external agents to be involved in schools in terms of careers provision or work-related learning. There was a consensual recognition of the need to plug an information gap in relation to the government's decision to move responsibility for the careers provision to schools, which contributes to knowledge. This is important as it was impacted by other competing policies, Acts and initiatives including academies and increased participation age which hindered the agent involvement in schools. Both Compton and Thornily used their own staff members to deliver the careers duty as opposed to purchasing independent careers provision from the local authority. It was apparent that the involvement of agents was restricted by the available budget, as the duty was not accompanied by funding. Instead the schools brought in a range of agents which they believed would deliver impartial information and advice. However, this did not suggest the level of independent careers guidance as outlined by the HCEC (2013: 8) set out in the Education Act in 2011 (Great Britain Parliament, 2011). The staff members both clearly valued the cultural capital of the agents, as they had their own ideologies. It highlights how Sian (Thornily) controlled the agent behaviour and message which suggested that the school mediated the agent involvement which extended the research by Morrish (1970) who discussed control in terms of agent involvement in education or schools which was mediated by the state. Where Adrian (Compton) aimed to connect pupils with agents as it was a foregone conclusion they would not leave the area, which appears a negative personal ideology. There were also *macrosystem* pressures such as Ofsted and the standards agenda or league tables (Hill, 1999) which constrict the agent access and activities. This suggests that despite the policies to encourage agent involvement, access is not straightforward.

The impact of these competing policies was that Red Bricks and Work Skills struggled to access the *microsystem* or schools to plug this information gap. This was hindered by the personalities of school staff or their lack of knowledge of post-16 routes. In addition is the perceptions of parents who would deem an apprenticeship suitable for a child who had failed their GCSEs. Both agents used their social capital to attempt to negotiate access or 'fit in' with the schools. It was apparent that the school is an example of a space in which the agent is invited which supports research by Cornwall (2008). The agents were attempting to navigate these competing policies to gain access. Leanne (West College) cited policies such as the creation of academies which paved the way for schools to have sixth forms which restricted access or limited this to certain pupil age groups. She warned of pressures including *macrosystem* (e.g. *Ofsted*) or *microsystem* (e.g. school management pressure). These restricted what activities the agents could deliver if access was gained. The agent was treated with suspicion by some schools which suggested a focus on economic capital. This was despite the government proposal that agents could be involved to provide independent advice to pupils about the post-16 choices in relation to the raising of the participation age. There was a consensus between Sarah (Work Skills) and staff members Sian and Ashley of it being the 'right thing to do' in terms of pupils being able to make informed decisions. These individuals were focused on the needs or interests of the child as opposed to the needs of the school or government, but this is not the case for all staff members. There was a suggestion by CareerMed and West College of the need to raise aspirations in pupils from lower socio-economic backgrounds in terms of their post-16 routes. Claire (CareerMed) stated that schools were using the lack of aspirations to manipulate the pupils' choices for a better outcome in the standards agenda, which impacted on the pupils' future career choices. However, the lack of aspirations has been questioned by Cummings et al. (2012). The competing policies can have a negative impact on the information available for the pupils and restrict agent access which is a contribution to knowledge.

Advantage of agent delivery

There was an indication by agents such as Road Safety and the Fire Service that the schools valued their involvement, for their ability to deliver a message as they were not teachers, which is a contribution to knowledge. The agent believes they are impartial as they are not with the pupils all day. They believe they have cultural capital which allows them to deliver a more powerful and credible message which supports research by MacDonald (2009) and Formby et al. (2011). This perception was confirmed by Ashley from Compton. However, this was not the perception of Adam (Meadows) who believes the impartiality means there is a lack of trust, mutual recognition or social capital connection between the agent (counsellor) and the pupil. Furthermore, he does not value the cultural capital of the agent. This view was influenced by the level of need, which is not met by the current level of commissioning of the counsellor of one day per week. There were competing priorities including the curriculum and wellbeing which resulted in extra work for Adam. The school did not attempt to introduce the agent to the pupils and they remain as external after three years, perhaps as they are commissioned annually. This indicates they do not become an integral feature of the *microsystem*. A contribution to knowledge is the suggestion that whilst there are advantages of agent delivery, this view is not shared by all school staff members, which can impact on agent involvement in schools.

The findings contribute to knowledge as they suggest that ABC Engineering, Fire Service, Young Theatre, Road Safety, Uniformed Service and Rare Disease believe that that what they deliver is different to normal school lessons. The proposal is that the activities are fun, practical or informal. It appears that it is the agent's use of cultural capital, skills or abilities which makes the activities different. Several of the activities were targeted at certain students and all apart from Uniformed Service delivered in a compulsory manner, as they took place during the school day. There is a suggestion that they are delivering through an informal educational manner. These underpinning ideologies mean that what was being delivered meant it was only the pedagogy that was informal. Sian highlighted how the pupils became tired

following a day of agent delivery. This suggests that the activities cannot replace the traditional work of schools and that they remain in a supplementary or complementary role. Despite this all the agents' activities, can be linked to the delivery of *macrosystem* ideologies. This contributes to knowledge in that this aligned the agent delivery to the formal delivery of schooling. This is relevant to the concept of indoctrination as the activities and services are still delivered in a compulsory manner and directed by schools.

5.3 Limitations of research methods

The study aimed to include both primary and secondary schools which were a feature of the original sample Areas A-C (see Chapter 2). However, the final sample (Area E) does not include primary schools, as the area is based on the middle school system. Previous research was undertaken with primary schools (Barron et al. 2007), so the contribution to knowledge for this research is that it has focused on secondary schools (including middle schools).

As indicated (Chapter 2) the study intended to include the perceptions of both parents and pupils. However, the lack of parent and pupil voice is a limitation of this research. It is proposed that future research could include this.

This study has recognised that the number of agents identified was only a 'snapshot' of the involvement of agents at the time. This was indicated by the messiness of agent identification, the spread of data across the sources and lack of staff knowledge. Whilst the documentary analysis was used to supplement the staff knowledge collected through the pro-forma and interview, it was clear that not all agents were identified. The reference to agents by collective terms or the activity

highlighted that there are further agents that were not uncovered by the data collection.

5.4 Implications for policymakers, teachers, external agents, researchers, parents and pupils

Rationales for involvement

The message for agents, school practitioners, policymakers and other researchers is to recognise that there is still a high external agent involvement as evidenced in the case study schools. This appears influenced by the range of policies, initiatives and Acts which have encouraged external agents to be involved in schools, during the last hundred years including the delivery of careers education and guidance, PSHE, wellbeing or in specific subjects (e.g. STEM). Agents are also involved in response to the reduction in responsibility for these wider educational aspects by central and local government, which has encouraged the private and not for profit organisations to be involved in schools. In addition, involvement has been influenced by the austerity measures which resulted in the removal of previously national or local funded services and created provision gaps. Transfer of responsibilities to schools has not always been accompanied by a corresponding transfer of funding. In relation to careers information, advice and guidance, the suggestion is that there is a lack of independent careers guidance. This implies that what is taking place in some schools is superficial, which can impact on the information available to pupils. The result in schools is that an increased number of agents are being involved in the delivery of careers information and guidance. This is an example of how policies are being enacted at school microsystem level due to the impact of the transfer of duty but not the accompanying funding. The result appears to be the involvement of agents in careers provision as a ‘tick box’ exercise to respond to the initiative with agents who do not charge. This supports the research undertaken by Slack et al. (2013).

A focus on the theme of an activity (e.g. healthy eating) or initiative as opposed to an agent's name can lead to a disconnection where the agents are only recognised by a collective term (e.g. companies). For school practitioners it is important to note that there should not be a disconnection between the agent's contribution and the recognition of this by the school. This led to only a 'snapshot' of the agents that were involved in the case study schools being identified. In terms of pupils' ability to make informed decisions, the question for schools and agents is whether pupils are benefiting from the high quantity of external agents in the delivery of impartiality at the expense of independent guidance.

It is important for school practitioners and agents to consider if an agent has the knowledge, skills and qualifications or cultural and intellectual capital to deliver an activity or service. This could relate to aspects such as PSHE for which agents are invited to be involved. If an agent makes themselves available and does not charge, they will negate some of the issues that face schools in finding external agents, but the appropriateness and subsequent quality of the delivery needs to be considered which supports research by Formby et al. (2011). There are tensions between teachers and external agents in terms of what can be delivered and at what cost which can impact on agent involvement and the sustainability of this. Both teachers and external agents, therefore, need to identify clear expectations in terms of delivery. There is also a danger that the message delivered by the agent whether for careers, PSHE or other focus, may be based upon assumptions inherent within a deficit model, for example, where the activity is delivered in a compulsory manner without including the young person in the design. The concept of indoctrination is important for agents to consider. In addition to wider curriculum aspects such as careers or PSHE, there is an indication that agents are responding to social issues such as shifts in parental responsibility. There is also the case that some agents or their organisations make the decision that they want to be involved in schools. In this event it is important that the agent is clear on the rationales which underpin their desire for involvement. The suggestions that young people lack aspirations might not necessarily be accurate and created on a deficit model.

The message for politicians, schools and external agents is that despite the shifts in educational policies, initiatives and Acts, together with associated thinking such as the move away from the extended school and Every Child Matters agenda, the agents remain in schools. What is different beyond this is the domains or issues (e.g. learning or health) or the target audience (e.g. pupil or family). This highlighted the reduction in focus on the activities of an extended school. The implication for parents and community members is that there is a reduction in activities and services available through schools. There is a reduction of the involvement of external agents in wider aspects such as extra-curricular activities which supports the research by Diss and Jarvie (2016). The increase in teacher involvement in extra-curricular activities has created more pressures on teachers. To try and alleviate teachers' high workloads, Ainslie et al. (2010) suggest that agents can be involved to deal with complex needs through targeted services. For instance, some schools commissioned specialists using their pupil premium funding for this purpose (e.g. Connected Counselling). For agents who did not charge but assisted with complex needs, there was no indication that schools believed these were specialists. There was a sense that schools were more interested in the agent's ability to offer a free activity which suggested a material incentive in terms of the form of agent involvement. For agents such as Sparks, the delivery of an activity on an individual basis was not achievable due to costs. As a result, they offered the activity to groups. The pupil premium could be used for these activities but the agent did not charge so it sat outside of the commissioned activities. Despite this Sparks are still meeting the need for specialists to deliver wellbeing activities but through different means. There is a recognition that wellbeing activities are expensive which supports research by Higgins et al (2013). Finance therefore inhibits the ability for schools to select from the full market of agents that are available. Despite the removal of wellbeing from Ofsted inspection regimes, there are still issues such as wellbeing which require a response from schools or external agents. The problem is the lack of funding to commission these activities and services.

The implications for politicians, school practitioners, agents, pupils and parents are as follows:

External agents

- To recognise that there are still invitationsto be involved in schools.
- Policies and funding constraints impact on the type of agents invited to be involved in schools and what they are expected to deliver.

Schools and teachers

- Schools need to recognise that agents want to be involved.
- To recognise the increased workload created for teachers if external agents are no longer involved in extra-curricular activities.

Pupils

- The agent is not always the right person to deliver the activity, so whilst policies encourage them, the lack of funding and constraints means that it can become a tick-box exercise. There could be a lack of quality in what is delivered or incorrect information or advice which could be harmful to the young person.
- The activity can be created within a deficit model, which takes place without a discussion with the pupil.
- Pupils may not be getting all the information that is available to them (e.g. for careers) as it is being restricted by schools. This suggests a lack of social justice.
- There is still a wellbeing need, but reduced recognition of the importance and funding constraints means there is a potential for low quality activities in this area.

For parents or communities

- The range of activities and services offered through schools via the extended school or Every Child Matters agenda will no longer be available.

Competing ideologies, rationales and complexity

It is important for school practitioners and agents to be encouraged to be reflective as ideas and beliefs which underpin invitations to be involved in schools may not be independent and could impact on their involvement. The implication for agents who wish to respond to post-16 policies (e.g. apprenticeships), is to recognise that policies such as academies with sixth forms and the raising of the participation age may be competing with the standards agenda and restricting agent access to schools. As a result, there are policies which are competing and impacting on the information available for the pupils and restricting agent access. Agents may need, therefore, to navigate this ‘messiness’ to access the *microsystem* to plug this information gap. There will be staff members in some schools who also believe that plugging this information gap is the “right thing to do” and are themselves trying to navigate these competing policies to bring the agents into schools. Agents need to recognise that these staff members are working within multi-level competing rationales and ideologies, including their own beliefs together with *microsystem* and *macrosystem* pressures. This can lead to school control of the agent access, the message they are allowed to distribute and also their behaviour. The school or the microsystem is a space where power is not necessarily equal which supports research by Taylor (2007). There is the possibility that the agent could be used as the state’s tools which corroborates research by Vallender (2006).

For policymakers, the implications are that they need to recognise that if external agents are responding to invitations to be involved in the schools, then access to schools should be facilitated. It needs to be recognised that it is not an easy task for an agent to access a school in the *microsystem*. The school has taken on the role of mediator of access. The involvement of agents in schools is complex and access is not straightforward. Despite policies encouraging external agent involvement there is a lack of buy in at the school level and the agents are having to fit in or negotiate with schools to gain access which may be restricted at the school level. The school appears to have taken on this mediating role on behalf of the state. It is important to

consider if the pupil is able to choose for themselves and whose interests are being served (Morrison, 1995; Habermas, 1972).

For researchers interested to explore the agents working in schools, the findings have highlighted the range of agents involved in the case study schools. It is important therefore not to focus on an initiative, Act, policy or type of external agent. It is essential to take a broad approach. It has suggested that a range of data sources are required to identify the external agents that are working in schools. It is important to find the right person(s) as not all staff members have a wide knowledge of external agents. As with the external agents this can mean that access to the *microsystem* can be restricted. This is important as the knowledge of external agent involvement was distributed amongst staff which could impact on access. The agents within the schools are not as firmly embedded which challenges the research by Huddleston and Laczik (2012). It is transient and depending on recommissioning, available capital, type of activity etc.

The findings from this study highlight the way in which these agents make the point that what they do is different to schools which indicates a range of definitions for the meaning of education which agrees with D. Matheson (2008). The activities of these agents are formulated on a plan which is drawn up by someone else and does not appear focused on the needs of the child. It is important for the agents to consider if the pupils are able to choose for themselves and whose interests are being served. If agents willingly respond to *microsystem* requests they may operate within a deficit model if it was not discussed with the pupils which supports research by Dyson et al. (2002). This is also relevant where agents receive external funding to be involved in schools; it is important to be mindful of whose interests the activity or service is intended to serve. Agents are still seen to supplement or complement the work of schools. Despite the belief by some external agents that their activities are different to the traditional work of schools, some school practitioners do not believe that the activities can be a wholesale replacement. The agents are, therefore, believed to be

in schools to complement or supplement what is already taking place not to replace it.

The implications for politicians, school practitioners, agents, pupils and parents are as follows:

External agents

- Competing ideologies and complexities could impact on the form of their involvement in schools. There is a need to navigate these complexities to enter.
- Schools are mediating the access to the schools.
- To consider the other interests at work if they receive external funding.
- Agents are not as embedded in the school system and their involvement is transient which means that there is a lack of sustainability.
- Schools believe that what external agents offer is complementing or supplementing what is already there – not to replace it.

Pupils

- Other people determine the activities and services that will be delivered.

For government

- If external agents are to respond to policies they need support to enable them to gain access to schools.

For agents and researchers

- To recognise that if they wish to work in schools that due to the competing policies and capitals that they might have to negotiate access to enter schools. They could use strategies to try to fit in such as linking to the national curriculum or try to find the right person, but access could be controlled.

Competing capitals

It is important for agents and researchers who are interested in working with schools to appreciate that there are different capitals and policy pressures (e.g. finance, delivery burden, community breakdown) which could impact on the involvement of external agents in schools. This may drive the focus for agent involvement and one capital over another. In this study some teachers valued the agent's cultural capital, but there was also interest in the agent's economic capital in terms of a free activity. Other staff members were attracted to the offer of economic capital in the terms of physical money. However, some schools would not take a free activity, as they were perceived to be interested in academic activities. The implications for agents and researchers is to appreciate the complexity in the perceived importance of capitals. These could be different at school level or teacher level which they would have to navigate and could therefore, impact on their involvement.

Agents may use their capitals to attempt to gain access, such as social capital through a contact or the offer of economic capital. However, agents need to recognise that whilst these capitals may assist their entry into the microsystem into some schools, the involvement will be a continual review process as the agents do not appear to become a permanent feature of the microsystem. There is a lack of sustainability for certain forms of involvement (e.g. *reactive*) while other forms no longer appear to exist (e.g. *interactive*). There was no indication that schools were interested in working with agents to improve practice which challenges the research by Hadfield et al. (2005a).

The other point for agents and schools to consider is the perception that external agents are invited into schools because it is believed that they have the capacity or resource which schools do not possess. This form of involvement is for a *material incentive*. The financial aspect is more complex than this in terms of the hidden costs. There are hidden costs for the agents, the agent employees, the pupils and the

school. For pupils this could be in the time away from their normal curriculum studies. However, these hidden costs are associated with activities in terms of impact against the standards agenda. This viewpoint does not consider subjective activities where outcomes are harder to measure such as self-esteem which corroborates research by Finch et al. (2011). Nevertheless, such activities could be beneficial for pupils e.g. by creating connections between pupils and external agents. The implications for pupils is that social capital is both a means and an end which supports research by Baron et al. (2000). Some agents and schools used social capital to bring agents into schools, whilst others were interested in the development of social capital through connecting pupils with employers. However, some teachers did not believe that an agent could develop a strong relationship with a pupil in comparison to a teacher. For those teachers who did recognise the value of connecting pupils to agents, there was an indication of a deficit model in terms of post-16 destinations.

It does appear that for some agents their involvement is about direct income generating activity which supports research by Ball (1997). There were agents interested in the marketing aspect of their involvement both in terms of them securing extra business but also for the school's benefit in terms of competition between schools which agrees with the suggestion by the DCSF (2009a). Staff in the schools indicated that they did not have funding to commission agents and that they were looking for a free activity. For agents the implication is that it is not just about a free activity. Instead, the school must navigate competing pressures, against which individual practitioners will decide if an agent can enter a school. There was still an indication that some activities were about the development of human capital or the standards agenda. An example was the suggestion that it was important to create a good school (Glenn, Together Housing) or wellbeing activities (Sparks at Sunnyside) targeted at young people in an attempt to improve their progress.

The implications for politicians, school practitioners, agents, pupils and parents are as follows:

- For agents and researchers, it is important to recognise the complexity in the desire to accumulate or mobilise the different capitals such as human capital or social capital. These could reside at the teacher or school level, which the agent would have to navigate.

For agents:

- To recognise that although some schools might just be interested in a free activity, other schools need to navigate competing pressures, which could prevent their access to schools due to the focus on developing a range of capitals.
- For all parties there are hidden costs associated with the involvement of external agents but these are related to the standards agenda. What needs to be recognised is the value that agents can add to subjective wellbeing outcomes.
- The rationales for involvement of agents within a marketplace could be about efficiency, but equally could be about human capital.
- The agents who access schools could be those who have economic capital to pay to enter schools or those who are deemed to contribute to the standards agenda.

For pupils:

- The hidden costs are related to the missed hours towards qualifications which relates to the standards agenda. This may impact on the activities available to pupils, as those with subjective outcomes might not be available.
- Social capital can be used to introduce pupils to employers, but teachers and agents must be wary about making conclusions about destinations for them.

5.5 Reflective statement

The aim of this reflective statement is to aid transparency and consider the interests, beliefs or assumptions which could have influenced this research (Morrison 1995; Silverman, 2000). It is also an opportunity to reflect of the process of undertaking this doctorate, what has been learned and if any changes would be made if the process was to be repeated. It is also a space to consider what was achieved and not achieved as originally intended.

In terms of the beliefs and assumptions, the professional context (see Chapter 1) highlighted the personal interest in the subject matter of this thesis. The involvement in the commissioning of external agents across 15 schools and then working as an external agent in schools, did create a motivation for this study. The breadth of the extended school agenda, including the local authority management and support for schools, created an infrastructure of knowledge which brought external agents into schools. This background created assumptions about the involvement of external agents in schools. It was recognised that this could affect the impartiality when undertaking this study. The interview schedule (Appendix 11) was used to aid standardisation. There was a danger that the prior knowledge of external agents in schools, could be used to lead the interviewees. Despite the background what was not foreseen was the discovery of aspects such as the disconnection in the data between some agent's perceptions of their work and the low profile in the school perceptions. In addition, was the control that some schools placed on the access, message and behaviour of some external agents. These aspects were not expected and were uncomfortable to hear.

What was learned through the literature review was the continual invitations for the involvement of external agents in schools, which was evidence in policies, Acts and

initiatives back to the early 1900s. The extended school agenda was the starting point and despite the discovery of the extent of the history of the invitations it was hard to move away from this starting point. However, new thinking emerged as it was realised that external agents were involved in schools before state education and since then have been continually invited. The original literature review was written in 2013 and since this time currency has been maintained regarding further invitations for external agents to be involved in schools. Following the inclusion of the new literature and the undertaking of the findings and analysis; the extended school agenda stepped back in prominence and joined the plethora of other initiatives, Acts and policies. The original review did not focus on one agent type as it wanted to take a broad focus. The trends from the findings (e.g. employers) meant it was important to cover some of these aspects. A balance had to be struck between the findings which focused on agents such as employers and the inclusion of new literature.

What was learned was the difficulties in undertaking research with schools in terms of negotiating access. This included the range of planned and unplanned events that made working with schools difficult. It was agreed with schools the approach to collecting the data with the participants. The plan is to publish an academic research article about the methodology of working with schools and negotiating access.

No assumptions were held in terms of the type of agent that was to be involved in the research and a total of 44 were invited, from those which were uncovered in the data at the time. The agents were purposely selected across the range of data sources to select different types of agents including those which were not as prominent.

A research diary was used throughout the completion of the thesis. The aim was to support a reflexive stance and to provide a 'natural history' of the research study

(Silverman 2000). The diaries recorded reading of the literature, interpretations and thoughts. They also recorded the approach to data collection, sample details, difficulties during the data collection, together with analysis notes including coding and reflections. What was learned was that the diary was useful to return to the thoughts, interpretations and notes on the literature throughout the process. It was particularly useful during the findings and analysis during the back and forth between the data, research questions and underpinning literature; as the units of analysis and themes emerged (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). The diaries were used to review the pertinent literature that was included and the thoughts and interpretations made this an easier process.

The researcher created a proforma to be completed by schools which recorded the external agent involvement. The messiness in the knowledge of external agent involvement between staff members was not anticipated. To counteract this messiness the school staff interviews were supplemented with documentary analysis. A further planned change was to include additional staff members, but those at Compton declined. The extra staff members included at Meadows did not prove fruitful. It was clear it was important to get to that right person, but access to staff was not always easy with planned and unplanned events. The inclusion of documentary analysis still only produced a 'snapshot' of agent involvement, which demonstrated the difficulty in answering the research question, despite attempted changes. A further change that was made during the data collection was the reduction of conversational fillers during the interviews. Following the first school's interviews it was apparent that these fillers were regularly used and an effort was made to change this in the subsequent interviews.

In terms of aspects that would be changed if this process was repeated, then this would include the transcribing of each interview during the data collection process, as opposed to collectively at the end. The reason for this is that it is quite time consuming and tiring and if completed individually it would be less arduous. The

initial approach to coding the first school was a manual process with A3 sheets of paper, prior to the use of NVivo which was cumbersome. For the subsequent schools, NVivo was used earlier as opposed to the manual coding.

What has been learned that was not originally intended was the time, commitment and dedication that it takes to complete a doctorate and the support that was needed from one's family during the process. It is a difficult task in addition to one's other commitments such as home life, work and ageing parents. It is important to have good time management and to break the thesis process down into manageable chunks. This decreased how daunting it felt. Once one enters the stage where one is working on multiple chapters a large screen, comfortable chair and lots of coffee are important. It was anticipated that the word count would be exceeded during the writing up phase and at some timepoints the thesis was twice the size that it should have been. The danger in the inclusion of the extra words is the time and effort it takes to discard this hard work. It was easy to underestimate the amount of strength it takes to remain focused for a huge amount of time as one continually edits. It is an incredibly tiring process and it became important to move away from the computer screen and go for a walk. The breathing space was useful to consider what was known that was not known before, which formed part of the continual reflective process.

5.6 Conclusion

The thesis has explored the external agents that worked in the four case study schools and the rationales for their involvement. The literature review has acknowledged the raft of government policies, Acts and initiatives, dating back a hundred years, which have encouraged this involvement. This literature has tended to look at agent involvement through a focus such as agent type (e.g. employers) or initiative (e.g. extended schools). The broad approach has uncovered the vast range of external agents who are involved in the case study schools. The messiness in terms of external agent knowledge amongst staff resulted in just a 'snapshot' of the agent involvement. The multi-level complexity of reasons the agents were involved

in the schools, including multiple activities, made the identification of rationales difficult.

Several of the agent research participants can be linked to policies which encouraged a specific type of agent or initiative such as Uniformed Service and a military ethos. This could be linked to New Right's neoconservative ideologies which Heywood (2007) suggests aim to restore discipline and authority, through a reduced state and control through the return to family hierarchical values together with national identity, law and order. Whilst other agents (e.g. Young Theatre, Rare Disease) linked their own work into these *macrosystem* ideologies (e.g. PSHE) to attempt to gain access to the *microsystem*. The trend in the high quantity of employers and providers involved for careers provision located in the findings, could be linked to the transfer of careers duty to schools in 2012. The involvement of external agents in schools for such aspects could signify neoliberal market based ideologies which believe that private businesses can improve delivery, but there are questions over quality. These agents highlighted the competing *macrosystem* policies that were being used by schools to constrict their access. There was also an indication of a personal level ideology for several of the agents e.g. Sparks, Uniformed Service, Building Maintenance and school staff (e.g. Linda, Sian, Ashley). These different levels of rationales could therefore impact on provision in both a positive or negative way.

The three agents involved in the schools in response to school requests, all had their own agent rationales and made links to *macrosystem* rationales in terms of their involvement. Where other agents were involved in the schools for rationales which emanated beyond the *microsystem*, they were asked by schools to deliver activities. There was evidence that the agents were being asked by schools to deliver activities to respond to funding gaps or constricted budgets. An agent who would offer a free activity or come with funding to deliver a specific activity could appeal to some schools, regardless of the level of cultural capital. It appeared that the activity was

more important to some schools than the agent. The only agents that were not asked by schools for activities were those who had acquired funding or fundraising to enter schools. The other agents were responding to school requests; some were adapting their provision and trying to fit in with schools to negotiate access. This created tensions between some agents and schools in terms of the expectations placed on agents by schools for free activities.

There is a messiness to the identification of agents and a complexity to the rationales. This made answering the research questions difficult. What is clear is that there continues to be a range of external agents involved in the case study schools. Whilst this can be linked to some policies, a range of multi-level rationales exist which makes the agent involvement complex. Agents are being asked to respond to gaps in provision and deliver free activities for individual pupils, which are classed as expensive. The prevalence of individual pupil support activities appears to have diminished and this is an area that would benefit from further research. In addition, further research around the facilitation of agent access is recommended to identify a process through which to audit external agent involvement in schools. This could assist schools to raise awareness of the agents that are working in a school. The pro-forma that was used in this research project was insufficient and was supplemented with primary data collection through interviews and secondary data collection of documents. Research would be useful to formulate a method that could be used by schools to audit external agent involvement.

A further research aspect is related to the designated point of access for external agents and how to this could be available in each school. The data collection process and the findings highlighted that schools receive a high number of external agent contacts which makes access difficult. The agents struggle to find the correct contact in a school and maintain contact. Research could be undertaken to identify a process to assist external agents with this issue. There is also a plan is to publish a peer-

reviewed academic research article about the methodology of working with schools and negotiating access. This is following the difficulties experienced in undertaking research with schools and negotiating access. The range of planned and unplanned events made working with schools difficult. It was agreed with schools the approach to collecting the data with the participants and formed part of the negotiations for access.

It would be useful to compare the findings with cases of an international nature to explore if external agents are involved in schools in other countries and the rationales for their involvement. In terms of research participants there was an attempt to include the voice of pupils but this was not successful. A plan is to undertake further research and to include pupils and parents. The literature has highlighted that external agents have been involved in schools for over a hundred years. The plan is to publish an article in a peer-reviewed journal that chronicles this history, including the policies and social issues that lead to these invitations at different timepoints and the types of agents that were involved.

The decision was taken to identify all agents working in schools and not focus on one type of agent. The result of the shift in responsibility for careers is a spike of involvement of employers in schools. Whilst the history of employers has been chronicled as existing for many years; the agent involvement is much more transient than it appears. Further research could focus on an agent who is a focus of government policies at this present time such as employers. The research did not include external agents that are involved in the management of schools or the *transformative* form of involvement. A plan is to undertake further research with agents involved in the management of schools to explore their rationales.

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Appendix 1: Literature Review

Introduction

Across England a range of institutions, organisations and groups offer formal and informal learning opportunities to children and young people. Most apparent are the public and private education institutions or schools, that provide the compulsory period of formal education for children from the ages of 5 to 16 (Mulgan 2000; West-Burnham et al. 2007; Jeffs & Smith 2011). It is argued that this education provision is supplemented by learning opportunities facilitated by a range of actors and various commentators have encouraged the proliferation of such supplementary learning in the belief that it is beneficial and complementary to compulsory education. Value has been attributed to the involvement of parents, the media, the community, the internet, clubs, youth organisations, specialist informal educators, social care, the police and the voluntary and community sector, in the learning and wellbeing of children and young people (Mulgan 2000; West-Burnham et al. 2007; Jeffs & Smith 2011). Historical overlaps are identifiable where informal educators have operated within formal educational settings (e.g. schools and colleges) (West-Burnham et al. 2007), in an era where schools have taken the solitary responsibility for the provision of education (West-Burnham et al. 2007). These inclusion of other individuals within schools is described as a ‘phenomenon’ (Smith 2009a) perhaps due to the schools being depicted as closed institutions or silos (West-Burnham et al. 2007). This movement is attributed to various educational reforms and policies (Lawton, 1989; Batteson, 1999) where commentators signal the 1944 and 1988 Education Reform Act as significant points for educational reform (Lawton 1989; Batteson 1999). However other policies are prominent, as many postulate the involvement of agencies within the learning and wellbeing of young people (Ministry of Education, 1948, 1963) within an education system shaped and re-shaped by a raft of Acts and policies (Jones, 2003) with many dating back over a hundred years, which will be explored within this review.

A collection of alternative terms exist to describe the supplementary learning which includes ‘informal education’, ‘extra-curricular activities’, ‘the field of activities, or ‘out of school activities’ (Gillard 2011; Pendry, 1927; Smith, 2009a) which implies a different educational activity type to formal learning. Furthermore a range of terms exist to describe these actors including ‘external agencies’, ‘providers’ and ‘external visitors’ (Ainslie et al. 2010; Hadfield, et al. 2005a; Stead et al. 2010). Recent publications portray them as specialists (e.g. social workers, health professionals or after school club providers) (Smith, 2002) although the inclusion of agents within extra-curricular activities was linked to Victorian public schools (Ainslie et al.2010; Harris & Allen 2011). The value resides within the response to complex needs through individualised support packages (Ainslie et al.2010; Harris & Allen 2011) and for relationships with schools described as ‘multi-agency’ or ‘collaborative working’ (Gillard, 1995). Appendix (1.1-1.3) depicts the terms of reference for these individuals who are involved in both primary and secondary education and this has been updated throughout this literature review. These indicate the breadth of terms within the literature that pertain to these agents who are involved in learning and wellbeing of children and young people, which can make searching and comparison difficult. It portrays popularity and widening of this ‘phenomenon’ (Smith 2009a).

It will be important to determine these terms throughout this review and uncover relevant literature to investigate the occurrence of other actors in relation to the learning and wellbeing of children and young people.

This review of the literature, including relevant educational policy, will examine the concept of agencies working in schools to define the core terms and understand the relevance to education. The initial approach to the literature to develop these key terms is included (Appendix 1.4) and the main reports within relevance to this review are detailed (Appendix 1.5). The reasons for involvement of agencies in formal education will be investigated. The target audience for the agencies' involvement will be examined, as will the question of their responsibility regarding the learning and wellbeing of children and young people. This will be followed by a discussion of what these agencies are expected to deliver, in and around schools. Then will follow an outline of the benefits and outcomes of the involvement of agencies. Finally, a conclusion will show the gap in the evidence base around the issues that the future research intends to explore, identify the research questions and provide a brief outline of how these issues will be investigated.

Background to the involvement of agents

A rich history of other agents within in the learning and wellbeing of children and young people exists, and evidence that they have continually been invited and the desire for this activity and involvement of agents, can be traced to pre-state education (Gillard 1995) (Appendix 1.6). Philanthropists and those from religious groups and industry were behind the creation of the first schools including Sunday, industrial, elementary, public, grammar, and voluntary (Jones, 1983, 2003; Morrish, 1970). The 1870 Education Act had initiated the process for state funded elementary schools to cater for working class children up to the age of 14, with instruction focused on the three Rs of reading, writing and arithmetic; although the other school types remained (Gillard, 2011). In 1909 various agencies were involved in the delivery of evening 'continuation classes' on day or voluntary church school premises, aimed at those whose age or local by-laws had resulted in exemption. This movement is traced to the 1700s where these continuation schools and classes grew without state funding, co-ordination or regulation. In their supplementary role to the day schools, agencies had relevance to the informal education depicted above. In 1909 the Sunday schools from the 1700s were the foundation of agencies offering learning or supervision to the vast quantity of children exempt from day schools. State involvement had risen during the 50 years prior to 1909 and the case was made to further increase this provision (Morrish, 1970). This was to mediate the interests of those involved from religion, philanthropy, industry and finance, whose involvement in education evoked the interest of politicians and social reformers (Morrish 1970).

The value of these supplementary learning opportunities appeared to reside within the contrast to normal school activities and the relevance to the child. Early 19th Century pioneers including Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth recognised the need for the

inclusion of ‘practical activities’ within the elementary school such as gardening, sewing and baking in addition to the three R’s however the minimal impact of ‘practical work’ within the main elementary education system was limited, due to the realisation of cost implications (Gillard, 2006). This practical learning, is often linked to progressivism or ‘progressive education’ where commentators signal the Plowden report (CACE, 1967) and Hadow report (Board of Education, 1926) as prominent, although their success was limited (Gillard, 1995). Progressivism can be traced to Rousseau’s 18th Century work, which indicates a historical propensity for activity in addition to traditional subjects and described as an alternative to utilitarianism, where education would aim to service society’s business and industrial needs (Gillard 1995). This implies historic proponents for different learning activities, which appear to have value to the individual, although the cost implication and irrelevance to business and industrial needs are challenges.

The recognised value for this alternative activity type and associated costs, is perhaps why these activities have remained on a supplementary or extra-curricular basis. A 1909 government report warned of the educational neglect within the elementary school system, that caused the underdevelopment of character in young people which resulted in idleness that cultivated adolescent criminal tendencies (Board of Education, 1909). The advocated solution resided within the participation in supplementary activities to the school’s main business, which included physical training, drama, athletics, debating societies, boys and girls clubs, to be provided by educational agencies including recreation agencies, voluntary organisations including Workers Educational Associations, Women’s Institute, Boys Brigade, Scouts (Burt, 1925; Board of Education 1909, 1926; Ministry of Education, 1947). This advocates an opportunity for supplementary activities to take place within schools to be delivered by other agents.

Political ideologies have attempted to improve collaboration between schools and other agents. A 2007 review proposed a hypothesis for the engagement of agencies from law, health and social care within primary schools from the 1960s; which portrayed children as in need of services, underpinned by popular political ideologies, regarding how society should work and potential solutions, which included agency involvement (Heywood, 2007). However these ideologies are often presented to the poor as intended for their progress, although they are often about their conservation (Heywood 2007), which may imply the engagement was not altruistic. The children and families identified in the 1960s in need of activity or intervention were portrayed as the ‘insufficient child or family’ in respect of the uncontested ideal family (e.g. white, middle class, without special issues) and this description has shifted depending on the political ideology (Barron et al. 2007: 1-3) (Appendix 1.7), although agencies were still included. What needs to be investigated is the role that external agencies played in the supplementation of the education offered by the school and home to children (Ministry of Education, 1948), in response to the invitations within these policies, although effectiveness has been questioned (Barron, et al. 2007: 1-3). This support from agencies for primary children was traced back to the 1960s (O’Donnell, 1992) but only for agencies with a health, law or social care focus, which suggests further exploration would be of value that includes primary and secondary schools, for agencies broader than health, law and social care.

Rationale for inclusion of agents

The literature review uncovered a range of agents with relevance to learning and wellbeing of children and young people. A sociological viewpoint of society's social system will be utilised, to outline the individuals and groups who have a role and responsibility for the learning and wellbeing of children and young people. Society has an important role in the formation of behaviour or nurturing the individual (Heywood, 2007), however some commentators believe that nature is fixed and unchanged by experiences (O'Donnell, 1992), which may impact upon the available learning opportunities if behaviour changes are unachievable, which will require investigation. Individuals interact and form groups, which then create networks (Otero and West-Burnham, 2004) which hints to the construction of social capital or the connections, networks, trust, engagement, shared values and connectedness. (Otero and West-Burnham, 2004) stated that despite social capital's contentiousness, it has been linked to the learning and wellbeing of children and young people. They discussed the importance of social capital is light of Search Institute research, which believed that society's infrastructure had eroded, due to the decrease in parent's responsibility in children's lives, increase in complex cases referred to professionals and segregation or suspicion between socialisation agents (e.g. school, family, faith groups). Socialisation is a process which shapes human behaviour through engagement in social situations where norms, values and beliefs are transmitted. The family performed the act of socialisation on behalf of society, as the child developed other agencies became involved including schools, media, peers, television and work (Giddens, 1989; O'Donnell, 1992). This proposes different agents with a role and responsibility in the learning and wellbeing of young people. The erosion may indicate reduced involvement of parents in socialisation, which creates a demand for external agents

Durkheim's 'Consensus Structuralism' is useful to unpack the different groups including agencies and their place within the learning process. This is a particular version of functionalism a theoretical approach utilised to study societies in relation to the institutions or components that combine for society's historical continuity (O'Donnell, 1992). Durkheim's society was constructed of child-rearing social institutions or groups which were divided into four sub-systems as detailed in Fig 1 below (O'Donnell, 1992)

Fig 1: Consensus Structuralism (Durkheim 1858-1917) (O'Donnell, 1992)

Group	Examples
Economic	Factories, offices
Political	Political parties
Kinship	Families
Cultural and community organisations	Schools, churches

Within this theory, the individual within society is developed through interactions and experiences within these institutions and groups, for the benefit of the individual and society. The ability to nurture or shape the individual through these interactions

or socialisation appears positive, however unequal power exists to maintain order in the consensual system where values are reproduced to maintain order and culture (O'Donnell, 1992). It will be important to investigate the social system where erosion of these roles is believed to have taken place, for relevant groups with regard children and young people's learning and wellbeing. The groups within Fig 1 were adapted following the range located within this literature review (Appendix 1.8) from which the pupil, parents and schools were selected for their role and responsibility regarding the learning and wellbeing and children and young people, which will be explored.

Karl Marx (1818-1883) provided an opposing view of society's structure entitled Conflict Structuralism, formed of classes in relation to the Capitalist system of production, where a land or factory owner, resided within the powerful class (middle) and those who sold their labour within the least powerful (working) (O'Donnell, 1992). This alternative societal view is important for it cross-cuts the group society formation. Parkin (1972) (in O'Donnell, 1992) defined the dominant society institutions as operating with a conservative nature, which aimed to transmit middle class values. However other agents including the workplace or communities would transmit class related values thereby potentially shielding the influence of middle class, which are believed to be a desired intention of the process to maintain order and control. For Bourdieu this is an inevitable outcome of class reproduction, which retains their lower system position (Cooley, 1909; O'Donnell, 1992). This highlights that although groups and institutions are important to society, issues regarding class cut across this and may influence or impact upon the work of agents or groups.

Role and responsibility of agents in relation to children and young people's learning and wellbeing

Pupil: Societal role

The child has an important role to play within their own learning and wellbeing; however, education may pre-determine their future societal role. During the pre-school phase the child is important to socialisation, where family interactions assists their moral and cultural development through the transmission of values, expectations and discipline (QCA, 1998). Young people are expected to participate in active citizenship, by demonstrating moral and social responsibilities including voluntary work and electoral voting (Mayall, 2007) and in balance commentators recognise the child's right to be treated as a citizen (Livesey and Lawson, 2011). Failed education attempts between the 1870 Forster Act and the 1944 Education Act aimed to pre-define their societal role, aligned to the recognition of industrialisation demands (e.g. machine operators), together with a political role which required them to be socialised for the discipline of such factory work (Livesey & Lawson 2011). This suggests that although the child or young person is influential to socialisation, their ultimate societal role may be predetermined by their economic value within employment which directs their education provision.

Despite this propensity for role allocation, the recognition of individual needs is apparent through the desire to appeal to the whole child's needs and interests. Labelled as 'progressive education' this movement developed on the periphery of the education system from the early 1900s (Jones, 1983) and aimed for satisfaction through the 'contentment of needs', however, the economic value towards national efficiency remained (Giddens, 1989). This indicates a tension between the fulfilment of individual needs as opposed to national efficiency.

Pupil: Impact on the pupil role: trends and social issues

Trends underpinned by economic influences (production), cultural factors (consciousness, thoughts, communication systems and religion), and political organisation (political agencies and military (Haralambos et al.1984) have created spaces where agents became involved in learning and wellbeing of young people, although an element of social control existed. Social control is about the conformation to norms and values enforced by the family (Heywood, 2007) and important for the child's socialisation. However, it appears that other agents are involved in this socialisation and social control process. The involvement of agents is traced back to the industrial capitalist system in the 1800s which created a new class of workers and sold their labour (Heywood 2007). Victorian children entered the factories and industries workforce from the age of five, (Heywood, 2007), where the lack of working regulations underpinned by free market classical liberalism, resulted in the spread of poverty and degradation (Heywood, 2007). Socialists including Robert Owen became morally incentivised and aimed to support the capitalist system 'losers', through a belief in collectivism, community, interaction and group memberships (Morrish, 1970). Owen was a pioneer involved in education prior to state involvement with others from industry, religion and philanthropists, however not all were altruistic, as some aimed to control the peasantry's social level, through selective knowledge (Sadler, 1907; Morrish, 1970). Despite the pioneers' voluntary efforts, their progress was limited and state assistance taken towards mass education with grants from 1833 (Sadler 1907; Morrish 1970). Factory Acts aimed to limit child labour, however elementary schools were not a popular alternative as they were not compulsory or free, and contained an element of social control through moral instruction, repressive discipline and nationalist ritual to control behaviour through education (Gillard, 2011; Jones, 1983; ; Morrish, 1970; Payne, 1927). In 1909 (Board of Education, 1943) the aim was to reduce the quantity of employed children and increase the school leaving age, for education or control against economic value (Burt, 1925). This was important for the time that young people spent at, increased the influence on mind and character (Morrish, 1970; Heywood, 2007). The state involvement could be to negatively assert control or perceived as a positive mediator between the competing interests of philanthropists and those from religion and industry (Heywood 2007; Morrish 1970).

Child labour reductions and social changes meant that young people in the mid-1900s had more leisure hours than their predecessors, which resulted in negative discussions of their supervision (Giddens, 1989). Urbanisation meant that individuals relocated from rural areas to new urban towns and cities (Mulgan, 2000; Michigan, 2013). This instigated a collapse within the traditional close knit, rural family structure and values (Mulgan 2000; Michigan 2013). The repressive social

control and political order achieved through elementary education or family and community social pressure was now ineffective (Burt, 1925). Burt (1925) perceived these empty hours to be filled with flawed activities, particularly for those within the new city slums, who were attracted by the new town life environment of betting, gambling, stealing, learning their skills from observing pickpockets or visiting the cinema (early 1900s onwards). These geographical spaces correlated to juvenile crime in Burt's mapping and he demanded improved forms of leisure (Burt 1925). From early 1900s concerns pertained to 'the adolescent' and the need for discipline, particularly in the gap between school and work (Ministry of Education, 1948). By 1948 their complex nature demanded further educational opportunities, training, discipline, work or recreational activities (Ministry of Education, 1948). At 12 upon departure from the elementary school, a period devoid of socialisation agents was depicted; where attractions included the 'evils of idleness' and 'loafing' that bred criminal tendencies and resulted with incarnation at a Borstal, for boys from 1902 (Roberts, 2004).

The population increase of young people and the above mentioned negative view formed an issued for action. In 1911 over 30% of the population were between 0-14 years (Dyson et al.2002), which implies a demand for socialisation and supervision. In the reports from 1909 to 1959 numerous negative comments about young people indicate a *deficit* approach; where assumptions are made by professionals to determine needs and appropriate solutions (e.g. activities) as opposed to dialogue with the intended participants (Dyson et al.2002). Young people were described as maladjusted and lacking in development, fitness, ability, purpose, supervision, discipline, control, exercise, character formation and education (insufficient). Chosen activities were perceived as defective and individuals regarded as lazy, which resulted in delinquency (Halsey and White, 2007). These descriptions parallel to recent rhetoric regarding negative perceptions of young people and over estimations of youth crime (Halsey & White 2007). Certain wars were an impetus for this thinking, with illiteracy being discovered in a quarter of the 16 and 17 year old World War II conscripts together with a lack of fitness for the Boer War and issues within certain departments (manufacturing, agriculture, commerce) of World War II, which further training could have rectified (Board of Education, 1943; Great Britain Parliament, 1944; Roberts, 2004). During World War I anxiety had increased regarding young people's behaviour and following World War II , education was to be provided for all, regardless of background (Great Britain Parliament, 1944; Board of Education 1943; Roberts 2004). By 1959 the uncontrolled infants from World War II, were troublesome (Ministry of Education, 1963) suggesting a continual need to respond to these social issues. By the 1960s (The National Archives, 2013b) new thinking was demanded for young people of average or below average ability, and although extra-curricular activities had aimed to control their potential was to be developed, which will be discussed below.

Pupil role: solutions, barriers and opportunities for other agents

The political and community agencies appeared to be interested in influencing social change to respond to these issues. Within the Victorian era unemployment and poverty were correlated with idleness, so welfare was directed to charitable and philanthropic organisations (Heywood, 2007). However, the spread of slums,

disease and ignorance fuelled a shift to modern liberalism at the end of 19th Century where the state chose to become involved in personal development through economic or social interventions, (O'Donnell, 1992). The solution was two-fold; to become involved in social life and to politically integrate the working class, particularly the youth who were seen as hostile towards what the conservative school system had offered (O'Donnell 1992), which had appeared irrelevant to their perceived culture (Heywood, 2007). This state involvement has been described as social engineering, a feature of social democracy which took place after World War II (Whitty, 2000) and included primary, secondary and further education, introduced following the 1944 Education Act (Gillard, 2006).

The individual and agencies were important within the new social patterns which demanded different behaviours if society was to respond to the social issues caused by industrialisation (Gillard 2006). Self-education and self-direction was a solution, linked to the Victorian concept of self-help (Smith, 2009b). Samuel Smiles' book entitled *Self-Help* published in the late 1800s identified the need for working class values of character development, perseverance and individuality; for those who aimed to improve themselves during the second half of the 19th century (Heywood, 2007). The self-help ethic is heightened during periods of reduced state welfare, where the responsibility is shifted from the state to the individual (Heywood, 2007). Formed post 1945, the welfare state aimed to assist the social system with a *cradle to the grave* ethos (Heywood 2007) to develop the quality of human capital selection from those on benefits, through health and unemployment improvements (Shaw and Martin, 2000). Voluntary work and self-help aimed to reduce the state burden and minimise dependency (Heywood, 2007), which underpinned the 1980's Conservative reforms and the 2010 Coalition with neoliberal ideals and Victorian values (Shaw and Martin, 2000). Here 'citizenship' was the new social service (Exley and Ball, 2011) together with social enterprise and markets, which shifted the responsibility from the state to other actors (Deakin Crick et al.2004). Self-help for control, discipline and behaviour are apparent in the references to character formation for a person's development and to benefit society, through the development of virtues, values, behaviour and character (Deakin Crick et al.2004). These are apparent in the reports which discussed agency involvement in schools (O'Donnell, 1992). This suggests that the individual was important to assist themselves through self-help, although the concept is also utilised for their control, insinuating a different purpose for the inclusion of agents within education. However, it has been questioned whether it is the system that is the issue (Pendry, 1927; Gillard, 2006; Shuayb and Donnell, 2008)

Despite the desire to improve or control the individual, potential barriers exist including background, which might impede success. In the work of John Dewey, habits are an indication of character and developed through activities, based on the child's needs and interests through progressive or child-centred education (Shuayb & Donnell 2008; Pendry 1927; Gillard 2006). This implies that aside of the desire for social control through character development, the potential may have existed to develop it through activities based on the needs and interests of the child, utilising a child-centred approach (Gillard, 2006, Payne, 1927). However, achievement will depend on these habits, traits, attitudes and personality. Although various agents (e.g. family, community, agencies, press, theatre, cinema) create educational situations for adaption and adjustment, there are questions over the educational contribution (Thrasher, 1927). These habit and traits are related to background and

developed within the family, which caused behaviour and discipline issues which can impact upon the school's work (Thrasher 1927).

Despite the range of policies and Acts since the early 1900s which have attempted to encourage agencies and school collaborations, many challenges have existed. This has appeared an uphill task against a limited history to collaborations between schools and other agents, which is perhaps why a proliferation of policies and Acts aimed to encourage these relationships. Furthermore circular 1486 was discussed (development of the Youth Service) (Ministry of Education, 1947) which demanded state assistance for voluntary organisations which served the 'out of school interests' of young people, to provide opportunities through mutual tolerance, shared responsibility self-governance and citizenship. However, there is a warning of 'pandering to pupil whims' through activities related to pupil interests and needs. Despite these concerns, the report advocates that young people should lead on activity delivery (Wilson et al, 2004); a concept which was revisited in the New Labour government, in the notion of *study support* (Department for Education and Employment, 1999; Department for Education and Skills, 2005b; O'Connell and Everitt, 2010) and through 'extended services' (DfES, 2005a). This was originally entitled 'extended schools' or 'schools plus'; they aimed to encourage activities including extra-curricular activities or advice services, provided through a *core offer* of services and activities through school sites in partnership with statutory agencies (school nurses, job centre) and the voluntary sector (counselling services, credit unions) which would contribute towards the Every Child Matters agenda (Morrish, 1970). The *core offer* and examples of agencies are included (Appendix 1.9 & 1.10). Existing resources such as school sites were used for economic reasons, as per the youth service introduction, following World War II (Department for Education and Employment, 1999; Department for Education and Skills, 2005b). Pupils were tasked to take ownership and deliver activities (Maddern, 2010), which requires investigation. However the reduction in extended services funding during the 2010 Comprehensive Spending Review signalled provision reduction. Furthermore activities such as extra-curricular activities or study support are costly, despite the attainment impact at GCSE level (Wilson et al. 2004).

The target audience for the activities provided by agencies working with schools has been discussed. In the earlier reports the adolescent was targeted with suitable activities in order to avoid delinquency (Ministry of Education, 1963). However, from the 1960s those young people deemed to have lesser ability, were to be engaged in extra-curricular activities provided by agencies, as they were seen as assets to be developed for their economic value (Ministry of Education, 1963). Solutions include the provision of other activities and services through schools in the reports from 1909 (Ministry of Education, 1947, 1948, 1959, 1963, HMI, 1985; Board of Education, 1909, 1926). This has continued into the 1980s Conservative era with the inclusion of citizenship within the national curriculum and then into New Labour where policies focused on those disadvantaged or socially excluded, an underclass theory linked to poverty, low educational achievement, delinquency and crime (Brannan, et al. 2006;). Policies have encompassed geographically funded projects including aforementioned extended services (Whitty, 2008) and Education Action Zones which funded of under-performing school groups (DCSF, 2009b; Ofsted, 2013b).

Despite the range of initiatives that released funding for individual disadvantaged pupils, the government are keen to have a return on their investment. This is apparent through accountability yielded through inspections, funding transparency and demonstrable results including the pupil premium which allocated funding per-head to pupils on free school meals, which denoted a household income below the poverty threshold (DCSF, 2009b). This suggests the targeting of funding to certain ‘types’ of young people, but resulted in lower levels of nationally allocated funding (Ofsted, 2013b). Schools have freedom on to spend the pupil premium, however many commissioned small group tuition or literacy and numeracy (Ofsted, 2013b). This could imply an opportunity for agencies to deliver this tuition, however many schools chose to employ additional teachers or teaching assistants (Maguire, 2010). The government discussed the inclusion of the 3rd sector within educational provision and the desire for them to use accredited programmes and for the social value to be measured (Higgins et al.2013). This suggests the government are keen for results to be demonstrated, however it is questionable whether the sector has the necessary skills to operate in this business orientated environment

Activities such as extra-curricular activities are deemed less cost effective to other approaches within the evidence based *Teaching and Learning Toolkit*. This is in relation to pupil attainment against qualification results for disadvantaged pupils. The toolkit includes the relevant evidence, cost and average impact, of 33 approaches to improving attainment and it is available on the internet to be used by schools to determine the best approaches to utilisation of resources including the pupil premium, in order to improve attainment (Cooley, 1909; O’Donnell, 1992) . From the 33 given approaches, the top 10 approaches have been mapped in terms of the potential agents (pupil, teacher, other pupils, parents, agencies) that could potentially be involved within each approach. The table below shows the results.

Table 1: Role of agents in learning of young people, based on Sutton Trust-EEF Toolkit

	Agents with potential involvement				
	Pupil	Teacher	Other pupils	Parents	Agents
Top 10 Approaches					
1) Feedback	√	√√			
2) Meta-cognition	√√	√			√
3) Peer tutoring	√√		√		
4) Early Years Involvement	√			√	√√
5) One to one	√	√√			√
6) Homework (secondary)	√	√		√	
7) Collaborative learning	√√	√	√		
8) Mastery learning	√	√√			
9) Phonics		√√			
10) Small group tuition		√√			√

The ticks within the table’s columns represent the agents that are involved within each of the 10 approaches. The two ticks highlight the agent that is the most important from those represented within an approach. It is clear from this mapping, that large role exists for the pupil and teacher within the included approaches, with a reduced role for the other agents. There is a potential for the involvement of agencies within approach number four: early years’ involvement. However, this provision could be an integral part of the school or local authority provision and

therefore not an opportunity for another agent involvement. The role of the agent within meta-cognition is to perform an evaluation of what takes place within the school based project, therefore this is not a normal activity delivery role. The involvement of agencies within one-to-one tuition or small group tuition is questionable, as the school may well employ or use school staff. This could signal a reduced role for agencies within schools, with the top 10 approaches including the teacher and the pupil, as opposed to other agents.

Parents: Societal role

Commentators have divided the socialisation agents into primary which includes the primary for the teaching of values and secondary which includes the school and other formal organisations that offer skills and membership (Mulgan, 2000). O'Donnell (1992) discussed Freud who believed the framework of one's character was developed during time with the primary group, which included values of sharing, justice, loyalty and love. The parent is classed as a co-educator for the recognition that the time a child spends in school is only attributed to 15-20% of their waking hours (O'Donnell, 1992) This indicates an increased role for the parent or other agents. The family are integral to society, to enable culture or the learned behaviours to be transmitted to the next generation. The child's family dependency in the early years assisted the parent's power as the role model for behaviour control. Discipline is important and parents have a pivotal role in forming children's attitudes which will result in good behaviour, achieved through modelling and firm guidance (Ministry of Education, 1948). However any instability, insecurity or home environment troubles will impact on the child's stability (C4EO, 2010) with later interventions being ineffective (O'Donnell, 1992). This highlights the important parent and family primary role for the young person's socialisation and social control, prior to the secondary socialisation agent's involvement (e.g. school or other groups).

Parents: Impact upon the parental role: trends and social issues

Fragmentation within the family and community has impacted upon the parental role in relation to children and young people's learning and wellbeing. Prior to industrialisation the family unit received support from the community and the church in teaching morals and behaviour, for socialisation, childcare and in times of crisis (Haralambos et al.1984). Industrialisation encouraged the growth of the extended family within the working classes (O'Donnell, 1992), however post World War II clearance orders forced the working classes to disperse and relocate to public housing, in tower blocks or estates on town outskirts (HMSO 1959). The inadequate play facilities and community leadership did not improve matters (O'Donnell, 1992) and combined with the increase in post-war home entertainment products (television, music systems) increased leisure time privatisation and reduced community solidarity (O'Donnell 1992). This suggests that the community has been

geographically fragmented and is no longer supporting its members, which implies a role for other agents.

Despite agreement on the parent's role in the socialisation of children and young people, a shift has been recorded within discipline levels. On exit from school at the age of 12 until the age of 18, discipline was minimal and a solution was demanded (Board of Education, 1909). The wars increased the quantity of women in work and by the 1950s women would return to work, following childbirth (Haralambos et al.1984) which reduced the time spent with the child (Haralambos et al.1984). The combination of work and housework duties, saw women being cited as being too tired to look after children (Hicks and Allen, 1999) which could impact on the supervision of children. In 1999 approximately 1 in 6 British families were single parents (O'Donnell, 1992) which may reduce the availability to discipline or influence the child. Childcare was a solution; however the cost and inadequacy, were potentially detrimental to both the parent and child's health (O'Donnell, 1992). Although contested, it has been proposed that the parent's role has become more specialised (Haralambos et al.1984), as many functions are now provided by the state (Thrasher, 1927). Parents were relegated to a lower function with other groups such as clubs believed to have a greater influence (Rodger and Campling, 2000). However the effectiveness of the state's welfare provision in response to social need has been questioned since the 1970s and lead to the redrafting of welfare to includes others such as the voluntary and community sector (The National Archives, 2013a).

An increase in orphans following World War II escalated the quantity of children in local authority care and the death of Denis O'Neill at the hands of his foster carers, resulted in reforms and child protection concerns. The Children and Young Persons Act (1963) extended this to include children who lived with their parents, allowing the authorities to intervene in child neglect cases (Charles and Horwath, 2009). By the 1960s collaboration between agencies including statutory and voluntary sector was demanded, in response to the recognition of child abuse cases. The solutions that resided within these agendas for the parents' role and responsibility in the learning and wellbeing of children and young people will be discussed below.

Parental role: solutions, barriers and opportunities for other agents

In the 1960s a new Social Services Department was created which oversaw mental health, childcare and welfare (Ministry of Education, 1963). Their educational role was questioned, particularly as to whether they should reside within schools (Ministry of Education, 1947) and if schools were taking over the home functions, particularly when such social services are offered, however these were seen to strengthen a family's offer and not to undermine it (Barron, Holmes, Maclure, et al.2007; Charles & Horwath 2009). There have been several child neglect reviews with many citing the review of death of Maria Colwell in 1973, at her stepfather's hands (Laming, 2003). In 2003 a further case, that of Victoria Climbié, lead to the Lord Laming Inquiry (Department for Education and Skills, 2005a) which resulted in the Children Act (Great Britain. Parliament, 2004) and the Every Child Matters agenda, which aimed to improve agency collaborations and support parents to improve children's outcomes (Fuerdi, 2003). However it is argued that this agenda aimed to encourage parents to become teachers (e.g. homework and helping in

school), whilst teachers assumed the parental role (involved in welfare) which shifts the socialisation of children from the community to the school (Giddens, 1989).

Further societal or cultural changes have influenced policy (Heywood, 2007), which have created spaces for other agents. Permissiveness or the lowering of values within the 1960s is believed to have resulted in delinquency, anti-social behaviour and crime. In response the New Right's neoconservative ideologies aimed to restore discipline and authority, through a reduced state and control through the return to family hierarchical values together with national identity, law and order (Shaw and Martin, 2000). This implies the desire to remove state responsibility (Heywood, 2007; The National Archives, 2013b) and transfer this to others. Margaret Thatcher was a proponent of Victorian values which indicates a return to minimal state welfare and increase in charity provision and the transfer to individual responsibility which links to self-help and citizenship (Shaw and Martin, 2000).

As previously discussed social fragmentation implies a lack of support from the community to the parent regarding the child's socialisation. A solution to reconnect the socially excluded, was apparent in New Labour's *Third Way* policies renewal and regeneration policies through collaboration, community involvement and active citizenship (Whitty, 2008). Education Action Zones (EAZ) (Tett, 2005) pre-determined pupils, teachers and parents partnerships (Department for Education and Skills, 2005b, Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2009a), whilst extended services aimed to support parents and the community through parenting courses, family learning, volunteering opportunities or access to support around pupil transition, behaviour or attendance (Department for Education and Skills, 2005b). However, training for parents and the community to fulfil their socialisation role, does indicate social control (O'Donnell, 1992).

Within modern society formal organisations or structures are seen to have incorporated the functions that a family, community or kinship have performed (O'Donnell, 1992). Functionalists such as Talcott Parsons have argued that the family functions have been modified, with schools becoming more involved in socialisation, although it is recognised that families are important for formal and informal socialisation (Dyson et al. 2002). As stated, New Labour's regeneration or renewal initiatives aimed to combat social exclusion and to bolster the support that the parent could offer. However, the indication that families who required support are socially excluded does signify a deficit approach (Department for Education and Skills, 2005b). Furthermore the community or parental involvement within extended services on school sites (Cornwall, 2008) aimed to build social solidarity (Otero and West-Burnham, 2004) through group membership suggesting the desire to create social capital through trust, networks, collaboration and shared values (Department for Education, 2013). The Coalition government introduced the concept of *free schools*, which can be sponsored by parents, charities or educational experts, to respond to a local area's educational needs (Department for Education, 2013). This proposes the government aims to involve parents or other actors within the learning and wellbeing of children and young people, however, guidance stipulations indicate parents will require certain capabilities, capacity, skills, experience and commitment of time (Lawton, 1989) implying that not every parent will have the required requisites.

There is a potential role for agencies within childcare provision, to allow parents to enter the workplace or training and demography is apparent within educational planning (Lewis, 2013). As the family size decreased and women entered the workplace, childcare became problematic. In the 1980s and 1990s the Conservative government were reluctant to fund childcare (O'Donnell, 1992) and during the latter the voluntary and private childcare sector dominated provision (Smith, 2009a). From 1998 New Labour funded targeted childcare through Sure Start Centres to improve the child's wellbeing and offer parental support (Department for Education and Skills, 2005b). The extended services agenda offered childcare before and after school for primary age children (8am to 6pm) at school or through local providers activities (CACE, 1967). This inclusion of support for primary aged children contrasts to the earlier abovementioned reports from 1909 which focused on the adolescent; as the older child was more involved in delinquency and truancy (Department for Education and Skills, 2005b), Secondary schools within New Labour's extended services agenda were to open from 8am to 6pm, to offer activities through agencies, in the hours around the normal school day (Miller et al.2010), suggesting a continued interest in offering activities to this age group.

Despite the engagement of agencies within extended services the achievement of the *extended* by June 2010 in nearly all of England's schools (Maddern, 2010), provided an impetus for the new Coalition government (Conservative Party and Liberal Democrats), to abandon the agenda, through 2010 Comprehensive Spending Review funding cuts. Following this there was an expected decrease in childcare and after-school clubs (Martinson et al.2013). By late 2013 the Labour Party warned there had been a 40% reduction in the quantity of schools offering before and after schools clubs, taken from Local Authority figures, within the Coalition's reign (Family Action, 2013). In March 2013, the Coalition government funded a Family Action project, until March 2015 to support two schools (London and North West) to develop childcare for 8 to 14 year olds, which could include extra-curricular activities. This was to enable parents to work or enter training and the project will be rolled out to other schools (Martinson et al.2013). In a 2015 pre-election pledge, the Labour government planned to offer a childcare guarantee to children from 2015, for the first 3 years of primary school, to assist 'working mums', through childcare provided through groups of schools (West-Burnham et al.2007). This indicates a potential role for agencies within this childcare provision, which requires further investigation.

Schools: Societal role

The school is believed to have taken the sole responsibility for education (Haralambos et al.1984). However, there are various challenges which impede their role and responsibility for children's learning and wellbeing including educational reforms. A mapping of the relevant educational reforms and their concerns is included (Appendix 1.11). The school assists to transmit values and norms to individual pupils, through socialisation which aids the allocation of individuals to their societal role (Haralambos et al.1984). Society looks towards the schools to respond to issues such as technological demands, employment requirements and cultural diversity and to provide for what the home cannot such as experiments, reading and outlets for energy, although schools have a challenge to determine what aspects to prioritise (O'Donnell, 1992). Furthermore as a secondary socialisation agent (Smith, 2002), the school's role is faced with challenges, which might impede pupil or school success levels. Specific issues include disadvantaged, social excluded or individual suffering from low educational achievement, poverty and crime (Payne, 1998; French, 2007) which impact on the work of schools. There is documented research on the cause; the inter-connected problems including poverty, unemployment, low achievement and children's life opportunities which face these children and young people (O'Donnell, 1992) and evidence warned that a working class child of equal intelligence to that of a middle class child, would result in lower attainment (O'Donnell 1992) which together with habits and background may hinder the work of schools (Smith, 2002). Improved co-ordination between schools and other agencies is seen to ensure these individuals receive the required skills to remove them from the issues faced (Smith 2002) .

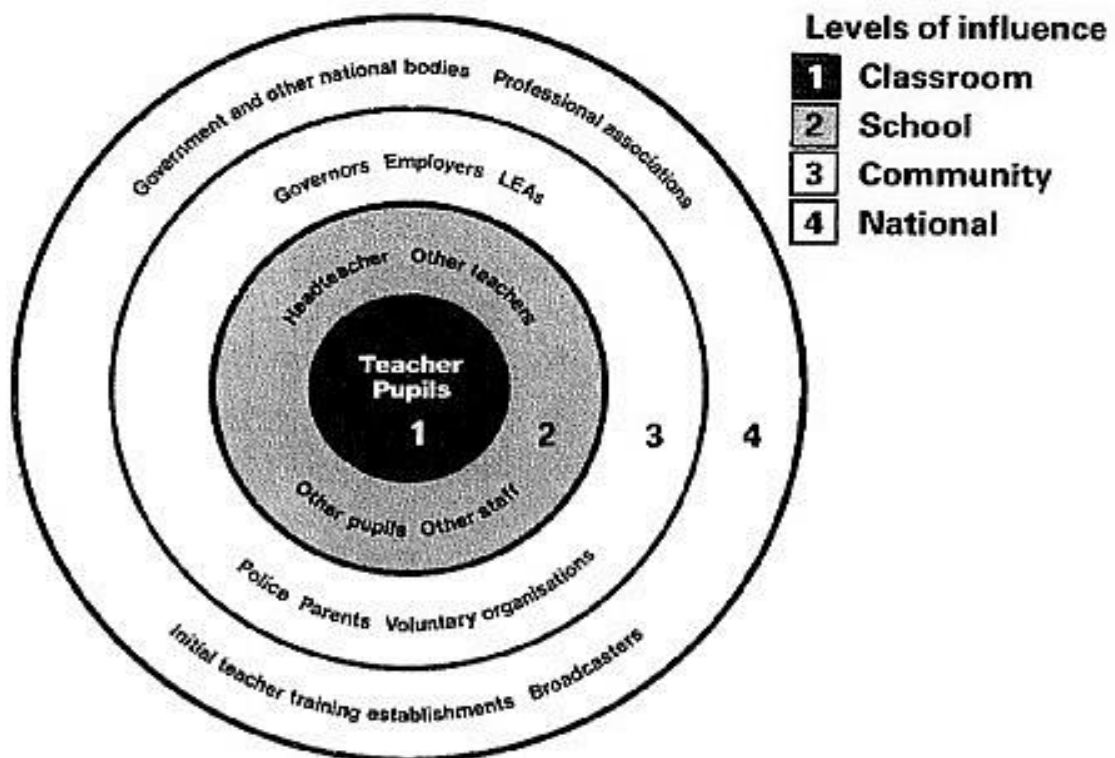
Despite teachers and schools being state funded for their role as 'state' and 'statutory agents' in learning and wellbeing delivery, the state may appear to impede this role (Hadfield, et al. 2005a, Barron et al.2007: 5). In the 1980s and 1990s the Conservative government believed that teachers or 'state agents' were potentially self-interested and attempted to discipline them through markets and competition (Whitty, 2008). This was fuelled by parental choice and different school types (funded by the private sector) (Galvani, 2010). This insinuates that although the schools and teachers are placed to perform the role on behalf of the state, the state attempts to improve standards through market based competition, which may create spaces for other agents within the process.

Both the 1944 Education Act and the 1988 Education Reform Act refer to the spiritual, moral, physical and cultural development of learners and this could signal a role and responsibility for other agents. The 1944 Act aimed to reduce ignorance (Beveridge, 1942; Timmins, 1994) from the five identified within society of want, idleness, disease, squalor and ignorance, support for which had previously been provided by the private and public sectors (Smith, 2002). In the 1944 Act, Clause 53 demonstrated how this could be achieved through external agencies. By the 1988 Education Reform Act a different viewpoint of education had arrived with the focus on curriculum, standards and control of teachers (Lawton, 1989; Campbell, 2001) and the school's social and moral functions were questioned, against the cognitive focus apparent within the Act through the national curriculum and drive for standards (Campbell, 2001). Despite this the primary teacher's time was diversified to respond to welfare, affective and social issues, through the recognition of the

morally fractured society and loss of power within other socialisation agents (e.g. church, law, family) (Campbell 2001). This suggests that although educational reform may attempt to reduce the school's welfare function, certain tasks may be performed by the state agents in recognition of a persistent need (Barron et al.2007), implying a continual role for other agents.

The young person's discipline is part of the education system, with sanctions such as corporal punishment being an historical component and following its abolishment in 1987 (Whitty, 2008; Browne, 2011), other sanctions would have been necessary. For Payne (1927) formal education equalled the recounting of facts that could not alter behaviour, without inculcation. However, the 'hidden curriculum' influenced by political ideological shifts, could aim to transmit different values (e.g. competition, individualism) through social control to elicit expected behaviour (Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1989). For the 1980s Conservative government the individual was at the heart of this system. Fig. 2 shows the levels of influence that their report on discipline in schools distinguished (Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1989). The centre space is shared with the teacher, advocating a main responsibility between the teacher and the pupil, although this is within the classroom environment. This highlights the importance of the student and teacher as influencing agents, with a smaller role for others (Hattie, 2003). This does allude that the Conservative government were interested foremost with individual responsibility for actions.

Fig. 2. Levels of influence on children and young people's behaviour



There is an agreement of the high influence of the individual on their own learning with the teacher within second place within the work of Hattie (2003). Here the influence of teachers and other individuals were discussed with the results displayed

as percentages. These correlated to the student at 50%, the teacher at 30% and then the home, schools and peers all between 5-10% (Hattie 2003). Despite this, there is a range of other actors within the above diagram including voluntary organisations, parents, police and employers, which advocated that they also have a role within the socialisation and discipline of the individual, even if the role is not as high as that of the teacher. The mapping presented in Table 1 (see page 233), highlights the importance of the teacher and the pupil within the top ten approaches, as discussed above.

There is value in a range of actors within the education process and the inclusion of different activities. Gillard (2011) discussed the 1985 HMI report which outlined the aim of schools, in terms of the acquirement of knowledge, skills, attitudes and concepts required for a child's development and future role in society. However this progressive viewpoint did not correlate to those of the Conservative party and thus these recommendations were not favourable (Deakin Crick et al.2004). This advocates a programme of informal activities. However this is not measured as an outcome in terms of cognitive changes (Deakin Crick et al.2004) and thus the inclusion is therefore questionable in a neoconservative era, which is concerned about standards and league tables (Giddens, 1989)

Impact upon the school role: trends and social issues

From the issues discussed in the previous sections, which impacted on the child, parents and community, the work of schools is clearly influenced by social change, in terms of what they are expected to achieve for children's learning and wellbeing. Schools are to prepare young people to satisfy individual needs but also to contribute towards national efficiency. However this is driven by changes such as industrialisation, (creation of factories), de-industrialisation (reduction of manufacturing) and globalisation (knowledge society), alluding that their work is influenced by political and economic change (Gillard, 2006).

In 1913 Cyril Burt became London City Council's Educational Psychologist, who contributed to several Education Committee Reports (Gillard 2006) where the concept of children and young people's intelligence levels were examined and variations fuelled the statement in 1926 of the involvement of agents within secondary schools (not grammar) (Board of Education, 1943; Great Britain Parliament, 1944). Activities were provided for those unsupervised from the age of 12, indicating a different route to the academic one (Great Britain Parliament, 1944; Board of Education 1943). Furthermore, the traditional method of subject delivery was questioned, with proponents opting for projects based activities (Gillard, 2006), linked to progressivism (Gillard 2006) which indicated an alternative activity for the lower intelligent child, indicating a deficit view. This could impact on the solutions in terms of content and agent, however the proposal to meet individual needs is still apparent. The deficiency of school resources is discussed including the lack of appropriate skills or time against the historical focus of elementary schools (e.g. 3Rs) portraying reasons for agents to work with schools (Ministry of Education, 1947, 1948, 1959; CACE, 1967; DES., 1989; Thrasher, 1927).

A further trend is the view of the control, discipline and influence that schools appear to have over the children and young people, in their charge (Ministry of Education, 1963). In 1963 overcoming issues such as delinquency, poverty and truancy for 13-16 year olds were deemed to require support from social agencies, due to the wider social implications (Laming, 2003), whilst Laming (2003) discussed voluntary or private agencies or organisations whose involvement aimed to improve outcomes for children and young people (Laming 2003). The necessity for teachers to seek support beyond the primary school and engage with different actors including those in health, law and social care has been categorised as the requirement for 'otherness' (Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1989). In 1989 the Elton Report previously discussed (see page 240) focused on discipline in schools, following attacks on staff members. The report determined those with levels of influence where the teacher and the pupil share the classroom section (West-Burnham et al.2007). Recommendations included an increase in parental responsibility, community access to school facilities, parents' room, youth workers, welfare support etc. It is apparent that other actors have a part to play within this process, including the parent, police and other agencies and recommends a wider responsibility that schools had to discipline and control the young people.

School role: solutions, barriers and opportunities for other agents

This wider approach than schools and formal education has been promulgated (West-Burnham et al.2007) and the desire for other agents to offer a supplementary range of activities through schools is apparent in the reports included within this review (DfE, 2010; DfES, 2005a; HMI, 1985; Board of Education, 1909, 1926; Ministry of Education, 1947, 1948, 1959, 1963; DES 1989; O'Connell & Everitt, 2010). A reason for schools to work collaboratively with community-based organisations is to improve practice (Hadfield, et al. 2005b). What is on offer from these agencies was viewed as of equal importance to arithmetic and since 1939 deemed as essential to education and proposed a service to be offered by local education authorities (Board of Education, 1944). Clause 53 of the 1944 Education Act, although not compulsory, suggested that local education authorities should provide social and physical facilities (Ministry of Education, 1948). The lack of facilities gained urgency when Clause 53 was not implemented (Ministry of Education, 1948) and the importance of these supplementary activities for the relevance to the young person's interests or personality, the friendliness of the environment and the ability to appeal to the whole child. The solution was for voluntary organisations to provide these ancillary activities, outside the normal school day (Burt, 1925). This implies urgency and relevance of these activities, but they form a supplementary role for voluntary agencies with schools.

In the early 1900s the potential agencies that were deemed as suitable to respond to the issues identified in the previous trend and social issue sections, appeared to be those that had rules, memberships, tone and governance (e.g. Scouts, Boys Brigade) implying an infrastructure that was constitutionally organised. Organisations were classified by focus such as educational, religious, military or athletic and gym, as previously discussed (Payne, 1927). The educational significance has been questioned of different groups, (Payne 1927) and whether activities deemed as *clubs*

by young people, including football supporters' clubs have an educational purpose (Morrish, 1970). Morrish (Morrish 1970) discussed agencies with certain interests including scouts, guides, religious groups, general organisations or those formally constituted, which compares to Burt's description. The recommendation of agencies to support schools to respond to social issues, although their constitution may determine value, might be important in the understanding of a societal responsibility to ensure that facilities are available to meet children's needs to supplement what the school can offer (Pendry, 1927) or to build social capital. This supplementary role could be an extension of social control or to relieve the teacher of their duties within a monitorial education system (Pendry 1927). However the delivery of the 3Rs (reading, writing, arithmetic) was deemed as more economical than practical work for schools that lacked interests or staff and thus limited in what it can offer, so other actors were suggested to be included (Board of Education, 1926 1944; Ministry of Education, 1959, 1963).

There is a question about the agent's role in relation to the school and what they should offer. The aforementioned statement that the formal curriculum contained facts to be stored and knowledge acquired, appears different to the proposals of activities and associated experience to be gained, for the primary school (Board of Education, 1931). In relation to the curriculum, it was stated that good schools would have already offered these activities. If not then it was an opportunity to draw these two perspectives together (Ministry of Education, 1948); indicating the collaboration of formal and informal learning, or traditional and progressive education. The question about the educational purpose of these activities is important and whether they are to be related to a child's interests. This proposes that these activities are deemed as different to *subjects*, but that they can meet individual needs. Education was described as a continual development, whether in or outside of school (Department for Education and Skills, 2005b), which indicates a role for agencies within this period when learning is taking place, outside of the formal curriculum.

There was an understanding that the teacher was not expected to deliver extended services, the school would collaborate with a range of partners or agencies (O'Connell and Everitt, 2010). This advocated a role for other agents which includes those from the private sector (businesses or social enterprise); community and voluntary sector (counselling, family support services); statutory sector (teenage pregnancy, and education social work) or those running complementary initiatives including children centres, healthy schools, youth offending teams, parent support workers (Appendix 1.10) (O'Connell and Everitt, 2010). A co-ordinator was employed to audit the local area, network and commission agencies for school groups through utilisation of allocated funding (Heywood, 2007). It could be suggested that the breadth of potential agencies within this market of agents, was equal to a free for all (Glendinning et al.2002), as opposed to the organisations that were deemed suitable in the early 1900s (with constitutions and rules). However, there is a question about whether New Labour used different instruments such as the duty to collaborate, which assumed that this Third Way would be effective (Dyson et al.2002). However as stated, the funding for this agenda was dropped by the Coalition government in 2010 (Maddern, 2010). It is clear that the government was interested in a return on investment for their funding, with the range of evaluations

that were performed (Lupton et al.2013) or due to the inability to demonstrate effective in New Labour policies (Department for Education, 2010).

The Importance of Teaching White Paper (Department for Education, 2010) removed the necessity for schools to participate in local authority meetings with other agencies (e.g. Children's Trusts). However, schools were to work in partnerships with statutory, business and voluntary sectors to create an extended service learning environment for all pupils, proposing a continued role and responsibility for other agents. To improve, schools were expected to form partnerships with each other, whilst the government offered assistance to assist them to become an academy or join an academy chain, trust or federation (Department for Education 2010). These formal collaborations, including the aforementioned free schools, do create a space for other actors (business, charities, entrepreneurs, philanthropists, universities) to become formally involved in sponsoring schools (Hargreaves, 2010) which appears a higher level of responsibility for these agencies. Commentators appear to value the support that is deemed to be provided between schools as opposed to other potential partners, that were once integral to Every Child Matters and extended services (Hargreaves 2010). Value is recognised within informal or horizontal partnerships between schools and other agents (in a locality), however the membership to this and the newer vertical partnerships (in a chain) is not seen as workable (Taylor, 2007) insinuating a drive towards more formal partnerships. As described by Taylor (Taylor 2007) this is an element of neoliberalism within the coalition government which has called upon the use of other actors, to respond to the complexity within society to create new forms of control, through which mainstream services are delivered and collaborators (e.g. agencies, community) enticed through the rhetoric of partnership. It is recognised that the rhetoric of partnerships and the creation of academies were components of New Labour, still alive within the coalition government (Taylor, 2007) . This advocated 'governance', a more powerful government form, extended beyond the state, to agents who act on the government's behalf. As the state withdrew, other actors became accountable and responsible for rectification. A choice existed to enter these spaces, however favouritism may exist within government agendas which will ultimately determine a high percentage of what will take place (Barron, Holmes, MacLure, et al.2007).

Conclusion and recommendations

Various educational reports, policies and Acts proposed the involvement of a range of actors within the learning and wellbeing of children and young people. This review has traced this phenomenon back to the 1700s, prior to the state's decision to fund mass education and schools' ownership of the education process. These agents have continually been invited to supplement the work of the schools, the home, the community and the individual.

A range of agencies have been involved in learning and wellbeing of children and young people for many years, with the reports dating back to 1909 promulgating this relationship. However, the reported lack of foundations for this type of collaboration may have impeded its success. Government reports have continually promoted these partnerships and the insinuated lack of successful implementation from previous

policies, suggests these have not always been effective (Appendix 1.12). There is the opportunity now for agencies to become involved in the sponsorship of schools and what is currently on offer is of relevance, considering these government changes, where more legal partnerships are promoted. However particular skills and expertise are required to enter these spaces, suggesting this offer will not be accessible to everyone.

Educational reforms have been a clear impetus for some partnerships as have the response to social issues and change. Policies have suggested the inclusion of support for parents and community members, to assist in the fragmentation of society. There is much discussion about social control, socialisation, character development and responding to issues with the young person such as discipline, some of which is to support the socialisation process for other agents. It will be interesting to investigate the reasons for the inclusion of agents within schools to see if they are responding to educational reforms, local issues or societal change and if there remains an impetus to include parents and community within schools, to participate in activities provided by agencies whether it is for support, learning or childcare.

The involvement of agencies within education could be attributed to philanthropy or entrepreneurship and it will be important to identify what are the current reasons for such collaborations. The changes to government and funding allocations, such as extended schools appear to signal that a reduction in provision would take place. However, the cost for the provision appears to have been a longstanding negative aspect and this will require consideration. The Conservative Party's return to Victorian values indicates a reduction in welfare and return to self-help, which may have reduced the support on offer for these groups. It will be important to determine what activities are taking place and the target audience and if such collaborative working is being promoted to strengthen the family's role, which has been popular since the 1960s. Furthermore, it will be important to unpack the advocated suggestion of young people running the activities and if this has been utilised.

There is historical value to the provision of these supplementary learning opportunities and much discussion around the ability to meet individual needs. The relevance to practical work and progressivism in addition to the key terms, appear to signal these activities are residing within a separate sphere from the learning that normally takes place within schools. It will be important to investigate whether these activities are supplementary or integral to learning and wellbeing and whether they are created to meet individual needs.

Schools were seen to lack certain skills and resources and these agencies were deemed as specialists. Despite the alteration in state funding and provision, the schools may determine that there is still value within the encouragement of these agents within schools. However, the important role that the teacher and the pupil have regarding the learning and wellbeing process, together with the drive for social value and increase in attainment, might suggest that these are no longer valued. It will be important to investigate the relevance of agencies offering activities to schools considering the perceived influence of the teacher and the pupil. Class is an important consideration and not covered within the literature, it will be important to investigate the activities that take place within contrasting areas between those deemed as affluent and those disadvantaged, to investigate if there is a difference to

the activities on offer and the agencies involved, particularly where background is deemed to be an inhibitor to success, although many policies have aimed to tackle this social exclusion and funding such as the pupil premium aim to continue this work. However, the desire for schools to demonstrate outcomes for this funding and evidence based toolkit to assist with attainment, might direct provision to activities provided by schools, as opposed to external agencies. There is the question over whether certain sectors possess the required skills to participate and the desire from the government for accreditation and social impact values might inhibit some groups from full participation.

A previous review included primary schools with a health, law and social care focus, it will be important to include primary and secondary schools, due to previous focus on the adolescent and to involve agencies beyond these three included categories. There is also the question of the educational value attributed to certain groups and their constitution which improves the appeal of specific groups, which requires consideration.

Appendix 1.1: Key words for the supplementary activities on offer by the agents

The following is taken from a ‘live’ list of the key terms located during this literature review, which describe a term for this supplementary learning that agencies are offering within the schools. One source is included for each of these terms. However, some will have multiple sources, due to their usage. This is not an exhaustive list.

What are these others offering?	Source
Additional support	(Campbell, 2001)
School-based activities	(Ministry of Education, 1948)
Junior clubs	(Ministry of Education, 1948)
Manifold clubs	(Ministry of Education, 1948)
Out of school activities	(Ministry of Education, 1948)
Leisure time activities	(Ministry of Education, 1948)
Societies	(Ministry of Education, 1948)
Out of school hours	(Department for Education and Skills, 2005b)
Extended services	(Macbeth et al.2001)
Extra-curricular activities or provision	(Ministry of Education, 1948)
After-school clubs	(Department for Education and Employment, 1997)
Study Support	(Steer, 2005)
Targeted (youth) support	(Department for Education and Employment, 1997)
Family support	(Ministry of Education, 1948)
Play centres	(Ministry of Education, 1959)
Leisure time interests and activities	(Smith, 2002)
‘informal’ programme or activities	(Department for Education and Employment, 1997)
Out-of-school learning	(Department for Education and Employment, 1997)
After-school homework centres	(Department for Education and Skills, 2005b)
Afternoon activities in school	(Arnon et al.2008)
Beyond-the-classroom-activities	(Ministry of Education, 1947)

Appendix 1.2: Key words for the other individuals working in schools

The following is from a ‘live’ list of the key terms located during this literature review which describe these others that are working within schools. Some terms are a general term e.g. ‘agencies’ whilst others are more specific to the sector in which they reside e.g. ‘businesses’. Many of these have multiple sources, due to the usage, however only one source is shown.

Who are the ‘others’ that schools are working with?	Source
Agencies	(Ainslie et al.2010)
External agencies	(Ainslie et al.2010)
Outside agencies	(Sadler, 1907)
Educational agencies	(Vallender, 2006)
Community	(Ministry of Education, 1963)
Outside speakers	(Stead et al.2010)
External visitors	(Stead et al.2010)
External contributors	(Atkinson et al.2007)
Businesses	(Huddleston and Laczik, 2012)
Employers	(Vallender, 2006)
Voluntary sector	(Orfali, 2004)
Artists and museums	(Vallender, 2006)
Police	(Atkinson, Jones, & Lamont, 2007)
Children’s Services	(Hadfield et al.2005b)
Professionals	(Ainslie et al. 2010)
Providers	(Miller et al.2010)
Local agencies	(Department for Education and Employment, 1999)
Private agencies	(Maguire, 2010)
Third Sector	(C4EO, 2010)
Not for profit	(Harris and Allen, 2011)
Partner agencies	(Atkinson, Jones, & Lamont, 2007)
Partnership agencies	(Ainslie et al. 2010)
Non-teaching professionals	(Ainslie et al. 2010)
Partner agency practitioners	(Deakin Crick et al.2004)
External relations	(Ministry of Education, 1963)
Individuals with special interests	(Ministry of Education, 1963)
Activity leaders	(Ministry of Education, 1963)
Joint teacher/youth leader appointments	(Smith, 2002)
Specialist	(Ministry of Education, 1947)
Local organisations	(Department for Education and Skills, 2004a)
Community Organisations	(Study Support)
Community-based organisations	(Hadfield et al.)
Practitioners	(Department for Education and Employment, 1999)
Public and private agencies	(Department for Education and Employment, 1999)

Community agencies	(Miistry of Education, 1963)
Social agencies	(Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1989; O'Donnell, 1992)

Appendix 1.3: Key terms for how to describe what the other individuals offer

The following are from a 'live' list of a range of key terms located during this literature review, which aim to describe the work performed by these agencies. These are taken from a range of sources located within the review.

- Collaborative working
- Pastoral support
- Parent support
- Targeted support (SEN/CAF)
- Whole-school approach
- Integrated working
- Holistic support
- Creative partnerships
- Multi-agency working
- Early Intervention
- Interagency working
- Universal, targeted or specialist support
- Inter-agency
- Joint working
- Inclusive education
- In partnership or in tandem
- Co-working with agencies
- Frontline service delivery
- Specialist support
- Single-agency provision
- Personalised learning
- Community-oriented schooling
- Whole school improvement
- Inter-professional
- Out of school committees
- Out of school needs
- Joined up working
- Ancillary services (1944 Education Act)

Appendix 1.4: Literature search strategy for initial key terms

To locate the initial key words and terms for the literature review, the following search was used via Google to locate the initial key terms.

Key search terms used on Google	‘Schools working with partners’ ‘Schools working with agencies’
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The live documents contained within the previous three appendices were commenced from this search and these were ‘live’ documents where further key terms were added, as they were generated throughout the review. The ERC database was then searched, based on specific key words generated from Google search; the resulted are shown in the following tables. This only generated a small number of articles for inclusion within the review.

Key terms	Dates	Results
schools’ ‘agencies’	All available	28065
Schools working with agencies	All available	39
Schools working with agencies	2010-2013	6
Schools working with partners	2010-2013	6

Key terms	Dates	Publication Type	Geography	Results
‘Schools’ ‘agencies’ ‘Impact’	2010-2013	Journals	GB	11 (1 useful)
‘Schools’ ‘partners’ ‘Impact’	2010-2013	Journals	GB	7
Schools and external agencies	2010-2013	Journals	GB	5 (1 useful)
‘Schools and external contributors’	2010-2013	Journals	GB	2 (1 useful)
‘Schools and external visitors’	2010-2013	Journals	GB	0 useful
‘Schools and outside speakers’	2010-2013	Journals	GB	4 0 useful
‘Schools’ ‘Businesses’ ‘Impact’	2010-2013	Journals	GB	6 (1 useful)
‘Schools’ ‘Business’ ‘Impact’	2010-2013	Journals	GB	46
‘Schools’ ‘Employers’	2010-2013	Journals	GB	19 1 useful
‘Schools’ ‘Voluntary sector’	2010-2013	Journals	GB	9
‘Education’ ‘non-profit sector’	2010-2013	Journals	GB	1
Non-profit sector	2010-2013	Journals	GB	4
Role of the third sector	1985-2013	All	All	19

Keywords used in the located articles on ERC

The key words located within these articles located on the ERC are shown below.

Education and State

Non-Profit Sector

Education

Family Services

Child welfare

School social work

Great Britain Social policy

Pilot projects

Students

Encouragement

Student activities

Secondary schools

Research

Educational change

Compulsory education

Public-private sector co-operation

Appendix 1.5: Policies and documents included within this review

Act / Policy	Year / Political party
1909 Consultative Committee Report (Acland Report)	1909 Liberals
Hadow Report– Education of the adolescence	1926 Conservative Party
Hadow Report - The Primary School	1931 Labour Party
Circular 1486 Development of Youth Service	1939 National Coalition
Educational Reconstruction: White Paper	1943 Post War Coalition
1944 Education Act	1944 Post War Coalition
Circulars 13 and 15	13 on 10 th November 1944 and Circular 15 on 15 th June 1945
School and Life: First CACE Report (Ministry of Education, 1947)	1947 Labour Party
Out of School (2 nd CACE Report) (Ministry of Education, 1948)	1948 Labour Party
Crowther Report	1959 Conservative Party
Newsom Report CACE Report (Ministry of Education, 1963)	1963 Conservative Party
Plowden Report 1967 – ‘Children and their Primary Schools’ Last CACE Report (CACE, 1967)	1967 Labour Party
Education Reform Act 1988	1988 Conservative Party
The Curriculum from 5 to 16 Curriculum Matters 2: An HMI Series (DES) 1985	1985 Conservative Party
Elton Report: Discipline in Schools (1989)	Conservative Party
The Children Act	2004 New Labour
Extended Services: Access and opportunities for all	2005 New Labour

Appendix 1.6: The beginnings of state education

Year	Education Act or Policy	Social Development	Relevance
1800-1860		Industrialisation created the need for new types of schools. Increase in population and those living in towns.	New types of school emerged, created by individuals Sunday schools (Church) Industrial schools (Kendal Cumbria) Monitorial schools (Alexander Bell) Infant Schools (Robert Owen) Elementary schools (Kay Shuttleworth) Many children worked from the age of 5 and in law were treated as adults as many were hung
1860			Leaving age of elementary schools set at 12. They tended to be all age from 6 to 12.
1868	Taunton Report		Investigated secondary schools and found they were unevenly distributed and aimed at the middle class.
1870	1870 Education Act		Provision for the education of all children aged 5-13. Aimed at working classes, but not free or compulsory. Church schools also remained.
1880	Education Act		Made attendance compulsory
1881	Education Act		Made education free
1889	Board of Education Act		Board of Education created who would oversee education.
1889		Seebohm Rowntree first poverty study	This took place in York. Rowntree's influence can be seen in the Liberal reforms. Other studies took place in 1935 and 1951. No knowledge of Labour's use of poverty in 1951.
1893 Early 1900s		British Child Study Association University College, London	Opened and started to study 'maladjustment', by turn of century University College

			London was studying difficult children.
1902	Peel's Factory Act		First signs that state showed an interest in the poor and the way they lived. Employers had to provide education for the employees. Also, regulated the hours that children worked. Peel worked with Robert Owen to reduce the minimum age for working in factories.
1902		First borstal opened	Links to crime/juvenile delinquency of the Adolescent
1902	Education Act		Created Local area authorities and new system of secondary education
1909	Acland Report (Consultative Committee Report) Liberal Government		Discipline of the adolescent. Lessen waste – links to economic. Those not working were not effectively active.
1913		London County Council	Appointed Cyril Burt to examine children that were referred.
1914-1918		World War I	Provision of elementary education, preparation for work or further education, continuation classes, health of the child.
1918	Education Act		Adolescent
1925		Cyril Burt – The Young Delinquent	Discusses the adolescent and the defective leisure activities.
1926	Hadow Report (The Education of the Adolescent)		Suggested that education should be divided into two phases: Primary and Secondary.
1931	Hadow Report (The Primary School)		Progressive views – school as a place of instruction. Pre-Plowden. Led to creation of primary or junior schools, although not formally recognised to 1944 Act. Teaching influenced by Dewey.
1935-1946		World War II	Evacuations, women into work, illiteracy in 16-17 year olds, break up of family: dad at war, mum in work, child

			evacuated. Increase in crime through blackouts.
1939	Circular 1486		Development of the Youth Service, following displacement of young people in the war, also fitness.
1944	Education Act and White Paper		Education for all, linked to welfare reforms, 3 phases: primary, secondary and FE. Beginnings of state education.
1947	School and Life		Focus on secondary in providing activities for young people, after school or between school and work. Links to maladjusted child. Filling leisure hours for those in mundane jobs.
1948	Out of School		War opened eyes of social conditions of young people, nowhere to play. Some secondary schools offer opportunities, but not all.
1956		British Official Committee on Children and Young Persons. (Ingleby Committee)	Looked at juvenile delinquency
1959	Crowther Report		Indicated how infants during the war had their education disrupted; now these teenagers are causing issues. Looks at 15-18 year olds.
1959	Younghusband Report		Concern regarding the lack of coordination between agencies and barriers to professionals communicating.
1960		Rediscovery of poverty	People could now afford Rowntree's basket of food and new methods for determining poverty were sought.
1960s		Permissive society	A liberal social norm, change is what is known as deviant.
1960s	Ingleby Report		
1963	Newsom Report		Looking at education of 13-16 year olds. Interested in adolescents.
1967	Plowden Report		Progressive – looking at the Primary School – has links to

			<p>Hadow in 1931, which recommended them. 11+ had been abolished which meant that primary school could be rethought. Little need of agencies, however recognition that schools could not offer everything that children needed. Tackling social amelioration. Agencies were to help with the backward and maladjusted children.</p>
1968	Seebohm Report		<p>This changed the delivery of welfare services into social services. It resulted in the combination of children, elderly and mental welfare departments into one social service. This was a bid to cut costs and save on resources</p>
1974		Review into case of Maria Colwell.	

Appendix 1.7: Changing view of the child in need of services

View of the child	Details
Deprived – 1960s	Social circumstances prevent the following of proper developmental path. Relevance to the Plowden Report
Vulnerable – 1970s	Protection from inside and outside of family. Links to Maria Colwell Inquiry.
Marketised Child – 1980s and early 1990s	Individualised and opportunities shaped by parental choices. Links to Conservative reforms
Distributed Child - 1997 onwards	Education and earning potential linked to mental, physical and emotional wellbeing protect from harm and neglect. Social and financial stability. Links to New Labour's reforms including integrated services.

Appendix 1.8: Institutions with a socialisation role

The following table was created from the institutions and groups uncovered within the literature including those detailed by (O’Connell and Everitt, 2010).

Category	Examples
Self	Pupil Children Young people Adolescent
Family, Parents, Kinship	Families Parents Extended family members Networks of friends
School	Headteacher Public schools Other pupils Teachers Staff Governors
Government	Monarchy Political parties Social policy Voting Armies Civil Service National bodies Institutions
Economic	Formal structures Factories Workplace Offices Police Unions Professional associations
Community organisations	Local clubs Organisations Social Enterprise Community members Community and voluntary organisations
Religious denominations	Churches Monasteries Convents
Media	Broadcasters Social Media Newspapers Radio

Appendix 1.9: Extended School ‘core offer’

Extended schools included a *core offer* of services and activities that schools would provide or access to them (O’Connell and Everitt, 2010).

Core Offer:

- Childcare from 8am to 6pm, 48 weeks a year for primary schools;
- A varied menu of activities (including study support, play/recreation, sport, music, arts and craft and other special interest clubs, volunteering and business and enterprise activities) in a safe place to be for primary and secondary schools from 8am-6pm
- Parenting support including family learning;
- Community access to facilities including adult learning, ICT and sports facilities;
- Swift and easy access to targeted and specialist support services such as speech and language

Appendix 1.10: Extended School example agencies

Extended schools included a *core offer* of services and activities that schools would provide or access to them. Below is the part of the *core offer* in relation to services for 'swift and east access and 'parental support' (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

Swift and easy access: working closely with other statutory services and the voluntary and community sector, schools ensure that children with additional needs are identified as early as possible, and are well supported through integrated working with other services

For example, speech and language therapy, child and adolescent mental health services, family support services, intensive behaviour support, sexual health services, counselling services, drug and alcohol services, teenage pregnancy services, domestic violence teams, local police, relate, bereavement services, special educational needs support services, educational social worker services, connexions, social services, educational psychologists, therapeutic services, drop in health sessions, credit unions

The schools will provide access to parenting support, including information sessions for parents of pupils joining reception and on transfer to secondary school; signposting to national and local sources of information, advice and support; access to parenting groups using structured, evidence-based parenting programmes; and family learning sessions to allow children to learn with their parents, where consultation has shown there is a demand

For example, new parents evening, transition evenings, family information service, school newsletters, share programme, behaviour management information, keeping up with the children, dads and lads, PTA events (fetes, barbecues, bingo, barn dances), parents' coffee morning, reading in class, volunteering in school, school nurse drop-in, parents evening, family literacy and numeracy programmes, translation services, toy libraries, parents' forum, parent governors, internet safety sessions

Appendix 1.11: Mapping of policies and acts for concerns and suggestions

Below is a mapping of policies and documents with an overview of their concerns and suggestions.

Year	Concerns	Suggests:
1909	Physical training Evil Wages of the country Fitted for occupations 80% getting into trouble were not in work Psychological unrest	Deficit and economic role, but for particular jobs Control and role allocation
1926	Wanted to split elementary schools into phases. Create a primary school. Concerned with intelligence 3Rs cheaper Use agencies as staff lack skills	Progressive. Deficit Economic – to save money
1939	Self-governance Fitness for the war Assisting those in slums State control	Economic – being fit for the war Deficit
1944	With the individual being self-satisfied Lack of exercise Seen as an asset	Progressive, but economic Deficit – illiteracy in war
1947	Acting as citizens Parents School as a social centre – agent's role Defective, maladjusted	Deficit – jobs for working classes and view of young people Parent's role in children's behaviour
1948	Physical for war Agencies to supplement home and school Parental issues Anti-social behaviour	Progressive, as concerned with whole child Deficit – view of parents
1959 1963	Changing needs Women back to work Difficult boys Those in slums	Change as realised these young people could be useful to society Still a deficit view, but a shift. Still control, but believe they can be useful.
1967	Whole child interests	Progressive
1988	Markets Parent choice	Economic

Appendix 1.12: Success of state intervention in heightening agencies' role and responsibility

This provision has been implemented and in some respects, was there before. However, how successful has the level of state intervention been?

Year / Policy / Report	Perceived level of success
1909 Consultative Committee Report	Discussion regarding agencies in terms of continuation classes was apparent, but was taken forward to 1918 Education Act
1918 Education Act	Thinking regarding agencies was apparent, but was taken forward to 1944 Education Act
1931 Hadow Report	Suggesting around curriculum, which could have involved agencies, was not implemented.
1939	Discussion about sharing responsibility and to assist voluntary organisations.
1944 Education Act	Clause 53 not compulsory. Ancillary Services which included leisure facilities. Development tended to be in London.
1946 Circular	LEAs were pre-occupied with the rest of the 1944 Education Act.
1947-1948 Reports: School and Life, Out of School	Reports tried to have Clause 53 of 1944 Act delivered
1956 Crowther Report	Recognition that children's attendance at activities drops off. Claims 1944's recommendations not implemented. Too much leisure hours.
1963 Newsom Report	Still low involvement of young people at activities. Staff issues, meagreness of what can be offered. Beginning of co-location of agencies on school sites (social work, health).
1967 Plowden	Highlights no action from 1948 report. Campbell – teacher's work evolved to include – social and welfare.
1985 HMI 5-16 Curriculum	Inclusion of activities within school day. Not what Conservative party desired.
1988 Education Reform Act	National Curriculum increased teacher's workload and narrowed focus, opportunities for agencies. Individual's responsibility for issues.
1989 Elton Report	Civic responsibility Civic liability Parent responsibility
1997 New Labour	Distributed role Every Child Matters, Multi-agency teams and Extended Services
2010 Teaching and Learning White Paper	Suggested that schools should create an environment through working with other partners. Different actors involved in running schools. Vertical and horizontal partnerships with a focus on legal partnerships.

Appendix 2: Timeline of education policy agent invitations (2010 to 2017)

Year	Event/Act/Policy
2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ New Coalition Government: Conservatives and Liberal Democrats (11 May 2010) ➤ Academies Act 2010 ➤ Comprehensive Spending Review ➤ Extended services funding no longer ringfenced / reduced ➤ Pupil premium funding introduced ➤ Importance of Teaching White Paper (DfE) ➤ Year One Evaluation of Extended Services (DfE) ➤ Education and Employer's Taskforce Report (Deloitte)
2011	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ National Curriculum Review (launch) ➤ Closure of Connexions Service ➤ Wolf Review of Vocational Education (Academic Excellence for the few and vocational for the rest) ➤ Education Act 2011 (independent careers advice) ➤ VCS Hub funded (2011-2013) to sustain extra-curricular learning ➤ Michael Gove asked Ofsted to revise framework ➤ Thousands of school careers advisers were laid off and many others had their hours cut; heads cut back on music, art and sports spending - in some cases by 80 per cent; grants for sixth formers to receive help with university and college choices were cut by up to three quarters; many after-school clubs and holiday play schemes closed; (<i>The Guardian</i> 26 December 2011). ➤ 3,000 breakfast clubs closed in 2011(<i>TES</i> 2 March 2012, <i>The Guardian</i> 19 April 2012).
2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Thousands of vocational qualifications removed from standards table ➤ Drug Education spending cut by 80% ➤ Government funding to uniformed services ➤ Reduced government funding to youth services
2013	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ National Curriculum Framework Document ➤ New Ofsted Framework ➤ Ofsted find PSHE inadequate in 40% schools
2014	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Rise in pupil premium Funding ➤ Children and Families Act (2014) (SEN and included welfare of children) ➤ New guidelines on behaviour in schools ➤ Feeding Britain report suggestion that schools should teach children how to cook and eat on a budget
2015	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Life Lessons in Schools (call for statutory PSHE) (CESC) ➤ Apprenticeships and Traineeships Report (CESE) ➤ Education and Adoption Bill (2015) ➤ Character Grants (3.5 million) ➤ Review into school careers guidance described as 'patchy' ➤ Jobcentre Plus to roll out in schools
2016	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Rejection to make PSHE statutory ➤ Longer school day proposed in budget for 25% of secondary schools by 2017

Appendix 3: Nested layers featured in Ecological Systems Models

The following table is a presentation of Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological Model of Human Development (1979) using examples as included in Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) and Cohen et al. 2011)

System Level	Agents	Example activity
Microsystem	A pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal relations experienced by the developing person in a given setting with particular physical and material characteristics.	Face-to-face interaction at home, day care, school, community, playground.
Meso	The interrelations among two or more microsystem settings in which the developing person actively participates at the microsystem It is formed or extended whenever the developing person moves into a new setting. It can be a primary link by attendance at both settings, intermediate link in a network or formal and informal communications between settings.	For a child, the relations, connections or ties, between home, school and neighborhood peer group
Exo	An exosystem refers to one or more settings that do not involve the developing person as an active participant, but in which events occur that affect, or are affected by, what happens in the setting containing the developing person.	Examples of an exosystem in the case of a young child might include their parent's place of work, a school class attended by an older sibling, their parents' network of friends, the activities of the local school board etc.
Macro	The level of the subculture (socioeconomic, ethnic, religious) or the culture as a whole, along with any belief systems or ideology underlying such consistencies including political ideologies and organization of the social institutions common to a particular culture or subculture.	Cultures and ideologies mean that aspects such as classrooms within one country look and function as if constructed from same set or blueprints. Blueprint for every type of setting which can be altered to influence changes at lower levels.

Appendix 4: Research Decisions

Research decision were made beyond the research process or tradition (methodology) or research instruments (methods) (Taber, 2007, 2013). These are entitled paradigmatic decisions; they constitute the highest level of research thinking and are described as the underpinning research philosophy (Taber 2007; Taber 2013). The hierarchy of the decisions that took place and their relationship to paradigm, methodology and methods is shown in the table below

Paradigmatic Decisions (Taber, 2007: 33)

Role metaphor	Level	Responsible for
Executive	Philosophy	Paradigm
Manager	Strategy	Methodology
Technician	Tactics	Techniques

A research paradigm can be understood as the approach to an educational enquiry or the context within which educational research is conducted (Cohen et al.2011). Different paradigms exist for different purposes (Burrell & Morgan 1979; Cohen et al.2011). The choice of paradigm was underpinned by different sets of assumptions which include ontological and epistemological (Burrell & Morgan 1979; Cohen et al.2011). (Burrell & Morgan 1979; Cohen et al.2011) portrayed these along a spectrum that extended from the subjective to the objective approach (see below). These decisions were formulated upon beliefs and assumptions about the nature of social science (Morrison 2001; Cohen et al.2007; Cohen et al.2011; Cohen et al.2017).

The subjective-objective dimension (Burrell and Morgan, 1979: 3)

A scheme for analysing assumptions about the nature of social science				
The subjectivist approach to social science ←				The objectivist approach to social science →
Nominalism	-	Ontology	-	Realism
Anti-positivism	-	Epistemology	-	Positivism
Voluntarism	-	Human nature	-	Determinism
Idiographic	-	Methodology	-	Nomothetic

Appendix 5: Professor Keith Morrison, email correspondence

Email correspondence was undertaken with Keith Morrison as several of his publications appeared to suggest that the model of ideology critique had originated direct from the work of Habermas (Morrison 2001; Cohen et al.2007; Cohen et al.2011; Cohen et al.2017). In response Keith Morrison stated he derived the model during his PhD and it is included in his thesis (Morrison, 1995: 460). He stated this was influenced by the earlier work of Habermas which included the concepts of *psychoanalysis*⁴² and *self-reflection*, together with a four stage model aimed at teacher reflection created by (Cohen et al.2017). This model is shown in Appendix 6. Despite the inclusion of the model in the abovementioned literature, Keith Morrison stated in an email that it had remained ‘conceptual’ as opposed to something that had translated into research practice. Despite this, it is an available framework within which to undertake the Habermas concept of ideology critique which was created by a long-standing author of educational research methods. It is also still included in the forthcoming 8th edition of the Research Methods in Education (Morrison 2001; Cohen et al.2007; Cohen et al.2011; Cohen et al.2017). This provenance justified the decision to use ideology critique as a methodology and to follow the four-stage model in this undertaking. Excerpts from the email correspondence are shown below:

In an email from Keith Morrison on 5th January 2017 he stated:

“I have gone back to my own thesis, and in footnote 200 on pages 219 and 220 of my thesis, it seems to be that the four-stage process derives from my reading of the Habermas book, also informed in part by the work of John Smyth but mainly through the material in chapters 4 and 5 of my thesis”.

In an email from Keith Morrison on 7th January 2017 he stated:

“my four-stage framework was really intended to enable researchers to tease out the key elements of ideology critique in practice, moving from description to interrogation to action, and this was informed by Habermas’s own work on psychoanalysis as well as his work on reconstructive science and how interests-based work on moving from describing (the technical interest) to understanding (phronesis and the hermeneutic interest) to the emancipatory interest. If researchers wanted to use the four-stage model that I proposed then that would be very flattering, but in fact, it seems that it has turned out to be a conceptual model rather than one which researchers have adhered to without alteration in practice”

⁴² Habermas discussed the methodological approach of *psychoanalysis* or psychoanalytic theory as an ‘analytic process of making consciousness reveal itself as a process of reflection’ (1972: 229-231). In his thesis Morrison (1995: 75) presented the Habermas concept of psychoanalysis as three stage process which was seen to aid *self-reflection*. From this Morrison derived his four-stage process.

Appendix 6: Ideology critique

Professor Keith Morrison in his publications on Habermas and educational research methods had consistently presented the ideology critique of Habermas as a four stage model (Morrison 2001; Cohen et al.2007; Cohen et al.2011; Cohen et al.2017). These publications depicted the model as follows:

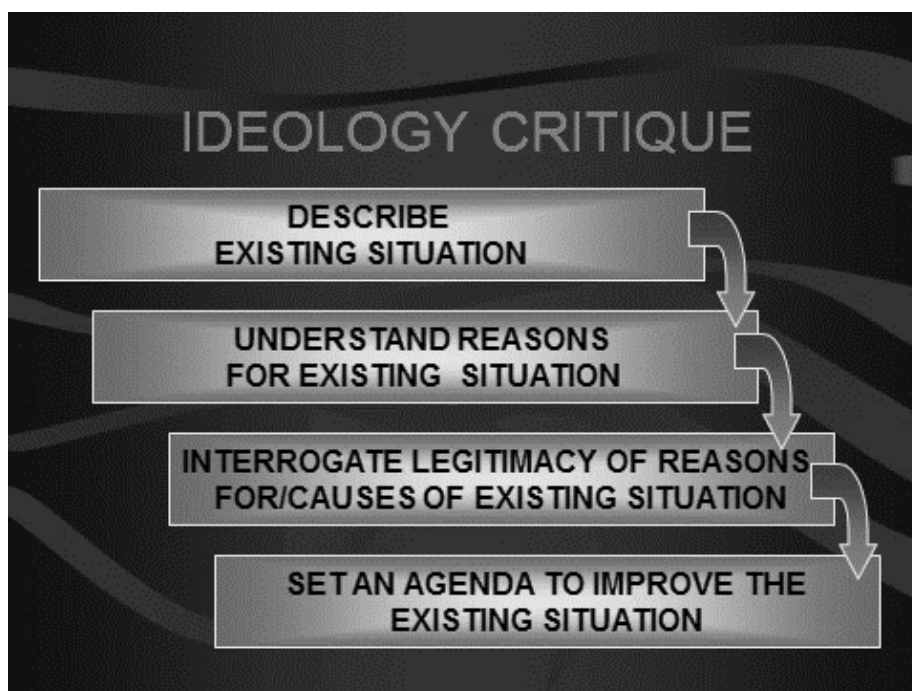
Stage one (describe): will commence with a description and interpretation of the situation under investigation. This is a ‘hermeneutic exercise that identifies and attempts to make sense of the current situation’, which echoes the *verstehen* approaches of the interpretive paradigm (Cohen et al. 2011: 34; K. Morrison, 2001: 216) (see Fig 4). Held (1980: 311) in his discussion of Habermas regarding ‘interests, knowledge and action’ informed that *verstehen* is translated as ‘the attempt to achieve understanding in dialogue’ adding that it is ‘inextricably tied to the process of interpretation’.

Stage two (understand / interrogate): will explore the reasons for the situation, the causes and purposes, an analysis of interests at work, the power and legitimacy. Carr & Kemmis (1986) suggests that this shows the illusions within belief and attitudes to ‘preserve a social order’ which works against the interests and needs.

Stage three (set agenda): aims to alter the situation

Stage four (evaluate): aims to evaluate the achievement in practice

The following image is a PowerPoint Slide of Ideology critique from the electronic resources entitled ‘Chapter 2’ which accompany the (Silverman, 2000) which is available at <http://cw.routledge.com/textbooks/cohen7e/powerpoints.asp>



Appendix 7: Email text to headteachers

[Email subject header] Invitation to take part in an education research project

Dear

My name is Julia Everitt and I am contacting you as a doctoral researcher in the School of Education at Staffordshire University. I would really value your help.

I am inviting your school to participate in a specific education research project that is investigating the role of individuals and professionals who are involved in running activities for children and young people in and around schools. These are not the school's classroom teachers or teaching assistants.

I am interested to hear about the range of individuals and professionals that have worked in your school during 2014. I would like to learn more about the services and activities they have offered.

Participation in this research project will last one term in total and will involve the following stages:

1. Completion of an initial emailed pro-forma by headteacher, teacher or support staff member (attached to this email)
2. Interview with a headteacher, teacher or support staff member
3. Craft-based activity session and discussion with ten pupils
4. Interview with parents of the pupils involved and external agents (off school site)

I would arrange all the setting up of the interviews and activities; provide resources for the craft-based activity and deliver the session. If you would like more detailed information about the project and what your school's involvement would look like, I have prepared an information sheet which can be sent to you by return, prior to consent being given.

I very much hope that you will consider taking part in this research project.

I will telephone you within the next three days to find out your response to this invitation and to answer any queries you have.

Best wishes

Julia Everitt
Doctoral Researcher
School of Education
Staffordshire University
University email address: ev001810@student.staffs.ac.uk
Mobile: 07834 208573

Appendix 8a: Information sheet for school staff members

Project title: External agents: ‘I’m not a classroom teacher or teaching assistant but I work in schools: who am I and what do I do?’

Introducing the researcher

This project is being completed by Julia Everitt who is a doctoral researcher in the School of Education at Staffordshire University. Since 2004, I have worked with schools in Warwickshire, as both a commissioner and a then a provider of activities (as an ‘external agent’ myself).

What is the project about?

The aim of the research project is to investigate who the individuals or professional are that are involved in the wider learning and wellbeing of children and young people in and around schools. The project wants to learn about the types of activities or services taking place and the reasons that external agents are involved in their delivery, in addition to teachers and teaching assistants.

Why have you been invited to take part?

The project is interested to work with schools which include contributions from external agents in the learning opportunities they offer. Your school has been invited as I am aware that it has previously engaged with a range of individuals and professionals to complement the work of school staff members.

What would taking part involve?

You will be required to complete a pro-forma that asks you to identify the different individuals and professionals working in and around your school such as those providing one-off activities or after-school clubs. This pro-forma should only take 10 minutes to fill out and will be emailed out. Following this, 1 or 2 staff members from your school will be invited to participate in an interview. If you agree to be interviewed, a face to face interview will take place on the school site to explore your views on the reasons for external agent involvement and the aims of the activities. This interview should only last for 45 minutes. If agreed, the interviews will be audio-recorded. Interviews will also take place with a selection of the external agents that you identify and will be arranged by myself.

What will happen to the information given?

All the information provided will be completely confidential and will only be accessed by myself and two academic supervisors at Staffordshire University. None of the information you provide will be attributed to you directly or the school. Pseudonyms will be used so that participants will not be identifiable. The interviews will be transcribed. These and the pro-forma documents will be stored on a password protected computer.

If you have any questions about the project please do not hesitate to contact me at: ev001810@student.staffs.ac.uk. Alternatively, you can contact Dr. Kim Slack the researcher’s primary supervisor on k.b.slack@staffs.ac.uk or on 01782 294270.

Appendix 8b: Information sheet for external agents

Background

This research project is being completed by Julia Everitt. I am a doctoral researcher in the School of Education at Staffordshire University. Since 2004, I have worked with schools in Warwickshire, as both a commissioner and then a provider of activities (then as an 'external agent').

What is the project about?

The aim of the research project is to investigate the other individuals aside from teachers and teaching assistants, who are involved in the learning and wellbeing of children and young people in and around schools. The project wants to learn about the types of activities taking place and the reasons that external agents are involved in the delivery of such activities and services.

Why have you been chosen?

The project is interested to work with external agents who are providing activities and services in and around local schools. You have been chosen as I am aware that you or your organisation has previously engaged with local schools to offer activities and services, to complement the work of school staff members.

What would taking part involve?

If you agree to be involved then an interview will take place at a mutually convenient location. The interview will explore your views on the reasons for the involvement of 'external agents' in and around schools and the aims of the activities. The interview should only last for 25 minutes. If agreed, these interviews will be audio-recorded.

What will happen to the information given?

All the information you provide will be completely confidential and will only be accessed by myself and my two supervisors at Staffordshire University. The audio – recordings will be transcribed and stored on a password protected computer. None of the information you provide will be passed back to the school or attributed to you directly. Pseudonyms will be used so that participants, groups and organisations will not be identifiable.

If you have any questions about the project, please do not hesitate to contact me at: ev001810@student.staffs.ac.uk. Alternatively, you can contact Dr. Kim Slack the researcher's primary supervisor on k.b.slack@staffs.ac.uk or on 01782 294270.

Appendix 8C: Consent Form (External agents/visitors):

Project title: ‘I’m not a classroom teacher or teaching assistant but I work in schools: who am I and what do I do?’

Participant’s Name: _____

School: _____

Please circle the answers below:

Have you received an information sheet to explain the project’s purpose?	Yes/No
Do you feel you were given the opportunity to ask questions?	Yes/No
Do you understand that you are free to leave, at any time?	Yes/No
Do you understand that you do not have to answer anything you do not wish to?	Yes/No

The data collected will be used for the purposes of the researcher alone. Only the researcher and her two supervisors at Staffordshire University will have access to the audio records and transcribed interviews. These will not be included in full within the final written record of the research. Quotations may be used in presentations or related documentation, but participants in the research will not be identified by name at any time.

I confirm that this information has been provided prior to the research interview. I agree to take part in this research project.

Participant name:.....

Signature:.....**Date:**.....

Researcher name:.....

Date:.....

Appendix 9: Pro-forma

Project title: External agents: ‘I’m not a classroom teacher or teaching assistant but I work in schools: who am I and what do I do?’

This research project is interested to hear about the range of individuals and professionals that have worked in your school to learn more about the activities and services they have offered. These are not the school’s classroom teachers or teaching assistants, but could be described as ‘external agents’.

I would be grateful if you would complete this pro-forma. We are interested to know which individuals and groups were invited to work with your school during spring, summer and autumn 2014 terms.

Please complete the following section.

School name: Headteacher’s name: Contact name (if different to the head):

Please complete the right-hand column with your responses.

Activities and providers: Academic Terms January 2014- December 2014	
Group support for curriculum (examples below): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Workshops • Alternative education sessions • One-to-one sessions • Small group tuition • 	Please list activities and provider names:
Extra-curricular activities (examples below): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Before school clubs • Lunchtime clubs • After school clubs • Holiday clubs • Study support • 	Please list activities delivered and provider names:
Childcare (examples below): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Breakfast club • After school club • Holiday clubs • Wrap-around care • Pre-school / Nursery 	Please list clubs and provider names:
Parent Support (examples below): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Workshops • Transition sessions • Parenting sessions 	Please list activities and provider names:

Activities and providers: Academic Terms January 2014- December 2014	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family learning 	
Community Access (examples below): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community lettings • School holiday lettings • Adult learning lettings • Community & voluntary groups • Informal meetings • Free community access 	Please list activities and group names:
Adult and Community Learning (examples below): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adult & community Learning • Local FE College provision • Training provider • Community & voluntary organisations 	Please list activities and provider names:
Agencies linked to the school (individual support) (examples below): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Statutory services • Employers • Youth agencies • National agencies/organisations • Community & voluntary groups 	Please list activities and provider names:

Appendix 10: Schools invited and responses

Table: Area A - School outcome and responses

Area	No. of schools	Outcome	Reason
A	14	No response = 7	5 Did not respond at all 1 asked for email to be resent 1 asked for clarification of participants and impact
		Declined = 7	2 cited Ofsted 2 did not meet criteria 1 retirement 1 too busy 1 no reason given
B	9	No response = 7	7 did not respond 3 stated that if a headteacher did not response then this should be taken as a no
		Declined = 2	1 verbally declined as contact was due to retire 1 stated that the head could not take a telephone call about such a matter
C	16	Declined = 6	4 declined to participate 1 declined due to policy changes (SEN, Curriculum) 1 declined due to previous project experience and level of work/commitment
		Pending = 1	1 stated that the head was due to leave and to call back in January 2015
		No response = 9	5 stated that if a headteacher did not response then this should be taken as a no 4 no response
D	14	No response = 14	The email was forwarded by the contact to the schools, but this approach did not achieve any interested schools
E	8	Agreed = 4	2 agreed to participate 2 agreed following a visit to discuss
		Pending = 3	1 school the contact had left, waiting to see if there were any other contacts 2 schools the participant age range, meant that the schools would not be eligible
		No response = 1	1 did not respond to the email
Total: 61			

Appendix 11: Interview schedule

Group	Questions
School	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What individuals are involved in delivering activities and services in and around your school? We don't want to include normal classes with your teachers or teaching assistants. These individuals are often called 'external agents'. Examples are a club taking place after-school, an agent who worked with you in the classroom or a group you joined in the community. 2. What activities or services do they offer? 3. Why reasons are the other 'external agents' involved in and around the school? 4. How did they become involved in and around the school? 5. In what ways are the external agents involved in and around the school? 6. Why are the reasons that the children attend the activities, clubs or events? Are there different reasons? 7. Which children are chosen and why? 8. Have the providers/activities, changed over time? If so, why?
Agent	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What activities and services do you offer in and around schools? 2. Can you list the activities you offer and where? 3. What are the reasons that you are involved in and around the school? 4. How did you become involved in the settings (schools)? 5. How are you involved in the settings? 6. Why do children participate? (outcomes, educational purpose, benefits) 7. Which children are chosen and why? 8. Have the activities/settings changed over time?

Appendix 12: Pre-determined and emerging codes

The first case was manually coded into broad headings which included agent, activity, rationale, and perception of benefit or impact, barriers, enabler on A3 sheets. These broad headings were expanded to include the following:

- Agent and Activity
- Why are they in the school or YP attending activity (rationale for involvement)
- Benefits/impact for young person or agent
- Perception: Changed over time
- Perception: How it would look for them
- Barriers/difficulties including lack of support/knowledge
- Enablers/negotiation/support
- Are there different perspectives amongst key stakeholders in relation to why these agents are involved?
- Differences in perceptions

As the A3 sheets became unworkable, the interviews for the first case study were coded using NVivo which resulted in the second iteration of the coding structure. This included six parent codes (rationale, impact) and 28 sub-codes such as ‘education or learning’ or ‘sharing information as shown in the table below:

Parent Code	Sub-codes
Activity	Community
	School
Connections	Network
	Right Person
Impact or Benefit	Agent resources
	Benefit to young person
	Education sector
	Not beneficial
	Of using agents
Involvement	To the agents
	Age
	Control of message
	Feeling supported
	Lack of involvement
	Lack of knowledge
	Level of involvement
Wants to help or support	
Rationale	Education or learning
	Financial
	Individual needs
	Moral
	School type
	Sharing information

	Choice
	Choice or not individual
	Expectations
School day	Fitting in
	Negotiating access

Where new codes emerged in the second case study (e.g. wellbeing) and then subsequent studies, the previous case studies were checked to see if this theme had been missed in the original coding. NVivo quickly facilitated the searching of this information, using text search. This saw the researcher moving backward and forward between the case studies within the coding stage (Mason 2002; Cohen et al.2007). The third and the fourth case study were coded in the same manner. Codes were subsumed where necessary to assist with creating open and flexible coding categories (Mason 2002; Cohen et al.2007). This resulted in 5 parent codes and 24 sub-codes as show in the table below which includes the thematic interpretation from the second coding frame:

Parent Code	Sub-codes	Pre-determined or emerging	Meaning given	No. of times used
Accessing school	Lack of choice	Emerging	A perception that the school selected the young people to participate in activities or services.	21
	Education sector	Emerging	Access to the school was impacted by policies in the education sector.	23
	Expectations	Emerging	The necessity to meet the desires of a school.	5
	Fitting in	Emerging	The feeling that an agent had to work activities around the school day.	43
	Negotiating access	Emerging	The agent perceived they had to cooperate with a school to gain access.	42
	Networks	Emerging	The use of connections and relations to access a school.	16
	Reach area	Pre-determined	The locality where the agent delivered their activities.	2
	Right person	Emerging	The need to find a school staff member who shared the same values.	12
Activity	Community	Pre-determined	The agent delivered an activity that was delivered beyond the school.	22

	School	Pre-determined	The agent delivered an activity that was in the school.	92
Impact or Benefit	Impact or benefit	Pre-determined	The perceived outcomes of the agent's activities for the pupils.	35
Involvement	Control of message	Emerging	The belief that the agent's message was controlled by the school	32
	Lack of knowledge	Emerging	The desire to respond to gaps within the system.	10
	Level of involvement	Emerging	An agent's activities and frequency	21
	Quality	Pre-determined	The desire to select an agent based on their characteristics.	2
Rationale	Education or learning	Emerging	The perception that the involvement in a school is to educate.	60
	Financial	Pre-determined.	The range of monetary incentives to be involved in a school.	56
	Relationships or trust	Emerging	The perception that the agent had formed a mutual bond with the school.	23
	Right thing to do	Emerging	The desire to deliver an activity or service by social justice	12
	Safety	Pre-determined	The necessity to deliver activities to protect young people from harm.	13
	School type	Pre-determined	The desire to work with a particular	5
	Sharing information	Emerging	The need to disseminate information to pupils.	42
	Using agents	Emerging	The desire to work with external agents for who they were.	12
	Wellbeing		The intention to support pupils with activities and services around health and emotions.	12
	Word of mouth		The link to a school came through unconfirmed reports.	1

Within this process the literature review was read and three mind maps were created of the emergent themes in terms of who the agents were, what was their activity and

why they were involved. The literature in relation to the topic was manually sorted to create a shortlist, in terms of the emerging themes.

Appendix 13: Compton Academy external agents-activity or service by data source

Agent Type	Activity/ Service Type	Activity / Service Details	Ashley	Website News	News Letter	Reports Policies	Twitter
Charity (Connected Counselling)	<i>Individual Pupil Support</i>	Counselling sessions for pupils				X (Local Offer)	
Employers ⁴³ (9) (includes Red Brick)	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Careers talks, marketplace, practical activities, tasters, team building problem solving, CV writing, lessons	X (4)	X (8)			X
Training provider (Work Skills)	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Careers talks, marketplace, workshops,	X				X
Universities (2)	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Careers talks, marketplace	X (2)				
University	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Subject support: physics subject talk	X				X
Colleges (2)	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Careers talks, marketplace	X (1)	X (1)			
LA spin out ⁴⁴	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Careers talks, marketplace	X				
Football Club	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	School Visit by professional			X		X
Bank (2)	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Financial capability sessions	X				X (2)
Young Theatre	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Theatre in Education performance/discussion for KS4			X		
Building Society	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Financial capability sessions		X			
Charity (Rare Disease)	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Fundraising, assemblies, lesson support			X		
Police, Fire Service, Vol. Org (3)	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Road safety presentation			X (3)		
Private Institute	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Subject support: History, WW1 talk			X		
Football Club	<i>Com. use of school</i>	Summer Football Holiday Club	X				
Drama group	<i>Community use of school</i>	Evening Drama Group	X		X		

⁴³ Numbers in brackets indicates the quantity of that type of agent.

⁴⁴ A 'spin out' refers to workers from the public sector who came out of the public sector and created organisations to run public services, many were expected to be social ventures as part of the 'Big Society'.

Sewing Group	<i>Community use of school</i>	Evening Sewing Group	X				
Totals (from 30 agents)⁴⁵			14	10	8	1	6

⁴⁵ Note the totals given in Table 1 do not equate to 30, as some agents were identified in multiple sources.

Appendix 14: Compton tweets - Work Skills and Red Bricks



Learning how to paint
with @workskills
apprenticeships IAG
Students gaining practical
experiences.



IAG from
@workskills and
@redbricks Y10
gaining knowledge of
apprenticeships and the
construction industry.



Electricians of the
future? IAG &
apprenticeships with
@workskills and
@redbricks taste of all
post 16 options

Appendix 15: Meadows Middle School external agents-activity or service by data source

Agent Type	Activity Type	Activity Details	Laura	Aileen	Adam	Web: news	Reports Policies
Charity (Connected Counselling)	<i>Individual pupil support</i>	Pupil counselling sessions		x	x		x (pupil premium)
Mental Health Team	<i>Individual pupil support</i>	Mental Health support					x (SEN)
Employers (8)	<i>Pupil Group support</i>	Careers ‘break out day’	x (6)			x (8)	
Housing Association (Together Housing)	<i>Pupil Group support</i>	Careers ‘break out day’ Intergenerational project				x	
Military	<i>Pupil Group support</i>	8-week challenge					x (pupil premium)
Dance instructor	<i>Pupil Group support Extra-curricular</i>	Curriculum lessons after-school: dance			x		x (sports & pupil premium)
Christian Youth	<i>Pupil Group support Extra-curricular</i>	Lunch-time club: Mentoring	x	x			X Extra-curricular timetable
Self Defence	<i>Pupil Group support Extra-curricular</i>	Self-defence	x		x		x (pupil premium)
Sports instructor	<i>Extra-curricular activities</i>	Lunchtime: activities					x (sports premium)
Football coach	<i>Extra-curricular activities</i>	After-school: football					x (sports premium)
LA Spin Out Support Services ⁴⁶ (5)	<i>Individual pupil Support Parental Support Pupil Group support</i>	Pupil sessions, Parent meetings	x (5)	x (2)			x (5) (SEN)
Fire Service	<i>Unknown</i>	Unknown			x		
Vehicle rescue	<i>Pupil Group support</i>	First Aid				x	
University	<i>Pupil Group support</i>	Space talk				x	
Charity	<i>Unknown</i>	Unknown			x		
Totals (from 27 agents)⁴⁷			13	4	5	11	13

⁴⁶ This includes Education Psychology, Education Welfare, SEN Support and Disability Support – multiple services from one provider previously local authority.

⁴⁷ Note the totals do not equate to 24, as some agents were identified at multiple sources

Appendix 16: Sunnyside C of E Academy external agents-activity or service by data source

Agent	Activity type	Activity details	Pam Pro-forma	Linda interview	Linda Blog	Website	Report Policy	Newsletter	Parent letter
Animal man	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Animals			x			x	
Before & After School Kids Club	<i>Extra-curricular activities</i>	Activity club	x	x	x			x	
Cadets	<i>Community use of school</i>	Cadets	x						
Challenge Team	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Drama group - Christian Year 8	x		x				
Charity (choir)	<i>Community use of school</i>	Male choir	x						
Rare Disease	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Fundraising - Year 6, RE lessons			x			x	
Connected Counselling	<i>Individual pupil support</i>	Counselling		x					
Chess Club	<i>Community use of school</i>	Chess Club	x	x	x	x (Clubs & activities)			x
Christian Youth (Sparks)	<i>Pupil group support Extra-curricular activities Individual Pupil Support</i>	Puppet Club lunchtime, club RE lessons, mentoring	x	x	x			x	
Cycle Trainers	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Cycle training			x				
Dance Companies various	<i>Community use of school</i>	Dance	x						
Drama / Theatre	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Internet safety Year 8	x		x	x (Parent Calendar)		x	x
Ex-pupil	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Stained glass window project			x			x	
Ex-teacher	<i>Extra-curricular activities</i>	Half-term Latin lessons						x	
Fairtrade representative	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Pupil talk			x				

Agent	Activity type	Activity details	Pam Pro-forma	Linda interview	Linda Blog	Website	Report Policy	Newsletter	Parent letter
Fire Service	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Arson awareness, Y8 PSHE lessons, Attendance initiative	x		x	x (Parent Calendar)	X (Financial statement)		
Floral arts	<i>Community use of school</i>	Monthly	x						
Football Academy	<i>Community use of school</i>	Half-term football club						x	
Football Group	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Football support		x					
Football providers (various)	<i>Community use of school</i>	Football	x						
Gym club	<i>Community use of school</i>	Gym	x	x					
LA Spin out Services (Consign)	<i>Individual pupil support, Pupil Group Support</i>	LA Learning Support, days and groups Mentoring project	x	x	x	x (Parent Calendar)	x Financial statement		x
Local college teachers and pupils	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Sports lessons, inspirational talk		x					
Local Councillors	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Government lessons	x						
Mrs xxxx - Governor	<i>Parental Support</i>	Drama workshop for staff and parents for Year 7	x		x				
Owl Lady	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Owl into Science Club		x					
Police	<i>Parental Support</i>	Internet safety	x						x

Agent	Activity type	Activity details	Pam Pro-forma	Linda interview	Linda Blog	Website	Report Policy	Newsletter	Parent letter
Police Community Support Officer	<i>Extra-curricular activities</i>	Lunchtime walk			x				
Rain Forest Road Show Man	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Presentation		x					
Road Safety	<i>Pupil group support</i>	PSHE & Citizenship Lessons	x			x (Parent Calendar)		x	
Service Organisation	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Support a range of activities in the school e.g. concert			x		x (Social, Moral & Cultural)		
School Nurse	<i>Individual pupil support</i>	Drop in, visit in PSHE lessons	x	x	x				
Theatre Co	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Science - musical comedy - Year 5	x		x	x (Parent Calendar)			x
Theatre Company	<i>Community use of school</i>	Theatre	x						
University lecturers (2 visits)	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Space lab Year 7 not on school trip,		x	x				
University lecturers and industrial mathematicians	<i>Extra-curricular activities</i>	Maths challenge			x	x (Parent Calendar)	X (financial statement)	x	
Various careers visitors	<i>Unknown</i>	Unknown	x						
Vicar	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Assembly - obedience			x				
Visiting author	<i>Pupil group support</i>	Unknown		x					
Young carers	<i>Unknown</i>	Unknown	x						
Total from 41 agents			22	13	20	7	4	10	5

Appendix 17: Thornily Academy external agents-activity or service by data source

Agent	Activity type	Activity details	Sian Pro-forma	Sian interview	Web News	Reports Policies	Newsletters	Twitter	Parent Letters
Academy Sponsors	<i>Pupil Group Support, Extra-Curricular Activities</i>	Latin, Music, Sports	x				x		
Adult and Community Learning: Council	<i>Adult & Community Learning</i>	Cooking, Massage	x				x		
Theatre Co Ambassadors	Unknown	Unknown	x						
Animal Campaign, Police (2)	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Unknown		x (2)					
Artists (6)	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Storytelling, arts, rapper		x (1)				x (5)	
Sports/ Dance providers (3)	<i>Extra-curricular activities</i>	Sports / Dance	x (2)				x (1)		
Citizenship Support	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Assemblies	x						
Coding Academy	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Coding workshop						x	
Colleges, 6 th form (4)	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	School liaison: careers, farm project	x (3)	x (4)	x (3)		x	x	
Construction Company (New Property Maintenance)	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Mentoring	x	x				x	
Dance Company	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Dance	x						
Drama Group/Theatre	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Internet Safety	x					x	x
Employers (3)	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Careers event	x (2)	x (2)	x (2)			x (1)	
Engineering Company (ABC)	<i>Pupil Group Support,</i>	D & T	x	x			x		
Enterprise Organisation	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Enterprise		x					
Ex-military amputee	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Speaker						x	
Fire Service	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Fire Safety		x				x	

Agent	Activity type	Activity details	Sian Pro-forma	Sian interview	Web News	Reports Policies	Newsletters	Twitter	Parent Letters
First Aid provider	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Life Skills, CPR			x				
Foundation (Educational)	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Enterprise Project	x				x		
Get team building, Art Org (2)	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Team Building						x (2)	
IT company	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Internet Safety	x	x					
Ludo, Royal Academy	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Science Week	x	x (2)					
Parenting practitioner	<i>Parental Support</i>	Parenting	x						
Private consultant	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Accelerated Learning					x		
Schools Nurses, Hospital, Sexual Health Team (3)	<i>Pupil Group Support, Individual Pupil Support</i>	Different projects, 1-2-1 support, sexual health	x (2)	x			x		
Service Organisation	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Interview practice		x					
Sports provider	<i>Community use of school</i>	Sports	x						
Social Enterprise, Circle Team	Unknown	Unknown	x (2)						
Theatre co (2)	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Community Cohesion, Extremism	x (1)	x (1)					
Training Providers (2)	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Job search, interview skills, CV writing		x (1)				x (1)	
Uniformed Services	<i>Extra-curricular activities</i>	After-School Club					x		
University Outreach	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Outreach, Medical School	x (2)	x				x	
University Professor	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	Workshop: Geography	x	x					
Unknown (5)	Unknown	Health Eating, Drugs & Alcohol, trafficking and grooming, homophobia	x (5)						

Agent	Activity type	Activity details	Sian Pro-forma	Sian interview	Web News	Reports Policies	Newsletters	Twitter	Parent Letters
		homelessness							
West College	<i>Pupil Group Support</i>	School Liaison Careers, Lego	x	x					
Total from 60 agents			34	23	5	0	9	16	1

Appendix 18: Thornily tweets: Building Maintenance and Fire Service



“Have you seen the video about our partnership with [@Thornily](#) and the impact it's having? [@nationalorgbusinessorg](#) #businessesclass”



“[#SeePhoto](#) [painting] the Skills Stand is set up & ready for the [@Thornily](#) Careers Event tonight!”



Many thanks to Jack from [@FireService](#) for a very informative and hard hitting presentation on fire safety - stay safe!

Appendix 19: Agent research participants by sector

The agent research participants were spread across the three sectors and organisation types as shown below. Half of the agent participants were from the third sector (e.g. community and voluntary organisations, social enterprise).

Sector	Organisations
Public - Statutory Services	Fire Service, Road Safety
Private - Private businesses	ABC Engineering Building Maintenance, Red Brick, West College
Third - Charities, Social Enterprises, Mutuals, Community and Voluntary groups	CareersMed Connected Counselling Rare Disease Sparks Uniformed Service Work Skills Your Housing Young Theatre

Appendix 20: Frequency of agent types across the case study schools

In terms of the trends in the 156 agents that were identified across the four case study schools, there was a high frequency of employers (21) (see table below). The second most frequent agent type was universities (8). The provision of careers information was a common theme in the data as it was the activity focus for 36 agents (23%) of the total agents uncovered across the schools. These were the most frequent types found including employers, universities and colleges.

Agent Type	References
Employers	21
Universities / University staff	8
Colleges	6
Theatre groups	6
Football clubs	6
Charities	6
Artists	4
Police	4
Fire Service	4
Drama groups	3